



SILLIMAN JOURNAL

VOLUME 60 NUMBER 2 | JULY TO DECEMBER 2019

A JOURNAL DEVOTED TO DISCUSSION
AND INVESTIGATION IN THE HUMANITIES AND SCIENCES

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IN THIS ISSUE

Roann P. Alberto

Warlito S. Caturay Jr.

Jose Edwin C. Cubelo

Karlo Antonio G. David

Joan C. Generoso

Ronald B. Kinilitan

Jean Christine B. Ontal

Ginalyn A. Orillana

Myla June T. Patron

John Edgar C. Rubio

Jennifer Eve A. Solitana

Mary Ann M. Temprosa

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Contents

- 13 **Editorial Notes**
Warlito S. Caturay Jr.
- 15 **“Persons of a Common Destiny Become Brothers”:
Documenting Narratives of the Second World War in
Kidapawan**
Karlo Antonio G. David
- 59 **Relationship between Filipino ESL Learners’ Vocabulary
Learning Strategies and Vocabulary Ability**
Jennifer Eve A. Solitana, Joan C. Generoso
- 87 **Pormatibong Ebalwasyon na Pag-Aaral sa #Sulat V. 2:0:
Worksap Sa Pagsulat ng Diona**
Ronald B. Kinilitan, Jean Cristine V. Ontal,
Ginalyn A. Orillana
- 101 **Exploring Foreign Learners’ Language Anxiety: The Case
of Pre-University English Orientation Students**
John Edgar C. Rubio, Warlito S. Caturay Jr.,
Joan C. Generoso
- 119 **Human Well-Being for Sustainable Education: The
Perspective of Private Elementary School Teachers**
Mary Ann M. Temprosa
- 141 **Effectiveness of Biodiversity Conservation Campaign
Materials and Strategies in the Forest Ecosystem of
Carranglan, Nueva Ecija, Philippines**
Roann P. Alberto
- 175 **Factors Associated with Pesticide Use among Vegetable
Farmers in Negros Oriental, Philippines**
Jose Edwin C. Cubelo

NOTES SECTION

- 191 **Reflections on the Test Revision Process**
Myla June T. Patron



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Publication Guidelines

SILLIMAN JOURNAL welcomes submission of scholarly papers, research studies, brief reports in all fields from both Philippine and foreign scholars, but papers must have some relevance to the Philippines, Asia, or the Pacific. All submissions are refereed.

SILLIMAN JOURNAL is especially receptive to the work of new authors. Articles should be products of research taken in its broadest sense and should make an original contribution to their respective fields. Authors are advised to keep in mind that Silliman Journal has a general and international readership, and to structure their papers accordingly.

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Manuscripts of up to 10,000 words, including tables and references, should conform to the conventions of format and style exemplified in a typical issue of Silliman Journal. Documentation of sources should be discipline-based. Whenever possible, citations should appear in the body of the paper, holding footnotes to a minimum. Tables must be held to a maximum of five. Pictures or illustrations will be accepted only when absolutely necessary.

All articles must be accompanied by an abstract of 200 words and keywords of not more than ten words, and must use gender-fair language.

SILLIMAN JOURNAL likewise welcomes submissions of “Notes,” which generally are briefer and more tentative than full-length articles. Reports on work-in-progress, queries, updates, reports of impressions rather than research, responses to the works of others, even reminiscences are appropriate here.

SILLIMAN JOURNAL also accepts for publication book reviews and review articles.

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Editorial Notes

*“Research is formalized curiosity. It is poking
and prying with a purpose.”*
- Zora Neale Hurston

Welcome to the second issue of Silliman Journal 2019. The five articles featured in this issue illustrate how research is always purposive.

In the first article, Karlo Antonio G. David attempts to tell what happened to Kidapawan and its people during the War. To tell the story, he collects oral accounts from old residents and families, allowing him to record and preserve rich historical data.

Cognizant of the importance of vocabulary learning in language learning, Jennifer Eve A. Solitana, and Joan C. Generoso examine an aspect of the area. Their paper investigates whether the students’ reported vocabulary strategy use could have a link to a favorable performance in a vocabulary examination.

In their article, Ronald B. Kinilitan, Jean Cristine V. Ontal, and Ginalyn A. Orillana evaluate an outreach program of the Department of Filipino and Foreign Languages. Aimed to revive and popularize a traditional art form, the program is in its initial stages; thus, the researchers find the need to gauge its effectiveness.

Many factors affect language learning. Among these is language learning anxiety; hence, John Edgar C. Rubio, Joan C. Generoso, and

I investigate the levels of anxiety among international students who are learning English in a context where English is considered a second language.

Mary Ann M. Temprosa makes a descriptive survey of private elementary school teachers' perceptions of human well-being. By doing so, she attempts to bridge the knowledge gap on teacher well-being and to examine how this knowledge flows into the teaching and learning process.

In her article, Roann P. Alberto gauges the effectiveness of materials and strategies in conserving a forest ecosystem in Nueva Ecija. To do this, she uses questionnaires and analyzes the results descriptively and statistically.

Finally, Jose Edwin C. Cubelo examines the use of pesticides in agriculture. In his article, he seeks to determine the factors that lead vegetable farmers to choose pesticides as their primary pest control strategy in spite of many alternative strategies.

Aside from the five full-length articles, there is one entry to the Notes Section. In her essay, Myla June T. Patron reflects on a test revision process, a part of testing and assessment that she admittedly feels uncomfortable.

The cover art is courtesy of Negrense artist and fashion designer Dan Ryan E. Duran. The photo, which he took early in the morning, shows dew forming on a cobweb on a bed of leaves. He said that it seemed to represent hope that even with the absence of rain, water can still be collected in unexpected places; thus, he calls this "Morning's Blessings."

Happy reading!

Warlito S. Caturay Jr., PhD

Editor

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Persons of a Common Destiny Become Brothers: Documenting Narratives of the Second World War in Kidapawan

Karlo Antonio G. David

The present study sought to demystify the historiography of Kidapawan City, Cotabato Province, during the Second World War. It gathered surviving oral accounts of the War from some of the city's oldest residents and families, recording them before they are lost to posterity. Together with information gathered from both local archival text and published references, these narrative accounts were then presented to tell a general picture of Kidapawan and its people during the War, from occupation to liberation. Some sections were dedicated to incidents of note: tribal resistance and the Kollut poisonings in Maliri and Kamasi, the kidnapping of Juan Sibug, the assassination of Eliseo Dayao Sr., the escape of Lorenzo Saniel from death, the forced leadership and symbolic incarceration of the hostage-mayor Filomeno Blanco, the torture of Patadon Tungao, and the romance and tragedy of Hayao Nakamura. In particular, the last incident is important to Kidapawan history, as Nakamura's love affair and subsequent marriage with his secretary, Rosalina Madrid, led to a general "mellowing" of Japanese treatment to locals in Kidapawan. Many of these incidents and accounts see print for the first time with this study, and it is hoped more attention is given to them now that they have been recorded.

Keywords: Kidapawan, Local History, Second World War, Oral History, Tribal Resistance, Mindanao Guerrilla Movements

INTRODUCTION

In Kidapawan, the past is always hidden, as if shrouded in the fog that perpetually lingers over this city's highlands. To learn about it, one has to

go on a quest for it, almost always through the thickets of obscurity, following a labyrinthine trail of lead after lead, often just before it is forever forgotten. Sometimes, it is too late.

Memories of the Second World War are particularly hard to catch. Local archiving is poor, with the city government's archival documents dating only to 1948. And with its population concentrated in the 5 to 24 age group^[1], Kidapawan is seeing fewer and fewer citizens old enough to recall the town's experiences during one of the world's most significant historical upheavals. The lack of local historiography has contributed to and is perpetuated by the glaring absence of local history in local education. Even a World War can be forgotten in Kidapawan.

But stories of the Second World War linger, largely as oral tradition passed down among some of the city's old families (some families even have aging elders who lived through the period). There is a real danger; however, of these stories being lost forever as younger generations of the town's population show a lack of interest in local history. Transmission is becoming more and more unlikely, and if not appropriately recorded, accounts of war-time experiences will be lost to posterity.

The present study aimed to document these narratives directly from informants, adding to the still scarce body of Kidapawan City historiography, as well as to present literature about the Second World War in Mindanao.

A total of 17 informants were interviewed on varying dates over a span of three years, with informants coming from all three of Kidapawan's tri-peoples. Also, local archival documents were used as reference, and the details of many of them appear in publication for the first time in the present study.

These narratives, cross-referenced with one another and with local archival documents (and with other published sources), were then used as bases to present a general account of the Second World War as it unfolded in Kidapawan. Major incidents, especially those recounted by multiple informants independently and involving specific communities and important historical personalities, were given a section.

The ultimate aim of this study – part of a larger ongoing effort to write Kidapawan's history – was to save a town's collective memory before it was lost, and to start building a clearer picture of how the greatest war known to mankind unfolded in this town which has long ignored its own experiences.

1 As of 2017, the city's latest census

Brief Introduction to Kidapawan City

Kidapawan City is the provincial capital and the only city of the Cotabato Province (otherwise known as North Cotabato). It is part of the province's second congressional district and is one of five component cities of the SOCCSKSARGEN Region (Region 12).

With a population of 140,195 as of 2015, according to the Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA), Kidapawan is the third most populous unit of the province (after Pikit and Midsayap), and the sixth most populous town in Region 12. It has a population density of 390 people per square meter, above the average in the province.

To the city's east is Mount Apo, the tallest peak in the country. Kidapawan is one of the seven local government units that share Mount Apo, and its history, cultures, and industries are all intimately intertwined with the mountain.

There are several proposed folk etymologies to the toponym 'Kidapawan.' Most of them are spring-related: 'tiddopawan,' according to the late tribal historian Salomay Iyong (literally 'flowing over,' implying a spring) is one proposed etymology. Others are marriage-related, with another tribal source, Meding Ligue Mampo, citing the Monuvu wedding ritual of Lopawan (literally 'surmounting,' describing the series of ceremonial trials the groom must overcome) as the root of the town's name^[2].

Kidapawan's territory has been greatly reduced over the decades. The original area of Kidapawan, when it was created a municipality in 1947, extended from the Pulangi river in Kabacan to the west, the Matanao river bordering Davao to the east, Bukidnon province to the north, and Buluan to the south. By 1954, it was described as being "bigger than the province of Antique,"^[3] and "as big as Cavite and Rizal provinces"^[4].

This vast area was partitioned bit by bit, with the municipalities of M'lang carved out from its territories in 1951, Makilala in 1954, Matalam in 1961, Magpet in 1963, and President Roxas in 1967. Following further partitions from these breakaway towns, Kidapawan's historical territory is now composed of nine towns in the province: Kidapawan itself, M'lang, Makilala, parts of Matalam, Magpet, President Roxas, Tulunan (which was

2 The author has another forthcoming paper which discusses the topic in detail, 'Origins of the Toponym "Kidapawan": A Re-evaluation.'

3 Municipal Council Minutes, 19 June, 1954

4 Municipal Council Minutes, 18 December, 1954

formed from the territory taken from M'lang in 1961), Antipas (whose territory is taken from Matalam in 1980) and Arakan (with territory taken from Magpet in 1991). More than half of present-day North Cotabato Province was once part of Kidapawan, the province's capital since the province was carved out of the undivided Cotabato Province in 1973.

Its place in Region 12 (the Philippines' most linguistically diverse region) and North Cotabato (the second most linguistically diverse province in the country) gives Kidapawan an equally diverse population, with Cebuano being spoken as a lingua franca by a community that includes Tagalogs, Ilonggos, Ilocanos, Obo Monuvu, Maguindanaon, and Meranaw.

Kidapawan's City Planning and Development Office puts the tribal population of Kidapawan at 15,258, with 12,823 of that belonging to the Obo Monuvu tribe. Documentary evidence confirms that Kidapawan was originally an Obo Monuvu domain before colonization by the Americans in 1908 and remained largely so well until the Second World War outbreak. Founded as Municipal District in 1914, Kidapawan became a Municipality in 1947 and was converted into a city in 1998.

The Japanese Occupation of Kidapawan

There is a little local record of the Japanese coming into Kidapawan during the Second World War, and national and American records barely mention Kidapawan at all.

The first act of Japanese aggression in Mindanao was the air raid of Davao on 8 December 1941, barely a day after the bombing in Pearl Harbor. By 20 December, the Japanese had occupied Davao as the 101st Infantry Regiment offered little resistance^[5].

However, it seems there was limited expansion westward, as the occupation of Cotabato would not start until April of 1942^[6]. The Kawaguchi Detachment landed in Cotabato from Cebu on April 29, but this initial wave of Japanese invasion was repelled with the 2nd Infantry Regiment's efforts in Cotabato under the command of Lt. Col. Calixto Duque. Japanese reinforcements came to Cotabato and to Malabang on May 1. However, the resistance would be abruptly interrupted when on May 10, 1942, General

5 Explained briefly by Kent Holmes in *Wendell Fertig and His Guerrilla Forces in the Philippines: Fighting the Japanese Occupation, 1942-1945*

6 Andrea Villano-Campado, in *The Tuna Country at the Southern Edge of Mindanao: General Santos City, 1939-2000*, offers a useful explanation of the movements of the Japanese in the Cotabato region.

William Sharp, commander of the American forces in Mindanao, was ordered by General Jonathan Wainwright to surrender Mindanao to the Japanese. Sharp complied with the directive, but on top of his subordinate Wendell Fertig's refusal to obey the surrender, dozens of independent guerrilla outfits also emerged throughout the Cotabato region. These guerrilla movements were particularly strong in North Cotabato, and so as the Japanese entered the province, they were never fully able to take hold of any locale for long or keep their hold of it stable^[7]. What is known of the operations of those guerrillas in Kidapawan will be discussed in another section later.

Datu Basinon Ebboy of Meohao, who was a young boy^[8] when the War reached Kidapawan, recalls that the Japanese entered Kidapawan from the direction of Cotabato, consistent with this movement. He and many other respondents recall how, as Kidapawan remained remote and largely rural, Japanese penetration into Kidapawan was very limited.

Kidapawan was nevertheless occupied, as briefly recorded in Uldarico Baclagon's 1988 history of the guerrilla movement in Mindanao. By 1942, according to Baclagon's account, Kidapawan and M'lang had already been occupied, although what followed is constant tergiversation between the hands of the belligerent forces^[9].

The Japanese reorganized Philippine governance when they took control of the islands in 1942, implemented by a precarious allegiance between Japanese forces and the local elite that did not escape with Quezon (either as Japanese sympathizers with anti-American inclinations or leaders staying behind under orders from the Quezon government). This allegiance was formally organized into the Philippine Executive Commission in January 1942. The Japanese initially proposed to set up Artemio Ricarte as dictator, but the Executive Commission managed to negotiate the establishment of a republic instead. The Second Philippine Republic was inaugurated on October 14, 1943, with Jose P. Laurel as President^[10].

Like the 1935 Constitution of the Commonwealth, the 1943 Constitution did not contain too many provisions about local government. All that is mentioned in it is the power of the President to appoint mayors

7 Holmes' book on Wendell Fertig offers a more detailed account of the guerrilla movements in Mindanao and how Fertig sought to consolidate them under the Allied forces. At the same time, Uldarico Baclagon gives even more detail on how the guerrillas (especially those under the Pendatun-Matalam alliance) operated in Cotabato.

8 Datu Basinon, whose exact date of birth is not recorded, estimated his age was 83 when he was interviewed in 2017. This tergiversation, it must be noted, was not passed down in the town's oral history.

10 There is no shortage of sources on the administrative changes to the national government under Japanese Occupation. The work of Teodoro Agoncillo serves as helpful introduction.

and other local government offices and his power of supervision over all local government units.

Much of the local government reorganization was enacted by the Philippine Executive Commission before the declaration of the Second Republic. The Executive Commission released executive orders and department circulars while they were drafting the 1943 Constitution.

In particular, the PEC's Executive Order 43 of 1942 defined the organization, jurisdiction, powers, and duties of Municipal Governments and officials. Section 2 of this EO abolishes all extant municipal districts and elevates them to the municipality's status by merging them or annexing them with the nearest extant municipality. All records indicate that when the War came, the Cotabato province had only three extant municipalities, Dulawan, Midsayap and Cotabato, and the rest of the province was composed of Municipal Districts. It is unknown whether Kidapawan was elevated to a municipality, or was merged with a nearby municipality (Cotabato being the nearest). Indications from local accounts are that it had been elevated to municipality, as a reference to war-time leaders are as "mayors" or "alcalde," and not "district presidents," but G.R. No. L-49070, which documents the case of Valentin Turtal and is dated July 5, 1944, refers to Kidapawan as a Municipal District. Kidapawan's administrative status remains uncertain.^[11]

Section 9 of EO 43 provided for a municipal board with several councilors corresponding to the class of the municipality (four members for first to third class municipalities, only two members for fourth and fifth class). The boards were to be composed of the mayor of the municipal government and members appointed by the Commissioner of the Interior. There is no record as to what class Kidapawan had been as a municipal entity, nor are there any known informants who could identify any local figures appointed members of the municipal board.

Uldarico Baclagon's account of the guerrilla movement in Mindanao offers contradictory accounts on the administrative status of Kidapawan and its future territory of M'lang. Baclagon describes Kidapawan as a municipality with its own Japanese (and later Allied Forces) sponsored civilian government, but documents in his appendices refer to Kidapawan as a Municipal District. He also describes M'lang as its own Municipal

11 The inclusion of the barrio of M'lang, before 1947 was part of the Municipal District of Buluan, to Kidapawan's territory when Kidapawan became a Municipality, may have started in some form during the chaos of administrative arrangements during the War. I speculate M'lang's position as a guerrilla stronghold was a big factor in its addition to Kidapawan's territory after the War.

District with its building during the Japanese occupation, but Executive Order No. 82 of 1947 describes it as “a territory of the Municipal District of Buluan.” The informants consistently described the Japanese’s near-total control in the local governments they established, especially in the early days of occupation. If there were any locals appointed by the Second Republic, nobody paid much attention to them. The Japanese soldiers ran the town they occupied.

All accounts from the memories of the locals indicate that the Japanese garrison in Kidapawan was located in Barrio Lanao, centered in the current location of the Kidapawan City Water District (the corner of the highway leading to the Municipality of Magpet). Datu Basinon Ebboy additionally recalled that the camp extended to the current location of Manuel Hospital and occupied both sides of what is now the Davao-Cotabato road. Before the Japanese came, local sources indicate that the barrio of Manongol had served as the Municipal District seat [1], while elder informants describe Lanao as a pre-War center of trade and concentration of the Settler population.

Several names of commanding Japanese officers in Kidapawan are remembered. The first seemed to have been a Col. Ishikawa, identified by four independent sources (Magdalena Sanieel Cruz^[12], Rosita Blanco Cadungog^[13], Erlinda Villanueva Asuelo^[14], and Bonifacio Madrid^[15]). Ishikawa, according to informants, was followed by a Captain Hayao Nakamura. According to Bonifacio Madrid, only these two ever led the Japanese in Kidapawan, but Rosita Blanco Cadungog also recalls a certain Capt. Ono. Datu Lamberto Delfin of Mua-an, while recounting the tribal resistance in modern-day Antipas from what has been transmitted to him by late tribal elders, also mentioned an “Otaka Makuti.” To date, no archival documents were found which could provide more specific pictures of the Japanese leadership.

Tribal informant Abad Ladday of Indangan^[16] indicated that the Japanese could not speak the local languages nor English, and were reduced to pointing. In contrast, Rosita Blanco Cadungog and Bonifacio Madrid recalled that the Japanese communicated with the Filipinos in English

12 Who was 94 when interviewed in 2017

13 Who was in her 80s when interviewed in 2018

14 Who was 82 when interviewed in 2018

15 Who was 85 when interviewed in 2018 and who died five months after being interviewed

16 Like Datu Basinon his date of birth is not known, but his family estimated his age at 93 when he was interviewed in 2017

(Madrid saying that this is the case particularly with Hayao Nakamura, who spoke it fluently^[17]). Cadungog also recalled how the Japanese became so friendly with the locals that some took willing Filipina lovers (the case of Hayao Nakamura's romance with Rosalina Madrid, which will be discussed later, was particularly significant).

From Rosita Blanco Cadungog's, Magdalena Saniel Cruz's, and Bonifacio Madrid's accounts, and from other sources, it seems that there was a pattern of "mellowing" with regard to the treatment of the locals by the occupying Japanese forces.

Under Ishikawa (who led the Japanese in their first days in Kidapawan), locals experienced frequent violence and cruelty: Eliseo Dayao and Bitoy Encarnacion were liquidated when he was the commanding officer, and Lorenzo Saniel was nearly killed under his orders (the account of this incident will be discussed later). On top of the killings, forced labor and theft were the norms. Bonifacio Madrid described Ishikawa as a "savage," a man from the mountains in Japan.

Datu Melchor Bayawan interviewed an Ishikawa family in Pangao-an, in what is today the Municipality of Magpet, earlier this year. The Ishikawas of Pangao-an claim descent from a 'General Ishikawa,' whom they recall was one time stationed as an officer in Davao and who had the same reputation of cruelty as the Ishikawa described by informants in Kidapawan. The family can no longer recall if this Ishikawa was ever assigned in Kidapawan, so whether this is the same Ishikawa described by Kidapawan informants is still subject to further verification (the family is in Magpet because of the woman Ishikawa married, a Tagabawa woman whose family had property in Pangao-an).

It is not known how the Japanese in what is today Antipas were administratively related to those in Lanao, but the accounts of Datu Lamberto Delfin from there also indicate cannibalism might have taken place: the Obo Monuvu used the term "Okinawa" to refer to particularly barbaric soldiers, described as hairier than the others, and who were feared because they ate human livers. The Ishikawas of Pangao-an Magpet also recount that their ancestor, who was known to have been assigned in Davao, once ate a human being's ear. More research is needed to verify these bits of oral tradition from the War, and to see how frequent and how widespread cannibalism among

17 Madrid was the last person alive to have met Nakamura.

the Japanese might have been in North Cotabato.

Aside from these Japanese officers, Magdalena Saníel Cruz cited one name as the Filipino leader of the local government under the Japanese, Filomeno Blanco. How Blanco became mayor of Kidapawan will be discussed later.

In Uldarico Baclagon's account of the guerrilla movement, it is implied that Kidapawan had to be retaken by the Japanese in 1943. On October 10, 1942, Salipada Pendatun's forces retook M'lang without much resistance, and from there the guerrillas proceeded to Kidapawan, first arriving in Amas, where Victoriano Valle, described as the 'chief of police of Kidapawan,' met them 'with 17 rifles^[18],' and by 15 October, 1942, Pendatun would enter Kidapawan and raise the American and Philippine flag. But three days later, he would depart to respond to reports that there were Japanese forces on the border with Davao (then still part of Kidapawan), and on his return from the border to Kidapawan, he and his men had an encounter with Japanese forces, implying that the Japanese were still in Kidapawan despite losing control of the territory. When Pendatun departed from Kidapawan to Kabacan on October 23, 1942, he left Fransisco Buyao in charge of Kidapawan, but nothing is known of Buyao's fate after this. Thereafter, Kidapawan is described as a direction from where Japanese forces would come, implying that by early 1943, they had retaken it from the guerrillas.

M'lang remained for the most part in guerrilla hands since it was liberated on October 10, 1942 (but for a period starting from December 1, 1943, when it was retaken and the guerrillas had to move to Dungoon). The Japanese retaking of M'lang started on March 9, 1943, when eight bombs were dropped, leading to one civilian dead^[19]. The Japanese would hold M'lang until some time in 1944 when Baclagon records vaguely that the guerrillas had retaken it and made it into a sanctuary for civilians from Buluan. By September 9, 1944, M'lang was secure enough for Pendatun to deliver a speech in its market and lead a 'public forum' in its municipal building^[20].

The eastern barangays in what is today Makilala were constant battlegrounds. Kisante, which saw a guerrilla company outpost established on October 21, 1942, would be the site of frequent encounters (one at the end of

18 It is not mentioned if this led to an encounter or if it was reinforcement, what is known from the account of Magdalena Saníel Cruz is that Valle would later be a guerrilla leader

19 Magdalena Saníel Cruz recalls such a bombing when she was in M'lang, and mentions that the first husband of Esparanza Sabulao was the casualty. It is not known if this was that bombing.

20 M'lang's local historians should ascertain if this is the same municipal building of the town today.

February 1943 involving the unit of a Lt. F delos Santos which saw 15 Japanese soldiers killed, and another on June 18, 1943 involving the company of a Lt. Mauro Villanueva, who killed 46 Japanese soldiers while being holed up in a chapel). Lamitan, what is Makilala's Poblacion today, also saw air bombing by the Japanese on February 25, 1943, injuring one civilian. This became the picture throughout much of 1943 with guerrillas ambushing Japanese forces (mostly coming from Kidapawan) and the Japanese conducting airstrikes in retaliation. Aside from modern-day Makilala, Baclagon records an ambush in Lanao by guerrillas on February 4, 1943 (killing seven Japanese soldiers) and six bombs being dropped by the Japanese in Mateo ten days later, with no damage.

Aside from the aforementioned acts of conflict, which Baclagon records, there is a very poor record of the Japanese occupation, so little is known of the total damage inflicted by the Japanese in their apparently intermittent stay in Kidapawan. In Post-War Municipal Council Minutes, the newly elected first Municipal Council repeatedly petitioned the War Damage Commission and the Provincial Board of the Cotabato Province to provide funds for the repair of several buildings. Resolution 80 of 1949 called the attention of the Provincial Board of the then undivided Cotabato Province to the as yet unclaimed War Damage Claim of the municipal building. Resolution 96 of 1949 made representation to the War Damage Commission to facilitate claims on schools in the barrios of Lanao, Saguing, M'lang, Paco, Amas, Lamitan, Malasila, Bulatucan, Tagbac, Malasila, Mua-an, Indangan, and the Kidapawan Elementary school (what is today Kidapawan City Pilot Central Elementary School), and so these schools are presumed to have also been destroyed by the Japanese.

There are also very poor records on the casualties of the War, although Datu Basinon Ebboy recalls that the Japanese forced locals, Monuvu and settler alike, to work in the vegetable fields they set up (the Sibug family recalls that this also included a wide Abaca plantation, stretching from the road leading to Magpet all the way to the Saguing river). Locals who failed to work as hard as the Japanese expected, according to Datu Basinon, were routinely killed, many in the current location of Gaisano Grand Mall in Barangay Lanao (which informant Magdalena Sanial Cruz said was a favored execution area by the Japanese).

More research is needed to give a clearer death toll, and a list of casualties,

in Kidapawan during the War. Only two names have been gathered from informants as of those killed by the Japanese: Bitoy Encarnation and Judge Eliseo Dayao Sr.

The only source to remember Bitoy Encarnation was Datu Basinon Ebboy, who recalls that Encarnation was from Saguing and was part of a group of voluntary civil officers who ransacked the Japanese camp. This group stole goods from the camp, with Encarnation stealing a sack of salt. When the Japanese soldiers caught him in possession of the salt, he was beheaded.

The only person to have been killed in Kidapawan by the Japanese during the War whose murder was recorded (albeit casually) in a contemporary document was the father of Celerina Sabas, in the case involving Sabas' murdered husband. His name, however, is not recorded.

This case, G.R. No. L-49070, also recorded how due process still seemed to have been somewhat observed in Kidapawan, specially in the later days of occupation. The case, dated July 5, 1944, involved the murder of Luis Edlawan in Mateo, with Valentin Turtal, the leader of a guerrilla outfit who surrendered to the Japanese on April 22, 1943, having been convicted by the Court of First Instance in Cotabato of the murder. The conviction was made on the basis of the victim's widow, 19-year-old Celerina Sabas, who also claimed that Turtal was her lover and Turtal's own confession. But the Supreme Court, under Chief Justice Jose Yulo, overturned this verdict, citing the inconsistencies in Sabas' testimony and Turtal's confession being made under torture – Turtal was recorded saying he signed the confession for fear he would meet the same fate as Eliseo Dayao and Sabas' father. The mentioned constabulary members (presumably under the supervision of the Japanese) involved in the case were Corporal Asisclo Gimenez (who headed the squad that first responded to the murder) and Inspector Leopoldo Puno (who was described as the company commander and who oversaw Turtal's confession).^[21] The case offers a glimpse of what seems to be the maintenance of due process under the Japanese Occupation, but also the torture and frame-up that may have been the norm at the time.

Caves and the Kollut Poisonings: The Obo Monuvu during the

21 The names of Puno and Gimenez are also the only ones recorded of local men working for the constabulary under the Japanese.

War

One sector of society, one which until recently actually composed the majority of Kidapawan's population, did not experience this due process: the indigenous Obo Monuvu people.

The experiences of the Obo Monuvu during the Second World War have been transmitted to posterity almost entirely in oral form, with very few written accounts documenting it. There are certainly no documentary accounts of what the tribe experienced contemporary to the War. What they recount are stories of fear, forced labor, theft, and murder by the Japanese soldiers.

According to the account of Paniki Falls Eco-Park Tourguide Renante Canlas^[22], whose mother belongs to the Monuvu Adang clan of the upland Ilomavis-Balabag area, the Monuvu in the area of Sitio Mook in Baranggay Balabag (location of the Paniki Falls Eco Park) hid in Paniki Cave upon the coming of the Japanese. This case was confirmed by Datu Melchor Umpan Bayawan (citing his own parents)^[23], who added that the Monuvu also hid in the cave because the American aircrafts often flew too close to the ground. The Japanese hardly reached the Ilomavis-Balabag area, with the few reaching so far upland often ending up being killed by the bohani (tribal warriors) of the villages there.

Down in the plains, the picture was different for the Monuvu. As mentioned previously, Datu Basinon Ebboy recounted the forced labor of Monuvu by the Japanese, although many Monuvu were able to evade this by fleeing deep into the woods or going upland.

This is not to say there was no indigenous resistance. In fact, the most clever such act in this guerrilla haven perhaps actually came from the indigenous peoples: the Kollut Poisonings.

The primary source for the Kollut Poisonings is Datu Lamberto Delfin of Mua-an^[24]. Datu Delfin recounted an incident in Maliri and Kamasi, in what is today the Municipality of Antipas, in which the natives took advantage of Japanese barbarity.

22 Interviewed in 2019

23 The Adang and Umpan families both descend from the semi-legendary Apao, who in tribal memory was the first Monuvu to climb Mt Apo and whose descendants now hold the Ancestral Domain title of the uplands of Kidapawan.

24 Another tribal leader, Datu Melchor Bayawan, conducted the actual interview and sent me transcripts

The Japanese soldiers - whom Datu Lamberto described as being under the command of an Otaka Makuti^[25] – had the habit of stealing all the root crops that the Monuvu would carry as they travelled.

Seeing this, the natives decided to one day bring Kollut instead of sweet potatoes.

Kollut (*Dioscorea hispida*) is a poisonous yam that can only be eaten after being subjected to several tedious processes. In the 2005 book *A Voice from Mt. Apo*, the late tribal ethnographer Tano Bayawan describes Kollut as a famine food, eaten only when the rice harvest fails. Bayawan listed different ways to make this wild root crop edible: a combination of soaking the sliced roots in running water, drying it in the sun, and burying it in ash for up to a week.

The proper preparation of Kollut was unknown to the Japanese soldiers, who as usual took the root crops from the passing Monuvu and ate them unprocessed. As the soldiers collapsed and stopped moving, the natives took the opportunity to hack them to death.

Datu Lamberto gives the names of Datu Dumakon and Datu Somaliray as some of the bohani who led in the killing of Japanese soldiers.

In his 2014 book *Davao Cuisine: Recipes of the 10 tribes of Davao City*, the historian Macario Tiu records a similar anecdote by the Obo Monuvu in Davao, although unlike the anecdote recounted by Datu Lamberto, his account is not as detailed. The idea of deceiving the Japanese soldiers during the War may have arrived independently in different places in Mindanao.

Near the end of the War, recounted Datu Melchor Bayawan from tribal memory, the Americans and the Japanese engaged in aerial combat over Mua-an. One uncle of Datu Melchor, Linsay “Ommow” Umpan (now in his 70s), was months old during this encounter. In the panic, the baby Linsay was squeezed between a closing door. This trauma, the tribe believed, caused the baby’s tongue to contract (“*niok-ok ang dila*” in Cebuano). His nickname, “Ommow,” is Monuvu for mute, and he remains unable to speak to this day.

E. Arsenio Manuel’s account of the Monuvu during the War

The little documentary information on the life of the Monuvu during the Second World War comes from Espiridion Arsenio Manuel’s 1976 book *Manuvu Social Organization*. The anthropological book, whose scope of the

25 The name does not seem to fully conform to Japanese phonology, so it is most likely a mishearing.

study was in the Dallag-Basyaw-Lumut area (an area then at the northernmost reaches of Kidapawan), includes accounts of cases in tribal customary law. Several of these cases took place under Japanese occupation. From them, a vague picture of life during the War for the Monuvu could be pieced together.

The Philippine military and guerrillas used the area of Manuel's study as a hideout during the War, and there they were accommodated by the Monuvu under the leadership of Datu Duyan Suhat (one of the main subjects of Manuel's study). "It is estimated," writes Manuel, "that about a thousand of them [soldiers and guerrillas] received hospitable treatment for three years." The Japanese on the Davao side made roads to the area, and when the Americans landed in Davao in 1945, they fled to this interior.

As is demonstrated in Manuel's Case No. 28, Manuel notes how the coming of the Japanese became a marker of time for the Bilangan, the pre-calendar system of ethno-historical reckoning, which involved counting the number of years that passed from major events in the past. The case was identified as happening "six years before the Japanese came [ca. 1936]."

Manuel recorded major changes to the lives of the Monuvu following the War: a marked decline in the inter-village warfare which once dominated life for the tribe, a disappearance of divisions of functions in the tribal leadership (and a decline in the martial role of the datu), the increased politicization of the datu as the tribe negotiated its place in the Post-War Republic, and an overall increase in the complexity of the social organization. Although he notes these developments because doing so was not his research concern, he does not make detailed discussions as to how the War influenced them^[26].

One change that Manuel observed was that the War brought in settler "squatters," complicating tribal land ownership. Kidapawan Councilor Lino Madrid echoed this decade before Manuel in his 1952 brief history of Kidapawan, in which he described people who evaded the Japanese in Davao decided to stay permanently in Kidapawan after the War.^[27]

Manuel also notes that the Japanese "decimated" many Monuvu families,

26 Historical accounts in such sources as Boi Era España's *Poovian woy Gontangan* indicate that many of these changes happened before the War in other places, such as in the seat of the Municipal District. Manuel made the mistake of assuming the conditions he documented in his area were uniform across Monuvu country. The incorporation of tribal leadership in the colonial political structure during the establishment of the Municipal District is a rich subject for future anthropological study.

27 The use of the term "squatters" here to refer to Settlers arises from the Manila government's ignoring of ancestral domain and titling of lands in Kidapawan before the War without consulting the Monuvu who originally owned them. These "squatters" actually entered into bona fide transactions with these Monuvu, recognizing indigenous land ownership. How the War complicated the concept of imminent domain in Kidapawan is the rich subject of another study.

although it was also beyond his research scope, so he did not document their names and the cause of their slaughter.

Three of the 50 cases Manuel recorded happened during the War (in actuality this may be more, as many of the cases are undated).

In Case No. 3, Manuel records that the couple Ondag Pion of Saaysay and his wife Boning Imbak fled Tambuvung (in Davao) when the Japanese came and evacuated to Kidapawan.

Case No. 19 notes that the Japanese still occupied Ipuan, Magpet, in 1944 (though the personality in the case, Manga-an Mavayyang, was able to avoid them, nevertheless suffering from economic difficulty).

Case No. 26 records how Sumin of Kidapawan^[28] evacuated to Kiyaab (today in the Municipality of Antipas) to flee the Japanese. There, his brother-in-law Duyan Batu killed Sumin's wife Batooy, prompting Sumin to hire his son-in-law Sumok Tumanding to kill Duyan in 1944. The resulting panavuk (restitution) for Duyan's murder, Manuel records enigmatically, was then delivered by Sumin "to the alcalde of Kidapawan who fixed the case" (the involvement in a customary law dispute implied this "alcalde" was a Monuvu datu, Datu Siawan Ingkal). This case, along with the details of Datu Duyan Suhat's life during the time, implied that although major changes were ongoing, many aspects of life during the War continued as before and well after the Japanese left.

The Kidnapping of Juan Sibug

A significant incident involving the Monuvu people, which remained hitherto unrecorded, involved one of the tribe's most important historical figures, the last Monuvu mayor of Kidapawan, Atty. Juan Sibug. The primary information on this incident is sourced from Juan Sibug's widow, Erlinda Aresgado Sibug^[29].

Juan "Johnny" Sibug was born in Manongol on June 26, 1932, the eldest of eight children. On his father's side, he was a Kapampangan, while on his mother, he was Monuvu. His father, Arsenio, sat as a councilor on Kidapawan's first Municipal Council, while his mother Lourdes, named Limpayen, before she was baptized, was the daughter of Datu Guabong, and through her, he was related to a large clan of tribal chieftains.

28 In archival documents in Kidapawan, the name is Datu Sumin Ugok. He is one of three datus who serve as namesakes for a Kidapawan barangay, Sudapin.

29 Who was interviewed in 2017

A Sillimanian, Sibug passed the Bar in 1956 (when he was twenty-four), becoming the first person of Monuvu descent from Kidapawan to become a lawyer, and to date, the only lawyer to ever serve as Mayor of Kidapawan^[30].

According to the family of the late mayor, Juan's father Arsenio worked as a merchant during the War, maintaining what could be described as a cordial relationship with the Japanese authorities. The specifics of this relationship are lost to time, but the Aresgado family – neighbors of the Sibugs in barrio Lanao and family of Juan's wife Erlinda – recalls that at some point, it turned sour (also for reasons now unknown).

One day the Japanese came looking for Arsenio, and when he could not be found, they took Juan (then still a boy) and held him hostage, telling his family to let Arsenio know they had his son. The Sibug family believes Juan Sibug may have been the youngest prisoner of war during World War II. He would have been then when the Japanese came in 1942 and would be in his early teens when they left in 1945.

Sibug's family described him as saying he was taken as a young man by the Japanese to Padada, Davao del Sur, where he was forced into labor. He was there in Padada when the Americans bombed it as part of the liberation of Davao (records show there was an air bombing in Padada on February 3, 1945).

In the chaos, a Monuvu man recognized the young man as a grandson of a tribal chieftain in Kidapawan, and so the man took him to safety. When Juan and the Monuvu man who saved him reached Bansalan, they met Arsenio, who was startled to see his son all the way in Davao.

Tribal sources such as Boi Leticia Mijarez Lumanog of Nuangan^[31] say that later in his life, Juan would repeatedly try to learn the name of the Monuvu man who saved him but was ultimately unable to know the man's identity.

The Assassination of Eliseo Dayao Sr.

Sibug was lucky to have survived the incident, for as previously mentioned, not everyone was equally fortunate. The tragic case of Eliseo Dayao Sr., in

30 Information on Sibug's academic background and career comes from his surviving curriculum vitae, typewritten at an uncertain date by Sibug himself and in the possession of his widow. Arsenio's and Juan's careers as politicians (as well as that of Juan's brother Joseph, who would serve as vice mayor in the 1970s) are well documented in the surviving minutes of the Municipal Council sessions.

31 Who was present when Erlinda Aresgado Sibug was interviewed in 2017

particular, was especially well known. Among all the casualties of the War that remain largely undocumented, perhaps none were as prominent as his.

The primary information on the details relating to Eliseo Dayao's life and death comes from his last surviving daughter, Elma Dayao Yaoto^[32], who recounted information as transmitted to her by her now deceased mother and siblings.

A Tagalog, Eliseo Dayao grew up in Malolos, Bulacan and studied at the University of the Philippines College of Law. He became a lawyer in 1924. Ten years later, in 1934, he was made a Justice of the Peace and was assigned in Mindanao. Administrative Order 60 of 1938 lists his jurisdiction as "Pikit, Pagaluñgan, Silik, Carmen, Kabacan, Balatican, Danisilan, Kidapawan, and Kitubud, Province of Cotabato."

Elma Dayao Yaoto recounted how he was based in Pikit during his tenure, but at some point was given land by one of Kidapawan's tribal chieftains, Datu Angud Icdang. The land given is today much of Kidapawan's commercial area, including the Mega Market.

At some point in his stay in Pikit, Dayao met Manuela Velarde, who was a daughter of one of the settlers' families in the agricultural colony founded by the Americans there. They married and had fifteen children.

In 1936, Eliseo's brother Pablo had been involved in a case of robbery against the Deputy Provincial Treasurer and was accused of stealing 30,000 pesos (a very large amount at the time). Eliseo had refused to intervene and was accused of coaching his brother how to defend himself in court, "and further advising Pablo Dayao not to make any oral or written declaration except through his attorney." For giving his brother this advice and refusing to perform his duties by arresting his brother, Eliseo was dismissed at the urging of then Governor Capt. Dionisio Gutierrez in 1938 (via Manuel L. Quezon's Administrative Order 60).

There is no record as to what Eliseo had been doing after his dismissal. His family does not remember that he was ever dismissed, but they maintain that he was still serving as a judge when the Japanese came. A full decade after he was dismissed, the street that was built on his land was still named "Judge Dayao Street," indicating the dismissal might not have ended his career.

It is certain, however, that he continued to play an important role in the local community. As the case of the murder of Luis Edlawan indicated,

32 Who was 79 when interviewed in 2016

Kidapawan maintained a judicial system, so it would be reasonable to speculate that he may have been reinstated as a jurist.

When the Japanese came, recounted Elma (citing her mother Manuela), Dayao secretly gave aid and information to the guerrillas fighting the Japanese. This implied that he was in a position prominent enough to be able to gather information.

Then, on an undated day in 1942, Dayao was said to have been seen handing a note to a known guerrilla from his left chest pocket. This act was evidently reported to the Japanese. On November 19, 1942, he was on his way from Pikit when he was ambushed in barrio Lanao. He was never found again, and it became consensus in the town that he had been executed. Dayao's body was never found.

As the previously mentioned case of Valentin Turtal indicates, Dayao's death became notorious, a byword for the atrocities of the Japanese. Other informants, such as Magdalena Saniel Cruz, independently confirm the notoriety of the incident.

In the aftermath of the murder, Dayao's family was taken away by the guerrillas and hidden for their own safety. Manuela and their children would survive the War, and Manuela herself would later remarry. One of Dayao's sons, Eliseo V. Dayao Jr., would serve as Municipal Councilor in 1989.

The memory of Dayao was forgotten throughout much of Kidapawan history until 2018 when he was posthumously granted the Medal of Honour under the Kidapawan Heroes Award by the local government.

The Torture of Patadon Tungao

Not all casualties during the War were deaths. The case of the war hero Datu Patadon Tungao shows that the Japanese also routinely engaged in torture. Like most personalities in Kidapawan history, published information on Patadon is scarce. But he left behind several documents which shed some light on his colorful life.

Born in Dulawan (what is today Datu Piang, Maguindanao) in 1900^[33], Patadon was the son of Tungao, a scion of the Sultanate of Linantangan. Through Tungao's father Sandigan, Patadon is descended from Rajamuda Abpel (who fought the Spaniards with Anwaruddin Utto), and through him

33 The exact date of his birth is not known. His personal details are recorded in the surviving personal record that remains in the possession of his family.

ultimately to the Royal Houses of Buayan and Maguindanao^[34]. Saladong Piang is listed on his surviving personal record as his wife, although it is known that he had other wives.

Patadon was not actually in Kidapawan during the War, but according to the local historian Ferdinand Bergonia, he already had links to Kidapawan in 1937, and he would settle in the town after the War with his family. Today a barangay in Kidapawan is named after him.

During the War, Patadon became a 3rd Lieutenant of the Infantry, first serving in Davao in January 1942 under the United States Army Forces in the Far East (USAFFE)'s 101st Division. In September 1943, he was stationed in his birth town of Dulawan under the 2nd Battalion of the 119th Infantry Regiment. Patadon's personal record notes that at the time, Dulawan was under enemy territory. He was recorded working "as the undercover man for the USFIP against the Japanese Forces and the Puppet Republic."

There is abundant information on Patadon's arrest and subsequent torture, sourced directly to him, as an July 8, 1945 letter he wrote to then Captain Gumbay Piang^[35] survives and is still in possession of his family.

While in Dulawan, Patadon reports, a fellow anti-Japanese agent, Pindalilang Piang, was arrested by the Japanese. Patadon sought to negotiate his release, but while there, he himself was arrested on December 25, 1943 by a Filipino named Borja and a Japanese officer named Major Matsumoto.

When he was taken to the jail in Cotabato City, a Captain Kobayashi showed him documents he had written in his time with the USAFFE in Davao (including a letter in which Patadon reported abuses by the Japanese in Paidu-Pulangi), then he was tortured to make him confess to writing the documents. "Captain Kobayashi slapped me on my head, face, nose, and ears, which bled profusely," wrote Patadon, "it was worst on my eyes, which swelled for ten days." He never confessed.

More of his letters and documents were shown to Patadon as 1944 started, and again he refused to admit writing them. He was then subjected to further torture: he "whipped in the mouth" (losing four of his teeth),

34 A tarsila (genealogy) of the Sultanate of Linangtangan was recently made public, citing Tungao as the great-great grandson of Papanok Mupat Batua sa Balt, first Sultan sa Linantangan. The genealogy of the Maguindanaon sultanate recorded by Najib Saleeby (and expanded by Amir Baraguir), plus genealogies made available online by the current members of the Royal House of Buayan, lists Papanok as the great-great-grandson of Rajah Baratamay of Buayan as well as a great-grandson of Putri Milagandi, daughter of the first sultan of Maguindanao Shariff Kabunsuan.

35 The letter was written as Patadon's report to Piang, his superior, as he reported back for duty. I obtained a copy through the Kidapawan City Tourism Office, which received a copy after the Patadon family nominated him for the Kidapawan Heroes Award.

hanged by the hands while a ballot box – containing an iron ball inside – hung from his neck, and had his beard dabbed with oil and set on fire. Dirty water was pumped into his mouth before spiked shoes were used to kick his stomach (leading him to vomit the dirty water with blood). Then a piece of coconut midrib taken from a walis tingting was embedded into his urethra. The torture started in December of 1944 and continued until May 1945. In March of 1945, Patadon and other political prisoners were transferred from Cotabato to Muntinlupa in Manila, but the worse of the torture continued in the capital.

Aside from writing the documents, Patadon was also forced to confess to other things: serving as a spy for Gumbay Piang, killing Japanese spies in the Allied camp in Dalican (today in the Municipality of Datu Odin Sinsuat), and burning a Japanese controlled sawmill and other essential supplies in Tamayong Sirib (now in Davao City). He was also forced to tag Ugalingan Piang as a guerrilla. He never confessed to anything.

In his letter, Patadon mentions how Kobayashi, and later a Captain Nakano, repeatedly cite Datu Sinsuat (presumably Sinsuat Balabaran) and Duma Sinsuat (Sinsuat's son)^[36] as sources for the information they want Patadon to confirm. He recounts the deplorable living conditions under incarceration both in Cotabato and in Manila (they were frequently put in isolation and darkness and fed nothing but dirty water with cassava pulp). He also reports how he saw prisoners were put in front of the firing squad every day, almost on the whim of the jailer.

The Japanese sentenced Patadon to ten years and hard labor in Manila, but he was repeatedly threatened with death. In one instance, he was among a group of prisoners sent to be shot before the warden changed his mind and replaced him with someone else.

Liberation came in Manila on February 5, 1945, and the Japanese abandoned the prison in which Patadon was detained. From Muntinlupa, Patadon was taken to the hospital by the Americans and given regular meals. In his letter, he waxes lyrical about chocolate and cigarettes.

On June 1, 1945, when Patadon had completely recovered, he sailed from Manila to Cebu on a ship named Thomas Liberty. From Cebu, Patadon traveled down south on his own, making stopovers in Argao, Siquijor,

36 The roles of the Sinsuats and other Maguindanaon leaders during the Second World War are discussed in detail by Thomas M. McKenna in *Muslim Rulers and Rebels: Everyday Politics and Armed Separatism in the Southern Philippines*.

Misamis Occidental, before arriving in Iligan. From Iligan, he traveled to Marawi (staying for a while in Camp Keithley, where he met Sultan Batu Ali) before heading to Cotabato.

Patadon took this journey leisurely, and in his letter, he described in detail the generosity he received from people when they learned that he was a prisoner of war. Most of his travel back to Cotabato was free, and along the way, he received many gifts and much money. “Perhaps,” Patadon reflects in his letter to Gumbay Piang, “persons of a common destiny or misfortune become brothers.”

But he was saddened to learn upon returning to Cotabato that one of his wives and three of his children, as well as his guerrilla brother Lt. Hadji Guimaludin Tungao, had died during his absence.

According to Ferdinand Bergonia, Patadon and his family settled in Kidapawan in 1946, in the land bequeathed to them by Datu Siawan Inkal. In his post-War life in Kidapawan, he became a leader of the Muslim community, encouraging many of the city’s Muslim families to move to Kidapawan and even campaigning in 1955 to have more Muslims in the local police force.

The area where Patadon’s family lived became a barrio named after him, and he became its first barrio lieutenant, a position he held until his death on April 22, 1961. On his death, the Kidapawan Municipal Council paid tribute to him through Council Resolution No. 16 of April 24, 1961, a resolution which described him as “one of those few brave and adventurous men who founded the Municipality of Kidapawan.” Like Dayao, Patadon’s memory would be forgotten by much of Kidapawan outside his family, until he was posthumously granted the Medal of Honour under the Kidapawan Heroes Award by the local government in 2018.

One of Patadon’s grandchildren, Rukaya Patadon, would become Kidapawan’s first and to date only Muslim Councilor when she represented the Kabataang Baranggay in 1980.

Filomeno Blanco, The Hostage-Mayor

Not everybody was like Dayao and Patadon, who went against the Japanese. Perhaps Kidapawan’s most prominent “collaborator” was its Japanese-backed mayor, Filomeno Blanco Sr.

Although independent sources (such as the city's extant short historical profiles and the account of Magdalena Sanial Cruz) mention him as a War-time mayor, the primary source of information on the life and appointment of Filomeno Blanco Sr. was his daughter (and last surviving child), Rosita Blanco Cadungog. It was from her that the major facts of Blanco's life presented here are taken.

According to Cadungog, Filomeno Blanco Sr. was born on November 22, 1905 in Roxas, Capiz. A farmer, Blanco sought a better life in Mindanao with his wife, Adoracion Fajardo, first landing in Parang before arriving in Pigcawayan in 1937, whereupon Rosita was born. Shortly before the War came, the Blancos then moved to Kidapawan, settling in Barrio Saguin in what is today the Municipality of Makilala.

When the Japanese came, recalled Cadungog, the Blancos were among the majority of local families in the town who sought to flee from the Japanese, in the case of the Blancos hiding in the PAMDEVCO (Pamintuan Development Corporation) estate^[37]. This did not prove to be a good idea, as the Japanese forces quickly caught them.

Although only being able to finish his first year of high school, Blanco was described by his daughter as an articulate man, and the Japanese also observed that he commanded some respect among the locals. So the Japanese command gave him a position of responsibility. The position has been identified by Cadungog, as well as by Magdalena Sanial Cruz and by extant attempts by past local governments to write Kidapawan's history, as "mayor," although I have yet to get hold of documents which confirm and give detail to Blanco's appointment as such.

Cadungog characterized her father's appointment as mayor as practically a case of hostage-taking. Locals who were rounded up by the Japanese for suspected subversion were brought to Barrio Lanao. But owing to the lack of any place in which to detain them, the Japanese allowed them to live freely in Kidapawan instead of keeping them in place by threatening to behead the entire Blanco family if they ran away. The captives obeyed out of concern for the Blancos, and so the Blancos were left untouched.

Cadungog also gave a glimpse into the day-to-day workings of Kidapawan under the Japanese. She recalls the family being given several houses: a house in Lanao where her father worked and a 'safe house' in what

37 I have yet to determine the exact location of this estate.

is now Baranggay Sudapin. Near the latter, she recounts, was a Japanese school, where the Japanese taught Nihonggo and calisthenics, a school she had to attend (Bonifacio Madrid, though recalls another school, perhaps an earlier one, set up near the Japanese garrison in Lana). Everyone – including the children – had to follow a rigidly timed daily routine.

How the nominal mayor of Kidapawan at the time functioned in the management of these schools and of the whole town is now lost to Cadungog's and the town's memory. What is certain is that I could not find any informant who would put culpability on Blanco for any atrocity the Japanese soldiers committed in the town.

Documentary evidence is scarce at best, but Cadungog put her father's time as mayor of Kidapawan under the Japanese for the entirety of their occupation of the place, and he was only relieved when Kidapawan was liberated by Allied forces. The historical feature on the 1989 Municipal Fiesta Souvenir Program (one of several attempts by the local government to write the town's history) puts his term from 1943 to 1944, although it does not cite its source for these years.

Upon liberation, Cadungog recalled, Filomeno was convicted of sedition by the restored Commonwealth government. But Cadungog and the Blanco family saw this as a largely symbolic conviction, as Blanco was merely made to sleep in incarceration in Pikit for a night. Cases of such symbolic one-night convictions of local war criminals after liberation would be an interesting subject for future studies.

By Cadungog's account, Filomeno lived a very productive life after the War, though he never sought to return to public life. He continued to prosper as a farmer, first setting up a farm that included abaca, rice, and corn, as well as setting up a rice and corn mill (indeed, the 1952 Cotabato Guidebook lists Filomeno Blanco as owner of a mill in Saguing). The business was successful enough for him to be able to raise two of his five children to pursue careers as engineers, with Cadungog working as a teacher, migrating to California in 1991. Filomeno's only return to public life would be as the first manager of the Farmers Cooperative Marketing Association (FACOMA) in Kidapawan. He died at the age of 63 on August 25, 1968 and was buried in his house in Saguing.

The Escape of Lorenzo Saniel

While Blanco was the nominal head of the local government under the Japanese, another local leader (who would in later years succeed him as Mayor of Kidapawan) managed to escape death from the hands of the occupying soldiers: Lorenzo Saniel.

The primary source for the life and escape from the death of Saniel was his last surviving daughter, Magdalena Saniel Cruz, who had lived through some of the most dramatic moments.

Lorenzo Abear Saniel was born in Argao, Cebu on October 29, 1890, the son of Jose Saniel, who had been gobernadorcillo in Argao under the Spanish twice. Lorenzo was a scion of Argao's network of political families, and it was unsurprising that he would continue the family tendency towards politics when he moved to Mindanao.

Although only finishing high school, Saniel was intelligent enough to work as a teacher, and in 1913 he and his wife Julianna (also a teacher and a relative of Argao politicians) moved to Pikit as part of the American government's agricultural colonies project in Mindanao. By the time he arrived in Mindanao, Lorenzo already had two children (the first two of a total of thirteen). The youngest among his children, Magdalena Saniel Cruz, recalled how her father continued the family's links to politics in Pikit, where Lorenzo had served as a councilor. While working as a politician and teacher, Saniel also cultivated sugarcane in the colony.

The Saniels had to leave Pikit because of a devastating locust infestation that destroyed their sugarcane crop, moving to Pantukan in what is today Davao de Oro before finally settling in Kidapawan in 1935 (he had bought land from Datu Siawan Ingal).

Magdalena Saniel Cruz claimed that Lorenzo continued his political activity in Kidapawan and was already a councilor in Kidapawan's Municipal District before the Second World War. However, there are almost no extant archival documents dating from Kidapawan's days as a Municipal District to confirm his appointment or give exact dates for his term.

In any case, his position in public life proved prominent enough to put him and his family in danger when the War came, as the Japanese would almost certainly target Commonwealth-era officials. Saniel fled with his growing family to the settlement of Peidupulangi (today part of Pikit), only

to find the Japanese arriving there first. The Saniels fled again with the aid of paid Moro guides, but in the middle of the wilderness, their guides grew agitated and began extorting the family. Lorenzo began to grow homesick for Kidapawan, and so decided to face the Japanese and brought his family back home.

The family stayed in what is today Barangay Balindog to be far from from the Japanese in Lanao, but Cruz recounted how this decision did not spare Saniel from almost being shot by the Japanese soldiers.

One day, Cruz recounted, her father was summoned by the Japanese officer, which she identified as a certain Ishikawa. Saniel was ordered to recruit a spy in barrio Sikitan against the guerrillas there. Lorenzo was friends with Victoriano Valle, who had land in Sikitan and was among the guerrillas, so this was a difficult order for him.

Fearing for Valle's life, Lorenzo delayed giving any names to Ishikawa, and eventually, Ishikawa grew impatient. Cruz narrated how the Japanese officer slapped her father across the face before ordering seven of his men to take Saniel to "go look for chickens" (which, according to Cruz, was a subtle way of implying an execution). Saniel was taken to where the Gaisano Grand Mall in Lanao is now, but Saniel was able to persuade the Japanese soldiers to go instead in the direction of Paco, where the present location of the DPWH is.

The group came across a stream, bridged only by several bamboo posts. Saniel was made to cross it first, then, one by one, the seven soldiers crossed after him. When the last soldier was crossing the makeshift bridge, Saniel saw that the attention of the other six was focused on the crossing soldier, and he saw a chance to escape. He ran for his life into the brambles, and after much walking, reached his family in Balindog.

Hurriedly the family fled into the wilderness, wandering into many of the remote barrios but going into the general direction of Davao, where Saniel intended to hide his family. At some point in their wandering, a host of guerrillas had found them, the host having been explicitly ordered by the guerrilla leader Udtog Matalam to search for them (Saniel had been one of Matalam's teachers). The guerrillas took them to M'lang, the guerilla stronghold.

In M'lang the Saniels lived with relatives of Jacinto Paclibar, who had been the resistance group's supplies officer. The War ended while the Saniels were in M'lang, and they would return to downtown Kidapawan shortly

after, with Cruz remembering the Americans parading into town and the Japanese forces being escorted out.

Saniel would survive to be one of the Municipality of Kidapawan's founding politicians, sitting as a councilor on its first Municipal Council. In 1955 he would be elected Vice Mayor, then when Mayor Gil F. Gadi resigned in 1957, he became Kidapawan's third Municipal Mayor, the first Vice Mayor to assume the post and the first person to hold all of Kidapawan's Municipal elected offices.

Saniel died in his home at the age of 90 on November 23, 1980. One of his sons, Amado, would serve as Councilor in 1964.

Kidapawan as Haven from the Japanese

As can be observed in preceding accounts, Kidapawan both saw many Japanese-perpetrated atrocities and instead paradoxically served as a haven against the Japanese, becoming a guerrilla-dominated place and a sanctuary people fled to in order to escape the invading army. As mentioned previously, E. Arsenio Manuel's Case No. 3 records the couple Ondag Pion and Boning Imbak fleeing Tambuvung in Davao to evacuate to Kidapawan.

After the war, Lino Madrid further writes how many from the Davao region fled to Kidapawan during the war, increasing the town's population (and causing complications in land ownership as squatting proliferated). As opposed to other settlements, which saw mass evacuation with the coming of the Japanese, Kidapawan, in contrast, saw a massive influx as these evacuees entered Kidapawan. Most of these evacuees come from nearby Davao. Madrid describes them as squatters, with many occupying lands already applied for by settlers who fled. Upon arrival in Kidapawan, they planted abaca "because Kidapawan's volcanic soil and its very well-distributed rainfall make it a natural habitat of this plant." Oral accounts confirmed this trend. Abdulrahman Abubakar, a boy when the War happened, also recounts how the entire Bagundang-Abubakar family fled from the home of his mother's family in Maa, Davao to Kidapawan to evade the Japanese there. The family walked the distance, with some of the possessions they brought with them still surviving today.^[38]

38 The head of the Abubakar family, Sheik Abubakar Guiama, would end up joining the Bolo Battalion and, after the War, become Kidapawan's first Hadji.

There also seemed to have been several instances of internal evacuation, mostly from populous downtown areas to more remote and rural or forested parts of Kidapawan. The accounts of Renante Canlas and Datu Melchor Bayawan indicate that the upland barangays were challenging to penetrate, Manuel's Case No. 25 records Datu Sumin Ugok fleeing to Kiyaab. In contrast, the cases of Lorenzo Saniel and Filomeno Blanco imply that even barangays close to the present day Poblacion, barangays like Balindog and Sikitan, were remote enough for people to flee (I have yet to determine the location of the PAMDEVCO estate, but from Rosita Blanco Cadungog's account, it may be somewhere in the vicinity of Barangay Singao). Through my great uncle Eugenio Galay Jr, the author's own family still recalls that the Galay and Dizon families sought refuge in the Dizon family's farms in barrio Manongol (Eugenio was born there). The account of Magdalena Saniel Cruz, confirmed by the Paclibar family through Emmanuel Paclibar, indicates that the barrio of M'lang (today the Poblacion of the Municipality of M'lang) was a guerrilla stronghold. At the same time, Manuel records that his area of study, then Kidapawan's northernmost border with Bukidnon and Davao, was also a base for guerrilla activity.

These internal evacuations give a sense of how forested and rural a large part of Kidapawan was during the Second World War, and although the Japanese had a presence in much of the Municipal District, they had minimal actual control over the territory.

This was understandable: when they came to Kidapawan, the presence of the national government they had taken over was still negligible. The Municipal District President, Siawan Ingkal (first appointed by the Americans in 1914 and continuing well into the Commonwealth era) had practically maintained an Obo Monuvu micro-state in the Municipal District by presiding over a council almost entirely composed of tribal leaders, issuing Polinta (literally "counsel") as administrative decrees, and appointing Bohani to serve as policemen to enforce Pooviyaan woy Gontangan (customary law). Manongol served as the pre-War seat of the Municipal District government, and that the Galay and Dizon families were able to retreat there demonstrates how weak the Japanese hold on the town was.

Nevertheless, perhaps another factor why Kidapawan became a haven against the invading army, particularly for those coming in from Davao and especially in the last days of the War, was Captain Hayao Nakamura's leadership.

The Tragedy of Hayao Nakamura

Hayao Nakamura, the last known commanding officer of the Imperial Army detachment in the Municipal District, was central to the last days of Japanese occupation in Kidapawan. He may well be one of the most important historical figures in Kidapawan history.

As of this writing, I could only find personal accounts in Kidapawan that could be used to give a picture of Hayao Nakamura's final years. What emerges from these accounts is a romantic and near-heroic figure, whose tragedy is worth remembering the world over but is now on the verge of being completely forgotten.

Four independent sources confirm Nakamura's existence: Magdalena Saniel Cruz, Erlinda Villanueva Asuelo, Rosita Blanco Cadungog, and Bonifacio Madrid. Because the only sources available are accounts, I could not put exact dates on the events, and Nakamura's life is still largely unknown.

Bonifacio Madrid, in particular, the last living person who met and talked to Nakamura, gave the most detailed account of the man's life. I was able to interview him just months before his death.

Hayao Nakamura, a Captain (Tai-i in Japanese) in the Japanese Imperial Army, was assigned to head the local detachment of the Japanese forces in Kidapawan (the identity of this detachment is also not known, but the 166th Independent Infantry Battalion of the 100th Division of the Imperial Army held the Cotabato-Malabang area at the time of Liberation). According to Madrid's account, Nakamura succeeded Captain Ishikawa and was the last Japanese military officer in Kidapawan. In contrast to Ishikawa's well-attested cruelty, the coming of Capt. Hayao Nakamura ushered in more humane treatment to the locals in Kidapawan, and Madrid claimed that under Nakamura not a single local was executed. If Madrid's account is to be believed, Nakamura, whom he described as a more educated Japanese officer, was liked by the locals. Erlinda Villanueva Asuelo recalled how Nakamura was still strict enough to have slapped her mother in the face in his early days in Kidapawan after Anicia Villanueva had been rude to him, but Asuelo agreed that later, the Japanese captain had become much more mellow. By Madrid's account, Nakamura led many infrastructure efforts, many of which would survive the War and would benefit the young Municipality.

As previously mentioned, Rosita Blanco Cadungog's and Madrid's accounts indicate that Hayao Nakamura's assumption of command in Kidapawan led to the more humane treatment of the locals' town. Madrid attributed this partly to Nakamura's background. In contrast to Ishikawa, whom Madrid described as a 'savage,' Nakamura was an educated man – he was a civil engineer and took a degree in a university in the USA (the Madrid family cannot recall which university), so he was fluent in English. The fact that he could go to a university in another country implies that he was either an excellent student enough to qualify for a scholarship, or came from a wealthy family enough to afford to study abroad.

"The Japanese are just like the Filipinos," Madrid recalled Nakamura saying when asked about Ishikawa's and other Japanese soldiers' cruelty, "some are civilized, and some are barbarians."

Nakamura's status as a civil engineer manifested itself in the series of infrastructure efforts he had led during his command of Kidapawan. Roads, bridges, and public buildings were built during his time, but of all his projects, the public work the Madrid family most remembers was a wooden bridge in the Saguing river, the earliest known bridge constructed in Kidapawan as of this writing. The bridge was made of wood, and according to Madrid, was instrumental in connecting the Japanese forces in Davao with those in Cotabato. The Madrid family remembers it mainly because Nakamura himself took part in its construction, helping the local laborers nail and saw wood. This act of humility and willingness to work with the locals left a lasting impression on the Madrids.

On top of the roads and bridges, Nakamura was also behind the setting up of the Japanese school, which Madrid said not only provided education to local children (the post-liberation administration's education system seemed to have credited coursework taken under the Japanese occupation), it even offered employment as the teachers were locals.

The Madrids also recall several stories of Nakamura's good relationship with the locals.

From most accounts, the occupying Japanese required Filipinos to show obeisance to any Japanese soldier present, characteristically with the Japanese bow (o-jigi in Japanese). Failure to pay this respect often meant severe punishments for locals, even death.

However, under Nakamura, Kidapawan saw a relaxing of the rules, and a general shift in Japanese attitudes towards kindness. Madrid himself recalled how, as a young boy, he experienced this first hand. Driving a cart pulled by a carabao somewhere in what is today downtown Kidapawan, the young Bonifacio found a Japanese soldier up ahead. Protocol dictated that he stopped the carabao, alighted from the cart, and bowed before the soldier. Nevertheless, seeing as the road they were on was very muddy, Bonifacio instead opted to whip the carabao to walk on while lying down inside the cart to hide from the Japanese soldier. When the cart had passed by, Bonifacio took a peek at the soldier, and was surprised to find the man laughing; the soldier saw him hiding, and instead of being angry, was very amused.

Nakamura himself seemed to have prioritized good relations with the locals over enforcing deference. In one incident recalled by the Madrids (one which Erlinda Villanueva Asuelo did not recount), Ceferino Villanueva found himself unable to bow before a Japanese soldier. Finding this unacceptable, the Japanese soldier slapped Villanueva in the face and scolded him. Infuriated, Villanueva (the former principal of the Rural High school, and who later served as the post-war transition mayor before being elected as a councilor) went to Lanao to see Nakamura about the incident. Upon hearing Villanueva's complaint, Nakamura ordered all his men to line up in front of him and asked Villanueva to identify which among the soldiers was the one who slapped him. When Villanueva identified the soldier, Nakamura himself slapped the soldier and gave him a dressing down.

In one incident that the Madrids recall, several passing merchants, among them, Bonifacio's brother Ebenezer Madrid, and two Muslim traders, were caught in an encounter between Japanese soldiers and guerrillas somewhere in what is today the Municipality of Matalam, and having been caught by the Japanese, were incarcerated in Pikit. Nakamura heard of this incident that evening, and immediately set out to Pikit. As he was preparing his horse, Bonifacio Madrid's mother Felicidad (by then, it seemed Nakamura had become a family friend) told Nakamura to wait until the morning. Nakamura wryly responded that Felicidad's son Ebenezer would not have his head on his neck anymore if he waited until the morning. In the dead of night, Nakamura traveled to Pikit, and upon arriving at the Japanese garrison, argued with the stationed officer, insisting that these were merchants they arrested. The Madrid family recalled from Ebenezer's

account how Nakamura tore to open the cell's door himself and bellowed at the incarcerated locals that they may go.

Japanese-local relations were so amicable (at least according to Madrid's account) under Nakamura that known guerrillas were allowed to go to the markets and other public venues in Kidapawan so long as they did not bring firearms. Indeed, many guerrillas frequently met with Japanese soldiers on the street without any incident occurring. There had been rumors that at some point, Nakamura had gone secretly to M'lang to have a conference with Udtog Matalam and other guerrilla leaders. The veracity of these rumors could not be proven, and if true the topic of this conference is now lost to time.

Bonifacio Madrid attributes Nakamura's benevolence to his educated background. Nevertheless, Rosita Blanco Cadungog speculated that the main reason was Rosalina Madrid. Bonifacio Madrid, Rosalina's brother, indeed agreed that it was a significant factor.

Rosalina Madrid was the daughter of Zacharias Madrid and Felicidad Urbanoso. Ilocanos from Pasuquin, Ilocos Norte, the Madrids arrived in Kidapawan in the 1930s (Zacharias' brother Lino had arrived earlier after being assigned as a teacher in Kidapawan, and was instrumental in his family's migration to Mindanao). Rosalina was the elder sister of Ebenezer, the merchant detained in Pikit, and of Bonifacio, the primary source today on Nakamura's life.

At the time of the War, Rosalina was one of the few educated young women in Kidapawan. This led her to be appointed as the personal secretary to the Japanese soldiers' commanding officer in barrio Lanao. The Madrids recall that she was secretary only by the time Nakamura took command of the Kidapawan detachment.

From there, as the Madrid family recalls, Nakamura and Rosalina fell in love. The two started a relationship.

While they regretted that no record of it survives, the Madrid family confirmed that Nakamura ended up marrying Rosalina, exchanging vows before Pastor Julio Aragon of the Christian and Missionary Alliance Church of the Philippines (Rosalina's religion). They had planned to have it recorded in the civil registry, but the succeeding turmoil of the Liberation prevented this.

Nakamura's relationship with and subsequent marriage to Rosalina seemed to have been well known in Kidapawan, as Rosita Blanco Cadungog

and Magdalena Sanial Cruz both recalled a word of it spreading in town. Bonifacio attributed the soldier's bemusement at his hiding in the carabao cart to the soldier, knowing that he was the brother of the captain's romantic interest. Whatever the case, the relationship would most likely have endeared the locals to Nakamura more.

It certainly endeared the man to the locals – Nelly Madrid recalled how, as a young girl, a family friend, Iping Alvaro, picked her up, kissed her on the cheek, and told her mother "I owe my life to this girl's father!"

Because the relationship would bear fruit: Rosalina would be pregnant during Nakamura's last months in Kidapawan. Taking leave of her duties as a secretary, she lived with her parents to carry Nakamura's child. It is thanks to this pregnancy that Bonifacio was able to talk to Nakamura on a near-daily basis: even though the concept does not exist in Japanese culture, Nakamura seemed to have been influenced by the Madrids on the concept of *paglilihi*, as he had mangoes delivered to Kidapawan from as far away as Pikit. Bonifacio would go to Lanao and pick the mangoes up from Nakamura himself. Nakamura doted on his wife throughout her pregnancy.

Sadly, Nakamura would not live to see his daughter born. At some point in the War, the Japanese command in the Philippines ordered reinforcements from all over the country, and the detachment in Kidapawan was among those ordered to move. Nakamura led his men as they made their way to Davao.

From the Madrid family's account, Nakamura was convinced several times by the locals to leave the Imperial army and go into hiding, especially considering how he now had a family in Kidapawan. Among those who offered him a place to hide were the Pamintuan, with whom Nakamura became friends.

However, Nakamura rejected these offers and insisted that as a commanding officer, he could not leave his men behind, and if that meant he was to march to his death, then he would die with his men.

Rosalina and her family never found out where Nakamura died – all they had were rumors that he and his men were somewhere in Mt Apo, waving a white flag at the American raid planes, which subsequently bombed them in spite of their surrender. There were also rumors that some of his men died as their carrier ship was torpedoed by the Americans. In any case, the Madrids never found his body. His daughter Nelly, who was born on August 24, 1944,

never knew her father's face, and she had to carry her mother's surname as there was no father to give legal permission for her to use his surname on her birth certificate^[39].

Today, Hayao Nakamura lives on in Kidapawan only in the memories of a few elderly citizens (his daughter Nelly herself already growing old). With the death of Bonifacio Madrid, a few months after he was interviewed for this study, there is now no one in Kidapawan left who met Nakamura personally.

Guerilla Outfits and Kidapawan's Liberation

As is consistent with its history, Kidapawan, and North Cotabato was never fully occupied by the Japanese during the Second World War. Resistance ensued from the moment the Japanese entered and would be relentless until they were driven out.

The occurrence of individual and sporadic acts of defiance to the Japanese like the previously mentioned Kollut poisoning in Maliri and Kamasi not only characterized Kidapawan but the whole of North Cotabato in general, making it one of the cradles of the resistance movement in Mindanao and the resulting liberation.

The surrender to the Japanese of General William Sharp, commander of the American force in Mindanao, on May 10, 1942, nominally put Mindanao under Japanese control. However, since most of his men and much of the island refused to surrender, Mindanao remained, as it always was, a stage for continued resistance.

One of Sharp's subordinates, Lt. Col. Wendell Fertig, evaded capture and eventually emerged as the leading figure of the remaining American forces. Fertig managed to consolidate the myriad guerrilla outfits all over Mindanao into a coherent – if loose – organization.

A major such outfit that had achieved considerable organizational sophistication was the Bolo Battalion, led by Salipada Pendatun and Udtog Matalam, and operated in the Cotabato region. Many veterans in Kidapawan belonged to this outfit such as Patadon Tungao, Abubakar Guiama, and Paidu Dumacon (who would later serve as the first barrio lieutenant of Kidapawan's Poblacion). Moreover, this outfit instigated those described above short-lived

39 On a side note, Nelly and Bonifacio, like many other members of the Madrid family, were Sillimanians

retaking of Kidapawan in 1942, which Uldarico Baclagon recorded.

The Cotabato area, according to Kent Holmes in *Wendell Fertig and His Guerrilla Forces in the Philippines: Fighting the Japanese Occupation, 1942-1945*, fell under the 106th Division of what would become the 10th Military District of the United State Forces in the Philippines (USFIP). This is consistent with Emmanuel Paclibar's recollection that his grandfather Jacinto was attached to the 118th Infantry Regiment, one of the 106th's component units. This Division was largely composed of the Bolo Battalion, which had been absorbed by the Allied Forces under Fertig^[40].

Because no documents on Kidapawan contemporary to the Second World War could be found, like the specifics of the Japanese presence in the town, it is difficult to paint a clearer picture of the arrangements of the resistance movement in the three or so years that Kidapawan was under Japanese occupation.

The extant documentation in the town has only been written after the War, most written much later and documented from the oral recollections. It is difficult to verify these accounts, and subsequent unwritten accounts, in the absence of contemporary records^[41].

The most reliable documentary source on the resistance administration says precious little about the War in Kidapawan. The 1952 Cotabato Guidebook contains an account of the resistance movement in Cotabato written by Capt. Pedro C. Morales, who narrates how Salipada Pendatun and his brother-in-law, Udtog Matalam, organized the resistance in the province, establishing their headquarters in Maridagao.

Morales does point out that the province had many independent guerrilla outfits, and it took time to organize them. It seems that the area of Pikit, Kabacan, and Kidapawan fell under the direct control of the Matalam-Pendatun forces, as Morales describes a respite for their troops after the campaigns there (Uldarico Baclagon's account of the brief liberation of M'lang and Kidapawan fill in where Morales does not elaborate). At some point, Pendatun besieged Bukidnon and was able to build a defence line in Linabo. "The Salipada-Udtog forces," writes Morales, "were now in control of the whole

40 Prior to the absorption, the Bolo Battalion had proclaimed Pendatun a Brigadier General. Holmes discusses the negotiations between Fertig and Pendatun.

41 Relying on such sources has its perils. In the 1989 Souvenir Program, for instance, there is a list of mayors, the first five of whom were supposedly appointed during the War. But sources who were alive during the War, both verbally and in documentary form, have since refuted some of these details – Erlinda Villanueva Asuelo, for instance, says her father Ceferino Villanueva was mayor until the 1947 elections, contrary to what the 1984 Souvenir Program says, which only gives his term at 1945.

territory from Linabo in Bukidnon to Kidapawan in Cotabato.” When the forces were reorganized as the “Bukidnon-Cotabato Force,” Pendatun was made Brigadier-General by its staff of officers. In February 1943, this force was accepted as a unit of Fertig’s 10th Military District.

As mentioned previously, the resistance movement established a “Civil Emergency Administration” in M’lang, headed by Jacinto Paclibar. The nature of this Administration remains unclear. The 1952 Cotabato Guidebook contains a directory of prominent personalities in the then-undivided Cotabato province. Among them is Paclibar, who is indeed cited as the head of this Civil Emergency Administration. However, in the director is Alfonso Angeles Sr., listed as having served as “Mayor of Upper Cotabato Sector” in 1942. As the other primary source on the War, Uldarico Baclagon does not mention Angeles (or any civilian official for that matter), I have yet to clarify what this position or this sectoring system entailed, how it related to the Civil Emergency Administration, and who the other officials were. In general, the resistance movement’s local government arrangements – organized in opposition to that set up by the Japanese and the Second Republic – remain poorly understood.

The directory of the 1952 Cotabato Guidebook also identifies several personalities in Kidapawan who played important roles during the War: Froilan M. Matas, a member of the US Navy who organized a guerrilla outfit (he would later serve as the deputy governor of Cotabato and the founding mayor of the Municipality of Magpet), Primo B. Balatayo, who was an investigator for the Enemy Property Custodian of the US Army before he joined the guerrillas under Fertig (he was Kidapawan’s Municipal secretary at the time of the guidebook’s publication, a post he would hold for many years), Amador A. Anque Sr. of M’lang, who was a First Sergeant in the guerrillas before becoming the detachment commander in M’lang (he would be the first elected mayor of M’lang).

In the same guidebook is Madrid’s essay on Kidapawan, which says a little about what happened to the town during the War (Madrid, whose niece Rosalina was married to Hayao Nakamura, was a contemporary to the War). As mentioned, Madrid discussed the War in terms of evacuees.

What is revealing about Madrid’s very brief account is what can be inferred from it: he mentions that most of the evacuees brought by the War were from Davao, “which was wholly occupied by the Japanese.” I suspect

that this implies contrast to Kidapawan, consistent with my speculation that Kidapawan, with its many guerrilla strongholds, was poorly held by the Japanese.

Indeed, according to Morales' account of the war in the 1952 Guidebook, there were few Japanese forces in Cotabato by the time the liberation forces landed in Parang on April 17, 1945. From Cotabato, they proceeded inland. Morales ends his account of the liberation with the arrival of the forces in Kabacan on June 24.

As mentioned, Uldarico Bacragon recorded Kidapawan being initially liberated in 1942, but again being retaken by the Japanese in 1943. The varying accounts on the liberation of Kidapawan (which imply that Kidapawan was liberated much earlier than the rest of the region), Pedro Morales' account of the movements of the Bolo Battalion, accounts of continued Japanese presence in Lanao and Poblacion, and the hint given by the recorded case of Valentin Turtal, all corroborate this picture. The Japanese detachment in the center of Kidapawan – and the local government it propped up – would continue functioning in one form or another until the end of the War, with the resistance concentrated for the most part in M'lang.

Oral accounts indicate that the Japanese, under Hayao Nakamura, offered little resistance when this happened, partly due to the pullout order on the Japanese to reinforce the siege in Leyte.

According to Erlinda Villanueva Asuelo, the Americans stayed in Kidapawan for a few months after the Liberation, setting up garrison on the property of Ceferino Villanueva in Poblacion (an area along the highway that stretched from the current Diamond Street eastward to the old Shell gasoline station). Villanueva Asuelo names the commanding officer of that garrison as a Major Finney^[42].

Villanueva Asuelo recalled how the American soldiers were then reassigned to Davao. She recounted how, as a token of gratitude for allowing the American soldiers to set up garrison in their property, Finney had the Villanuevas brought to Davao, where they were hosted to dinner.

After the War, Ceferino Villanueva would be appointed as the interim mayor, serving for an indefinite period of time (and with other officials whose names are now lost to the town's memory) until the election of 1947, Kidapawan's first municipal election. During the election, the mayor

42 I have yet to identify who this Major Finney was.

of the enigmatic “Upper Cotabato Sector,” Alfonso Angeles Sr., would emerge as Kidapawan’s first elected mayor. At the same time, Datu Siawan Ingkal, the municipal district president since 1914 (and whose role during the war remains unclear) became Kidapawan’s first ever vice mayor.

CONCLUDING NOTES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The people of Kidapawan had diverse experiences during the Second World War, just as the town itself saw different realities at different points in the brief duration of Japanese occupation. These diversity of experiences, ranging from suffering to romance, have equally shaped the people of Kidapawan in different ways.

Kidapawan had the character of being a haven for guerrillas and a place where people from elsewhere sought refuge. The large influx of refugees led to a marked increase in population and land ownership complications as squatting proliferated, a problem that dominated local politics in the years just after the War. This increase in population, mostly by Settlers, accelerated the original tribal political structure’s decline, which characterized Kidapawan’s local government since its founding as Municipal District. By the end of the War, the tribal people had been marginalized as Kidapawan became a predominantly colonial town.

The Obo Monuvu people nevertheless resisted the Japanese just as much as the Settlers did, most notably in the form of the clever Kollut poisonings, but mostly by members of the tribe making themselves scarce.

Atrocities by the Japanese were recounted, ranging from murder to theft of crops and forced labor. Notable cases included the assassination of Eliseo Dayao, the hostage of puppet mayor Filomeno Blanco, and the Japanese’s reports of cannibalism in Kamasi and Maliri recalled by Datu Lamberto Delfin. The torture of Datu Patadon Tungao, which happened in Cotabato and Manila, reveals that a better understanding of a town’s local history often reveals historical details about other towns and locales. Patadon’s detailed account of his torture offers useful information to any historian seeking to form a clearer picture of the Second World War as it unfolded in Maguindanao.

The atrocities in Kidapawan (as informants recalled them) were concentrated in the early periods of occupation, and various informants observed a trend of Japanese “mellowing” in their treatment of locals. Central

to this shift in attitude was Captain Hayao Nakamura, whose love affair and subsequent marriage to local Rosalina Madrid played a significant role in his subordinates' better treatment of locals. It would be no exaggeration to say that many people in Kidapawan today would never have been born if not for this love affair, as the Japanese may have well killed their ancestors. However, the tragic end that Nakamura met reveals that even the Japanese were victims in the War they instigated. War, to quote Patadon Tungao, was the common destiny and misfortune which made all the people of Kidapawan brothers and sisters.

Overall, the Japanese had a fragile hold over Kidapawan and, at a relatively short time, lost it as early as 1942 and never entirely held it as the guerrillas remained so near in M'lang. This is partly due to Kidapawan's large rural or forested area and the still weak presence of the national government in what was then an Obo Monuvu dominated Municipal District. Japanese hold was so weak that, although the Japanese set up a puppet local government headed by Filomeno Blanco, resistance-backed local governments were recorded, in the form of a "Civil Emergency Administration" and the appointment of a "Mayor of Upper Cotabato" in the person of Alfonso Angeles Sr., (the details of which, however, were not adequately recorded and remained unclear). When the War ended, there was not much to liberate in Kidapawan.

These diverse effects of the War on Kidapawan's peoples would be felt long after the War, shaping local politics and society for decades. Many war veterans would go on to pursue political careers, while the dynamics between the indigenous Obo Monuvu and the Settlers would be permanently altered. The details of these changes are the subjects of further study. Implications on the concepts of Imminent Domain and Right of Conquest, as well as inter-ethnic relations, are of particular interest.

Most of the accounts in the present study were sourced from local oral memory, with one instance recounted just months before the informant died. It is my hope that more local history (not just in Kidapawan and not just during the Second World War) will be recorded, that we may have a better understanding of our communities and their developments.

It is my further hope that the incidents recorded here are taken up by artists – writers, visual artists, filmmakers – as material for their art to popularize and deepen the discourse into these incidents. The act of

collective remembering is a constant process; it only begins with recording. It hope that this process begins for Kidapawan's memories of the War.

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KEY INFORMANTS

Abad Ladday

Abdulrahman Abubakar

Bonifacio Madrid

Datu Basinon Ebboy

Datu Lamberto Delfin (through Datu Melchor Umpan Bayawan)

Datu Melchor Umpan Bayawan

Delia Dumacon Hassan

Eugenio Galay Jr

Elma Dayao Yaoto

Emmanuel Paclibar

Erlinda Aresgado Sibug

Erlinda Villanueva Asuelo

Leticia Mijarez Lumanog

Magdalena Sanial Cruz

Nelly Madrid (Nakamura)

Renante Canlas

Rosita Blanco Cadungog

PICTURES



Figure 1: Kidapawan in Mindanao and in North Cotabato (Map courtesy of Kidapawan City Tourism Office)



Figure 2: Eliseo Dayao Sr (Photo courtesy of Elma Dayao Yaoto)



Figure 3: Filomeno Blanco (Photo courtesy of Kidapawan City Tourism Office)



Figure 4: Sheikh Abubakar Guiama Al-Haj, with wife Hadja Halima Bagundang
(Photo courtesy of the Abubakar Family)



Figure 5: Datu Patadon Tungao (Photo courtesy of Mike Piang-Llanillo Patadon)

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Relationship Between Filipino ESL Learners' Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Vocabulary Ability

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This study focuses on the relationship between vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) as perceived to be used by the ESL learners and their vocabulary ability. The assumption is that learners can build their vocabulary of the target language by applying certain vocabulary learning strategies. The study has recognized learning habits of lexis acquisition among Filipino learners through their perceived use of VLS. Participants of this study were forty students enrolled in freshman English in the university level. Findings revealed no significant relationship between the learners' vocabulary ability and their perceived use of VLS. This supports the notion that both intentional and incidental vocabulary learning are critical in acquiring vocabulary, accentuating that there is no absolute way for learning vocabulary since it depends upon many varying factors (de Groot, 2006; Brown, 1987). Thus, it is prudent that different approaches of vocabulary instruction be applied in different stages in the language acquisition as with the different contexts in vocabulary learning (Schmitt, 2008). As exhibited by the chosen group in this current study, learners who aim to expand their vocabulary knowledge could increase their acquisition of the target language from the habit of using certain VLS. While language practitioners continue to argue the best ways to improve vocabulary acquisition in the target language, this study confirms that regular revisiting of the lexis is part of a language course.

Keywords: Lexical acquisition, vocabulary learning strategies, vocabulary ability, word power workout.

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary ability plays a critical role in learning a target language; its acquisition is regarded to be of great importance, yet it is one of the most elusive aspects of learning a new language. For decades, the transformation and continuous reshaping of vocabulary learning has led language practitioners to investigate and search for the students' best method to acquire vocabulary (Karami & Bowles, 2019). Not surprisingly, lexical acquisition is among the major research topics in language learning and teaching. Second language learners, teachers, and researchers have equally acknowledged that vocabulary increases the language proficiency of the learners. "Lexis is the basis for language" (Lewis, 1993); it is, in fact, the core of language comprehension and use (Hunt & Belglar, 2005). The need to acquire a large and sufficient vocabulary seems to be one of the most important language learners' tasks (Lewis, 2000). Schmitt (2008) stated that "a large vocabulary is necessary to function in English: 8000–9000-word families for reading, and perhaps as many as 5000–7000 families for oral discourse (p. 329)." Richards and Renandya (2002) view vocabulary ability as a major component of language proficiency, i.e., vocabulary knowledge enables learners to speak, listen, read, and write well.

Conversely, inadequate vocabulary repertoire and poor vocabulary learning strategies for acquiring new vocabulary curtail opportunities for learners to learn the target language. Several studies also show that limited vocabulary and vocabulary errors could interfere with communication and could potentially be a significant obstacle that intimidates students from learning the target language (Zhihong, 2000).

Even in the English for Second Language (ESL) context, learners view lexical acquisition as one of the problematic language learning areas (Lewis, 1993; Mc Carthy, 2004; Read, 2000; Subekti & Lawson, 2007). Problems occur when students' vocabulary knowledge is insufficient; this impedes comprehensible communication as they cannot articulate their ideas, comprehend text content, or accomplish written tasks (Schmitt & Mc Carthy, 1997). In this present study, the ESL students found communication classes challenging and laborious. The majority could communicate in English relatively easily; however, quite a number also lacked sufficient vocabulary knowledge and skills appropriate for academic and professional purposes reading and writing tasks at the university level. Thus, learning became more

complicated for these students. Nonetheless, despite recognizing vocabulary as vital for successful language learning and communication, researchers are not in general agreement about the best way to teach the vocabulary of a target language. To date, most of the studies have focused on vocabulary learning for English for Foreign Language (EFL) learners; to bridge this gap, the researchers aimed to investigate the VLS used by ESL learners.

The theoretical background of this study is divided into five sections. In the first section, cognitive theory is the basis of the following sections and the starting point of this investigation. A review of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) and the importance of vocabulary in language learning; intentional and incidental learning; then the importance of VLS and the vocabulary acquisition strategies adopted in this current study are discussed. In the last section are some previous studies on vocabulary learning strategies.

The nature of vocabulary is complex, that despite years of numerous research, the mechanics of vocabulary learning is still a mystery (Schmitt, 2000). Experts view vocabulary over the ages has led to its current practices and its significance within applied linguistics. "Focused on the ability to analyze language, and not the ability to use it," earlier theories in second language acquisition such as the Grammar-Translation method "became increasingly pedantic" (Schmitt, 2000, p.12). These theories received severe criticism from more recent theories, such as the interlanguage theory that views the learner as the creator of rules and errors as evidence of learners' positive efforts to learn (Selinker, 1972). This incited two general directions in second language acquisition (SLA) research: the awareness of learner strategies on learning, responsible for language learning success (Rubin, 1975), and the influential theory wherein learners need natural, authentic communication for language acquisition to occur, instead of direct instruction (Krashen, 1981). Thus, cognitive theory of learning influenced the concept of language learning strategy or learner strategy, referring to what learners do to make their learning manageable and efficient (Takac, 2008). This cognitive orientation describes SLA as a cognitive skill so complex as it engages cognitive systems such as perception and information processing to overcome human mental capacity limitations, which may inhibit performance (Ellis 2000, as cited by Višnja, 2008). One of the essential cognitive theory concepts that influence vocabulary learning strategies is learning strategies (Asgari & Mustapha, 2011).

If what learners consciously or unconsciously do to make their learning manageable and efficient does not guarantee immediate success in vocabulary mastery by itself, then clearly cognitive theory is not self-sustained; it requires interconnection with other varying factors since language learning is concurrently highly influenced by society. To illustrate, “words are not instantaneously acquired...they are gradually learned over a period of time from numerous exposures... as there are different degrees of knowing a word” (Schmitt, 2000, p.4).

Benjamin Whorf’s theory on linguistic relativity –that language shapes thought and that culture and language are informed thinking—could have a similar effect on how learners deal with vocabulary learning. A commonly cited example of linguistic relativity is how Inuit Eskimos describe snow. There is only one word for snow in English, but in the Inuit language, because of their exposure to snow, many words are ascribed to snow: wet snow, clinging snow, frosty snow, and so on (Subbiondo, 2005). In a like manner, when learners are more actively involved in processing the language they meet—known as intentional learning—they are more likely to remember it. When learners are exposed to various strategies, they are actively involved in processing the language, which could further maximize their language learning capacity, e.g., lexical acquisition (Selivan, 2010).

Intentional vocabulary learning is defined as a way of learning in which the learner is informed and knows what is to be learned; it is intentional since direct attention is paid to vocabulary learning itself (Hulstijn, 2003; Hulstijn, 2001). Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis points out that input needs to be noticed and “consciously registered” so language learning could be said to take place (1990, p. 721); this way, noticing second language features and paying attention to them is crucial in language learning. The learner benefits from intentional vocabulary learning as he speeds up the lexical development due to focused repetition or memorization strategies (Hung, 2015). For instance, decontextualized language practice—the learning vocabulary and expressions without meeting them repeatedly in meaningful contexts—was frowned upon throughout the height of Communicative Language Teaching. However, more and more evidence suggest that decontextualized vocabulary learning could be practical and convenient (Laufer, 2006) in EFL and ESL students. They need to reach

a certain level of academic vocabulary ability to comprehend required readings and accomplish specific tasks efficiently (Nation, 2001), such as English for academic and professional purposes.

By contrast, incidental vocabulary learning is the process in which there is no intention or direct attention to the new words. Can one acquire vocabulary and grasp expressions without meeting them repeatedly in meaningful contexts? Vygotsky's sociocultural view (1978) emphasizes that learning cannot occur without social interaction and that acquisition of words takes place within meaningful contexts, i.e., learners are able to use words actively if they learn them incidentally. "It is a commonsense notion that the more a learner engages with a new word, the more likely they are to learn it" (Schmitt, 2008, p.338). This meaningful context stimulates longer retention of the words in the cognitive process, although Webb (2008) cautions that this must be selected carefully because of the possibility of misinterpretation. It may be easier for the second language learners to rely on context and overlook the individual word part or rely on the dictionary and overlook context. At times, even minimal context practically defines a strange word for the reader; at other times, it provides little or no help. However, the context will always let the reader know the part of speech, which helps build the groundwork for defined attention habits to whatever clues are present. Heightened awareness of word parts will prepare the reader even better to unravel word meanings; in this sense, fitting new words in context is beneficial for easy recall and comprehension.

Both intentional and incidental vocabulary learning are critical in the acquisition of vocabulary, but the role of incidental learning has been deemphasized in that it occurs only in the presence of intentional learning (Choo, Lin, & Pandian, 2012). Various studies suggest that some language learners intentionally learn some vocabulary features while other features are learned incidentally (Karami & Bowles, 2019). Schmitt (2008, p. 352) highlighted the importance of both strategies suggesting that "perhaps the most effective way of improving incidental learning is by reinforcing it afterward with intentional learning tasks." A combination of both may make a perfect strategy (Karami & Bowles, 2019) although de Groot (2006) accentuates the fact that there is no absolute way for learning vocabulary since it depends upon many factors. Schmitt concurs that different approaches to vocabulary instruction must be applied in different stages (2008, in Karami & Bowles, 2019).

Even more importantly, teachers can create situations and provide meaningful contexts wherein learners can have the opportunity to recycle and reuse the language they have learned, i.e., maximizing the use of context, parts, the dictionary, and other devices (Brown, 1987). This way the learner is presented with a variety of specialized techniques in achieving academic success. The constant practice works. As a learner, the better one reads, the more confident one becomes. Traces of uncertainty or inferiority disappear and are replaced by self-reliance and assurance (Teng, 2015). This is important since the learning style and motivation are crucial in the learner's success in acquiring language. Learning style refers to approaches or various ways of learning; affective and physiology factor-related: a particular method of interacting with, taking in, and processing stimuli or information affected by one's personality and attitudes (Brown, 1987). It is the individual's cognitive style of learning across different educational contexts, according to his social and physiological background (Thu, 2009); thus, the way students process information from the teacher helps them understand the learning material.

Vocabulary learning strategies are identified as a sub-category under the Language Learning Strategies' umbrella (Gu, 2003; Nation, 2001). An overview of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) as defined by language practitioners presents how VLSs are directly hinged upon this set of operations and behaviors. LLS are established as follows: characteristics of approaches where learning techniques are consciously employed by the learner use to enhance L2 use (Stern, 1983); learning processes consciously used by learners resulting in improved learning of the target language through retention, recall, and application of the language (Cohen & Manion, 1994); "a choice that a learner makes while learning or using the L2 that affects learning" (Cook, 2001, p. 126); a practice of a range of strategies in a task (Macaro, 2001); "the conscious thoughts and actions that learners deal with to achieve a learning goal" (Chamot, 2004, p. 14); "specific actions taken by the learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 2003, p.8). Essentially, LLSs are "learning behaviors learners engage in" (Wenden, 1987, p.6) or activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own learning" of the target language (Griffiths, 2013, p. 15).

Several language experts indicate that using a variety of vocabulary learning strategies is crucial in acquiring the target language. ESL students

need tools, various strategies that could further maximize their language learning capacity, e.g., vocabulary learning strategies to equip themselves in successfully accomplishing their academic reading and writing tasks (Nation, 2003). Language authorities like Williams and Burden (1997), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), and Rubin (1987) likewise support that strategies are crucial tools for developing communicative competence.

Without an extensive vocabulary and strategies for acquiring new vocabulary, learners often achieve less than their potential and may be discouraged for making use of language learning opportunities around them such as listening to the radio, listening to native speakers, using the language in different contexts, reading, or watching television (Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 255).

In this regard, the use of VLS enables students to acquire and improve vocabulary skills more efficiently, for instance, in reading various media and textbooks, accomplishing written requirements, listening to the news or lectures, or using the language in different contexts such as conversing with native speakers or giving a class presentation. The assumption is that the VLS and exposure to tasks designed to further its application in various teaching-learning situations would facilitate a better vocabulary acquisition process.

Stoffer (1995, cited in Schmitt, 1997) maintains that the vocabulary learning strategies help learners learn. VLS can be viewed as a general pattern in the teaching-learning situation where its specific goal is to master vocabulary (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997). "A process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used" (Rubin, 1987, p. 29); these are various steps or actions preferred and taken by students to improve lexical knowledge and ability (Oxford, 1993); in effect, the practice of these strategies can be effective as it results in autonomous learners. A vital tool in the lexical acquisition, Catalan (2003) defines VLS as

knowledge about the mechanisms (processes, strategies) used in order to learn vocabulary as well as steps or actions taken by students (a) to find out the meaning of unknown words, (b) to retain them in long-term memory, (c) to recall them at will, and (d) to use them in oral or written mode (p. 56).

As presented by Asgari and Mustapha (2011), several recent studies have produced VLS taxonomies. Schmitt and Schmitt (1993) divided learning vocabulary into remembering a word and learning a new word. GU (2003) classified second language VLS as cognitive, metacognitive, memory and activation strategies. Schmitt (1997) improved VLS taxonomy based on Oxford (1990) into determination strategies, social, and remembering category which also comprises social, memorization, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies; and Fan (2003) refined Gu (2003)'s VLS classification into primary category covering dictionary and guessing strategies, and remembering category integrating repetition, association, grouping, analysis, and known words strategies.

While various VLS taxonomies are used in various studies, this study has applied the taxonomy suggested by Jeon (2007), who classified VLS into three main groups: discovery strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, in which each major category is further classified into ten sub-categories. Learners use Discovery Strategies (DS) to discover words (Schmitt, 2000). This includes the use of dictionaries; consulting others to get the meaning of words; asking a teacher for L1 translation or a paraphrase or synonyms of new words; guessing the meaning of a word from its word structure, sentence structures, textual development, from common sense, and from mental memory, and by skipping when meeting an unfamiliar sound.

Memory Strategies (MS) are those in which the learners link their learning of new words to mental processing by associating their existing or background knowledge with the new words (Schmitt, 1997). This includes remembering by reading or writing repeatedly, by creating a word's mental image, by connecting a word to personal experience; by memorizing word spelling; by remembering words that are spelled similarly or that sound similar together, by word-formation rules, remembering a word in meaningful groups, the words of an idiom together, and the sentence in which a new word is used.

Cognitive Strategies (CS) do not engage learners in mental processing but are more mechanical means (Schmitt, 1997). This includes making a note upon meeting a useful expression or phrase; listening to an audio recording of new words or expressions; making a vocabulary list of new words; using media such as songs or movies; analyzing words in terms of

prefixes, stems, suffixes; writing down the synonyms or antonyms of the word; making up sentences using the words just learned; associating the new word with a known English word, and using newly learned words in imaginary situations and real situations.

Over the years, several studies have been done on VLS and Vocabulary Knowledge and their impact on language learning. Among these are studies conducted by Asgari and Mustapha (2011), Zhang Yunhao (2011), and Hunt and Belglar (2005).

Asgari and Mustapha (2011) examined the type of vocabulary learning strategies used by Malaysian ESL students majoring in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). They share the same predicament with this current study that too little attention has been paid to vocabulary learning strategies used by ESL undergraduate students in the local context; thus, their study also aimed to determine what type of VLS is used by ESL students. Additionally, they stressed that students need to be educated with VLS. They adopted Schmitt's five major strategies, of which taxonomy application was established in an ESL-EFL environment using Japanese L2 learners (Schmitt, 2000). They confirmed that the use of VLS included factors such as proficiency, motivation, and culture since environment and culture can influence one's preference for exacting learning strategies. They concluded that strategies such as learning a word through reading, the use of a monolingual dictionary, the use of various English language media, and applying new English word in their daily conversation are related to memory, determination, and metacognitive strategies as popular strategies since their learners were keen in using them.

Zhang Yunhao's (2011) case study, *The use of vocabulary learning strategies by good and poor language learners: A case study of Chinese non-English major sophomores*, investigated a group of Chinese sophomores' employment of learning strategies in their learning process to investigate the following: (1) to identify the most frequently used strategies and the least frequently used strategies, and (2) to compare good language learners with poor learners. A 26-item five-scale point questionnaire was employed for data collection; this 5-scale point questionnaire is comparable to this current study and most investigations using VLS. Study results presented that both good and poor language learners used many effective VLS. This group of students was found to carry a pocket dictionary to look up new

words; although this strategy used is EFL in context, the conscious effort to vocabulary learning is comparable to the discussion of intentional learning in the current study. The same principle is established when the researchers pointed out that “good language learners were found to employ learning strategies more frequently than poor learners in 21 strategies”. The case study revealed that the use of VLS was positively related to learning outcomes.

Hunt and Belglar’s (2005) paper, *A framework for developing EFL reading vocabulary*, comprehensively reviewed and critiqued L2 reading vocabulary research. The study proposed a systematic framework incorporating two approaches to speed up lexical development: (1) promoting explicit lexical instruction and learning strategies; and (2) encouraging implicit lexical instruction and learning strategies. Hunt and Belglar’s proposed framework parallels this current study since the utilization of learning strategies promoting explicit and implicit instruction confirms the importance of intentional and incidental vocabulary learning, which is highlighted in the current study.

Hunt and Belglar presented the most crucial explicit lexical instruction and learning strategies: (1) acquiring decontextualized lexis, (2) using dictionaries, and (3) inferring from context. They emphasized implicit lexical instruction and learning to take many forms, including integrated task sets and narrow reading. They pointed out that the framework emphasizes extensive reading and further highlighted that the principal notion underlying their framework is that the most effective and efficient lexical development will occur in multifaceted curriculums that achieve a pedagogically sound balance between explicit and implicit activities L2 learners at all levels of their development. Again, this emphasis mirrors the current study’s stand that teachers as material designers would be keen on choosing materials for learning which accentuates both intentional and incidental vocabulary learning strategies.

The importance of vocabulary in language learning is emphasized in this investigation, thus the need to revisit the VLS used by learners. To date, no study has been conducted in Silliman on VLS. Hence, this current study investigated this topic to establish whether the VLSs perceived to be used by student learners determine their vocabulary ability. This is to validate the assumption that learners can build their vocabulary of the target language by applying specific vocabulary learning strategies. This inquiry is hinged

on the following theories presented above: cognitive theory, intentional and incidental learning, language learning strategies, vocabulary strategies, and the importance of vocabulary and VLS.

Schmitt (2000) points out that English courses typically include required explicit lessons on grammar, phonology and other language features, but “vocabulary is often dealt with only incidentally in the preparation of language teachers” (p. 13); thus, he reasserts the significance of vocabulary not only in research within applied linguistics but also the practical ways on how vocabulary learning is dealt within the classrooms. Studies on VLS, just like this current study, intend to respond to this need, where teachers and resource designers aim to “expose learners to a variety of strategies that could further maximize their capacity in language learning” (Nation, 2003, p.159). On a more local scale, this current investigation is further relevant due to the Philippine educational system’s changes from the K+10 to the K+12 curriculum that demands higher competency in the use of English that has affected various academic and technical fields of study. Hence, students of this chosen group are Filipinos, for whom English is their second language. GE-5 (Purposive Communication) develops students’ communicative competence, equipping them with the necessary skills to succeed in their academic life.

This study sought to answer the following:

1. What are the vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) perceived to be used by the ESL learners?
2. What are the ESL learners’ levels of vocabulary ability?
3. Is there a significant relationship between students’ vocabulary ability and vocabulary learning strategy use?

Answers to these questions contribute several pedagogical implications that will enrich the vocabulary teaching and learning processes in Purposive Communication or GE 5 subject.

METHODS

This study adopted an action research design wherein the data were collected towards the end of the second semester of the school year 2019-2020. Fee

(2012) describes action research as one conducted in classrooms adopted to solve an immediate problem that arises during a particular time. This type of research bridges the gap between educational theory and professional practice by improvising current practices, as it helps the researcher address practical problems, suggest appropriate lines of action, and generate knowledge to produce change. The positionality of the researchers as language teachers of the target respondents allowed them to have observed the learners in their language tasks in the classroom; this allowed them to shape informed opinion through their observations of the students' study habits in class and use of VLS in acquiring lexis in the classroom.

Purpose of the Study

This study was conducted to investigate whether the use of VLS improves vocabulary learning and retention. Based on the literature review, the efficacy of VLS has been researched. However, limited studies have investigated vocabulary learning effectiveness and vocabulary retention in the ESL context, as most studies on lexical acquisition are conducted in an EFL setting. This study aimed to investigate whether Discovery, Memory, or Context strategies best prepares university-level students for learning and retaining vocabulary in English as Second Language classrooms. The researchers aimed to identify the types of strategies perceived to be used by good language learners and poor language learners, and to assess how frequently they use these strategies.

Participants

As action research, this study based its sample on a group of first year students enrolled in an English class at the university level. This study's chosen respondents were forty (40) first year students enrolled in one section of General Education (GE-5) class at Silliman University. GE-5 (Purposive Communication) is the equivalent of English-1 mandated by CHED (Commission on Higher Education). All students chosen for this group are Filipinos for whom English is their second language. English is also the official medium of instruction from pre-school to college. All research participants identified Cebuano as their mother tongue; they came from Negros Island Region, Siquijor island, and parts of Mindanao.

Instrument

A quantitative research strategy was used to elicit answers to posited questions. The instrument used for the survey is adopted from Jeon's study (2007), mainly as this study is an adaptation of his study on *The Relationship between Korean EFL Learners' Vocabulary Ability and VLS*. In the current research setting, it is not uncommon to have many international students coming from an EFL background in the first year English classes; thus, the researchers intended to see if Jeon's EFL survey would apply to the ESL context. More importantly, Jeon's modified list of VLS categories (Discovery, Memory, and Cognitive strategies) and their sub-strategies, which he also narrowed from Gu (2003), covers a good range of strategies that are practicable and relevant even in the current study's ESL context compared to other, more recent research on vocabulary learning.

The data for this study were collected from two survey instruments: a Vocabulary Test tool and a VLS survey questionnaire. The first instrument is a 70-item test aimed to identify the students' vocabulary ability: this test is composed of two sections, in which both part 1 and part 2 consist of 35 items arranged according to their level of complexity. The second instrument is comprised of a 30-item survey which would identify the VLS perceived to be used by the respondents. Beforehand the class was informed that the scores they may garner from answering the vocabulary test and the VLS survey would have no bearing on their grade in GE-5. To further instill reliability and elicit honest answers in the survey, the class was likewise informed that the study results would help identify strategies that could benefit incoming first year students in accelerating in vocabulary learning and retention improvement.

Observational methods are often difficult to employ because many learning strategies are internal and invisible to observers. Learning-strategy research mostly depends on learners' willingness and ability to describe their internal behaviors, i.e., cognitive and affective (Brown, 1989; Harlow, 1988, cited by Oxford 1992). For the learners to clearly express how their learning is achieved, they must be explicitly aware of their strengths, weaknesses, and personal preference in individual and cultural learning styles (Schmitt, N., & Schmitt, D., 1993). With this consideration, the questionnaire method is the most reliable method in that the learners give their data; thus, the questionnaire method was employed in this current study.

Procedure and Data Analysis

This study investigated the scores of students based on the Vocabulary Test (instrument-1) and the VLS they perceived to have used (instrument-2) to build up their English vocabulary. One of the researchers, who was also the teacher of the chosen respondents, asked the students to accomplish the vocabulary test, and after which, they were to rate each strategy statement in the VLS questionnaire. The whole procedure took about an hour of class time.

To provide a basis for comparison, the researchers divided the chosen participants into two groups according to their performance in the 70-item Vocabulary Test (instrument-1). From the test results, an upper group (UG) and a lower group (LG) were identified: the upper group consists of students whose score is above 35, and the lower group includes those with a score lower than 36.

Table 1

Vocabulary Ability Test Groupings

Score	Vocabulary Ability
36-70	Upper Group
35-1	Lower Group

A scale was used to determine the ESL students' perceived use of the VLS. Target participants responded on a 5-point interval Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree (SA), agree (A), neutral (N), disagree (D), and strongly disagree (SD), in terms of their frequency of the VLS use. The said instrument contains 30 items in the three major categories: Discovery, Memory, and Cognitive strategies. The respondents then indicated their level of perceived use of VLS on a Likert scale: 5.00, indicating very low use, and 1.0 for very high use. Their responses were averaged and interpreted using this table: If the score ranges from 1-1.7, it indicates a *very high perceived use of the VLS*; 1.8-2.5 indicates *high use of VLS*; 2.6-3.3 indicates *moderate use of VLS*; 3.4-4.1 indicates low use, and if the score ranges from 4.2-5.0, it indicates a *very low perceived use of the VLS*.

Table 2
Mean Ranges and Descriptive Interpretation

Mean Range	Interpretation	Perceived use of VLS
1.00-1.79	Strongly Agree	Very High
1.80-2.59	Agree	High
2.60-3.39	Neutral	Moderate
3.40-4.19	Disagree	Low
4.20-5.00	Strongly Disagree	Very Low

Pearson Product Moment was used to determine whether or not a significant relationship exists between vocabulary test ability and perceived use of vocabulary learning strategies. For a relationship to be significant, the *p* value must be equal to or lesser than 0.05 which is the margin of error. Data collected from the questionnaire was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Vocabulary Learning Strategies Preferred by GE-5 Students

This section presents the top three strategies of the students’ use of VLS under Discovery, Memory, and Cognitive.

Use of Discovery Strategies (DS)

Our investigation yielded interesting results. Table 3 shows the top-three used of discovery strategies in acquiring lexis: “Consulting a teacher or friends to get the meaning of words”, followed by “Asking the teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new words” and a tie between “Guessing the meaning of a word from the textual development” and “Guessing the meaning of a word from mental memory.”

Table 3

Students' Perceived Use of Discovery Strategies

Item	Weight					WX	VD
	1	2	3	4	5		
Consult a teacher or friends to get the meaning of words	11(27.5)	7(17.5)	4(10.0)	12(30.0)	6(15.0)	2.88	N
Ask the teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new words	12(30.0)	9(22.5)	7(17.5)	7(17.5)	5(12.5)	2.60	N
Guess the meaning of a word from the textual development	13(32.5)	9(22.5)	8(20.0)	8(20.0)	2(5.0)	2.43	A
Guess the meaning of a word from mental memory	9(22.5)	14(35.0)	8(20.0)	9(22.5)	0(0.0)	2.43	A

WX = Weighted mean; VD = Verbal Description

A = Agree; N = Neutral

Numbers in parentheses are in percent

These results indicate that majority of the respondents would consult their teachers and friends for meaning. This can be linked to the students' desire or need for speed in acquiring meaning. However, this may not mean that ESL learners find it challenging to analyze the function of a word based on its placement within the sentence, or avoid exerting effort to see the relationship of its parts. Moreover, on guessing the meaning of a word from the textual development, Schmitt (2008) states that learning vocabulary through guessing is one of the preferred strategies among learners. Moreover, Fraser (1999) finds that for L2 learners, one of the favorite techniques is guessing words from the context.

Consequently, by guessing the meaning of words, learners would acquire a range of meanings for a single word from textual development and mental memory. On the other hand, in this current study, some students asked teachers outright either for the word definition or L1 translation. As observed in class, most students would ask for help from the teacher when their seatmates could not give them clear information or association of the word. Students could easily pick up the meaning of the target vocabulary

when a synonym, description, or definition in English was given instead of the (Cebuano) translation of the new word. Hence, data show that because the students are second language learners, deriving meaning from sentence structures possibly does not intimidate them since they are familiar with its language forms.

Use of Memory Strategies (MS)

Table 4 shows the three most frequently used memory strategies by the students. First is “Memorizing the spelling of a word letter by letter”, followed by “Remembering the word by creating its mental image”, and the third is, “Remembering the sentence in which a new word is used”.

Table 4
Students’ Perceived Use of Memory Strategies

Item	Weight					WX	VD
	1	2	3	4	5		
Memorize the spelling of a word letter by letter	12(30.0)	8(20.0)	7(17.5)	10(25.0)	3(7.5)	2.60	N
Remember the a word by creating its mental image	8(20.0)	12(30.0)	11(27.5)	9(22.5)	0(0.0)	2.53	A
Remember the sentence in which a new word is used	9(22.5)	12(30.0)	11(27.5)	7(17.5)	1(2.5)	2.48	A

That “memorizing the spelling of a word letter by letter” tops the list suggests that memorizing the spelling could be the fastest way to learn a new word. The second is “remembering the word by creating its mental image”; this is a technique that forms a mental image that gives another clue when recalling information. The image helps fix an item in the memory and gives the key word. With concrete words, learners often find it easier to use an image rather than words. Research shows that stimuli presented as pictures are better remembered than stimuli presented in words. Third to top the list is “remembering the sentence in which a new word is used.” This data reveals that these students can draw connections and see relationships

through similarities in sounds. This is a good technique many students use to learn a new word. This process of association or even scaffolding brings one to learn and remember more words. Possibly, students learn new words and remember their meanings based on similarity in structure. Laufer (2006) and Nation (2001) find this technique very helpful in improving memory. Students need to practice putting new words into writing and speaking so that they continue to remember them.

Use of Cognitive Strategies (CS)

Table 5 presents the top-three perceived use of CS in acquiring vocabulary: first is “trying to use newly learned words in imaginary situations,” followed by “making up one’s own sentences using the words just learned” and “making a note when one sees a useful expression or phrase,” third is “writing down the synonyms or antonyms of the word.”

Table 5
Students’ Perceived Use of Cognitive Strategies

Item	Weight					WX	VD
	1	2	3	4	5		
Try to use the newly learned words in imaginary situations	10(25.0)	13(32.5)	8(20.0)	5(12.5)	4(10.0)	2.50	A
Make up my own sentences using the words I just learned	11(27.5)	11(27.5)	9(22.5)	7(17.5)	2(5.0)	2.45	A
Make a note when I see a useful expression or phrase	8(20.0)	13(32.5)	12(30.0)	7(17.5)	0(0.0)	2.45	A
Write down the synonyms or antonyms of the word	12(30.0)	12(30.0)	5(12.5)	9(22.5)	2(5.0)	2.43	A

Cognitive strategies refer to a variety of actions to manipulate or coordinate learners’ learning process. Therefore, they are deeply involved in arranging and conceptualizing the lexical knowledge, allowing students to acquire L2 vocabulary more efficiently and use it more effectively as defined by Jeon (2007). “Trying to use the newly learned words in imaginary

situations” ranked first. This skill helps students imagine real situations that would help them apply the context of a word; applying context is imperative to activate the full resources of word meaning.

Ranked equally second are “making a note when coming across a useful expression or phrase” and “making up one’s own sentences using words just learned.” This result shows that majority of the respondents used taking notes as effective means to negotiate word meaning effectively. Interestingly, the most defining step in acquiring lexis in the target language is the actual use of the new word. According to our former linguistics professor Dr. I.Y. Flores, “language is a physical thing.” Language is not abstract; instead, it is an occurrence or phenomenon that is observable. When learners eventually use it in context, they acquire the new vocabulary, mostly when done habitually through practice, in meaningful actual or non-contrived situations; then the target word becomes his. Not only is context necessary to activate the full resources of word meaning, but exposure rates matter as well. Schmitt (2000) asserts that students need to be exposed to the vocabulary repeatedly they are to understand and use the words effortlessly.

The third strategy, “writing down synonyms or antonyms of a target word,” could be another practice learned and carried over from Basic Education. Based on observation, it is common for Filipino college students to write down a list of vocabulary for the very purpose of rote memory. They usually make notes in the hope of using the vocabulary when the need arises. In other words, findings further verify that the target participants’ skill in acquiring lexis is through related meanings and associations or links.

Overall, the data revealed that students’ use of VLS is equal across all categories: DS (2.39 A), MS (2.39 A), and CS (2.39 A). This means that learners used the vocabulary strategies equally in acquiring vocabulary. They also indicated a high perceived use of these strategies. One probable reason could be because the instrument used depends on self-rating. It could be likely that the participants rated their use of vocabulary strategies equally to present themselves better. It must be noted that these students come from collectivist cultures in which the concept of the face is very fundamental. Another explanation could be that they are familiar with the strategies listed in the questionnaire because they come from an ESL setting.

Level of Vocabulary Ability among ESL learners

The Vocabulary Ability Test scored determined the level of vocabulary ability among the ESL learners. Students' vocabulary ability was obtained using an adapted version of Jeon's Vocabulary Ability Test. Table 6 presents the ESL learners scores: Lowest score obtained: 41; Highest score obtained: 60. All respondents belonged to the upper group.

Table 6

Distribution of Participants in Terms of Vocabulary Ability

Score	<i>f</i>	%
1-35	0	0.00
36-70	40	100.00
Total	40	
Mean: 48		

Lowest score obtained: 41; Highest score obtained: 60

These are L2 learners who are exposed to the target language. It could also be that students from the private university have high socioeconomic status; hence, they have accessibility to resources at home. Binti-Abdul-Razak's (2014) study reveals that students who have higher levels of social and economic status are more likely to obtain higher scores on the proficiency test and higher grades in English. SES background is related to achievement and proficiency level. It is also a fundamental factor that may contribute to English language learning outcomes. The findings reveal that ESL learners are accustomed to acquiring vocabulary based on meaning discovery, memorization-related strategies, and cognitive strategy. ESL students of English for the academic need to reach a certain level of academic vocabulary ability to comprehend required readings and accomplish tasks efficiently (Nation, 2001).

Relationship between Students' Vocabulary Test Ability and Vocabulary Learning Strategy Use

The third research question was answered using Pearson Product Moment to determine the relationship between vocabulary test ability and perceived use of vocabulary learning strategies. Table 7 indicates no significant

relationship between the respondents’ vocabulary test ability and perceived use of VLS. For a relationship to be significant, the p-value must be equal to or lesser than 0.05, which is the margin of error. In this case, the relationship is not significant.

Table 7
Relationship between Vocabulary Test Ability and Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Score	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Test I and Perceived use of vocabulary learning strategies	-0.16	0.33
Test II and perceived use of vocabulary learning strategies	-0.09	0.59
Overall and perceived use of vocabulary learning strategies	-0.12	0.45

r = Pearson Product Moment *r*; *p* = Probability Value

The findings of non-significance between overall strategy use and vocabulary knowledge indicate that strategy might not influence their vocabulary knowledge. This finding contradicts some existing studies e.g., Teng (2015), Jeon (2007), Wei (2007) but corroborates with Amirian et al. (2015). Amirian, Mallahi, and Zaghi (2015) explored self-regulation and vocabulary size. Their results revealed no significant relationship between the two variables except multiple regressions which indicated that the metacognitive control compared to the other subscales might predict learners’ vocabulary size. These studies did not find any significant correlations between strategy use and vocabulary. However, their study also compared the self-regulatory strategy use of learners in different experience groups and found the first year students had a higher mean score in their self-regulation capacity, which could explain the strategies they had learnt in their Study Skills courses.

However, some individual memory strategies and some cognitive strategies in the present study predicted the learners’ vocabulary knowledge. Unlike this study, Gu and Johnson’s study (1996) showed a negative relation of some memory strategies with their vocabulary knowledge. Students’

use of new words in a sentence and connecting a new word to an image helped them remember and learn new vocabulary. The use of synonyms or antonyms also predicted their vocabulary knowledge. Teng (1998) also did not find any positive correlation between affective strategies and vocabulary knowledge in his study.

Overall, in the present study, although there is no significant relationship between the vocabulary strategies and vocabulary ability test, the ESL learners still need to use some vocabulary strategies to vocabulary learning and to performance in receptive skills of language learning strategies for positive L2 learning.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, the researchers conclude that the results contradict Jeon's study that there is a close relationship between Vocabulary Ability and the use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies. The present study revealed that there is no significant relationship between vocabulary strategy use and vocabulary test ability. ESL learners practice reading comprehension process, although with reading comprehension process applies basic aspects of word recognition, phonetics, repetition, experience, etc., that are also connected to vocabulary strategies. Building up a vocabulary is a complicated process. Thus, teachers should regularly revisit the lexis part of a language course and design vocabulary activities informed by the dominant strategies. Oxford (1992) claims that many poor L2 learners are aware of the strategies they use, can clearly describe them, and employ just as many strategies as good L2 learners. However, "poor learners apply these strategies in a random, even desperate manner, without careful organization and without assigning specific strategies to specific tasks" (p. 126). Teachers should, therefore, be able to spot when learners are trying to retrieve a partially learned item and help them by eliciting it. The teacher may aid the students with prompts and questions or, in other words, explicitly apply VLS in teaching-learning situations. Teachers should also help students have a more positive attitude toward using VLS in and out of the classroom. Rodgers (2018) emphasized that what learners need during language development is to be directed and guided by their teachers to maximize learning both inside and outside the classroom.

With special attention to certain clues, one can raise vocabulary power by applying Vocabulary Learning Strategies. A word-power workout is a challenge worthy of one's best efforts: this is achieved by using a contextual approach in teaching-learning situations, requiring the learner's conscious involvement in vocabulary learning through the context of high-quality texts to unlock, power-up, charge, and recharge language learning. In the school setting, a requisite program for vocabulary growth is needed to develop that skill most worth having, plus an increased awareness for a better perspective. Teachers can make a good habit of finishing lessons with a review of the language they have collected on the board during the lesson and starting every new lesson with a quick revision of the language covered earlier on the course.

Although the teaching of idioms did not top the results under memory strategy, it would be worth noting that the need to focus more on language at a phraseological level instead of at the word level requires integration of grammar and lexis teaching. Thus, words should not be presented in lists of separate decontextualized items but as parts of phrases commonly occur. By adhering to Sinclair's idiom principle and phraseology, when designing tasks, teachers could focus on phrases that most commonly realize functions frequently needed in a particular register or field relevant to the learners (Sinclair, 1991).

Teachers, as materials designers, can make use of the advances in computer-based studies of language (Moudraia, 2001). Databases of language corpora, for instance, include a list of terminologies that are conventions of specific technical writing genres. For example, the COBUILD project aims to produce an accurate description of the English language to form the basis for the design of a lexical syllabus (Sinclair, 1987).

While there is no best strategy in lexical acquisition as language is dynamic, and learners' L2 acquisition varies according to variables affecting vocabulary learning, the current study has established that teachers as facilitators of learning recognize the importance of intentional and incidental vocabulary learning in designing tasks and choosing materials. While researchers continue to argue the best ways to improve the acquisition of vocabulary in the target language, this study presents our responsibility as teachers to make sure that regular revisiting of the lexis is part of a language course.

This current study could serve as a pilot survey to a more comprehensive study on Learners' Vocabulary Ability and Vocabulary Learning Strategies. The researchers suggest that triangulation could be employed through FGD and interviews. Likewise, the questionnaire items adapted from the study conducted by Jeon (2007) be modified for clarity, comprehension, and complexity to suit the target participants. Regarding reliability in data gathering, a moderator who would explain the VLS list in the questionnaire to the survey respondents is recommended to generate more reliable responses.

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Pormatibong Ebalwasyon na Pag- aaraal sa #Sulat v. 2:0: Worksyap sa Pagsulat ng Diona

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Ang papel na ito ay isang pormatibong ebalwasyon na pag-aaraal para sa oryentasyong panlipunan na programa ng Departamento ng Filipino at mga Wikang Banyaga ng Unibersidad ng Silliman na tinawag, “#Sulat v. 2.0: Worksyap sa Pagsulat ng Diona” katuwang ang kanilang kasosyo na komunidad, ang Little Children of the Philippines, Inc. (LCP), sa siyudad ng Dumaguete. Ang layunin ng programa ay mapalaganap at maisabuhay ang isa sa mga katutubong anyo ng panitikan ng ating bansa, ang Diona. Ang programang ito ay kasisimula pa lamang kayat isang pormatibong pag-aaraal ay nararapat gawin. Ito ay nagtitiyak na ang proyekto ay kayang gawin, angkop at katanggap-tanggap bago ito ipatutupad nang buo.

Ang mga kalahok ay mga *sponsored* na mga *junior* hayskul na mag-aaraal sa LCP. Sila ay sumagot sa ebalwasyong papel upang malaman ang kanilang mga impresyon at mga aral na natutunan. Ito ang naging batayan sa pag-aaraal na ito. Para sa lugar na pinagdausan at mga kagamitang ginamit, ito ay nakakuha ng marka na nakamit ang inaasahan at ang marka naman sa paksa at mga natutunan mula sa worksyap ay lampas pa sa inaasahan. Ang mga komento at suhestiyon mula sa mga kalahok sa mga gawain at mga natutuhan ay positibo halos lahat. Ang kanilang kasanayan sa pagsulat ay nahasa, nakapulot ng mga mahahalagang aral sa buhay at napahalagahan ang ating sariling panitikan gamit ang ating pambansang wika.

Ang programang ito ay dapat ipagpatuloy, at higit pa na ebalwasyon ay kailangan para pagtibayin pa ang sistema ng programa, pag-uulat ng pag-unlad, masubaybayan at masuri ang mga estratehiya sa programa, at pagsasangkot sa mga tagapagpatupad ng proyekto. Ang mga iba-ibang uri ng ebalwasyon ay dapat isagawa tulad ng proseso ng pagpapatupad, kinalabasan/ pagiging epektibo, at impak ng programa.

Susing salita: oryentasyong panlipunan, pormatibong ebalwasyon ng pag-aaraal, Diona

INTRODUKSYON

Ang Panitikan ng Pilipinas ay mayaman at makulay, katulad ng kasaysayan nito. Ito ay produkto ng kultural na tradisyon ng ating mga ninuno, sosyo-politikal na mga kasaysayan ng ating mga mananakop, at komtemporaryong tradisyon. Ang pagiging hindi pamilyar ng mga karaniwang Pilipino sa mga literatura ng ating mga ninuno ay dahil sa pagsisikap ng ating mga koloniyalista na burahin ang mga oral na tradisyon. Sa ngayon, ang mga manunulat na Pilipino, mga tao nasa larangan ng sining, at mga mamamahayag ay gumagawa ng mga hakbang na mabigyang halaga ang mayamang etnikong kultura ng ating bansa at ipamahagi ito sa mga paaralan at iba-ibang uri ng mass media para malaman ng mga kabataan ngayon ang ating sariling pagkakilanlan bilang isang Pilipino (Ortega, n.d.).

Importante na pahalagahan ang ating sariling identidad bilang isang Pilipino sa pamamagitan ng ating panitikan at kultura.

“Being a Filipino does not end with preferring English over Filipino, nor choosing hamburgers over sinigang, but rather ends when we have forgotten that we have our own literature, culture, and heritage to the point where we abandon it” (Reyes, 2019).

Isa mga katutubong panitikan sa ating bansa ay ang Diona. Ito ay isang katutubong anyo ng tula na may tugma na binubuo ng tatlong linya na may pitong pantig sa bawat taludtod na nagpapahayag ng isang buong diwa (“Mga Katutubong Tula,” n.d.). Kumpara sa tanaga at dalit, ito ang mas hindi alam at kinikilalang anyo ng panitikan.

Ang pagsasabuhay ng Diona bilang isang uri ng tula ay napapanahon at makabuluhan sa henerasyon ngayon na lumaki sa paggamit ng mga kompyuter at cellphone. Ang kanilang atensiyon ay mababa at gusto nila ng mabilis at madali katulad ng kanilang nakikita sa kanilang mga sosyal-midya account. Batay sa mga nabanggit, sila ay madaling makakonek nito dahil ito ay maikli, simpleng gawin, siksik sa mga impormasyon at isang masayang paraan ng pagpapahayag sa kanilang mga sarili na nabibigay ng tagumpay at kasiyahan (Orillos, 2005).

Para mapalaganap at maisabuhay ang isa sa mga katutubong anyo ng panitikan ng ating bansa, ang Departamento ng Filipino at mga Wikang Banyaga ng Unibersidad ng Silliman ay nagsagawa ng isang oryentasyong

panlipunan sa pamamagitan ng seminar-worksyap tungkol dito. Ang gawain ay tinawag na “#Sulat v. 2.0: Worksyap sa Pagsulat ng Diona.”

Sa pamamagitan ng gawain, ito ay magsisilbing isang behikulo para makabuo ng kaalamang panlipunan tungkol sa ating sariling panitikan tulad ng Diona na maaring makatanggal ng stigma sa tula o sa panitikan sa pangkalahatan na ito ay para lamang sa mga piling pangkat ng mga intelihenteng elitista. Nais ng departamento na ang mga kabataan sa *Little Children of the Philippines, Inc.* (LCP) na lahat kahit anuman ang estado sa buhay ay makapagpapahayag ng kanilang kaisipan at damdamin sa pamamagitan ng pagsulat ng tula gamit ang ating sariling wika. Ito rin ay isang daan para makadiskubre ng mga bagong sibol na mga manunulat na magmumula sa mga kabataan doon.

“Filipinos are lyrical by nature. Our language is filled with rhyme and rhythm; the usage of Filipino is very poetic, even in everyday speech” (Nadera, 2005 sa Carpio, 2005).

Ang programang ito ay kasisimula pa lamang kayat isang pormatibong ebalwasyon ay kailangan. Ang pormatibong ebalwasyon ay nagtitiyak na ang proyekto ay kayang gawin, angkop at katanggap-tanggap bago ito ipatutupad nang buo (“Types of Evaluation,” n.d.).

Ang mga layunin ng pag-aaral na ito ay ang mga sumusunod:

1. Natutukoy ang mga inaasahan sa worksyap (lugar, kagamitan, paksa, at mga aral na natutunan);
2. Naiisa-isa ang kanilang mga nagustuhan;
3. Nababanggit ang mga aral na natutuhan;
4. Naililista ang kanilang mga komento at suhestyon.

METODOLOHIYA

Ang lugar na pinagdausan ng gawain ay sa *Little Children of the Philippines Foundation Inc.* sa Claytown Daro, siyudad ng Dumaguete, Negros Oriental noong Marso 9, 2019. Ito ang kasosyo na komunidad ng departamento. Ang mga kalahok ay 33 mga *sponsored* na mga *junior* hayskul na mag-aaral sa nasabing *foundation*. Sila ay nagmula sa 14 na pinakamahirap na komunidad sa loob at labas ng siyudad ng Dumaguete.

Talahanayan 1

Profayl ng mga Respondente batay sa Kasarian

Kasarian	Prekwensi	Porsyento
Lalaki	13	39.39
Babae	20	60.61
Kabuuhan	33	100.00

Talahanayan 2

Profayl ng mga Respondente batay sa Edad

Edad	Prekwensi	Porsyento
13	20	60.61
14	13	39.39
Kabuuhan	33	100.00

Bilang awtput sa nasabing gawain, ang mga kalahok ay pinangkat na may tatlo o apat na miyembro at sila ay nagsulat ng kanilang sariling Diona ayon sa tema na tinalakay sa gawain. Ang tema sa gawain ay tungkol sa kahirapan. Pagkatapos ng worksyap, nagbigay ng mga ebalwasyong papel para malaman ang kanilang kabuuang impresyon at mga aral na natutuhan.

Ang ebalwasyon sa worksyap ay batay sa mga sumusunod: lugar na dinausan ng worksyap, kagamitan na ginamit, mga paksa, at mga natutuhan. Ang kriterya na nasa ilalim ang siyang ginamit sa ebalwasyon ng gawain.

Talahanayan 3

Kriterya

Hindi nakamit ang inaasahan
Bahagyang nakamit ang inaasahan
Nakamit ang inaasahan
Lampas pa sa inaasahan

Dagdag pa rito, ang mga kalahok ay hiningan din ng kanilang mga komento at suhestyon sa worksyap tungkol sa kanilang pinakanagustuhan, mga natutuhan, at rekomendasyon.

RESULTA AT DISKUSYON

Bahagi A. Makikita sa mga talahanayan ang kabuuang resulta sa ebalwasyon ng worksyap mula sa mga kalahok. Ang mga talahanayan sa ibaba ay

nagpapakita sa kanilang inaasahan mula sa worksyap (lugar na dinausan, kagamitan, paksa at mga natutuhan).

Ang pamantayan sa Talahanayan 3 ang ginamit upang matukoy ang mga inaasahan:

Talahanayan 4

Lugar na dinausan ng worksyap

Krayterya	Prekwensi	Porsyento
Hindi nakamit ang inaasahan	1	3%
Bahagyang nakamit ang inaasahan	6	18%
Nakamit ang inaasahan	19	58%
Lampas pa sa inaasahan	7	21%
Kabuuan	33	100

Tatlong porsyento sa mga kalahok ang nagsabi na ang lugar na dinausan ng worksyap ay hindi nakamit ang inaasahan. Labinwalong porsyento ang nagsabi na bahagyang nakamit ang inaasahan. Limampu't walong porsyento ang nagsabi na nakamit ang inaasahan, at dalawampu't isang porsyento ang nagsabi na lampas pa sa inaasahan. Sa kabuuan, ang lugar na dinausan ng worksyap ay bahagyang nakamit ang inaasahan. Apatnapu na mga kalahok ang inaasahan ng mga tagapamahala ng programa na dadalo subalit lumagpas ng animnapung mga kalahok. Dahil dito, ang lugar ay hindi angkop sa ganito kalaking bilang ng mga kalahok at nangangailangan ng mas malaking lugar para sa nasabing aktibiti.

Ayon kay Payton (2015) pagkatapos makabuo ng mga layunin sa worksyap, ang susunod na gagawin ay ang pagpili ng angkop na lugar. Ang mga pangunahing salik sa pagpili ng lugar ay ang aksesibilidad ng lokasyon, kapasidad, *built-in amenities*, at ang layout ng silid.

Talahanayan 5

Mga kagamitan sa worksyap

Krayterya	Prekwensi	Porsyento
Hindi nakamit ang inaasahan	0	0%
Bahagyang nakamit ang inaasahan	2	6%
Nakamit ang inaasahan	21	64%
Lampas pa sa inaasahan	10	30%
Kabuuan	33	100

Anim na porsyento sa mga kalahok ang nagsabing ang mga kagamitan sa worksyap ay bahagyang nakamit ang inaasahan. Animnapu't apat ang nagsabing nakamit ang inaasahan, at tatlumpu ang nagsabing lampas pa sa inaasahan. Sa kabuuan, ang mga kagamitan sa worksyap ay nakamit ang inaasahan. Ang mga materyales na ginamit sa worksyap ay kartolina, markers, at mga pangkulay. Ito ang ginamit batay sa mga aktibiti na inihanda ng mga fasiliteytor.

Isa sa mga aytem sa pagpapalano ng isang seminar-worksyap ay matukoy ang mga kakailanganing kagamitan upang makamit ang mga layunin ng aktibiti (Hard, 2019). Ang ilan sa mga krayterya sa pagpili ng mga kagamitan ay angkop sa nilalaman at sa mga kalahok, *equity* at aksesibilidad, at mahusay na kalidad (Marbas, n.d.).

Talahanayan 6

Mga paksa sa worksyap

Krayterya	Prekwensi	Porsyento
Hindi nakamit ang inaasahan	0	0%
Bahagyang nakamit ang inaasahan	3	9%
Nakamit ang inaasahan	13	39%
Lampas pa sa inaasahan	17	52%
Kabuuan	33	100

Siyam na porsyento sa mga kalahok ang nagsabing ang paksa sa worksyap ay bahagyang nakamit ang inaasahan. Tatlumpu't siyam ang nagsabing nakamit ang inaasahan, at limampu't dalawa ang nagsabing lampas pa sa inaasahan. Sa kabuuan, ang mga paksa sa worksyap ay lampas pa sa inaasahan. Ang mga paksa na tinalakay sa worksyap ay angkop sa lebel at sosyal istatus ng mga kalahok sapagkat ang tema ng aktibiti ay nakatuon sa kahirapan. Dagdag pa rito, ang mga kalahok ay nakasulat ng sariling Diona batay sa paksa at tinalakay sa harap ng iba pang kalahok.

Ayon kay Smith (2017) sa pagpili ng paksa ng worksyap, napakainam na magkaroon ng isang malinaw na layunin. Kailangan din matiyak ang kaalaman sa paksa, lebel ng edukasyon, interes, at ang pangangailangan ng mga kalahok.

Talahanayan 7

Mga natutuhan sa worksyap

Krayterya	Prekwensi	Porsyento
Hindi nakamit ang inaasahan	0	0%
Bahagyang nakamit ang inaasahan	3	9%
Nakamit ang inaasahan	9	27%
Lampas pa sa inaasahan	21	64%
Kabuuan	33	100

Siyam na porsyento sa mga kalahok ang nagsabing ang kanilang mga natutuhan ay bahagyang nakamit ang inaasahan. Dalawampu't pitong porsyento ang nagsabing nakamit ang inaasahan, at animnapu't apat ang nagsabing lampas pa sa inaasahan. Sa kabuuan, ang mga natutuhan ng mga kalahok sa worksyap ay lampas pa sa inaasahan. Ang worksyap ay hindi lamang nakapokus sa paksa (Diona) kung hindi sa mga aral sa buhay na maaaring maiugnay at mailapat ng mga kalahok sa iba-ibang kontekstong panlipunan.

Ang tula ay isang makapangyarihang kasangkapan sa pagpapataas ng kamalayan sa mga tiyak na isyung panlipunan. Ang Tanaga ang isa sa pinakalumang anyo ng tula sa ating bansa na ginamit upang turuan ang publiko tungkol sa mga isyu sa mental na kalusugan at upang maiwasan ang pagpapakamatay sa pamamagitan ng pag-organisa ng isang paligsahan sa pagsulat ng tula. Ang mga entri ay isinulat sa Filipino upang maipahayag ang pakikipaglaban tungkol sa isyu ng pagpapakamatay (Nadal, 2014).

Bahagi B. Makikita sa mga talahanayan ang mga komento at suhestyon ng mga kalahok sa worksyap. Makikita kungano ang kanilang pinakanagustuhan, mga natutuhan, at mga rekomendasyon.

Talahanayan 8

Tanong 1: Anong pinakanagustuhan sa worksyap?

Paksa	Natutuhan	Paglalatap
1. Maikling kwento.	1. Ang pagpapaliwanag tungkol sa kahirapan.	1. Ang paggawa ng tula at paggawa ng simbolo.
2. Tulang Diona.	2. Ang pinakanagustuhan ko sa worksyap ay yung mga halimbawa ng Diona na ginawa ni Ate Ma. Lourdes Baloro.	2. Yung paggawa ng symbol.

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| 3. Ay yong may mga taludtod. | 3. Yung pagtuturo tungkol sa pagpupursigi. | 3. Ang paggawa ng mga simbolo. |
| 4. Tungkol sa Diona. | 4. Ang pinakanagustuhan ko sa worksyap ay ang tula. | 4. Ang paggawa ng simbolo sa tagumpay. |
| 5. Diona at kahirapan. | 5. Ang pinakanagustuhan sa worksyap ay nong pagsusulat ng diona. | 5. Ang nagustuhan ko ay ang paggawa ng diona at pag explain. |
| 6. Yung Diona at tula. | 6. Mga aral na natutuhan at mga aktibidad. | 6. Iyong paggawa ng Diona. |
| 7. Ang buhay ng mahirap na natalakay. | 7. Ang nagustuhan ko sa worksyap ay yong nagdrawing kong ano ang sign sa pagkamit ng pangarap. | 7. Ang paggawa ng Diona at pagkukwento. |
| 8. Iyong mga tanong na ibinigay niyo at yung laro na inihanda niyo. | | 8. Ang pinakanagustuhan ko sa worksyap ay ang paggawa ng tula. |
| 9. Maikling kwento. | | 9. Pagawa ng Diona . |
| 10. Ang nagustuhan ko sa worksyap ay maganda ang lugar at kasya lang kaming lahat. | | 10. Ang nagustuhan ko ay naglaro at nagsulat nang diona. |
| 11. Ang nagustuhan ko sa worksyap ay maganda ang lugar at kasya lang kaming lahat. | | 11. Ang pinakagustuhan kong worksyap, ay ang paggawa ng Diona, pagguhit ng gusto nilang makamit. |
| | | 12. Ang paggawa ng mga symbol. |
| | | 13. Nang pinagawa kami ng Diona. |
| | | 14. Ang magsulat ng Diona. |
| | | 15. Ang paggawa ng Diona. |

Ang mga komento ng mga kalahok tungkol sa kanilang pinakanagustuhan ay hinati sa tatlong kategorya: paksa, mga pananaw/natutuhan, at paglalapat. Nagustuhan ng mga kalahok ang iba-ibang paksa na tinalakay sa worksyap, tulad ng Diona at maikling kwento. Nagustuhan din ng mga kalahok ang kanilang mga natutuhan sa worksyap, tulad ng pagsulat ng Diona at ang halaga ng pagsisikap at pagpupursigi. Dagdag pa rito, nagustuhan din nila ang iba-ibang gawain sa worksyap, tulad ng

pagsulat ng Diona at pagguhit ng mga simbolo. Sa kabuuan, napahusay at nahasa ang kasanayan sa pagsulat at pagsasalita, kaalaman at pagpapahalaga ng mga kalahok sa ginawang aktibiti. Sa pamamagitan ng pagpapatibay sa mga makrong kasanayan gamit ang pambansang wika, magiging paraan ito upang mataguyod at mapanatili ang iba-ibang anyong pampanitikan at ang pagpapahalagang Pilipino.

Sa ginawang pag-aaral ni Cortes, et al. (2016) tungkol sa kasalukuyang kalagayan ng ating pambansang wika, makikita na may mga Pilipinong mag-aaral ang nagbibigay pa rin ng halaga sa paggamit ng pambansang wika sa kanilang tahanan, paaralan, at sa iba-ibang lugar sa bansa sa pakikipag-ugnayan. Dagdag pa rito, mas mainam na matutuhan at gamitin ang wikang Filipino dahil ito ang ating pagkakakilanlan.

Ayon sa pag-aaral na isinagawa ni Roebuk (2015) tungkol sa epekto ng mga tula sa pedagohiya ng hayskul, makikita na pinahahalagahan ng mga mag-aaral ang pagkakataong maipahayag ang kanilang mga kaisipan at damdamin gamit ang tula.

Sa katulad na konteksto, ang “Textanaga,” “Dalitext,” at “Textula” ay mga paligsahan gamit ang *short messaging service* upang mapataas ang kamalayan at pagpapahalaga sa tradisyunal na tulang Pilipino sa publiko. Ang ilan sa mga tema sa kompetisyon ay tungkol sa pag-ibig sa kapaligiran at romantikong pagmamahal (Carpio, 2005). Ang mga paligsahan na ito ay naging matagumpay at marami ang nagsusumite bawat taon, lalo na ang “dionatext” na nakatuon sa ugnayan o relasyon ng pamilyang Pilipino (Orillos, 20015).

Talahanayan 9

Tanong 2: Anong mga mahahalagang natutuhan sa worksyap?

Positibong pananaw tungkol sa kahirapan	Positibong pagharap sa mga pagsubok sa buhay	Pagsusumikap para magtagumpay
1. Hindi hadlang ang tagumpay.	1. Ang natutunan ko sa worksyap ay huwag mawalan ng pag-asa.	1. Ang aking mga natutuhan sa worksyap ay dapat pursigido kang mag-aral para sa iyong mga pangarap.
2. Hindi hadlang ang kahirapan para makamit ang tagumpay.	2. Dapat wag mawalan ng pag-asa.	2. Maging tagumpay sa buhay.
3. Kahirapan ay hindi hadlang upang makamtan ang pangarap.	3. Wag susuko pag may problema.	3. Kung ikaw ay mahirap dapat magsumikap.

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| <p>4. Hindi hadlang ang kahirapan para hindi makapagtapos ng pag-aaral.</p> <p>5. Ang mahalaga kong natutunan sa worksyap ay hindi hadlang ang kahirapan para hindi makapagtapos ng pag-aaral.</p> <p>6. Ang mahalagang natutuhan ko, ay ang paggalang sa kapwa tao, pagmamahal at huwag tumigil sa pagkakamit ng pangarap.</p> <p>7. Hindi problema ang kahirapan.</p> <p>8. Ang kahirapan ay hindi hadlang sa pangarap.</p> <p>9. Ang natutuhan ko ay ang kahirapan ay hindi hadlang sa buhay.</p> | <p>4. Hindi hadlang ang kahirapan upang maabot ang pangarap na inaasam.</p> <p>5. Hindi hadlang ang kahirapan at pera sa iyong pangarap.</p> <p>6. Hindi dapat tayo mawalan ng pag-asa.</p> <p>7. Trust to God, study hard and do better.</p> <p>8. Wag sumuko, kakapit lang sa Diyos.</p> <p>9. Wag sumuko may tagumpay na nag-aantay.</p> <p>10. Dapat hindi susuko kong ano man ang kahirapan na dadating.</p> <p>11. Wag mawalan ng pag-asa.</p> <p>12. Ang hindi sumuko sa mga pagsubok at wag mawalan ng pag-asa.</p> <p>13. Wag susuko sa anomang pagsubok na dumating.</p> <p>14. Hindi mawalan ng pag-asa sa mga pagsubok</p> | <p>4. Ang mga mahahalagang natutuhan sa worksyap yung sinabi mo sa harap na tungkol sa kahirapan. Kailangan naming magtagumpay.</p> <p>5. Ang kahulugan ng buhay.</p> <p>6. Dapat tayong magkaroon ng pagkakaisa upang maging matagumpay.</p> <p>7. Ang mahalagang natutuhan ko, ay ang paggalang sa kapwa tao, pagmamahal at pagkakamit ng pangarap.</p> <p>8. Natutuhan ko na dapat tayo ay magsikap upang magtagumpay.</p> <p>9. Pagsisikap nang pag-aaral.</p> <p>10. Ang diona- ang dali lang kasi matutuhan.</p> |
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Ang mahahalagang aral na natutuhan ng mga kalahok sa worksyap ay pagkakaroon ng motibasyon na maging matagumpay sa buhay, positibo sa gitna ng mga pagsubok at hindi pagsuko. Ang mga aral na nabanggit ay tunay na kapaki-pakinabang sa kanilang pang-araw-araw na buhay. Nagpapakita ito ng mga pagpapahalagang Pilipino tulad ng pagiging maka-Diyos, makatao, makalikasan at makabansa.

Ang pagkatuto sa kultura at tradisyong Pilipino ay tungo rin sa kaalaman ng mga pagpapahalagang Pilipino. Sumasalamin ito sa personalidad ng mga Pilipino (Expat's Guide: Filipino values, 2015). Ang mga kaugaliang ito ay mahalaga dahil tumutulong ito sa paglinang sa paglikha ng kinabukasang kanyang inaasam-asam (Barret Values Centre, n.d.).

Talahanayan 10*Komento o Suhestyon*

Positibong komento sa Worksyap	Positibong komento sa mga Tagapagdaloy	Negatibong komento sa Worksyap	Walang Komento
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Very interesting. 2. Happy. 3. Amazing. 4. Amazing at maraming mga bagay na natutunan. 5. Ang worksyap ay masaya. 6. Ang komento ko ay masay/a naman ang worksyap. 7. Maganda ang worksyap. Unexpected ang mga pangyayari. Nasisiyahan ako. 8. Nasisiyahan ako sa mga aktibidad at nabusog ako sa mga binigay nilang snacks. 9. Maganda para sa akin ang worksyap na ito. 10. Maganda ang worksyap. 11. Maganda siya pero para distructed kami sa music kahit may iniisip kami. 12. Maganda naman ang worksyap na ito. Meron din kaming natutunan na aral. 13. Maganda at mapupulutan ng aral. 14. Ang worksyap ay marami akong natutunan. 15. Masaya at marami akong natutunan sa worksyap na ito. 16. Marami akong natutunan sa araw na ito at maganda ang nakukuha ko sa leksyon. 17. Marami akong natutunan sa araw na ito at maganda ang nakukuha ko sa leksyon. 18. Interesting siya dahil marami kaming natutuhan at napulutan ng aral. 19. Maraming aral. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Maganda at magaling maraming aral na natutunan. 2. Masaya ang leksyon at marami akong natutunan. 3. Dapat hindi kalimutan ang lesson natin. 4. Magaling magturo ang mga ate. ;) hahaha 5. Salamat sa inyong binahaging impormasyon tungkol sa mga Diona at tula. 6. Ang komento ko ay maraming salamat. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Maganda sya pero distructed kami sa music kahit na may iniisip kami 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Wala. 2. Nothing. 3. Wala!!!

Ang mga komento at suhestyon ng mga kalahok ay tungkol sa worksyap at mga fasiliteytor. Nasiyahan ang mga kalahok sa worksyap ngunit may isang kalahok na nagsabing nadistrak sila sa musikang pinatugtog habang sila ay sumusulat ng kanilang mga awputs. Nabanggit din ng mga kalahok na magaling ang mga fasiliteytor at marami silang natutuhan mula sa kanila. Ang kanilang mga komento ay nagpapatunay lamang na nakatulong ang mga fasiliteytor sa paglinang ng kasanayan sa pagsulat sa masaya at kawili-wiling paraan at naiisulong din ang kamalayan hinggil sa tradisyonal na anyo ng panulaang Pilipino. Dagdag pa, pinatatag din nito ang mga kaugaliang Pilipino.

Ang mga paaralan at institusyon ay may mahalagang papel na ginagampanan sa pagpatatag ng pagsulong ng edukasyong pagpapakatao sa pamamagitan ng pagbibigay ng mga oportunidad sa mga mag-aaral na ibahagi sa kapwa ang mga kaugaliang etikal na natutuhan sa tahanan at pakikipag-ugnayan sa mga taong nakapaligid sa kanila (Manila Bulletin, 2016).

“As always, the educated, knowing what needs to be done, must not wait for those who do not know what to do. The learned has the solemn obligation to show the way, the sacred duty to take the first move. This how society learns from them. This is how education is shared with society” (Lacson, 2005).

KONKLUSYON

Ang mga layunin ng pag-aaral na ito ay ang mga sumusunod: matukoy ang kanilang mga inaasahan sa worksyap (lugar, kagamitan, paksa, at mga natutuhang aral; maisa-isa ang kanilang pinakanagustuhan; maipahahayag ang mga aral; mailista ang kanilang mga komento at suhestyon.

Batay sa mga resulta, ang aktibiti ay nakakuha ng mataas na marka mula sa mga kalahok. Ang lugar at kagamitan ay nakamit ang inaasahan at ang mga paksa at natutuhang aral sa worksyap ay lampas pa sa inaasahan.

Ang mga komento at suhestiyon ng mga kalahok sa mga aktibiti at natutuhang aral sa worksyap ay positibo. Nalinang ang kanilang kasanayan sa pagsulat gayundin ang mga mahahalagang aral sa buhay at mas lalong napahalagahan ang sariling panitikan gamit ang pambansang wika. Ang isang komento sa pagsagawa ng aktibiti na nangangailangan ng pagpapabuti ay itinala. Ang musikang pinatugtog sa aktibiti ay kailangang hinaan habang sila ay nagsusulat ng awtput.

Kailangang ipagpatuloy ang aktibiti upang mapahalagahan ang pagkakakilanlan bilang Pilipino sa tulong ng panitikan, pagbabahagi ng asal o kaugalian at paglinang ng kasanayang panliterasi ng mga kabataan sa Little Children of the Philippines, Inc. dahil ang mga kasanayang ito ay mahalaga sa epektibong komunikasyon at maging matagumpay sa iba-ibang perspektibo. Malaki ang maiaambag nito sa mga komunidad lalong-lalo na sa kanilang sosyal na sitwasyon at personal na mga tagumpay.

Sa kabuuan, ang pormatibong ebalwasyon na ito ay nagpapakita kung paano isinagawa ang programa upang lalo itong pagbutihin sa lalong mas madaling panahon, pagbahagi ng mga nakuhang aral ng mga kalahok, pagulat at pagtibayin ang pananagutan sa pagsasagawa ng aktibiti.

Ang higit pang ebalwasyon ay kinakailangan sa pagpapatibay ng programa, pag-uulat ng pag-unlad, pagsusubaybay at pag-eebalweyt ng mga estratehiya, at pagiging sangkot ng mga tagapagpatupad ng programa. Ang iba-ibang ebalwasyon ay ipatutupad tulad ng proseso ng pagpapatupad, kinalabasan/bisa, at ang impak ng programa.

Ang ebalwasyon sa proseso/implementasyon ay magsisimula pagkatapos ng anim na buwan ng bisa ng proyekto upang tukuyin kung ang mga aktibiti ay naisagawa ayon sa layunin nito. Kasali rito ang lahat ng tagapagpatupad ng programa na kinabibilangan ng mga guro, kawani, at mga mag-aaral sa Departamento ng Filipino at mga Wikang Banyaga sa Unibersidad ng Silliman at ang administrasyon at kawani ng Little Children of the Philippines Foundation, Inc.

Ang Social Engagement and Service-Learning Department sa Unibersidad ng Silliman ay magiging bahagi ng pangkat na susuri at tutugon sa layunin, at panukalang pamamaraan at proseso.

Ang ebalwasyon sa kinalabasan/bisa ay isasagawa pagkatapos ng isang taon, at ang *impact evaluation/study* ay isasagawa pagkatapos ng tatlong taon ng implementasyon ng programa.

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Exploring Foreign Learners' Language Anxiety: The Case of Pre-University English Orientation Students

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Language anxiety has been identified as a contributory factor in language learning. However, there are contrasting results from different studies, which seem to stem from students' socio-cultural differences. In Silliman University, the English Orientation Program (EOP) is designed for pre-university students from a non-English medium background and have various proficiency levels upon entry. This being the case, the researchers attempted to explore the students' level of language anxiety and how socio-cultural differences play a role in their language learning. Using a mixed-method research, the study involved 12 EOP students. Quantitative data were elicited using the modified Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) questionnaire by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986). The instrument addresses four sources of language anxiety: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and anxiety of an English class. Qualitative data were solicited through a focus group discussion with selected students. The weighted mean reveals that students' anxiety level is average (\bar{x} = 2.575, 2.5111, 2.56, and 2.66364 for each predetermined category, respectively), indicating that students are not anxious at all. However, insights gathered from the focus group discussion reveal that students' language anxiety is relatively high during test-taking, which is customarily performance-based; they get inhibited from performing to a big audience. Students also do retrospection and feel upset for unsatisfactory performance. Results of the study provide many pedagogical implications, specifically on limiting students' anxiety and improving students' motivation to learn English.

Keywords: EFL, language learning anxiety, affect

INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language could be a daunting task. In fact, its challenge is best captured by Williams (1994, cited in Cohen, 2010, p. 169) when he said that “the learning of a foreign language involves far more than simply learning skills, or a system of rules, or a grammar. It involves an alteration of self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviors and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the learner’s social nature.” Aside from this, there are factors inherent in the learner that affect his/her language learning experience. Among these are the learner’s aptitude, personality, age, gender, motivation, learning style, and strategies.

One crucial factor that has been studied since the 1980s is anxiety. One can refer to the term anxiety, which comes from general psychology, as the emotional state in which people feel uneasy, apprehensive, or fearful. Ellis (1994) explained that learners become either fearful or confident of learning the target language depending on the anxiety developed. These types of anxiety are “due to learners’ competitive nature and their perceptions of whether they are progressing or not” (p. 472).

As manifested in most students, anxiety is categorized by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) into three types: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety. Trait anxiety is the learner’s likelihood of becoming anxious in a given learning situation, closely related to personality. A person whose trait anxiety is high would likely become apprehensive when given communicative tasks. Trait anxiety is responsible for any impaired cognitive process and memory, leading to avoidance behavior and several other consequences (p. 87). On the other hand, state anxiety refers to the occasional state of being nervous experienced by learners, which is typically momentary and can differ in intensity and time. Lastly, situation-specific anxiety is highly dependent on the situation or context. It has been studied using different scales, suggesting that “respondents are tested for their anxiety reactions in a well-defined situation such as public speaking, writing examinations...” (p. 90).

Learning anxiety and language anxiety have been perceived as synonymous and used interchangeably by several pieces of literature. However, there seems to be a distinction between the two concepts. Coutu (2002) explained that “learning anxiety comes from being afraid to try something new for fear that it will be too difficult” (p. 104). In this type of anxiety, learners

are uncomfortable because it threatens their self-esteem and even their identity. Learning anxiety refers to the general anxiety dealt with by learners in whatever course or learning activity they are thrown into.

On the other hand, language anxiety is perceived by Horwitz, et al. (1986) as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128). Hence, language anxiety encompasses feelings of apprehension and fearful emotions experienced by an individual when specifically learning or using the target language apart from his or her mother tongue.

The concept of anxiety in language learning is related to Krashen’s affective filter hypothesis, positing that the primary factor affecting language acquisition is the learners’ input. Krashen (1982) took a firm position on the importance of input, asserting that comprehensible input is necessary for second language acquisition. In his Affective Filter Hypothesis (AFH), affective factors such as anxiety may correlate to second language acquisition. Krashen asserted that many affective non-linguistic variables play a facilitative, but noncausal role in language learning. These are the variables identified: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety.

Furthermore, learners will presumably become successful in language learning by having high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety. Otherwise, learners’ affective filter will increase and eventually form a ‘mental block’ of information and skills about the target language. When learners have low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety, the comprehensible input is blocked from reaching the mind’s language area. If left unaddressed, the acquisition process will soon fail.

Learners with favorable attitudes have low affective filters and tend to seek more comprehensible input. Moreover, those with unfavorable attitudes are hypothesized to have high affective filters. Even if these learners understand the message, the input is prevented from reaching the language acquisition device (LAD), which, according to Noam Chomsky, is the innate language faculty responsible for language acquisition. As a result, language learning may be impeded (Krashen, 1982).

The theory also explains that the impediment can be reduced by considering the learners’ interest, boosting their self-esteem, and providing a low anxiety environment. According to Krashen (1982), more students

will be successful in learning the target language. In this manner, language pedagogy should include sufficient comprehensible input and less anxiety-induced learning activities. However, he argued that language acquisition does not take effect with comprehensible input alone. Language learners also have to be receptive to that input. Thus, if they are demotivated, distant, or anxious, the possibility is that they screen out the input. This screen is the affective filter that determines how much a person learns in a formal or informal language setting. Comprehensible input, then, has to be appropriate and substantial, especially in low anxiety-provoking classrooms. Learners' willingness to speak and communicate in the classroom language is dependent on their affective filter, whether it hinders or helps students' ability to receive the needed input for the foreign language learning process.

Another theory related to Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis is the model on the cognitive effects of anxiety by Sigmund Tobias (1986). He suggested three stages of learning tasks focusing attention on the various ways of anxiety arousal that can affect learning. The stages include input, processing, and output. Anxiety prevents information into the cognitive processing system like a filter during the input stage. It somehow impedes students from learning new forms, words, phrases, and grammar because they are worried. During the processing stage, anxiety can influence both the speed and accuracy of learning as attention is distracted from making connections between new material and existing knowledge structures. Anxiety arousal at the output stage can influence the quality of second language communication. Anxious learners report "freezing-up" on an important test or have words on the "tip-of-the-tongue" but cannot express them. The frustration in such experiences heightens anxiety, creating a vicious cycle that maintains heightened anxiety even among learners whose proficiency level is improving.

Horwitz et al. (1986) identified three prevalent sources of language anxiety in most performance cases: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension is described as the feeling of shyness when engaging in any communicative discourse. Difficulties in speaking within a small group or in front of a large crowd and listening to a spoken interaction indicate that a learner has communication apprehension. If a learner displays this kind of behavior in a social situation, all the more, he or she will likely find greater difficulty

when asked to use the target language in communicative tasks, especially that performance is closely monitored.

Test anxiety is a psychological condition in which a learner experiences discomfort before, during, or after a test. Consequently, the inability to manage this anxiety results in poor performance and ineffective learning. Test anxiety can also come from learners' lack of awareness of the nature of the exam. If learners are unprepared for the exam, they might experience test anxiety for that particular exam and cause a long-term effect of the learner. Moreover, test-anxious learners demand high expectations on themselves, presuming that anything less than perfect is a failure.

Fear of negative evaluation is mainly concerned with other's evaluations. A learner with a high affective filter will avoid communicative tasks because of negative feedbacks and unfavorable judgment. In a language class, fear of negative evaluation is commonly displayed through either student's over-concern with the academic evaluation or competence in the target language.

Also, anxiety has been related to students' 'willingness to communicate.' Learners willingly communicate in any conversational interaction because they have developed a sufficient degree of self-confidence, communicative competence, and immersion in pleasant communicative situations. All these anxiety variables indicate that the interactive nature of language classrooms and the demand for learners to communicate successfully tend to make the language classroom more anxiety-inducing than other classroom contexts.

It must be noted that anxiety is not often seen to be a detrimental factor. Instead, others have suggested that a certain amount of apprehension can positively affect and even facilitate learning. Learners who experience anxiety before an examination or an oral presentation can foster enough motivation and impulse to succeed in a given situation. Due to the negative connotation attached to anxiety, a few researchers have opted to use other terms that seemed more neutral. According to Ellis (1994), investigating the relationship between the students' achievement and anxiety is not a linear one. In their Achievement Anxiety Test, Alpert and Haber (1960) presented two anxieties. The debilitating anxiety motivates them to escape the new learning task, whereas facilitating anxiety motivates them to struggle when they encounter learning new takes.

Language anxiety, as it influences students' language learning, can enhance or inhibit the learner's academic performance (Alpert & Haber,

1960). Facilitative anxiety compels learners to become motivated in learning the target language and performing communicative tasks. This effect of anxiety helps the learners to improve their performance. Students tend to exert more effort in their learning and may 'overstudy,' which is typical among anxious students, especially if they think they are not performing well academically. Learners tend to work hard in order to pass examinations and procure a satisfactory grade.

Besides its facilitative effect, language anxiety may also have a debilitating effect on language learning and performance. Learners tend to run away from the learning task, which "stimulates the learners emotionally to adopt avoidance behavior" (Alpert & Haber, 1960, p. 212). Such anxiety makes the students run away from examinations and avoid communicating with other learners. As learners strive to learn the language, anxiety hinders their learning development, which affects their academic achievement. He adds that this is one of the many concerns and issues of language teachers, administrators, and parents in schools and universities.

According to Spolsky (1989), anxiety as a negative factor is perceived as a sense of threat to the learner's self-concept in the learning situation. For instance, a learner avoids any situation that would make him or her ridicule for an error he or she has committed. Hence, learners tend to worry about their mistakes and become anxious, which leads to poor academic achievement.

Related to Spolsky's idea of anxiety is MacIntyre and Gardner's (1991) proposed model that explains the significant role of anxiety in language learning contexts. It presents "the relationship between anxiety and learning as moderated by the learner's stage of developing and situation-specific learning experiences (cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 483)." That is, anxiety is a cause of poor performance in language learning. Given a relatively simple task, learners do not mind anxiety and desire to improve performance through conscious effort. However, when the learning tasks' demands increase, the concerted effort may not cope with the complexity; thus, anxiety will begin to pose a negative effect. The damage caused by negative anxiety will heighten when demands imposed are beyond learners' capabilities. On the other hand, learners with low anxiety will have a smooth and effective transfer of information. Deficiency in cognitive processing is mainly caused by heightened anxiety in most performance tasks.

Over the years, several studies have been done on language anxiety and its effect on language learning. Among these are studies done by Gerencheal and Mishra (2019), Phongsa et al. (2017), and Jin, De Bot, and Keijzer (2015).

Gerencheal and Mishra (2019) examined the anxiety level of Ethiopian university English major students. The study also aimed to examine if anxiety level is significantly varied by gender. Background information questionnaire and FLCAS by (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986) were distributed to 103 respondents from four EFL classes of two Ethiopian universities. Findings of the study showed that the mean anxiety level of the students was 3.47 (SD=0.45), which is above the average, i.e., 3.00, and the descriptive analysis revealed that a large number (83.5%) of students were suffering from some levels of anxiety ranging from medium- to high level. The analyses also revealed that most students had a higher level of communication apprehension than the other domains of anxiety proposed by Na (2007). Lastly, the independent t-test analysis revealed that female students were found to have a significantly higher level of English language anxiety ($t=-4.049$, $p=0.000$).

For their study, Phongsa, Ismael, and Low (2017) compared the foreign language anxiety experienced by monolingual and bilingual tertiary students in the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) who were learning English as a Foreign Language. The monolingual students were learning English as their L2, while the bilingual students were learning it as their L3. Generally, both EFL learners reported moderate to high levels of foreign language anxiety in relation to EFL learning. They found out that bilingual students were reportedly feeling more comfortable with the native speakers of English and had increased self-confidence in using English compared to the monolingual students. This finding was interesting since the bilingual students had minimal exposure to English in their everyday conversation and lack of encouragement from their English teachers in the learning process. The findings emphasized positive, multilingual effects in linguistic self-confidence that would help multilingual individuals reduce foreign language anxiety.

In 2015, Jin, De Bot, and Keijzer investigated the foreign language anxiety' effects on foreign language proficiency over time within English and Japanese learning contexts. It also explored the stability of anxiety in English and Japanese over time and anxiety across English and Japanese. The administration of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, the English Proficiency Scale, and the Japanese Proficiency Scale revealed that

anxiety changes a significantly negative but weak correlation with the overall proficiency and the proficiency in sub-skills such as reading or speaking for both English and Japanese. The results suggest that the increase or decrease of foreign language anxiety over time can lead to an inverse change in either overall or specific proficiency. In other words, evidence was found to support the interference of FL anxiety with FL learning. Moreover, the findings also suggest the necessity to trace the changes of anxiety at the level of individuals or learner groups that can shed light on proficiency development.

In Silliman University, very few studies have been done on language anxiety, and all of them involved students who are learners of English as a second language. Carin (2012) examined BC 11 students' language anxiety and correlated this with their academic achievement and sex. Her study revealed no significant relationship among the variables. For their undergraduate thesis, Rubio, Sabanal, and Banaybanay (2018) investigated the relationship between language anxiety and academic achievement of Grade 9 students at a local high school and found out that students' level of language anxiety did not have any significant relationship with their grade.

To date, no study in Silliman had been done on language anxiety that involved students who come from countries where English is merely an adjunct language. Hence, this study attempted to explore this group of students' level of language anxiety. This exploration is important since the students' learning context – from that of English as a foreign language to English as a second language – is significant.

This study then involved students in the English Orientation Program (EOP) offered by the Department of English and Literature. This is a 15-unit program, designed primarily for international students from non-English medium backgrounds who desire to be enrolled in any of the university's undergraduate programs. Designed as a preparatory course, the EOP orients students to the university life's academic demands, equipping them with the necessary skills to survive.

This study attempted to answer the following:

1. What is the level of language anxiety among EFL students in the English Orientation Program?
2. What are the EFL students' perceptions towards their language anxiety in English Orientation Program?

Answers to these questions provide many pedagogical implications that will enhance the teaching and learning processes in the EOP.

METHODS

A mixed-method design was used for this study. Quantitative and qualitative strategies, techniques, and methods were used to elicit answers to posited questions. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2014) said that using this research design "...allows researchers [to] take an eclectic approach to method selection and the thinking about and conduct of research" (p.17).

The respondents of the study were the students of the English Orientation Program of Silliman University during the second semester of Academic Year 2019-2020. They came from Japan, Vietnam, Korea, and Tibet. Since only ten of them enrolled in the program, they were all included; hence, the study used complete enumeration.

To determine the international students' level of English language anxiety, a modified version of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (1986) was used. The said instrument contains 33 items with the following categories: communication apprehension, test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, and anxiety in an English class. Initially, many statements include negation, which the researchers removed and adjusted to make them easier to process for the respondents who then indicated their level of agreement in a Likert scale: 4 = strongly disagree, 3 = disagree, 2 = agree, and 1 = strongly agree. Their responses were averaged and interpreted using Table 1.

Table 1
Interpretation of FLCAS' Scores

Range	Interpretation
1.00 – 1.74	Very High Anxiety
1.75– 2.49	High Anxiety
2.50 – 3.24	Low Anxiety
3.25 – 4.00	Very Low Anxiety

Focus group discussion (FGD) was also done to enable the researchers to corroborate and validate the data from the FLCAS. This allowed

participants to explain and expand their quantitative answers. The FGD also gave the participants a venue to express their perceptions toward the language anxiety that they experienced in the EOP.

All ten students were invited to the FGD. However, only seven were able to join, as the others had previous appointments on the scheduled day of FGD. One of the researchers facilitated the proceeding, while the other researchers served as a note-taker and an observer.

Excerpts from the FGD are inserted into the results and discussion sections of the paper when they expand or support ideas.

Participants' consent was asked in all phases of the data collection process. This ensures that the participants were apprised of the project and of their right to refuse participation.

RESULTS

In the study, the FLCAS questionnaire results determined the level of language anxiety through mean computation. Moreover, responses to the focus group discussion through thematic analysis corroborated the quantitative data. The FLCAS questionnaire findings revealed that EFL students had low anxiety in their EO classes; however, select items that indicate a high level of language anxiety were highlighted and explored in the focus group discussion. The researchers then identified the recurring ideas and established themes and descriptions from the participants' responses. Furthermore, the implications drawn from both survey and focus group discussion offer recommendations to address concerns towards the English Orientation Program.

Table 2

Level of Language Anxiety of English Orientation Students

Language Anxiety	Level of Anxiety	Interpretation
Communication Apprehension	2.58	Low Anxiety
Fear of Negative Evaluation	2.51	Low Anxiety
Test Anxiety	2.56	Low Anxiety
Anxiety in an English Class	2.66	Low Anxiety
Level of Language Anxiety	2.58	Low Anxiety

Table 2 presents the results of each predetermined category and the level of language anxiety among EO students. They obtained a weighted mean of 2.58, implying that EO students were not anxious to communicate and take language examinations. Students were neither afraid of negative evaluation as well. However, select items in the FLCAS questionnaire were found indicative of students' language anxiety. These are enumerated in Table 3.

Table 3

FLCAS Items that are Indicative of High Level of Language Anxiety

No.	Statement	Mean
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English language class.	2.20
3	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English language class.	2.40
7	I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	2.40
8	I am not at ease during tests in my English language class.	2.30
9	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English language class.	2.50
10	I worry about the consequences of failing my English language class.	2.40
11	I understand why some people get so upset over English language classes.	2.20
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English language class.	2.50
16	Even if I am well prepared for English language class, I feel anxious about it.	2.50
20	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English language class.	2.50
21	The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.	2.50
22	I feel pressured to prepare very well for English language class.	2.50
23	I always feel that the other students speak the language better than I do.	2.30
30	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a language.	2.50
33	I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	2.50

Although the FLCAS questionnaire uncovered students' low language anxiety levels, the highlighted items indicated relatively high anxiety and

could be further explored. Substantial inputs would then supplement and corroborate the results of the quantitative data. Hence, these were considered as potential topics for the focus group discussion. The researchers further outlined the FGD questions drawn from these statements' recurring themes, soliciting EFL students' perceptions of their language anxiety in the English Orientation Program.

Based on the findings from the FGD, the researchers established three salient themes: self-confidence in speaking, test-taking, and language learning. These themes are considerably aligned to their language anxiety in the English Orientation Program. Moreover, particular issues are explored and discussed in each theme. The results' discussion is then substantiated with excerpts from the FGD, theoretical considerations, and related studies.

Self-confidence in speaking. Items 1,3,7,9,13,16,20, and 33 are directed towards students' self-confidence in an English class, especially in speaking. EO students shared a thorough discussion on their attitude towards speaking, which can be further classified into three situations: interaction towards classmates, class discussion, and performance tasks. All students unfolded that they are confident to interact with their EO classmates; however, it is not the same for their Immersion classmates. Most students admitted that they were less confident to interact in the Immersion class due to personality and paralinguistic factors (e.g., shy personality, pronunciation variations, speed, etc.).

Moreover, EO teachers frequently held class discussions, so students found it challenging to talk about or share their review of an article. As elicited from one student, class discussions were rather taxing because they *"needed to have a good vocabulary, and speak in front of the class."* Lastly, all students agreed that presentations and other performance tasks are challenging because they usually memorize their outputs. However, one student need not worry about these factors because *"teachers were helpful in [building his self-] confidence."*

The findings presented are relatively reflective of MacIntyre and Gardner's (1991) concept of trait anxiety. It is patently reasoned that students' anxiety is developed based on their personality. To reiterate, students would likely become apprehensive about performing communicative tasks if their trait anxiety is high. EO students assumed that they need to have a good command of the target language during classroom interaction. Consequently,

they became conscious of speaking and less confident in communicative situations.

Test-taking. There were five items (8, 10, 11, 21, and 30) addressed towards test-taking; however, much of the sharing in the FGD transpired around how EO students prepared, took, and evaluated themselves during an examination. It should be noted that the EO teachers employed performance-based exams for the students. The focus of the responses is on presentations, speech delivery, role-plays, and the like.

EO students invested more in preparing for their performance tasks. A few students felt excited because these performance tasks “provide opportunities for them to learn.” They added that there was more time to prepare because they only had fewer subjects. Among the preparations were reading the material thoroughly, understanding its meaning and context, and rehearsing for the presentation. However, one student often felt annoyed because of his lazy attitude; he usually procrastinates, influencing his anxiety and performance.

Moreover, students acknowledged that no matter how prepared they were, they still were anxious during the presentation day. Anxiety was brought about by performing in front of an audience. Students furthered that “many eyes are looking” at them, making them concerned with the way they presented and the mistakes they might commit. Moreover, how the EO teachers looked at them was quite intimidating, making them feel uncomfortable and anxious during the presentation. With that, students preferred to present in a smaller audience and equip themselves with “enough vocabulary.”

In the FGD, students were given the opportunity to evaluate their performance. All students claimed that they felt upset with their performance during the midterm and final examinations. Some of the challenges obtained from their reflection were as follow:

- forgetting a line after memorizing the script
- lacking emphatic expressions
- locating the appropriate words
- losing one’s train of thought
- improvising the dialogue because of ‘mental block’

Students blamed this on their anxiety during the presentation. Moreover, their performance could have been better had they managed their anxiety well.

The discussion on EO students' performance anxiety is associated with Ellis's (1994) assumption towards anxiety development. It is explained that these anxieties arise because of "learners' competitive nature," making students pressed for satisfactory performance. Ellis's (1994) claim somehow underpins Alpert and Haber's (1960) idea on facilitative anxiety. EO students indeed were driven to 'overstudy' and become prepared for their performance tasks. However, students were found dissatisfied with their performance despite the preparations. Students perhaps overlooked the factors that might affect their performance, which is presumably natural among EFL learners.

Language learning. It is relatively rare to perceive anxiety as a contributory factor in the students' language learning. Based on the students' reflections, being anxious in their EO classes helped them learn English. Given that around 75 percent of the EO class size is Japanese, the rest who are non-Japanese found it laborious to establish rapport and communicate effectively with other students; as the Vietnamese student commented, "everything was strange" the first few weeks of the program. However, the students had no choice but to communicate and learn the target language. Anxiety-induced activities such as conversing with foreign classmates in the English language somehow benefited them in their language learning.

Students acknowledged several factors that influenced their language learning despite dealing with language anxiety. All of them affirmed that their classmates in the Immersion classes helped manage the former's anxiety. The classmates were there to assure the students and support them whenever they need help. Also, it was mentioned earlier that EO teachers were also instrumental. Both teachers and classmates helped the students cope with their language anxiety and make their language learning insightful and worthwhile.

DISCUSSION

Insights drawn from both the FLCAS findings and the FGD provided the researchers with realizations and pedagogical implications towards EFL learners' language anxiety and the English Orientation Program in general.

The existence of language anxiety among EO students is relatively natural; this can either be classified as trait anxiety, state anxiety, or situation-situation anxiety, as posited by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991). Moreover, the anxiety developed among language learners is caused by socio-cultural, personality, and pedagogical factors.

As extracted from the discussion, the sense of foreignness primarily influenced EO students' language anxiety. Students were grappling with learning English and immersing in the target culture. It is also found that establishing rapport with fellow foreign classmates was a challenge, and the struggle of becoming comprehensible to their classmates pushed them to double the effort of learning the English language. Students were then managing facilitative anxiety, which would eventually benefit the language learners (Alpert & Haber, 1960).

On the other hand, students' personality traits and attitudes played a crucial role in developing language anxiety and language learning. Although it revealed in the FLCAS findings that students were not anxious in their EO classes, they admitted in the FGD that they became conscious to interact with other classmates and present in class. They felt the need to save their self-image and create a positive impression on their teachers and classmates. That explains why they were less confident and anxious because of mispronunciation, inappropriate use of words, or mistake in delivering dialogues. With this, anxiety comes in as a negative factor, as Spolsky (1989) reasoned because it poses a threat to the learners' self-image. Students need to effectively manage such anxiety, for it could emanate a debilitating effect in the long run, whether for a specific communicative goal or in their language learning.

Lastly, implications on the pedagogical aspect were acquired from the quantitative and qualitative findings. Language instructors are apparently at the forefront of the teaching-learning process, and instructional factors aside from content should be closely monitored. EO students opined that emphasis on pronunciation and vocabulary building would somehow address challenges with their language anxiety. That is, the more accurate their pronunciation and reading comprehension, the less anxious they become. The suggestion offered possibilities for the teachers' modification of learning contents or teaching strategies. Overall, students were immensely grateful for their EO teachers' thoughtfulness and rearing support in the former's language learning.

The findings and implications are somehow correlated to those of the studies presented in the previous sections. The study conducted by Jin, De Bot, and Keijzer (2015) yielded similar results to the present study, whereas those conducted by Phongsa, Ismael, and Low (2017) and Gerencheal and Mishra (2019) instead obtained varying results. Moreover, Dumaguete-based studies by Carin (2012) and Rubio, Sabanal, and Banaybanay (2018) also obtained negative findings; however, these were only limited to the ESL learners' language anxiety. Gleaned from the related studies, language anxiety is not caused by socio-cultural and personality factors alone. There is a need to explore further other sources of language anxiety in different communicative situations. Moreover, the attempt to solicit insights from the EFL learners is a significant initiative in addressing students' language anxiety and improving the English Orientation Program.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of the study, the students' level of anxiety does not directly influence their performance in English Orientation classes. Anxiety in the presentations has stood out to be the most challenging in their classes and their discourses with other students in their immersion classes. As they have strived to learn the target language, they expressed facing pressure and anxiety. These EO students have also rated their anxiety low because they want to present themselves better. The majority of them disagreed with most of the FLCAS questionnaire's statements while the FGD says otherwise. There is no doubt then that these international students regarded English language acquisition as a critical component in their academic life's success and survival in a foreign country like the Philippines.

Admittedly, this study has its limitations. First of all, it only included a small number of participants. Therefore, the results cannot be generalizable in all contexts. However, they reveal insights that can help teachers design their classroom activities to help students minimize their language anxiety and heighten their confidence in using the language. Second, the instrument used, FLCAS, depends on self-rating. The participants likely rated their anxiety low to present themselves better. It must be noted that all of these students come from collectivist cultures, in which the concept of

the face is crucial. While the FGD elicited a clearer picture of the students' actual feelings about learning the English language, the study could have had richer findings had it included more variables.

Despite these limitations, the study found many insights that can help improve the learning and teaching processes in the EO Program. First, teachers need to employ activities that limit students' language anxiety continuously. They can do this by implementing many motivational activities. Second, since students expressed performance and evaluation anxieties, teachers may also introduce some strategies that can help students cope with these.

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Human Well-Being for Sustainable Education: The Perspective of Private Elementary School Teachers

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This descriptive survey looked into how teachers of a private elementary school perceived human well-being so that opportunities could be identified to address gaps in current knowledge around teacher well-being and its flow-on effects on teaching practice and student learning. The study was conducted among 35 teacher education faculty members assigned to teach elementary school pupils. The teacher-respondents answered a researcher-prepared questionnaire composed of three parts: Part I, the study-participants' demographic profile; Part II, their perception of human well-being based on eight dimensions--material well-being, bodily well-being, social well-being, security, freedom of choice and action, psychological well-being, spiritual well-being and environmental sustainability; and, Part III, the respondents' sequencing of the eight dimensions of human well-being based on their perceived level of importance. Based on the data gathered, it was found out that the teacher-respondents perceived all the dimensions included in the study Very Important in achieving human well-being, with spiritual well-being as the most important and freedom of choice and action as the least important. The results, however, showed no evidence of Maslow's ranking of needs or evidence that these needs were in a hierarchical order. On the contrary, the results supported John Finnis's point that these needs, being categorized as dimensions of human well-being, are non-hierarchical, irreducible, and incommensurable basic reasons for human actions, which are referred to by Amartya Sen as valuable functioning or capability expansion.

Keywords: human well-being, environmental sustainability, sustainable education, perception

INTRODUCTION

Conceptualization of human well-being has evolved over time because of its multi-dimensional nature; yet it has become ambiguous due to numerous, and often competing, interpretations instead of a universally acceptable definition (United Nations University, 2006; “Development and development,” 2011). Human well-being has become a complex concept that embraces many different ideas and perspectives and is often used interchangeably with terms such as life satisfaction, prosperity, needs fulfillment, human development, happiness, and the like without explicit discussions as to their distinctiveness (Clark, 2014; United Nations University, 2006).

The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) views human development as constituting an end rather than as a means in economic development (as cited in Balamoune-Lutz, 2004), a shift of focus from economic well-being to human well-being, which is consistent with the German philosopher Kant’s position that the advancement of humanity is the end and that human well-being (HWB) goes beyond economic growth and human development. Further, it is posited that measures covering material and physical components or welfarism are no longer encompassing, and inclusion of indicators such as good health is no longer enough to produce adequate measures of HWB, for while economic well-being is an important component of HWB, many other dimensions are equally important. Sabina Alkire (2002) stated that human flourishing, in its fullest sense, includes matters public and private, economic and social, and political and spiritual.

As human well-being cannot be directly observed, it cannot also be directly measured. Certain approaches to measuring human well-being have widened to incorporate various dimensions from different perspectives. Some common examples of these are the following: Amartya Sen’s Capability Approach (Alkire, 2002; Balamoune-Lutz, 2004), which defined human development not as an increase in GNP per capita or in consumption, health, and education measures alone but as an expansion of capabilities which refers to a person’s freedom to promote or achieve valuable functioning (i.e., beings and doings) that a person can achieve; John Finnis, who gives emphasis on basic reasons for action or basic human values; Martha Nussbaum who views human flourishing in terms of capabilities;

Manfred Max-Neef who has proposed axiological categories or matrix of human needs; Deepa Narayan et al. who have identified dimensions of human well-being according to the voices of the poor; Shalom Schwartz who has touched base on universal human values; Robert Cummins who emphasizes the quality of life domains; Maureen Ramsay who highlights the importance of universal psychological needs; Doyal and Gough who stress the importance of basic human needs; and others (as cited in Alkire, 2002). Despite all of these approaches and perspectives, understanding human well-being still continues to be a core task among researchers and policy-makers.

Moreover, determining whether human well-being has improved over time (United Nations University, 2006) and establishing the link between human well-being and sustainable education are crucial. Different countries have been working towards the achievement of the millennium development goals (MDGs) which started a global effort in 2000 to tackle the indignity of poverty (World Health Organization: WHO, 2018). The successor, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), also known as Global Goals, was designed in 2015 to serve as the "blueprint to achieve a better and more sustainable future for all" by 2030 ("THE 17 GOALS," 2015).

In the context of education, O'Flaherty and Liddy (2017) have pointed out that a 'global character of contemporary education has become evident in educational policy and discourse, and in the practice of teaching development education and in education for sustainable development. The Sustainable Development Goals set out by the United Nations advocate development education, education for sustainable development, and global citizenship education that encourage all learners to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to promote sustainable development and address global justice and sustainability issues. Education for sustainability is defined as a program wherein students actively investigate the underlying causes of unsustainable practices and actively plan for and instigate change in less understood and less commonly practiced areas (Kennelly et al., 2012). UNESCO (2013) has articulated that education is a catalyst for development and a health intervention in its own right, and this has been confirmed by the 2015 Incheon Declaration (2015) stating that education develops the skills, values, and attitudes that enable citizens to lead healthy and fulfilled lives, make informed decisions, and respond to local and global challenges.

Larson et al. (2017), in their study, "The Academic Environment and

Faculty Well-Being: The Role of Psychological Needs,” highlighted the centrality of psychological needs in understanding the relation between the academic environment and faculty well-being. Faculty members are said to constitute the core asset of every academic institution because they mentor the next generation of scholars who enable the institution to thrive into the future. Teacher well-being is linked not only to teachers’ physical well-being but also to school effectiveness and student achievement.

Turner and Thielking (2019) in their study on “Teacher Wellbeing: Its Effects on Teaching Practice and Student Learning” found out that when teachers used strategies to support their well-being, there were flow-on effects on their teaching practice and student learning. Also, Larson et al. (2017) has asserted that faculty members’ well-being have a significant positive impact on the well-being of the country and the world as more educated, more aware, more knowledgeable, and more responsible individuals will emerge through them. Teachers thus play a central role in the sustainability and growth of the institution; hence, consideration of the factors that contribute to their well-being is crucial.

With the hope to contribute to the achievement of sustainable education in its simplest sense, the study was conducted to look into how teacher education faculty members assigned to teach pupils in the elementary school of a private university perceived human well-being. The study specifically sought to find answers to two research questions: (1) What is the teacher-respondents’ perception of human well-being in terms of eight dimensions: (a) material well-being; (b) bodily well-being; (c) social well-being; (d) security; (e) freedom of choice and action; (f) psychological well-being; (g) spiritual well-being; and, (h) environmental sustainability? (2) What is the teacher-respondents’ sequencing of the eight dimensions of human well-being based on their perceived level of importance?

Based on the findings of the study, it is hoped that opportunities could be identified to address gaps in current knowledge on teacher well-being and its flow-on effects on teaching practice and student learning. The study, in particular, could be significant as its findings could serve as basis for the following: (1) for school administration, to make them see the benefit of directly gathering information from teachers in order to understand what personal and contextual factors affect their well-being at work and use these information to promote more holistic approaches to support their well-

being; (2) for school administration, to create and implement policies and support programs that explicitly support teacher well-being; (3) for school administration and teachers, to contribute to the achievement of sustainable education in the simplest sense by promoting students' success; (4) for more researchers, to help address the gaps in current knowledge on teacher well-being and its effects on teaching practice and student learning outcomes.

METHODOLOGY

In this descriptive quantitative study, the teacher-respondents' perception of human well-being was assessed based on eight dimensions. The first six dimensions were those of Deepa Narayan et al.'s dimensions according to the *Voices of the Poor* (in Alkire, 2002): material well-being, bodily well-being, social well-being, security, freedom of choice and action, and psychological well-being. The 7th, spiritual well-being, was originally part of Narayan's et al. psychological well-being but was considered as a separate dimension in this particular study; and, the 8th and the last dimension, environmental sustainability, was added only for the purpose of this study to show agreement to UNDP's declaration that environmental sustainability underpins human well-being (World Health Organization: WHO, 2018).

The Respondents. Total enumeration was employed in choosing the 41 teacher-respondents who were teacher education faculty members assigned to teach elementary school pupils. They were requested to answer a researcher-prepared survey questionnaire, but six (6) of them opted out from participation and did not return the questionnaire given to them for reasons which may be not be relevant to this study.

Research Instrument. To gather the needed data, a researcher-prepared questionnaire composed of three parts was utilized. Part I dealt with the teacher-respondents' profile where they simply provided the information required: age, civil status, gender and number of years in the teaching service. Part II consisted of questions that generated answers that established the teacher-respondents' perception of human well-being based on the eight dimensions previously mentioned. Using a Likert scale of 1 (i.e., Unimportant) to 5 (i.e., Very Important) with some of the items having specific indicators, the respondents indicated their perception of the level of importance of each dimension. The last dimension of human well-being

in this study, environmental sustainability, had 21 indicators that were directly taken from the Environmental Sustainability Index (ESI) of the Socio-economic Development and Applications Center (2005); some of the indicators were also similar to the environmental indicators found in the study of Dong and Hauschild (2017). Part III consisted of questions on how the teacher-respondents would sequence the eight dimensions of human well-being, ranking them from numbers 1 (i.e., the most important) to 8 (i.e., least important) according to their perception of the level of importance of each dimension. The dimensions belonged to one of the different sets of dimensions of human development presented in Alkire's material on Dimensions of Human Development (2002).

Data Analysis Procedures. Percentage and mean were utilized to analyze the data gathered. Percentage was used to present the profile and rating of importance of every indicator under each dimension, and mean was used to present the overall rating of the perceived level of importance of every dimension. The means of the eight dimensions were ranked to show the teacher-respondents' perception of the level of importance of each dimension and indicator used in this study.

RESULTS

The profile of the respondents, as shown in Table 1, includes four aspects: gender, civil status, age and years in service. As shown in the same table, among the 35 teacher-respondents, 11 or 31.43% were within the age range of 21 to 30, 10 or 28.57% were within 31 to 40 years old, 8 or 22.86 % were within 41 to 50 years old, and 6 or 17.14% were 51 years old and above. This implies a trend of the school being dominated by the younger generation of teachers, which may be explained by the diminishing trend in the number of teachers as the age range goes higher, which can be gleaned from the data. Second, the data show that among the 35 teacher-respondents, 11 or 31.43% were single while 24 or 68.57% were married. This means that the number of married faculty members was more than double the number of the single ones. Third, the results also indicate that 6 or 17.14% of the teacher-respondents were male while 29 or 82.86% were female. This shows that the school was dominated by female faculty members. Lastly, Table 1 reveals that 20 or 57.14 % of the teacher-respondents' had been in service

for about 1-10 years, 9 or 25.71% were within the range of 11-20 years, and 6 or 17.14 % had been in service for 21 years and above. It can be inferred that the school was dominated by the younger generation of faculty members who may still have more needs to address that affect their well-being in the workplace compared to those who had already been in the service for a longer period of time.

Table 1*Profile of the Teacher-Respondents*

Variable	n	%
Age		
21-30	11	31.43
31-40	10	28.57
41-50	8	22.86
51-above	6	17.14
Civil Status		
Single	11	31.43
Married	24	68.57
Gender		
Male	6	17.14
Female	29	82.86
Years in Service		
1-10	20	57.143
11-20	9	25.714
21 & above	6	17.143
Total	35	100.00

Table 2 which presents data on material well-being has three indicators: food, assets with five sub-indicators (i.e., house, lot, car, other properties, and savings) and work with five sub-indicators (i.e., good pay and privileges, rest and recreation, reward, promotion and personal development). Table 2 shows that majority of the respondents perceived food (94.29%) and house (88.57%), lot (60.00%), and savings 68.57%, which were under assets, as Very Important. However, majority of the teacher-respondents considered car (51.35%) and other properties (51.43%) to be neither Important nor Unimportant.

In terms of work-related indicators, majority of the teacher-respondents considered good pay and privileges (94.29), rest and recreation (74.29%), and personal development (80.00%) as Very Important while promotion (57.14%) and rewards (45.95%) as Important. A few, however, considered rewards (8.57%) and promotion (2.86%) to be Neither Important nor Unimportant.

Table 2
Teacher-Respondents' Perception of Material Well-being

Indicator	Level of Perception					
	Very Important	Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somehow Unimportant	Unimportant	No Response
Food	33 (94.29%)	2 (5.71%)	0	0	0	0
Assets						
House	31 (88.57%)	3 (8.57%)	0	0	0	1 (2.86%)
Lot	21 (60.00%)	12 (34.29%)	0	0	2 (5.71%)	0
Car	2 (5.71%)	11 (31.43%)	18 (51.43%)	1 (2.86%)	2 (5.71%)	1 (2.86%)
Other	2 (5.71%)	13 (37.14%)	18 (51.43%)	0	0	2 (5.71%)
Properties	24 (68.57%)	9 (25.71%)	1 (2.86%)	0	0	1 (2.86%)
Savings						
Work	33 (94.38%)	2 (5.51%)	0	0	0	0
Good pay & Privileges	26 (74.29%)	9 (25.71%)	0	0	0	0
Rest & Recreation	15 (42.86%)	17 (48.57%)	3 (8.57%)	0	0	0
Rewards	14 (40.00%)	20 (57.14%)	1 (2.86%)	0	0	0
Promotion	28 (80.00%)	7 (20.00%)	0	0	0	0
Personal Development						
Mean	20.82 (59.49%)	9.55 (27.29%)	3.73 (10.66%)	0.09 (0.26%)	0.36 (1.03%)	0.41 (1.17%)

Bodily well-being also has three indicators: health, appearance and physical environment. Table 3 shows that 100% of the teacher-respondents perceived health to be Very Important. They also considered the physical environment (74.29%) Important although their ratings varied in terms of appearance: 48.57% of them rated appearance as Very Important; 40.00 % rated it as Important; and 5.71% perceived appearance as both Neither Important nor Unimportant and No Response.

Table 3*Teacher-Respondents' Perception of Bodily Well-being*

Indicator	Level of Perception					
	Very Important	Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somehow Unimportant	Unimportant	No Response
Health	35 (100%)	0	0	0	0	0
Appearance	17 (48.57%)	14 (40.00%)	2 (5.71%)	0	0	2 (5.71%)
Physical Environment	26 (74.29%)	9 (25.71%)	0	0	0	0
Mean	26 (74.29%)	7.67 (21.90%)	0.67 (1.90%)	0	0	0.67 (1.90%)

Social well-being has three indicators: being able to care for, bring up, marry, and settle children; self-respect and dignity; and peace, harmony, and good relations in the family, workplace and community. Table 4 shows that 100% of the respondents perceived peace, harmony, good relations in the family, workplace community as well as self-respect and dignity as Very Important for social well-being. Only 74.29% considered being able to care for, bring up, marry and settle children as Very Important while 22.86% and 2.85% considered it Important and Neither Important nor Unimportant, respectively.

Table 4*Teacher-Respondents' Perception of Social Well-being*

Indicator	Level of Perception					
	Very Important	Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somehow Unimportant	Unimportant	No Response
Being able to care for, bring up, marry and settle children	26 (74.29%)	8 (22.86%)	1 (2.85%)	0	0	0
Self-respect and dignity	35 (100%)	0	0	0	0	0

Peace, harmony and good relations in the family, workplace and community	35 (100 %)	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	32.00 (91.43%)	2.67 (7.63%)	0.33 (0.94%)	0	0	0

The security dimension has six indicators: civil peace, a physically safe and secure environment, personal physical security, lawfulness and access to justice, security in old age and confidence in the future. Table 5 shows that majority of the teacher-respondents perceived civil peace (88.57%), a physically safe and secure environment (100.00%), personal physical security (80.00%), lawfulness and access to justice (88.57%), security in old age (94.29%), and confidence in the future (88.57%) as Very Important. The rest of the responses on all indicators fall under the Important category.

Table 5
Teacher-Respondents' Perception of Security

Indicator	Level of Perception					
	Very Important	Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somehow Unimportant	Unimportant	No Response
Civil Peace	31 (88.57%)	8 (22.86%)	0	0	0	0
A physically safe and secure environment	35 (100 %)	0	0	0	0	0
Personal physical security	28 (80.00%)	7 (20.00%)	0	0	0	0
Lawfulness and access to justice	31 (88.57%)	2.67 (7.63%)	0	0	0	0
Security in old age	33 (94.29%)	2 (5.71%)	0	0	0	0
Confidence in the future	31 (88.57)	4 (11.43%)	0	0	0	0
Mean	31.50 (90.00%)	3.5 (10.00%)	0	0	0	0

The freedom of choice and action category had no specific indicator under it. In this fifth dimension, as shown in Table 6, majority (85.71%) of the teacher-respondents perceived this category to be Very Important.

Table 6*Teacher-Respondents' Perception of Freedom of Choice and Action*

Indicator	Level of Perception					
	Very Important	Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somehow Unimportant	Unimportant	No Response
Freedom to choose and act appropriately	30 (85.71%)	5 (14.29%)	0	0	0	0
Mean	30 (85.71%)	5 (14.29%)	0	0	0	0

Spiritual well-being, as the sixth dimension, has two indicators: good relationship with God and harmony, which includes spiritual life and religious observance. Table 10 shows that all the teacher-respondents (100%) perceived a good relationship with something beyond the ego or God as Very Important, and majority of them (97.14%) perceived harmony, including spiritual life and religious observance, Very Important.

Table 7*Teacher-Respondents' Perception of Spiritual Well-being*

Indicator	Level of Perception					
	Very Important	Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somehow Unimportant	Unimportant	No Response
Good relationship with God	35 (100%)	0	0	0	0	0
Harmony (including spiritual life and religious observance)	34 (97.14%)	1 (2.86%)	0	0	0	0
Mean	34.5 (98.57%)	0.50 (1.43%)	0	0	0	0

Psychological well-being, as the seventh dimension, has three indicators: peace of mind, happiness, and contentment. Table 11 shows that all of the teacher-respondents considered peace of mind (100.00%) Very Important, and happiness (97.14%) and contentment (94.29%) Very Important as well. The negligible few, i.e., one (1), two (2), and one (1) study-participants, respectively, rated the three items Important.

Table 8
Teacher-Respondents' Perception of Psychological Well-being

Indicator	Level of Perception					
	Very Important	Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somehow Unimportant	Unimportant	No Response
Peace of Mind	35 (100%)	0	0	0	0	0
Happiness	34 (97.14%)	1 (2.86%)	0	0	0	0
Contentment	33 (94.29%)	2 (5.71%)				
Mean	34 (97.14%)	1 (2.86%)	0	0	0	0

Environmental sustainability is the last dimension of human well-being in this particular study, and this supports one of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (World Health Organization: WHO, 2018) which is environmental sustainability as this goal underpins human well-being. There are a total of 21 indicators in this dimension, and Table 12 shows that all (100%) the teacher-respondents considered all the indicators Very Important, with 100% mean for air quality, environmental health, water quality, and water quantity, except for participation in international collaboration which was rated as just a little more Important. The indicators that ranked a little below the 100% mean were formulation of eco-efficiency and human sustenance with 91.43% mean; natural resource management, reduction of air pollution, and reduction of ecosystem stress with 88.57% mean; biodiversity, environmental governance, reduction of waste and consumption pressure and reduction of water stress with 85.71% mean; science and technology with 82.86% mean; land with 80.00% mean; natural disaster vulnerability preparedness, reduction of population pressure, and reduction of trans-environmental pressure with 71.43% mean; greenhouse gas emission control with 65.71% mean; and private sector response with 54.29% mean.

Table 9*Teacher-Respondents' Perception of Environmental Sustainability*

Indicator	Level of Perception					
	Very Important	Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somehow Unimportant	Unimportant	No Response
Air quality	35 (100%)	0	0	0	0	0
Biodiversity	30 (85.71%)	5 (14.29%)	0	0	0	0
Eco-efficiency	32 (91.43%)	3 (8.57%)	0	0	0	0
Environmental governance	30 (85.71)	5 (14.29)	0	0	0	0
Environmental health	35 (100%)	0	0	0	0	0
Greenhouse gas emission control	23 (65.71%)	12 (34.29%)	0	0	0	0
Human sustenance	32 (91.43%)	3 (8.57%)	0	0	0	0
Land	28 (80.00%)	7 (20.00%)	0	0	0	0
Natural disaster vulnerability preparedness	25 (71.43%)	10 (28.57%)	0	0	0	0
Natural resource management	31 (88.57%)	4 (11.43%)	0	0	0	0
Participation in international collaboration	17 (48.57%)	18 (51.43%)	0	0	0	0
Private sector response	19 (54.29%)	16 (45.71%)	0	0	0	0
Reduction of air pollution	31 (88.57%)	4 (11.43%)	0	0	0	0
Reduction of ecosystem stress	31 (88.57%)	4 (11.43%)	0	0	0	0
Reduction of population pressure	25 (71.43%)	10 (28.57%)	0	0	0	0
Reduction of trans-environmental pressure	25 (71.43%)	10 (28.57%)	0	0	0	0
Reduction of waste and consumption pressure	30 (85.71%)	5 (14.29%)	0	0	0	0
Reduction of water stress	30 (85.71%)	5 (14.29%)	0	0	0	0
Science and technology	29 (82.86%)	6 (17.14)	0	0	0	0
Water quality	35 (100%)	0	0	0	0	0

	35					
Water quantity	(100%)	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	28.95 (82.71%)	6.05 (17.29%)	0	0	0	0

As to the teacher-respondents’ ranking of their perceived level of importance of the eight dimensions of human well-being included in the study, Table 10 shows the following ranking, from the most important to the least important: (1) spiritual well-being, (2) bodily well-being, (3) psychological well-being, (4) security, (5) environmental well-being, (6) social well-being, (7) material well-being, and, (8) freedom of choice and action.

Table 10
Teacher-Respondents’ Sequencing of the Eight Dimensions of Human Well-being Based on Their Importance

Eight Dimensions of Human Well-being	Rank
Spiritual well-being	1
Bodily well-being	2
Psychological well-being	3
Security	4
Environmental well-being	5
Social well-being	6
Material well-being	7
Freedom of choice and action	8

DISCUSSION

The data gathered during the conduct of the study revealed that in terms of demographic profile, the school was dominated by female teachers who belonged to the 21 to 30 age bracket. They belonged to the younger batch of teachers, and the number diminished as the age range went higher. This is a common scenario among private schools in the Philippine context. Fresh graduates apply in private schools while waiting for their Licensure Examination for Teachers (LET) results. Others believe that they will be able to build on their knowledge and skills if they start teaching in a private institution because of the stricter monitoring and supervision, considering

the scope that private schools cover compared to government or public schools. Being dominated by female faculty members was already expected since teaching itself is a female-dominated profession. It is also important to note that the number of married faculty members was more than double of the number of the single ones. Majority of the married faculty members, however, did not mostly consist of the newly-hired but of those who belonged to the next three age brackets: 31-40, 41-50, and 51 and above. These findings offer two implications: (1) the tendency of teachers to stay when they are already married because of the benefits married individuals get or because of the proximity of the school to their homes; or the tendency of the single ones to leave after a few years of experience to find better job opportunities. Having more experienced teachers staying until retirement may be beneficial to the school in terms of maintaining quality teaching and effective learning, but having teachers leaving the school may be counterproductive since the school needs to start all over again to train new entrants. Leaving the school, however, requires serious decision-making on the part of the teacher. If a teacher decides to work in a government school, he/she will have greater chances of being assigned in far-flung barangays before they get positions/items in more accessible areas though they may be assured of a better pay with allowances and a more attractive retirement package.

In terms of material well-being, majority of the teacher-respondents perceived food and certain assets (e.g., house, savings, and lot) very important. Majority of them, however, considered car and other properties to be neither important nor unimportant, which means that the importance of these material assets may depend on one's situation, functioning, or capability of achieving them (Baliamoune-Lutz, 2004). Also, the findings show that the teacher-respondents perceived the following as material well-being: receiving good pay and privileges; being given opportunities to engage themselves in rest and recreational activities; being sent to pursue graduate and post graduate studies or attend seminars and trainings; and getting a promotion, and received rewards and recognition in their present jobs because they were doing their duties and responsibilities well.

In terms of bodily well-being, health was unanimously considered to be very important. Along with it were appearance and physical environment which were likewise considered to be very important. One cannot be

healthy if he/she lives in a dirty or polluted environment or if he/she is not concerned with his or her physical appearance, including hygiene and sanitation. One must find time and exert effort doing some physical exercise, eating the right kind and amount of food, and having enough rest and sleep to be physically fit and healthy. Teachers' wellness is an important factor in the overall health of schools (Kang & Yoo, 2019).

In terms of psychological well-being, Balamoune-Lutz (2004), in a discussion on the measurement of human well-being, pointed out that it was worth noting that human well-being could sometimes be interpreted as human happiness. There may be interesting debates about happiness but recent indicators of happiness and well-being consider the inadequacy of purely economic indicators. Peace of mind and contentment, perceived to be very important by the teacher- respondents, are two of these immeasurable indicators of human values of well-being.

In terms of social well-being, the teacher- respondents valued relationships well, not only with their families but also with colleagues in the workplace and other members of the community. This is beneficial for "everyone can start to act to bring improvements in their relations with others within their local community and workplace, and to experience the self-reinforcing effect of visible results in improved well-being" (Crone & Dahl, 2012). Every individual's primary development task, particularly the teachers in this study, was one of contributing to society, helping guide future generations, and achieving mature, civic, and social responsibility. A person can make a contribution by raising a family or working towards the betterment of society, and hence develop a sense of productivity and accomplishment. If teachers lack the motivation to help learners move forward, they will develop a feeling of dissatisfaction with the relative lack of productivity.

Kang and Yoo (2019) posited that promoting teacher well-being may bring the teachers in an optimal condition to teach. In their study on music teachers' psychological needs and work engagement as predictors of their well-being, it was found out that relatedness was a strong predictor of psychological well-being among teachers who had already been in service for more than 30 years. They demonstrated the inner desire to look back on their experiences, and pass on experiential wisdom and receive recognition for their contribution.

In terms of security, majority of the teacher-respondents perceived civil peace, a physically safe and secure environment, personal physical security, lawfulness and access to justice, security during old age, and confidence in the future as very important because, according to Norwood (in Huitt, 2007), individuals need helping information. They sought to be assisted in seeing how they could be safe and secure. In Maslow's hierarchy of needs, this is the second of the first four levels: having safety/security or being out of danger. Security needs are important for survival, but they are not as demanding as physiological needs.

In terms of freedom of choice and action as a dimension of well-being, it is posited that a person who has achieved well-being feels free to do what he/she believes to be right and true, and feels accountable of the consequences of his/her action. Freedom to choose, however, is not meant to be abused, for it is grounded on the premise that actions to be done are meant to contribute to self-growth, and societal and environmental development. Norwood (as cited in Huitt, 2007) considers this as the pursuit for empowering information at the esteem level. It becomes innate among individuals to look for information on how they can realize their potentials.

In terms of spiritual well-being, all the respondents perceived good relationship with something beyond the ego or with God as very important, and majority of them perceived harmony, including spiritual life and religious observance, as very important. All religions and many cultures would consider this dimension as the realization of human purpose, including acquiring spiritual qualities, refining one's character, and contributing to the realization of societal needs. No one can doubt the teacher-respondents' perception, as Filipinos who had been known as citizens of "the only Christian country in Asia," the Philippines. Additionally, VanderWeele et al. (2017), in an article on "Health and Spirituality," pointed out that more explicit focus on spirituality could improve person-centered approaches to well-being and that more attention to spiritual matters could bring a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.

In terms of environmental sustainability, it can be inferred from the abovementioned data that the respondents were aware of the importance of the indicators of sustainable development and if the ratings are closely examined, a certain pattern can be established: from the simplest or most

basic need of water quantity and quality to the most complicated or global concern of being able to participate in international collaborations. The teacher-respondents gave higher ratings to those indicators that were directly related and familiar to them and to those that were within their control. They seemed not to rate those that were beyond their control, like participation in international collaborations, greenhouse gas emission control, reduction of trans-environmental pressure, and the like. The more the teacher-respondents become familiar with these indicators, the more they are able to raise the awareness of their pupils on how the latter could contribute to ensuring sustainable education and achieving sustainable development goals.

In terms of ranking the eight dimensions based on the teacher-respondents' perceived level of importance of these dimensions, human well-being takes on a whole new meaning when its economic, social, environmental, and other dimensions are fully integrated, and sustainable development can be considered in the wider context of human purpose (Crone & Dahl, 2012). Emphasis on the social, cultural, ethical and spiritual aspects of well-being can motivate changes in human behavior and can drive a bottom-up transformation in human society across all its many dimensions. Considering spiritual well-being as the most important dimension simply reflects the Filipino culture of having a strong faith in God and observing different religious beliefs and activities no matter how difficult life circumstances may be.

CONCLUSION

Overall, the findings of this study support John Finnis's point that human needs that are categorized as dimensions of human well-being are non-hierarchical, irreducible, and incommensurable basic reasons for human actions. The dimensions are non-hierarchical because, at a certain point, any of the dimensions can be the most important; thus, the dimensions cannot be arranged in any permanent hierarchy. The dimensions are also incommensurable as each of them cannot be judged or gauged by the same standard as the other. Lastly, the dimensions are irreducible because each of them cannot be made less or smaller as each dimension already has its own basic reason. For instance, teachers fulfill their functioning as models to

their pupils, and as they continue to do their job, they are expected to continue enhancing their capacities and opportunities. Moreover, they are expected to continue developing their judgment in relation to the appropriate exercise of their capacities as teachers in order to achieve well-being in its fullest sense. Ideally, according to Crone and Dahl (2012), “The best measure of development would be that it enables every human being to fulfill his or her potential in life both in cultivating individual qualities, personality and capacities and in contributing to the advancement of society.”

RECOMMENDATIONS

School administration can make a difference in the practice of gathering information directly from teachers to understand what personal and contextual factors affect their well-being at work and use these information to promote more holistic approaches to support their well-being, and create policies and support programs that explicitly support teacher well-being. Further studies may be conducted to look into the consistency between the teacher-respondents’ perception and behavior or action. Good perception translated into good action or behavior yields positive results. Lastly, education should be considered and added as an indicator of material well-being. It is important to note that knowledge empowers people for sustainability through quality education (Didham & Ofei-Manu, 2015). A wider scope of human well-being, and sustainable education campaigns and initiatives may be put in place by schools to make more communities informed and involved, especially that only little is known about sustainability issues and human well-being concerns by ordinary citizens around the world.

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Effectiveness of Biodiversity Conservation Campaign Materials and Strategies in the Forest Ecosystem of Carranglan, Nueva Ecija, Philippines

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This study was conducted to identify the effectiveness of different modes of campaign materials for the biodiversity conservation campaign in the forest ecosystem of Carranglan, Nueva Ecija, Philippines.

Survey questionnaires were used to gather data such as demographic characteristics, mode, attributes, contents, and the respondents' retention of the biodiversity campaign data. The data obtained in the study were analyzed descriptively. Frequency counts, percentages, and averages were computed. Likewise, graphical presentations were used for ease of describing and comparing the results of the study. All statistical analyses were performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

The print materials (posters, brochures, leaflets, pamphlets), collateral materials (eco-bags, shirts, pens, notebooks), seminar-workshops, field demonstrations, and social networks were identified as effective tools of campaign materials. However, posters were chosen to have the highest relevance, importance, and impact on biodiversity conservation campaigns, while brochures were considered the most cost-efficient and cheapest among all campaign materials.

Keywords: Campaign materials and strategies, effectiveness, attributes, biodiversity conservation, cost-efficient

INTRODUCTION

The Philippines is a tropical archipelago with vast natural resources for a fast-growing population. Because of its geographical isolation, varied ecosystems, and high endemic rates, it is one of 17 mega-biodiversity

countries with about 70-80 % of the world's plant and animal species (CBC, n.d.).

Unfortunately, it is also one of the world's hotspots, with many endangered and threatened species under extinction (DAO, 2007). According to Echanove (2008), the Philippines lost an estimated 2.1% forest cover per year (2000-2005) due to the combination of climate change and human-made exploitation (i.e., population growth and consumption patterns), straining the resources (Environmental Science for Social Change, 2010).

Pantabangan-Carranglan Watershed's largest portion is in Pantabangan and Carranglan, Nueva Ecija. Farmlands are topographically unirrigated, so farmers depend on rain and the watershed. Residents rely on large fish ponds to produce fish, while other residents' income sources are business activities, including wood and rattan craft, animal dispersal, kaingin, charcoal-making, and small establishments. Hence, many residents in this area rely on watershed goods and services for their livelihood, hurting the area's biodiversity.

Despite knowing about biodiversity's importance (provisioning, regulating, supporting, and cultural services) for a long time (Cavanagh et al., 2016), human beings continue to do activities that have been causing massive extinctions. Moreover, human beings are inherently inclined to ignore problems that are not specifically present in their lives; some lack knowledge of this biodiversity crisis, possibly due to the advent of a technology-dependent lifestyle; some are concerned but do not know how to solve the problem, and some have chosen to ignore the problem. The issue of loss of biodiversity is so extensive that small-scale effort collections can potentially mitigate the problem.

Biodiversity issues are challenging to communicate. These issues are difficult for most people to believe and detect; much of the time, it passes unnoticed amid variability, unless they have encountered and reached disaster proportions (Shah, 2014). Thus, education and communication may be among the most effective methods to public attention, awareness, and action. Communication has also been described as society's lifeblood or a steering wheel that pushes development programs and behavioral changes (NAP, 2010). It involves continuous knowledge exchange among participants until they reach a common understanding, playing a significant role in the natural resource management program (NAP, 2010). Citizens, governments,

and the private sector cannot render biodiversity in their choices without a reasonably accurate understanding of the issue. The lack of public knowledge of biodiversity's value ranks among the most significant (CBC, n.d.). Without understanding the importance of biodiversity to human well-being, stakeholders are unlikely to incorporate biodiversity concerns into their everyday lives and practices. This situation may also contribute to the low political priority given to biodiversity issues. To make informed decisions, people must have at least basic knowledge of the causes, likelihood, and severity of impacts and the range, cost, and efficacy of various options to limit biodiversity loss (CBC, n.d.).

Biodiversity awareness relates to public recognition of environmental issues and their impact on economic issues and social living standards (Ajam, 2006). Awareness and participation of public biodiversity are vital to achieving a sustainable future (Ajam, 2003). Campaigns are one example of an educational awareness tool and often most effective when aimed at particular audience groups since the content can be customized to community activities, needs, and challenges. Additionally, these campaigns involving environmental conservation and compliance agencies and local communities can build a sense of environmental stewardship, ease collaborative hardship, and provide a platform for fresh ideas and greater engagement (CBC, n.d.)

A wide range of government agencies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are currently promoting, publicizing, and making biodiversity information accessible to citizens in different ways, most of which seek to minimize biodiversity losses (Northern Ireland Biodiversity Strategy Report, 2005). Moreover, local communities serving as ecosystem and species diversity protectors are more likely to recognize the risks of biodiversity loss than those in cities and businesses (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012), as their livelihoods rely on these resources.

Several campaigns or promotional strategies were used to foster awareness of biodiversity conservation. Multimedia (print, broadcast, and social media) can increase environmental awareness in vulnerable communities in developing countries (i.e., Philippines). According to Kotler and Armstrong (2012), using creativity to capture the audience (i.e., visual art, words that challenge), multimedia can potentially engage people to act and conserve biodiversity while enhancing its long-term benefits. Promotion

campaigns' essence and content can stimulate a more profound sense of mutual obligation and ownership of biodiversity, thereby persuading and appealing to people's emotions (Kotler & Armstrong, 20122). Through this, the poignant and personal encounters in nature can evoke concern for biodiversity. Using individual species from their local community to discuss complex biodiversity issues can be a compelling "hook" that may appeal to their pride, leading to information retention (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012).

Furthermore, seminars/workshops are also essential tools for educating the public on environmental issues, encouraging communities to participate and interact with each stakeholder (Hesselink et al., 2007). Opportunities for local stakeholders to play a significant role should be encouraged to develop awareness, appreciation, and compassion for biodiversity leading to their active engagement and participation in conserving and protecting biodiversity.

An extensive campaign or promotion regarding biodiversity conservation is required in order to stop or mitigate biodiversity loss. Several organizations in the Philippines such as the Foundation for Philippine Environment (FPE), Haribon Foundation for the Conservation of Natural Resources, Inc., Biodiversity Management Bureau (BMB), Institute for Climate Change and Environmental Management (ICCEM) of Central Luzon State University (CLSU), and other well-known government agencies are hosting seminars and training workshops.

However, even with the advent of these strategies, government and local government units still offer less emphasis and support (CBC, n.d.), making these biodiversity initiatives hard to implement due to lack of involvement. Thus, the empowerment of each local community stakeholder, particularly the academe and researchers in resource management and conservation policies, is being established (CBC, n.d.).

Biodiversity awareness through Information, Education, and Communication (IEC) and campaigns within the country's local communities must be evaluated for their effectiveness. This study looked into the respondents' preferred campaign materials and their perception of the campaign materials' modes and attributes. The effectiveness in the study can be identified as the respondents' ability to evaluate each campaign materials' attributes (clarity, audibility, appeal, exposure, and attractiveness). The study identified the respondents' perception of what attributes and features of the

campaign materials used were visible, appealing, and attractive. As each attribute was identified, the effectiveness was also determined by how the respondents interpreted these campaign materials’ uses and determined what information was retained from previous campaign materials pilot testing. Retained information is an indicator of effectiveness. Moreover, this study was conducted to identify the most cost-effective biodiversity conservation campaign material suitable for respondents and other stakeholders.

METHODOLOGY

Respondents and Location

The study was conducted at Sitio Binbin, Barangay General Luna in Carranglan, Nueva Ecija, specifically, the residents of the Sitio and the indigenous people closer to the biodiversity conservation site. A total of 83 respondents were present in Sitio Binbin, Barangay General Luna, Carranglan, Nueva Ecija, all of whom were exposed to the campaign materials and attended the training and workshop conducted by the Institute for Climate Change and Environmental Management (ICCEM) as part of the project funded by PCAARRD, DOST (Table 1).

Table 1
Categories of the Respondents of the Study in Sitio Binbin, Carranglan, N.E.

Category	Number	Percentage (%)
Elementary school teachers	3	3.61
Elementary students (Grades 4, 5 & 6)	14	16.87
LGU & Govt employees	8	9.63
Indigenous people	58	69.87
TOTAL	83	100

Data Instrumentation

A questionnaire was used to gather the respondents’ demographic characteristics, mode, attributes, content, and retention of biodiversity campaign data related to their level of awareness and promotional material preferences. For elementary school teachers, local government

and municipal unit employees and officials, grade school students, and indigenous people, the Tagalog version of the questionnaire was used to ensure correct understanding of questions. Table 2 shows the promotional materials produced and evaluated.

Table 2

Modes of Biodiversity Campaign Materials and Strategies used in the Study

Campaign Strategies	Biodiversity Campaign Modes Used		
Print	Posters Pamphlet	Leaflet Brochures	
Outdoor	Field Demonstration		
Seminar/Workshop	Seminar-workshop on Biodiversity Conservation in Carranglan Watershed, Carranglan, Nueva Ecija		
Collateral Materials	Ecobags	Pens	Shirts Notebook
Social Media	Facebook	Twitter	Instagram

The questionnaire consisted of three aspects: demographic characteristics, mode and attributes, IEC material content, and biodiversity campaign retention rate using a 5-point Likert scale to measure the respondents' attitudes and opinions regarding the effectiveness of biodiversity campaign materials.

Data Gathering

An ICCEM request for all biodiversity promotional materials was done for use in the evaluation of their effectiveness. Communication letters were disseminated to the barangay and municipal officers of Carranglan, Nueva Ecija requesting for data collection. Evaluation of biodiversity campaign materials was assessed using a 5-point Likert scale style survey questionnaire that included the following parts: promotional campaign materials used, their attributes, and content. Open-ended questions were also asked to determine the retention and effectiveness of the biodiversity campaign materials and contents.

ICCEM already conducted a pre-test one year ago, with the same respondents, using the initial data to provide timely feedback to plan the

next stage of the biodiversity interventions to test the message's potential. Respondents were given sufficient time (max. one hour) to answer the questionnaires given to assess the campaign materials in terms of relevance, importance, impact which were used to decide the campaign's effectiveness.

Data Analysis

The data collected in the study were analyzed descriptively with graphical presentations used to explain and compare the study results. The demographic features, preferred modes, attributes, and content of the biodiversity campaign used the close-ended questions using the 5-point Likert Scale. The questions included important measures of the efficacy of preferred modes in the biodiversity campaign.

Chi-Square Correlation Analysis was performed to assess the relationship of the respondents' demographic characteristics to their desired campaign mode and attributes. Frequency counts and percentages were used to analyze the preferred mode of campaign materials; percentage analysis assessed the respondents' characteristics, contents, and retention rates. Analysis of percentage was determined using the formula where the total number of campaign materials recalled was divided by the total number of campaign materials exposed and used. All significant tests were compared at a 5 % probability level. All statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Mode of Campaign Materials and their Attributes and Content

Collateral Materials

Most respondents (85.5 %) saw and read the collateral materials given and distributed to them. They are also interested in the materials and asked the researcher for additional samples (Figure 5).

Table 3 shows eco-bags different appeals and strengths from the respondents' viewpoint. Most respondents said that the eco-bags they got were highly effective as part of the biodiversity conservation campaign. Eco-

bags are appealing because this is an easy way to advertise any advocacy, brand, event, or business (Ecopromotions, 2014). Eco-bags are made from local and conventional materials and are often viewed as valuable, reusable, and long-lasting that can continuously remind consumers of the message. If an individual takes the eco-bag somewhere, the message can then be promoted to other people exposed to the eco-bag. In addition, the respondents (98.59%) viewed the eco-bags as clearly visible as it includes a logo conveying a message that is easy-to-see and understand. In terms of attractiveness, the respondents (98.59 percent) said the design, color, and image matched the campaign message (Table 3), that fits the advocacy needs (Fell, 2013).

Table 3
Collateral Materials and Their Attributes as Perceived by the Respondents

ATTRIBUTES		MODES			
		Ecobags	Shirts	Pen	Notebook
Appeal	Reminding the importance	98.59%	98.59%	88.73%	88.73%
	Functional	98.59%	98.59%	90.14%	90.14%
	Has entertaining look	98.59%	98.59%	63.38%	63.38%
	Has an intriguing effect	98.59%	98.59%	87.32%	87.32%
	Instrumental at home	98.59%	98.59%	90.14%	90.14%
	Serving as Inspiration to act	98.59%	98.59%	61.97%	61.97%
	Useful to their lives	98.59%	98.59%	90.14%	90.14%
Visibility Attractiveness	The images have the right size	90.14%	90.14%	85.91%	85.91%
	The colors are suitable to the theme	95.77 %	95.77 %	84.50%	84.50%
	Enticing to read	98.59%	98.59%	84.50%	84.50%
	Believable	98.59%	98.59%	88.73%	88.73%
	Eye-catching	98.59%	98.59%	63.38%	63.38%

For shirts, respondents (98.59%) view them as appealing. Shirts appeals to the public because of its role as a status symbol and as a collectible, even with the advertiser, institution's logo, and name imprinted on it (PPAI, 2014). Similarly, shirts are a handy and functional item, making more people willing to take one and wear one. These collaterals can last longer

than their advertised product, creating greater scope and promotional message retention (Levy, 2012). The respondents (90.14 %) also viewed the design and text imprinted on the shirts as visible and easy to understand, increasing advocacy awareness. Most respondents stated that the shirts are also attractive (98.59%), as they offer a personalized impact to whoever wears it (Vaughn, 2009). They are usually grateful when they receive apparel items, whether it is a classy embroidered shirt to a silk-screened shirt, as it is considered a walking advertisement, especially if worn every time (Vaughn, 2009).

About 88.73 % of respondents, as shown in Table 3, revealed how appealing writing tools (pens) were to respondents. Pens are useful to farmers who need to calculate and write their transactions and expenses (Vaughn, 2009; PPAI, 2016). In addition, the pen appeal comes from hand feeling or sensation when respondents receive pens (Wei & Jiang, 2005). According to the respondents, the pen's imprints were visible (85.91%); although very small, it could still clearly portray the logo, color, and message. The pens received are considered attractive campaign materials (84.50 %), as design colors matched the environment/earthly colors (green and brown). Apart from being reliable, they are also customizable and cost-effective identical to notebooks (Wei & Jiang, 2005; Vaughn, 2009; PPAI, 2016).

Biodiversity's importance is the only attribute of the notebook that the respondents find appealing. This is a clear inference that notebooks' style, colors, and the message written still helped respondents recall the campaign's message (Wei & Jiang, 2005). Items such as notebooks influence parents and children as they can be used concurrently with pens. Like shirts, they can serve as walking ads when their kids use them at school (Vaughn, 2009; PPAI, 2016). Notebooks were very visible while transmitting the campaign message (85.91%). The respondents believed the front cover page of notebooks helps foster the campaign's advocacy; however, they claim that it is not as attractive as shirts and eco-bags. Collateral materials are good campaign materials providing the respondents' an enduring impression and helping the individual recall the type of campaign or product (Wellner, 1998).

Field Demonstration

Field demonstrations are traditional marketing practices involving people, product distribution, and advocacy. Field demonstrations were held in various locations in the Municipality of Carranglan and various municipalities in Nueva Ecija (Figure 1).

Table 4 shows that 73.33% of respondents viewed the road caravan or field demonstration as clearly visible when this biodiversity conservation campaign strategy was conducted in their area. This suggests that the aspects (posters, messages, and videos) used in the caravan allowed respondents to use three of their senses (see, hear, and touch), making them meaningful. Moreover, 97.78 % of the total respondents agreed that the sound and voice-over used were of good quality, noticeable, and attracted curiosity. The promotional audibility fosters awareness and brand recognition because repeated exposure, whether the sound causes appreciation or annoyance, increases sensitivity to whatever threshold people listen (Moulton, 2013).

In terms of the field demonstration appeal, most respondents agreed that it matched the theme's campaign and was fun to watch. Moreover, the respondents saw this activity as appealing because participating in such activity is their first exposure. Around seventy-six percent (75.56%) of respondents also view this activity as attractive as it fosters communication through design, color, motion, stagecraft, music, audibility, and tonality (Orwig, 2013).

Table 4

Field Demonstration and Its Attributes as Perceived by the Respondents

Attributes		Percentage
Clarity	Giving clarity	55.55%
	Giving information	62.22%
	The message is easy to comprehend	62.22%
Audibility	The voice is of high quality and clear	97.78%
	The background music is of high quality	97.78%
Length	The length of the activity is suitable for them to enjoy	97.78%
	The activity is matching the campaign	100%
Appeal	Useful	100%
	Attracting them to participate in the activity	100%

Visibility	The images have the right size to be seen	73.33%
	The music matches the theme	73.33%
Attractiveness	Believable	75.56%
	Captivating	75.56%



Figure 1. Field demonstration and seminar-workshops conducted

Seminar-Workshops

Seminar-workshops are scholastic activities capable of uniting learners and provide education on the different biodiversity conservation topics. ICCEM organized the seminar-workshop at the Research, Extension and Training Amphitheater in Central Luzon State University, attended by various stakeholders from Sitio Binbin, Carranglan, Nueva Ecija.

The seminar discussed mining, wildlife hunting, slash and burn (kaingin), various watershed flora and fauna, and incorporating green technologies such as botanical pesticides and phytoremediation. This event aimed to raise awareness and inform stakeholders about the location’s current situation. However, only 42.2% of the total respondents had the opportunity to attend and participate in the ICCEM-CLSU seminar-workshop (Figure 1), with 57.8% of respondents unable to attend due to their agricultural jobs.

Concerning the seminar-workshop attribute and content (Table 5), most of the seminar-workshop clarity attributes were highly effective for

the respondents with a rating of 97.14%, and 85.71% for images, text sizes, sounds, and design used in the PowerPoint presentations and seminar duration. This supports the findings of a study that the length of an ad or event fosters retention because the longer the event, the more the group members feel their value to the advertiser (Rosenthal, 2012).

Table 5

Seminar-workshop and Its Attributes as Perceived by the Respondents

Attributes		Percentage
Clarity	The speaker conveyed the message clearly	97.14%
	The lecture given is easy to understand	85.71%
	The lecture given is clear	85.71%
Audibility	The speaker's voice tone is clear	85.71%
	The microphone and sound system has a clear effect	85.71%
Length	The length of the seminar is enough for participants to enjoy	85.71%
Readability	The presentation is easy to read	85.71%
	The letters and font used is at the right size	97.14%
Appeal	The seminar matches the theme of the campaign	48.57%
	Useful to their lives	48.57%
	Inciting	48.57%
Attractiveness	Believable	100%
	Fascinating and captivating	100%
	It gives an inviting feeling	100%

Social Networks

Social networks are computer-aided tools enabling people or businesses to build, share, or exchange information in virtual communities and networks (Luo & Donthu, 2001; PPAI, 2016). The study had social media accounts like Twitter, Instagram, and Facebook (Figure 2). It is believed that these social media sites foster enjoyment by enabling them to read posts, view images and videos, and observe various designs and styles. Besides that, social media/networks can reach respondents even with the distance and educational differences (Luo & Donthu, 2001; PPAI, 2016). More than half of the respondents (55.4 %), mainly aged 11 to 36, had access, familiarity, and are active social media users.

Results also showed that clarity and attractiveness were the most important attributes for all the respondents (100%), followed by readability (97.82%) (Table 6). Even so, 82.61% of the respondents exposed to social media said the text and photos were clear; the messages are straightforward and easy to remember. In terms of readability, most of the respondents (97.82%) said that the letters, text, font styles, and designs were easy to read and understand.

Social media is useful and appealing for most respondents as it can help improve advocacy awareness acting as a new voice and content outlets for the campaign (Luo & Donthu, 2001; Demers, 2015; PPAI, 2016). Social networks are more straightforward, open, and educational for users who access it (Sorce & Dewits, 2007; Nielsen, 2011; Demers, 2015). The biodiversity conservation campaign used various visual content in social networks such as text, pictures, and videos, which were essential to public engagement, making the campaign highly appealing, recognizable, and enticing to most respondents (80.43%).

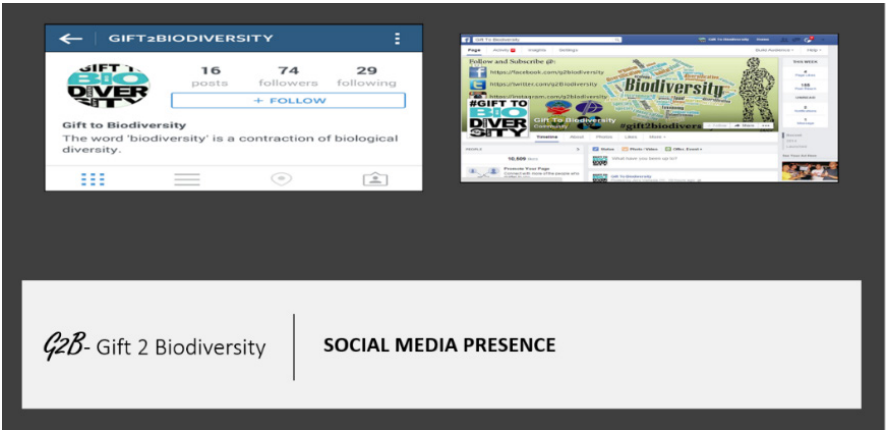


Figure 2. Social media utilized in the biodiversity conservation campaign

Table 6
Social Network and Its Attributes as Perceived by the Respondents

Attributes		Percentage
Clarity	Full of information	100%
	The message is easy to understand	100%
	The message is easy to remember	80.4%
	The letters and pictures used are suitable for the theme	95.65%

Readability	The presentation is very noticeable and pleasing	43.4%
	The letters and font used are of the right size and style	97.82%
	The font style is easy to read	97.82%
Appeal	Attracts you to attend	80.43%
	Easy to comprehend	97.82%
	Useful to their lives	78.26%
Visibility	The images and texts used are at the right size	82.61%
Attractiveness	The background music and images used are enticing	95.65%
	Believable	80.43%
	Captivating	80.43%
	The color matches the theme	100%

Print Materials

Of all the campaign materials which are displayed and circulated, print materials are the most comfortable to distribute, easy to find, repositionable, and flexible (Captivating signs, 2015), which is why most respondents viewed them as appealing, noticeable, and desirable (Figures 3, 4 and 5).

Table 7 indicates that 62.96 % of the respondents agreed that posters could convey meaningful and reliable messages and have font types, design, and size that are readable and visible. The respondents (96.3%) consider posters highly attractive (Figure 3), as they are eye-catching due to their rich colors and flexible theme alignment. These print materials can attract onlookers from a distance and can accommodate more text and image content. It also encourages reinforcement because people frequently appear to be exposed to them, reinforcing the message in their minds (Peer, 2012). According to Daye (2015), most people prefer posters to leaflets, brochures, and pamphlets because color affects the human brain and psychology. Colorful posters improve the object’s presence that directly affects behavior, attitudes, values, and culture (Daye, 2015).

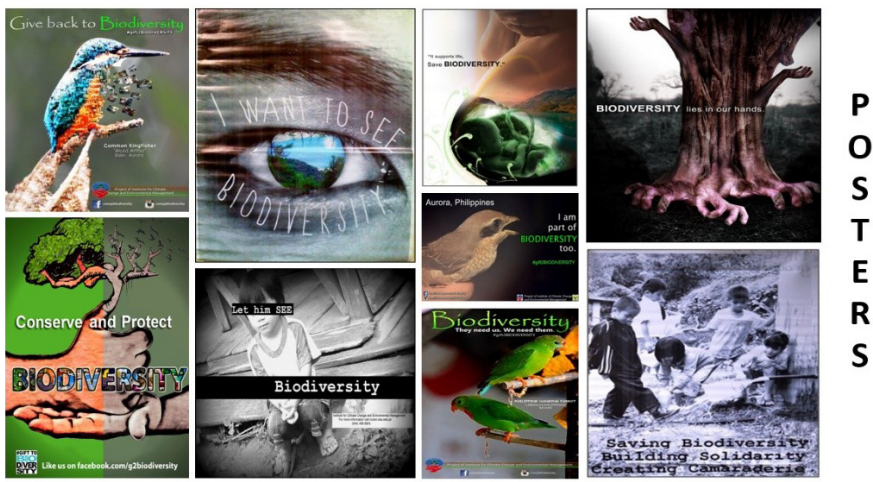


Figure 3. Posters used in the biodiversity conservation campaign.

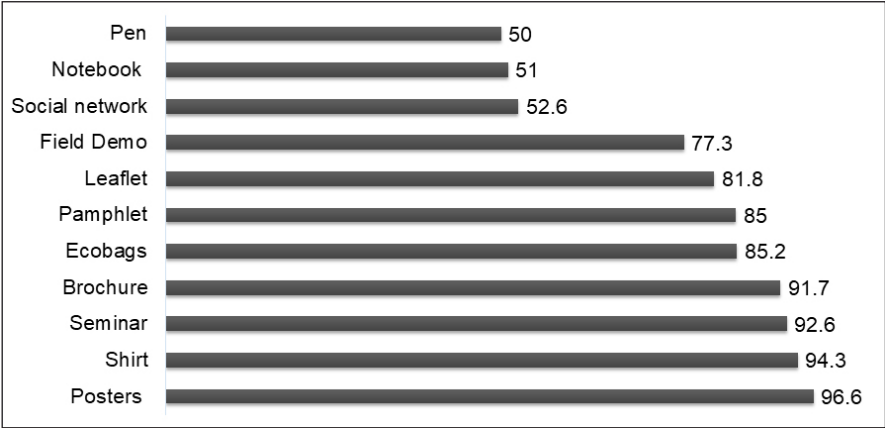


Figure 4. Biodiversity campaign sample brochures and leaflets.



Figure 5. Pamphlets and collateral materials used in the biodiversity conservation campaign.

Brochures are detailed paper documents to fold into a prototype (Chadwich, 2013). It is considered desirable as it is more powerful and pocket-friendly than TV ads; it can focus entirely on campaigns and deals, thereby gaining undivided attention from all possible respondents (Peer, 2012). Four brochures were used and distributed with wildlife hunting topics, slash and burn (kaingin), mining, and biodiversity conservation (Figure 4). Nearly 70 percent (69.13 %) of the respondents believed that brochures were highly effective in terms of clarity (Table 7), as the font style and text size in the brochure were easy to read, and the material contained many information. Visibility and appeal-wise, 96.3 % of the respondents said that they were captivating and could influence them to read and know the biodiversity crisis. Likewise, 96.3 % of them also said brochures were very visible, while 69.13 % said they were believable and catchy. This implies that the content of the brochures provided was supported informatively with relevant images that could incite action.

Table 7
Printed Materials and Their Attributes as Perceived by the Respondents

Attributes		Posters	Brochure	Leaflet	Pamphlet
Clarity	The message is clear	62.96%	69.13%	46.91%	96.3%
	Easy to comprehend	62.96%	69.13%	46.91%	96.3%

	The message is accurate and precise	62.96%	69.13%	46.91%	96.3%
Readability	Easy to understand	62.96%	56.79%	30.86%	46.91%
	The letters are easy to read	62.96%	96.29%	30.86%	30.86%
	The designs are comprehensible	61.7%	45.67%	96.3%	30.86%
Appeal	Easy to remember	74.07%	69.13%	96.3%	96.3%
	Functional	69.13%	96.3%	96.3%	96.3%
	Entice you to take a second glimpse	56.79%	96.3%	30.86%	96.3%
Visibility	The images and texts used are in right size	55.56%	96.3%	30.86%	30.86%
Attractiveness	Captivating	71.60%	96.3%	30.86%	30.86%
	Believable	96.3%	69.13%	30.86%	30.86%
	Eye-catching	96.3%	69.13%	30.86%	48.14%

Leaflets are typically used for ads, marketing, and additional label information (Figure 4). Unlike brochures, they have much information not present in other campaign materials (Peer, 2012). Results showed that more than ninety percent (96.3 %) of the respondents regarded the leaflets as easy to remember and practical, while only 30.86 % claimed they were eye-catching, as they were more intrigued by brochures, posters, and collateral materials.

Pamphlets are unbound booklets consisting of one sheet of paper printed on both sides, folded in half (Figure 5). As shown in Table 7, 96.3 % of the respondents claimed that the pamphlets distributed were clear, appealing, and easy to understand. This means that these materials could still induce a call for action and serve as their guide. However, only 30.86 % claimed they were highly attractive, as the content is more on texts and information than images compared to posters, resulting in a low impact on people (Daye, 2015).

Effectiveness of the Biodiversity Mode’s Attribute and Content

Figure 6 highlights the perspective on the importance and use of biodiversity in their area. Most respondents, especially male farmers above the age of 41 and married, viewed livelihood as their main reason for protecting and preserving biodiversity in the area. Since the respondents mostly live in the vicinity of the site’s mountainous area and far from the center of trade, they viewed flora and fauna around them as their primary source of livelihood. Both students and indigenous people (50 %) viewed biodiversity campaign materials as tools to

support their livelihood, while government employees (54.55 %) and teachers (41.59 %) regarded biodiversity conservation campaign materials as significant techniques and strategies to protect and conserve forest biodiversity.

In terms of the information retained by the respondents, Figure 7 revealed that the main information instilled in the respondents' minds was to take good care of the fauna to avoid extinction (72.3 %) and the preservation of forests/ trees (56.6 %), especially the indigenous people closer to the site of conservation and dependent on the ecosystem.

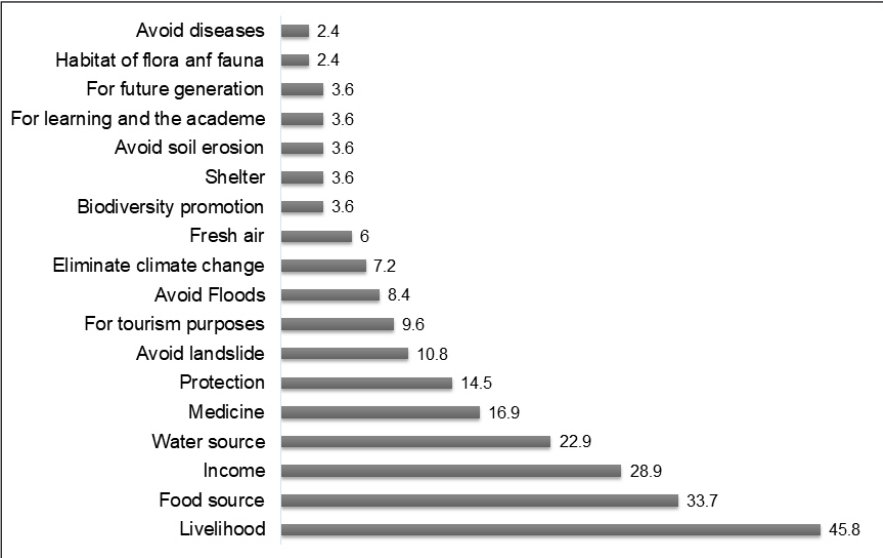


Figure 6. Percentage of respondents who gave the uses of the various biodiversity campaign materials

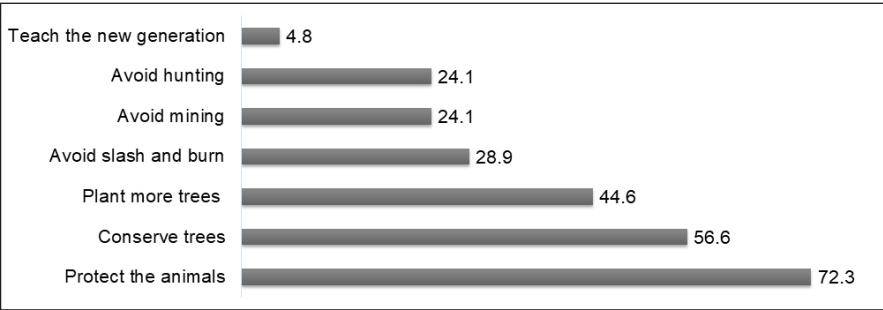


Figure 7. Percentage of respondents who replied what information have been retained from the various biodiversity campaign materials

Figure 8 shows the number of responses based on their demographic profile, which preferred the various conservation campaign materials. Most respondents, especially women aged 41 and married, preferred posters as attractive campaign material for biodiversity conservation. Print media, especially posters, are still the best sensory media material due to its tangibility, paper-feel, and ability to trigger several senses (Printpower, 2012).

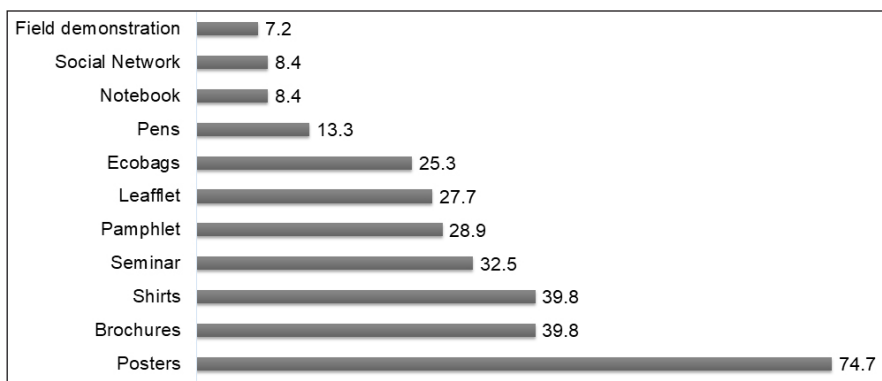


Figure 8. Percentage of respondents who gave preference on the various biodiversity campaign materials

Figure 9 presents respondents' responses to describe the various campaign materials' features and biodiversity conservation characteristics. Results show that the campaign materials and strategies were true to life (56.6%), while only a few respondents (2.4%) replied that the campaign materials were boring. The findings indicate that the concepts of materials used in the biodiversity conservation campaign were well-executed to attract target respondents.

Particularly among the indigenous people and teachers, the campaign materials were considered believable due to the richness of information, and the interaction they had during the seminar-workshop. They also perceived the campaign materials as educational because the information contained in the materials helped educate the students and their families to protect biodiversity. Students (78.57 %) and government employees (54.15 %) perceived campaign materials as easy to understand because they could quickly share their knowledge with their classmates and colleagues.

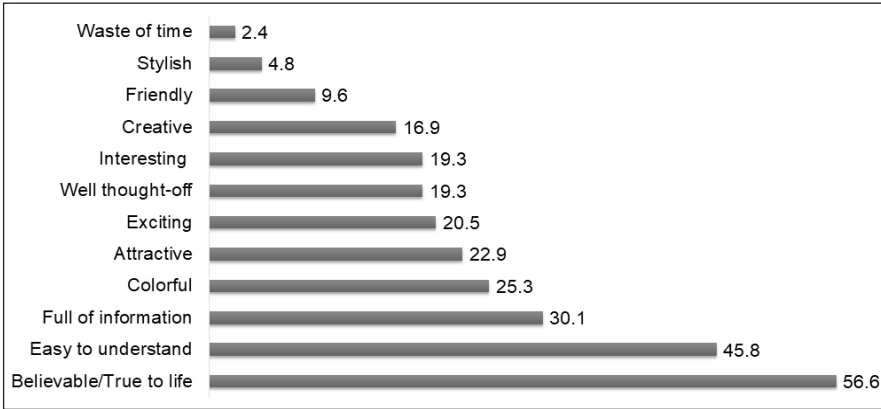


Figure 9. Response of the respondents on the description of the features and characteristics of the various biodiversity conservation campaign materials

The respondents also gave preference rankings for the various conservation campaign materials. Results revealed that most respondents gave the campaign materials a ranking of 10, which implies they liked the campaign materials given, distributed, and presented.

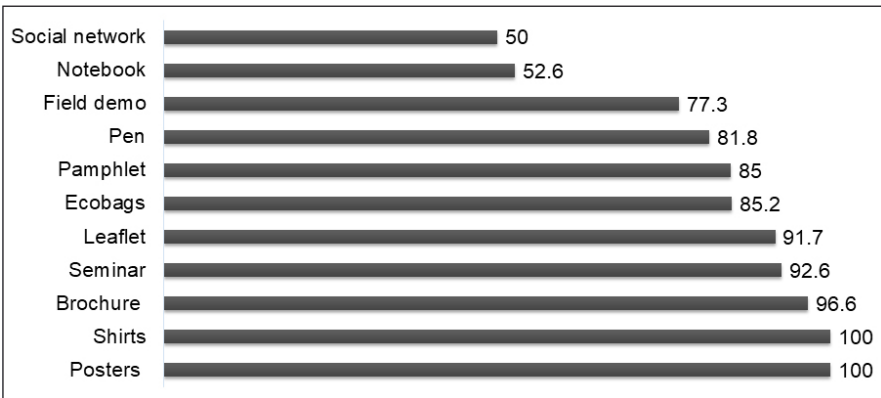


Figure 10. Response of the respondents who gave relevance on the various biodiversity conservation campaign materials and strategies

Figure 10 presents the respondents' understanding of biodiversity conservation materials' importance. Results also showed that respondents viewed posters and shirts (100%) as the most relevant campaign material for the current Carranglan biodiversity situation, followed by brochures (96.6%) and seminar-workshop (92.6%). Furthermore, findings on the research on

print materials (posters) showed that print readers can still retain their ability to read longer articles regardless of age, income, and education. Reading print materials does not offer many distractions to focus on reading, leading to information retention (Printpower, 2013).

In Figure 11, posters (87.95%) are considered the most important campaign material, followed by seminar-workshops (57.83%), shirts (56.62%), and brochures (53%). The text, design, and image richness can somehow voice the campaign message that respondents can easily recognize and appreciate (Kent, 2012).

Furthermore, both posters and brochures are relevant for promotional retention because they can be displayed everywhere and are reasonably cheap, making them easier to manufacture and reach a broad audience (Arens & Rossiter, 2012).

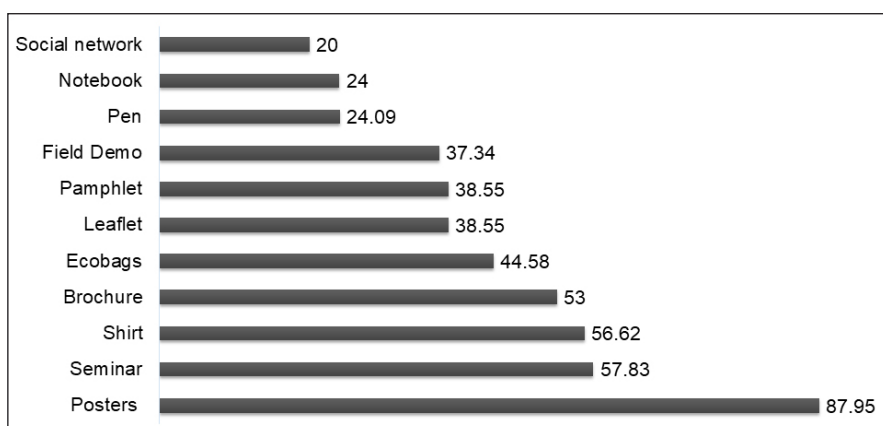


Figure 11. Response of the respondents who gave importance on the various biodiversity conservation campaign materials and strategies

The seminar-workshop is also important to the respondents as it promotes collaborations and cooperation to target audiences (Levy, 2012). Additionally, seminar-workshops generate clear images and information and develop connections in support organizations with advocacy center representatives.

Moreover, results in Figure 12 showed that posters (96.60%) received the largest number of respondents' responses on campaign material impact, followed by shirts (94.3%), seminar workshops (92.6%), and brochures (91.70%).

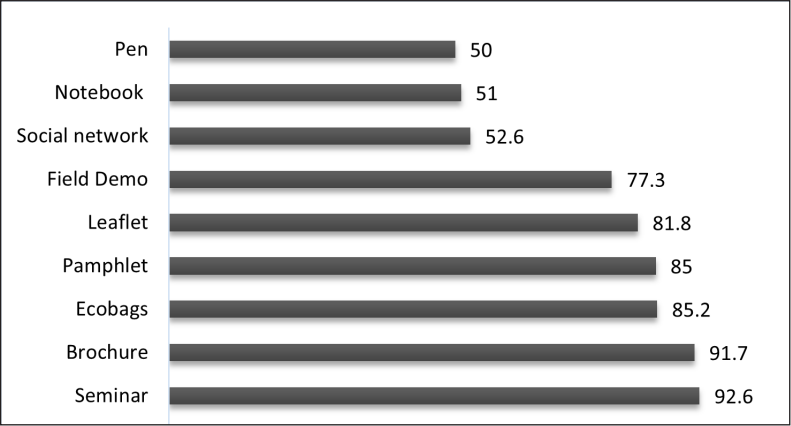


Figure 12. Response of the respondents who gave impact on the various biodiversity conservation campaign materials and strategies

Students (92.86 %), indigenous peoples (71.78 %), and teachers (91.57 %) perceived posters as having the highest impact while brochures, leaflets, and pamphlets had the highest impact on government employees due to their richness of information. Posters are media forms capable of making immediate impacts due to the frequency of impact, even passers-by building a cumulative effect creating a remarkable impact (Dunn, 2007). Shirts also create a positive impression. People prefer collateral materials such as shirts, caps, and bags as they are believed to have greater use in their everyday lives.

Relationship of Demographic Characteristics with the Various Modes and their Attributes for the Effectiveness of Biodiversity Conservation Campaign

As seen in Table 8, the eco-bags’ appeal and attractiveness obtained a significant relationship with employment, while gender has a significant relationship with visibility. This result support studies that eco-bags are the most sought-after promotional content and have the lowest cost per impression (PPAI, 2016). They are handy, desirable, have a longer shelf-life, educational and can build loyalty by being an information reference tool (Fell, 2013; PPAI, 2016). In general, the public used promotional materials about two to four days a week, and 90% of those who got them used collateral materials and were kept for one to two years (PPAI, 2016). Moreover, the female respondents favored eco-bags (57% of total respondents) and

perceived them as a fashion statement that could be personalized and could tailor their preferences; thus, women carrying such bags broaden the message's scope and effect creating reciprocity. Often, since these bags are exposed to more extended periods and used by many, loyalty can be created over a lifetime (PPAI, 2016). Promo bags/eco-bags are also appealing to the unemployed because it is reusable. After all, they do not have the budget or luxury to purchase those bags.

Likewise, the shirt logo exposure is incredibly high when worn anywhere, expanding the scope of the message. It ranks first in recalling campaign messages across the globe due to its utility and design uniqueness (PPAI, 2016). Along with eco-bags and writing tools, these materials help inform the public of their intended campaigns. Interestingly, most male respondents said they prefer shirts to any other collateral materials, as they are comfortable and wearable.

Furthermore, pens and notebooks' appeal and attractiveness significantly correlate with gender, particularly with women (Table 8), as it is very convenient and useful for their children in school with notebooks/notepads and at home. Pens are excellent keys to writing memories, stories, emotions, and experiences and are more appealing when free (PPAI, 2016). Sixty-six percent of Asians love pens as devices; they are compelling despite their size, yet they have strong branding to convey vital information (PPAI, 2016). When people use pens when writing, the logo and message imprinted on them could be retained, creating an effect much like word of mouth advertising-the word is the physical item, and the mouth is the people swapping pens (Fell, 2013).

Table 8

Relationship of Demographic Characteristics with the Attributes of Collateral

Collateral Materials	Age	Gender	Education	Civil Status	Employment	Income
Bags						
Appeal	-0.117	0.099	0.046	0.072	-.236*	0.038
Visible	-0.056	-.278*	0.093	0.127	-0.215	0.031
Attractiveness	-0.116	0.098	0.047	0.071	-.237*	0.042
Shirts						
Appeal	-0.117	0.099	0.046	0.072	-.236*	0.038
Visible	-0.056	-.278*	0.093	0.127	-0.215	0.031
Attractiveness	-0.116	0.098	0.047	0.071	-.237*	0.042
Pens						
Appeal	-0.06	.338**	0.029	0.165	-0.223	0.023
Visible	0.046	0.228	0.009	0.165	-0.138	-0.094
Attractiveness	0.174	.420**	-0.08	0.019	0.04	0.059
Notebook						
Appeal	-0.06	.338**	0.029	0.165	-0.223	0.023
Visible	0.046	0.228	0.009	0.165	-0.138	-0.094
Attractiveness	0.194	.451**	-0.038	0.011	0.03	0.091

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Materials used for Biodiversity Conservation Campaign

Notebooks are favored by 24% of the total respondents as it is a natural partner for pens in remembering campaign messages and prompting action. Women often want to have notepads for them to be organized (PPAI, 2016). The collateral materials are considered attractive, visible, and appealing because they are useful, desirable, responsive to information, fun, unique, and educational, building brand value and loyalty (Chadwich, 2013; Fell, 2013). These materials can also be considered gifts rather than just an advertising campaign or giveaways, which is why they appeal. Their widespread reach could build awareness, eventually pushing people to act in response to the advocacy.

Printed materials such as brochures and pamphlets significantly correlate with age, income, civil status, and employment (Table 9). Many desired these print materials, particularly the unemployed and low-earners,

because they were given free and had more informative content to enjoy reading. Through this, they will remember and appreciate the message of the campaign. Elderly and middle-aged people are more likely to enjoy print advertising like brochures than young adults with little interest in the content (Hunt, 2011). Middle-aged people enjoy reading to learn more and are more likely to share what they have read. They also have a disturbance in their episodic (experienced events, in a specific time and setting) and semantic memory (general awareness of information, terms, and meaning), which is why they tend to read print materials and still recall relevant facts (Kausler, 1978; Glisky, 2007). On the other hand, young adults prefer pictures with a color richness that they enjoy and observe, implying their interest in posters.

Likewise, leaflets are more of context and content than posters and brochures. Table 9 shows that leaflets significantly correlate with age, gender, and income, while posters significantly correlate with gender and income. The correlation on gender implies that females are more optimistic about reading than males (Logan & Johnston, 2009). Even with growing age, reading attitude for both males and females becomes more negative as they get aged, but women are stable over time. Moreover, women have a more remarkable reading ability and aesthetic appreciation than men (Korsmeyer, 2008). More so, females prefer newspapers to advertising materials and print advertisements, where men prefer short texts with short sections. However, this explains why men still enjoy abstract art, drawings, and visual texts, while females prefer fiction, facts, and creative readings (Trondle et al., 2014). Posters depict more figurative art with texts, patterns, and colors that females prefer to recognize beauty and aesthetics while males concentrate on abstract art (Korsmeyer, 2008; Trondle et al., 2014); thus, supporting the significant relationship of posters to gender.

Table 9

Relationship of Demographic Characteristics with the Attributes of Printed Materials and other Campaign Materials for Biodiversity Conservation

Printed Materials & Other Campaign Materials	Age	Gender	Education	Civil Status	Employment	Income
Posters	0.089	-.567**	0.013	0.055	0.011	-.381**
Brochures	.359**	0.045	-0.116	.286**	-.342**	-.297**
Leaflets	-.267*	-.293**	0.019	0.186	-0.151	-.373**

Pamphlets	.302**	-0.118	0.03	.256*	-.305**	-.329**
Field Demo	0.087	-0.279	0.066	0.164	-0.017	-.356*
Social Network	0.273	-.462**	-.401**	-0.051	.362*	0.061
Seminar	-0.228	-.376*	0.177	0.252	-0.079	0.066

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Consumers also respond to optimizing their utilities when purchasing commodities (Hunt, 2011). Hence, past studies have centered on financial saving as a primary consumer advantage, so income significantly influences print ads. These are given free and contain information necessary for advocacy. Hence, it is rational that advertising attraction is more potent in low-earning households with small budgets (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012).

Also, Table 9 indicates that gender has a significant relationship with seminar-workshops. Seminars combine figurative art, discussions, themes, and activities participants can enjoy and socialize, particularly females. They like chatting, connecting, sharing, and engaging with each other (Huitt, 1997). Women also tend to have higher standards and evaluate what they have learned; they are likely to listen and have a higher chance of retaining the information (Brizendine, 2008). The female brain has a particular tremendous skill like excellent verbal agility, communication, empathy skills, defusing conflict, and can handle emotions and intellectualization. Males, however, have lean, mean problem-solving machine intellect than emotions. Male brains have developed right hemispheres responsible for visual, imaginative, and tone skills, while females have developed the left hemisphere responsible for reasoning, language, and motor skills (Brizendine, 2010).

The social network findings revealed a significant relationship with gender, educational status, and civil status (Table 9). Females regulate social media, particularly Facebook, religiously. They fancy using social media by adding and searching for friends and sharing their experiences. However, women still love interacting in person (Huitt, 1997) than on social media platforms. Men, on the other hand, are driven to sites like YouTube that concentrate on visual arts (photos and videos).

Twenty-five percent (25 %) of the 35-44 year-olds use social media regardless of their educational background. Furthermore, most middle-aged people also use Facebook, with 61 % of the respondents older than 35. Nevertheless, the majority of the respondents claim that they occasionally use

social media as most of them are unemployed, do not have the budget to buy gadgets, and have limited access to the internet. Nevertheless, they still believe these campaign tactics are useful for promotion nowadays (Techblog, 2015).

Cost-Effective Biodiversity Conservation Campaign Materials

Table 10 shows that seminar-workshops cost more than any other campaign materials among the biodiversity campaign materials, while pens and brochures are the cheapest. Results also revealed that collateral materials are effective tools specifically for campaign retention, similar to brochures and posters that create impact and relevance for audiences. Hence, brochures were the cheapest among the campaign materials and are considered to be the most cost-effective tool in the promotion of biodiversity conservation

Biodiversity is genuinely at risk, and it takes much commitment to disseminate such information for the different stakeholders to be aware of the current situation: several factors impact viewer reaction and retention in a campaign of advocacy. Results also revealed and proved beyond doubt that irrespective of the types of media, the mode of the presentation of a campaign or products, the advertising media attributes such as appeal, visibility and attractiveness and its content stand out as the most influential factor for retention.

The study also shows that 50% of the respondents were women who prefer logo-owned writing tools, while 44% were men who prefer promotional shirts. Because of their impact on education and how these materials nurture consumers' minds on why such a campaign was made, both genders still prefer print media materials to other campaign materials. Moreover, demographic characteristics had a significant relationship with campaign materials' attributes and content, affecting their retention.

The effective campaigns for the respondents are also viewed to have a high value. The study showed that over 70% of the respondents remembered the advocacy, and nearly 80% retained the message due to the attributes of the campaign materials used. The respondents noticed the message's comprehensibility and said they are technically accurate, logical, and matching the theme. Visual comprehensibility, appeal, image attractiveness were all appreciated by the respondents, and they believe it could command loyalty and commitment to the advocacy.

Table 10

Budgetary Allotment for the Biodiversity Conservation Campaign

Title	Description	Quantity	Amount	Cost
Biodiversity Conservation, Kaingin, Mining And Hunting (Tagalog And English)	3-Fold Brochure 8.5x11 Full Colored	8 Sets 600 Pcs/Set 4,800 Pcs/Total	24,000.00	5.00
Leaflet On Iksp (Tagalog And English)	Leaflet Full Colored	2 Sets 550 Pcs/Set 1,100 Pcs/Total	33,000.00	30.00
Pamphlet	Full Colored	3 Sets 55 Pcs/Set 165 Pcs/Total	8,250.00 (Book Cover Printing) 12,600.00 (Book Paper)	70.00 50.00
Posters On Biodiversity	Full Colored	36 Pcs	21,600.00	600.00
Shirts/Apparel	Assorted Sizes Black/Round Neck/Collared with Printed Logo on Front and Back	3 Sets 100 Pcs/Set 300 Pcs/Total	60,000.00	200.00
Ecobags	Medium Size Color: Green With Printed Logo	3 Sets 100 Pcs/Set 300 Pcs/Total	12,600.00	42.00
Foldable Pens	Regular Size; Black In Color; Brown & Green With Printed Logo	3 Sets 100 Pcs/Set 300 Pcs/Total	9,000.00	30.00
Novelty Pens	Assorted Floral Designs Color: Brown, Green, Red And Yellow	3 Sets 100 Pcs/Set 300 Pcs/Total	2,700.00	9.00
Notebook	Assorted Organic Designs Regular Size, 20 Pages Color: Brown	3 Sets 100 Pcs/Set 300 Pcs/Total	4,500.00	15.00
Field Demo	Road Caravans	-	46,100.00	614.67
Seminar-Workshop	-	-	167,844.00	1,118.96

CONCLUSION

Printing materials such as posters, brochures, leaflets and pamphlets and other promotional materials such as collateral materials (eco-bags, hats, pens, notebooks), seminar-workshops, field presentations, and social networks are successful tools for campaign materials to establish impact and significance for the audience and to promote retention in the mind of the respondents in order to induce action to preserve and support them. Results suggested that the printed materials, particularly brochures, were deemed the most appealing, desirable, and recognizable to the respondents as their content and features were easily remembered due to the combination of colored photos and texts that are a very effective tool for retaining the campaign materials that lead to value and loyalty to the campaign. However, the posters gained the highest significance, importance, and effect on biodiversity conservation campaigns, accompanied by shirts, seminars, and brochures. The print materials considered brochures to be the most cost-effective and cheapest of all the campaign materials used with high significance, importance, and effects.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Developing and creating campaign materials must be conducted to enhance public awareness on the importance of biodiversity for better appreciation and participation in the conservation programs in Carranglan, Nueva Ecija, and other forest ecosystems of the Philippines.

Advertising has a significant influence on consumer education and awareness. Toward the end, it is recommended that research be carried out continuously into the quality improvement of campaign materials that will make the audiences enjoy what they see and learn through advertising and campaign. Other activities or studies could develop more advertising campaigns, primarily on biodiversity, and continue to incorporate persuasive and reminder-oriented messages, incorporating the effect of color psychology in marketing. The messages must be strong and appealing enough to persuade and build brand preferences and encourage perception change.

Regarding the campaign material used, print media advertising with collateral materials, especially the posters and brochures, was the most potent and cost-efficient of all the campaign materials used. Given this, more attention and budget must be allotted to produce brochures and other print media targeting local communities. However, other media should also be produced and used; it should continue to employ integrated advertising to the advocacy.

Furthermore, guerilla marketing promotion is also recommended to execute, considering that it could be more appropriate to the respondents. Guerilla marketing promotion focuses on the low-cost unconventional marketing tactics fit for the desired target audience that yields maximum results. This promotion can best create an imaginative solution for representing advocacy without having a large budget and somehow creating an interaction between the audience and the message. This promotional strategy can also make any promotion memorable because of its shocking, surprising, drastic, humorous, and all-consuming effects. Such examples can include creating a life-size poster with the intended message near the site, using positivity, emotions, or even guilt to speak to the audience to see the posters or campaign materials more often, that is interactive for the audience to play and explore. The audiences who might encounter the promotion will most likely remember the brand and become familiar with their essence.

Moreover, experiential marketing could also be a good campaign strategy for the target audiences of similar researches. Experiential marketing promotion enables people to physically interact and immerse with the campaign, creating a closer bond between the consumer and the brand. Examples would be conducting forest field trips and tours with possibly mountain trekking and camping to the visitors and the people near and living the site for further exposure and experiencing the beauty of the place, making them aware of the campaign's message. This, combined with the guerilla marketing campaign, can create respondents/customers lifetime value (CLV) to encourage the audience to return. Furthermore, a separate study must be conducted to evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of the biodiversity campaign materials and strategies used to assess and evaluate the respondents' inducement to act and determine what campaign materials and strategies are appropriate to their local community needs.

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Factors Associated with Pesticide Use among Vegetable Farmers in Negros Oriental, Philippines

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Averse to pest-related risks, farmers commonly resort to pesticides despite the existence of alternative strategies to crop pest management. The study sought to determine factors related to vegetable farmers' decisions to use pesticides as a primary pest control strategy. Face to face interviews with 151 commercially-oriented vegetable farmers from four vegetable growing municipalities in the province of Negros Oriental was conducted to gather data needed for the study. Results show that the vast majority (88%) of the surveyed farmers employed pesticides as a main pest control strategy. Socio-economic factors such as gender, number of land parcels cultivated, and level of household income of the surveyed farmers were significantly related to the farmers' decision to use pesticides for pest control. Farmers' assessment of the extent of pest and disease infestation on their vegetable crops and their perceived effects of pests on crop yield were significant determinants of pesticide use. Other factors influencing farmers' decision to use pesticides were their regard of pests as severely destructive, the perceived increase in pest populations, and their desire to prevent, control, or eradicate pests to ensure better crop yield. Information sources, the frequency of contact with pesticide dealers, and membership in farmers' organizations significantly influenced farmers' decision to use pesticides. The study recommends that appropriate government agencies sustain, expand, and be more aggressive in promoting Integrated Pest Management (IPM) practices among vegetable farmers.

Keywords: Vegetable Pests, Pesticides, Pest control

INTRODUCTION

Despite the existence of alternative strategies to pest management, Rola and others (1999) reported that the vegetable farmers' crop protection strategies in many parts of the country are mostly chemical-based. Averse to pest-related risks, farmers commonly resort to pesticides, a class of chemical substances that are applied directly to the soil or sprayed on crops to control destructive organisms such as insects, fungi, molds, nematodes, and rodents (Rodriguez et al., 2011). Unfortunately, these substances have pronounced persistence against chemical/biological degradation, high environmental mobility, a strong tendency for bioaccumulation in the tissues of humans and animals, and have a significant impact on human health and the environment, even at deficient concentrations (Liu et al., 2009). In many instances, the use of pesticides caused adverse effects on human health (Lu, 2009), particularly to those directly or indirectly exposed to its use, or those that consume agricultural products contaminated with its residues (DPR, 2008). Furthermore, there are other equally alarming negative externalities resulting from the misuse of pesticides, such as "environmental damage to the soil, surface water, groundwater, and air quality" (Lu, 2011).

Farming decisions are influenced by a range of factors, including socio-demographics and psychological make-up of the farmer, the characteristics of the farm household, the structure of the farm business, the broader social milieu, and the features of the innovation to be adopted (Edwards-Jones, 2006). In a study on the socio-economic parameters of pesticide use and assessment of the impact of an Integrated Pest Management (IPM) strategy for the control of specific eggplant insect pests, Baral and others (2006) pointed out that the farmers' awareness about IPM, availability of IPM inputs, perceived economic and health benefits, and degree of pest damage promoted the adoption of IPM. On the other hand, the size of landholding, the age of decision-makers, and easy access to pesticides hindered the adoption of IPM, leading to pesticides as the primary pest control measure.

Baconguis (2002) pointed out that many studies cited conflicting findings on the relationship between farmers' choice or adoption of technology and such factors as age, educational attainment, farming experience, and extension visits. Hence, to validate their relationship to the farmer's choice and adopt a pest management strategy, these factors are included in this study.

This study is underpinned by the diffusion-adoption theory and the human-environment interaction theoretical perspective. Adoption theory posits that socio-economic, cultural, psychological, biophysical, and extension-related factors affect the farmers' decision to adopt technological innovations (Rogers et al., 1998). On the other hand, the non-equilibrium paradigm posits that ecological systems are open and affected by internal and external factors, lack a stable point of equilibrium, non-deterministic, and affected by human influences (Botkin & Soble, 1995 in Pickett et al., 1994 as cited by Bacongus, 2002). In this context, the study examined the different factors that led to farmers' decision or choice of a pest management strategy. The study sought to determine the influence of specific demographic, socio-economic, psychological, and extension-related factors on farmers' decision to adopt pesticides as a primary pest control strategy.

METHODOLOGY

This descriptive study employed survey methods. Data were collected from farmers through face to face interviews by trained field enumerators using a pre-tested structured interview schedule. The study sites included four of the major vegetable growing areas in the province of Negros Oriental, namely: the municipalities of Valencia, Bacong, Sibulan, and the City of Canlaon.

The study employed purposive quota sampling to select vegetable farmers included in the study using a minimum quota sample of at least 60 vegetable farmers for each group of the vegetable area. The neighboring municipalities of Valencia, Bacong, and Sibulan, located in the vicinity of Dumaguete City, were treated as a group. Valencia is within the geographic confines of 9° 16' 00" to 9° 20' 00" N latitude and 123°04'00" to 123°12'00" E latitude, while Bacong is located at latitude 9°14'50.2" N longitude and 123 o 17'37.3" E. The municipality of Sibulan is situated at approximately 9° 22' North, 123° 17' East. On the other hand, Canlaon, situated at approximately 10° 23' North, 123° 13' East, more than 160 km north of Dumaguete, was considered another group.

The inclusion criteria used in selecting farmers in the survey were the following:

- a) Farmers who lived in the same barangay as their vegetable farms for at least one year before the start of data collection;
- b) Farmers who commercially grew Cabbage, Chinese Pechaye

- (Chinese cabbage), Broccoli, Cauliflower, Eggplant, and Ampalaya, singly, or in combinations, during the conduct of the study and for at least one year before the start of the study; and
- c) The size of field plots for each vegetable type must not be less than 100 square meters in size.

The choice of the crops for inclusion in the study include considerations of their economic importance and popularity in the local market and reports of heavy pesticide usage by farmers. A total of 151 farmers agreed to participate in the study upon meeting the inclusion criteria selecting farmer respondents. Data were encoded and analyzed using the SPSS program. The data were summarized using descriptive statistics, while the Chi-Square test of independence was employed to establish relationships between variables.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Profile of Respondents

The majority (58.3%) of the surveyed farmers were males, married (90.1%), Catholics (90.6%), and on average had 3.47 children, with a mean household size of 4.64. They were relatively young, averaging 44.68 years in age, with 64.2% having ages above 40. Close to 99% received a formal education, with more than half (51.6%) possessing some years of elementary education. Only two had no formal education.

The respondents were experienced farmers having engaged in this livelihood for nearly 25 years. The vegetable farming experience was shorter by about two years, with a mean of 22.62 years. Annually, farmers' gross income from their various farming activities averaged P137, 805.70, while the mean income from off-farm sources was P94, 040.

Most of the farmers owned small landholdings averaging 0.66 ha in size, about half (0.33 ha) devoted to vegetable production. Farms are parcelled into two and are situated half a kilometer away from farmers' homes. The majority (56.3%) owned the land they tilled, while nearly 30% were tenants. Areas planted to cabbage averaged 0.23 ha while Chinese pechay and broccoli farms had a mean size of 0.19 ha. On the other hand, cauliflower plots averaged 0.11 ha, eggplant 0.18 ha, and ampalaya 0.14 ha.

The majority (66.2%) self-financed their farm operations, while 17.9% augmented their capital with borrowed money. Close to 16% relied entirely on borrowed capital. Eighty-eight (58.3%) farmers utilized family members as a source of farm labor, while nearly 42% hired other farmworkers' services. The farming-related information came from pesticide dealers (57%), government agricultural technicians (56.4%), and neighbors. The majority had interactions with agricultural technicians who regularly visited their communities on farm-related matters and pesticide dealers on crop pest-related issues.

About 61% of the surveyed farmers were members of farmer's organizations and had attended farming-related training or seminars. Close to 65% were unaware of government-sponsored programs related to pest management in their localities. However, about 40% had participated in IPM/Farmers Field School (FFS) program in the past. More than half of the surveyed farmers did not follow IPM practices on their farms. Nearly 80% knew of no policies at the local level regarding pesticides in farms and expressed the need for such.

Socio-economic Factors and Pesticide Use

Previous studies have shown that farmers' socio-economic and demographic characteristics influence their decision whether to adopt or reject a technology (Akinola et al., 2007). The study showed that there was a relationship between the genders of the farmers with the decision to utilize pesticides as the primary pest control strategy (Table 1). Previous studies by Davidson and Freudenburg (1996), Dosman et al. (2001), Franzen and Meyer (2010), and Hanson (2007) demonstrated that gender influenced the perception of pesticide use. By proportion, more men tend to lean towards pesticide use than women. Male farmers make decisions for the farm because male farmers tend to spend more time on the field than women. Male farmers are likely to encounter actual pest problems in the field, and these spur them to decide to use pesticides as a pest control strategy. However, previous studies showed that female farmers are warier of the harmful effects of pesticides on the environment compared to males (Franzen & Meyer, 2010, as cited by Ahmed et al., 2011), thus explaining why more males favored the use of pesticides than females.

On another note, the age of the respondents was not significantly related to their pesticide use decisions, which means that regardless of their

age, the respondents tend to favor pesticide use. This finding is inconsistent with the results of previous studies conducted by Franzen and Meyer (2010) and Hanson (2007), which showed that age, influenced the perception of pesticide use. Results of other studies determining the relationship between age and people's perceptions of pesticides gave conflicting results. For instance, according to the results of the studies of Dunlap and Beus (1992) and Tassell van et al. (1999), older persons perceived pesticides to be less harmful to the environment than younger persons. However, contradictory results by Dosman et al. (2001), showing that the older respondents were, the higher was the perception of pesticides in their food being a health risk. The absence of a significant relationship between age and pesticide use may be related to varying opinions about pesticides. In the current study, the pervasive use of pesticides among farmers regardless of age is triggered by the severity of pest occurrence and the farmers' aversion to risks of potential crop losses.

Table 1

Test of Independence between Pesticide Use and Selected Socio-Economic Factors

Socio-economic Factors	Chi-Square	df	P-value	Remarks
Gender	4.11	1	0.043	Significant
Age	2.87	1	0.09	Not significant
Educational Attainment	1.32	1	0.251	Not significant
Civil Status	0.57	2	0.751	Not significant
Number of Children	3.38	2	0.185	Not significant
Household Size	1.15	1	0.285	Not significant
Size of Vegetable Farm	2.05	1	0.153	Not significant
Land Tenure	4.67	3	0.197	Not significant
Number of Land Parcels	12.3	3	0.006	Significant
Income from Farming	2.80	1	0.094	Not significant
Household Income	11.3	2	0.004	Significant
Length of Farming Experience	0.763E-01	1	0.782	Not significant
Source of Farm Labor	2.12	1	0.145	Not Significant

There was no relationship detected between the educational attainment of respondents and their decision to use pesticides. Farmers with relatively higher levels of formal education did not vary with those that had lower levels of education regarding their pest control decisions. The majority embarked

on a decision to use pesticides regardless of their educational attainment. This finding runs counter to what Nieuwenhuijsen et al. (2005) reported that non-pesticide users were more educated people as cited by Ahmed et al., (2011), which conversely suggests that less educated people tend to favor the use of pesticides. In many studies, education is a predetermining factor in technological adoption among farmers of various socio-economic circumstances (Nasiru et al., 2006). The pervasiveness of pesticide use in the sample farming communities and the pest incidence's perceived severity may have influenced farmers' practices regarding pest management.

Results show that the farmers' civil status is not related to their decision to use pesticides for crop protection. The majority of the respondents were married, suggesting that they have family responsibilities, including producing sufficient marketable produce to support family needs. The results reveal that there were other more compelling reasons, such as the fear of yield loss and the need to ensure a good harvest for the decision to use pesticides. Similarly, the number of children and the size of the farmers' household were not influential factors in their pest management decisions. Data show that the average number of children and average household size was 3.47 and 4.64, respectively, suggesting that there is available family labor to assist in farm operations. In a study on the socio-economic parameters of pesticide use for the control of eggplant fruit and shoot borer in India by Bara et al. (2006), the farmers' landholding size was significantly related to pesticide use. However, such was not supported in this study, where farm size was not related to the adoption or use of pesticides against crop pests. Thus, regardless of the size of their farm, farmers tend to favor a chemical-based pest management strategy generally, making this observation similar to Dinpanah and Nezhadhosseini (2013) findings in a study on the determinants of farm-level pesticide use in Bangladesh by Rahman (2006), land ownership was positively related to pesticide usage, contrary to the findings of this study where there was no relationship between land tenure arrangements and pesticide usage. Pesticide usage by farmers is not dependent on whether the farmer is a landowner, a lessee, tenant, or a certificate of land transfer beneficiary.

On the other hand, the number of land parcels a farmer cultivates was significantly related to the decision to use pesticides. Most farmers cultivate more than one parcel of land, usually in different locations, with an average distance of about 500 meters between parcels. Keeping track of separate

parcels planted to vegetable crops may prove a daunting task to a farmer, considering the vegetable farming's labor-intensive nature. Farmers likely find it more manageable to deal with crop pests using pesticides.

Similarly, farmer's income was found to be related to their decision to use pesticides. A farmer whose total income from all sources tends to be higher tended to opt for pesticides and is related to the farmer's capacity to purchase this farm input. Pesticides do not come cheap. Acquiring them requires cash investments. It appears that the higher the total family income of the farmer is, the higher is his purchasing power. Hence the more likely he is going to purchase pesticides for farm use.

In their study on the socio-economic determinants of insecticide usage in cowpea production in Nigeria, Adeola et al. (2011) found a direct relationship between the years of farmers' experience and level of insecticide use. However, such was not the case in this study. There was no relationship detected between the length of farming experience and pesticide use. Regardless of the number of years in vegetable farming, most of the farmers adopted the use of pesticides in controlling pests. Again, the pervasiveness of the practice among vegetable growers may have pressured farmers to follow the same for fear of yield losses due to pest infestation on their crops. This finding suggests that there are factors other than the demographic characteristics that have a significant bearing on pesticide use decisions.

Agro-Ecological Factors and Pesticide Use

The test of independence between variables revealed that a significant factor in farmers' decision to use pesticides against crop pests is the extent of insect pest infestation on their vegetable crops ($p=0.000$) (Table 2). The mere presence of insect pests could inevitably result in crop damage, which adversely affects yield. The level of pest infestation is certainly a determinant of the extent of crop losses, with severe infestation resulting in severe damage and a consequent significant reduction in yield. In like manner, the extent of crop disease infestation is significantly related to farmers' use of pesticides against crop pests. These decisions are related to Asadpour's (2011) findings, which pointed out that risk aversion of farmers and the value they place on yield per hectare, among other factors, affect the choice of pest management strategies.

On the other hand, the extent of weed infestation was not associated with herbicide use. As is widely known, weeds have adverse impacts on crop performance through direct competition for soil nutrients, water, light, and space, and as potential hosts of other insect pests. Therefore, regardless of the density of the weed population in the field, farmers did not use herbicides. None of the surveyed farmers used herbicides to deal with their weed problems. All of the farmers involved in this study did manual weeding or employed cultivation practices to control and prevent the proliferation of weeds.

Table 2

Test of Independence between Pesticide Use and Selected Agro-Ecological Factors

Agro-Ecological Factors	Chi-Square	df	P-value	Remarks
Extent of Insect Pest Infestation	15.6	3	0.001	Significant
Extent of Disease Infestation	12.5	3	0.006	Significant
Extent of Weeds Infestation	4.17	3	0.244	Not Significant
Effect of the Pest on Harvest or Yield	12.8	3	0.005	Significant
Effect of Diseases on Yield	15.1	3	0.002	Significant

Psychological Factors and Pesticide Use

Perceptions and attitudes generally affect behavior (Borges, 2016; Ajzen, 1991). In this study, farmers' attitudes towards pests and their perceptions of their effects on the environment, food safety, and human health were examined. Likewise, their relationship to pesticide use was determined. Results of the test of independence between variables revealed that the two measures of farmers' attitudes towards pests were significantly related to their decision to use pesticides (Table 3). In particular, the statements "I will control or eradicate pests" and "Left uncontrolled, pests can cause extensive damage" significantly influenced their pest management decisions. These two statements are interrelated. The expressed behavioral intent to control or eradicate pests is connected to the second state's core substance, whereby the indirect effect of inaction is perceived to lead to extensive damage.

Similarly, the perceived increase in crop pest population was significantly associated with farmers' decision to use pesticides. Whether or not there was an emergence of new crop pests or that pests were getting

harder to control, did not matter to farmers' decision to use pesticides. It appears that the mere presence of an increasing population of pests was enough bases for farmers to use pesticides.

While the surveyed farmers held positive views about the importance, benefits of the right quality environment and the need to protect the environment, such was not significantly related to their decision whether or not to use pesticides on their crops. Supposedly, people who hold positive environmental views are less likely to use pesticides as a pest control strategy. The majority of the respondents were cognizant of the harmful effects of pesticide use regarding water, air, and soil contamination with pesticide residues (Table 3). One can surmise that farmers tend to put a heavier weight on the impact of pesticide use on crop yield and farm income than on the negative externalities related to its use. This is also evident in the absence of a relationship between the statement "pesticide use may contaminate water and soils" and farmers' decision to use pesticides.

Two other statements used to measure the farmer respondents' perception of the effects of pesticide use and pesticide exposure were not significantly related to the farmers' decisions to use pesticides on crop pests. Mainly, while farmers generally agreed with the statement, "Exposure to pesticides is hazardous to human health," such did not matter in their choice of a pest control strategy." This is evident in the widespread use of pesticides among the surveyed farmers. Similarly, there was no relationship between the statement "Pesticides may leave residues on vegetables making them unsafe to consume" and farmers' choice of pesticides for pest control, despite the widespread disagreement with the statement among the farmers.

Table 3

Test of Independence between Pesticide Use and Selected Psychological Factors

Psychosocial Factors:	Chi-Square	Df	P value	Remarks
Attitude Toward Pests				
I will control pest/eradicate pests	12.6	3	0.006	Significant
Left uncontrolled pest can cause extensive damage	6.99	1	0.008	Significant
I get worried when I see pests	2.71	2	0.258	Not Significant
Perceptions of Pests				
Pest populations are increasing	10.6	1	0.001	Significant

New Pests are emerging	1.45	1	0.228	Not Significant
Pests are getting harder to control	0.815	1	0.367	Not Significant
Attitude Towards the Environment				
Protecting the environment is essential to me	0.441	1	0.507	Not Significant
The right Quality environment is beneficial to all	0.145	1	0.703	Not Significant
Perceptions of the Effects of Pesticides				
Pesticide use in farms may contaminate water and soils	9.34	4	0.053	Not Significant
Exposure to pesticides is hazardous to human health	8.16	4	0.086	Not Significant
Pesticides may leave residues on vegetables	6.57	4	0.160	Not Significant

Extension-related Factors and Pesticide Use

The test for independence between extension-related factors and pesticide use revealed that membership in farmers' organizations is significantly related to adopting pesticides as a pest control strategy (Table 4). This corroborates what Oboh et al. (2008) pointed out that membership in cooperatives is a determining factor in farmers' adoption of new technologies. This is also closely related to Bonabana-Wabbi's (2002) findings, which indicated that membership, in farmers' association had positively affected the level of adoption of IPM technologies. Adeola et al. (2011) explained that farmers' organizations provide many opportunities for farmers' interaction with other farmers, which is an avenue through which agricultural innovations may diffuse among them. In two of the surveyed vegetable growing municipalities, all the sampled farmers were pesticide users. Hence, the possibility of farmers who are members of organizations to share farming-related experiences such as pesticide use is inevitable.

In contrast, attendance in training programs related to Integrated Pest Management was unrelated to pesticide use, suggesting that farmers' participation or nonparticipation in IPM training was not an influencing factor in their pest management decisions. Supposedly, farmers who have joined IPM training programs are less likely to employ pesticides against crop pests, as

was pointed out by Ferguson (1995). He indicated that farmers' participation in IPM activities affected the adoption of non-chemical methods and IPM technologies. Alternatively, farmers who have not attended training programs on IPM are supposed to lean towards the use of pesticides to control crop pests. IPM and the use of pesticides to control pests are grounded in contrasting philosophies regarding the crop pests' management. The former favors the use of a combination of pest control strategies in an integrated fashion with chemicals as the option of last resort. In contrast, the latter emphasizes an almost total dependence on chemical control methods against crop pests. The pervasiveness of pesticide users in the surveyed vegetable growing areas may have dulled the IPM training programs' impact.

The use of extension-related information sources and other communicative features are positively related to technology adoption, (Ofouko et al. 2008; Wu & Babcock, 1998; Barrera et al., 2005), corroborating the findings of this study. Information sources that were significantly associated with their decision to adopt the use of pesticides against crop pests were the pesticide dealers ($p=0.00$) and agricultural extension technicians ($p=0.03$). As a primary source of pesticide-related information, it is not surprising that farmers' decision to adopt the use of pesticides is significantly influenced by those who are actively involved in the promotion and actual sale of these products. A corollary to this, the frequency of contact between farmers and pesticide dealers was also significantly related to the farmers' use of pesticides against crop pests.

Table 4

Test of Independence between Pesticide Use and Selected Extension-Related Factors

Extension-related Factors	Chi-Square	df	P-value	Remarks
Membership in Farmers' Organization	4.96	1	0.045	Significant
Attendance in IPM Training	0.452 E-01	1	0.832	Not Significant
Information Source -Extension Technicians	4.51	1	0.034	Significant
Information Source –Pesticide Dealers	23.8	1	0.000	Significant
Frequency of Contact/talk with ATs	3.34	3	0.342	Not Significant
The frequency of Contact with Pesticide Dealers	22.2	3	0.000	Significant

CONCLUSIONS

Socio-economic factors such as gender, the number of farm parcels cultivated, and household income were significantly related to farmers' decision to use pesticides for pest control. Farmers who were males cultivated more land parcels and had higher household income tended to favor and implement a chemical-based pest control strategy.

The extent of insect pest and disease infestation on their crops significantly influenced farmers' decision to use pesticides against crop pests. Similarly, the effect of insect pests and plant diseases on crop yield led farmers to resort to a pesticide-based pest management strategy. These indicate that farmers were risk-averse, thus choosing a pest management strategy that was widely considered effective in reducing pest damage.

The farmers' regard of pests as extremely destructive and their expressed intent to control or eradicate them led them to use pesticides. Similarly, the perceived increase in crop pest population is significantly associated with farmers' decision to use pesticides. Whether or not there was an emergence of new crop pests or that pests were getting harder to control, did not matter to farmers' decision to use pesticides. It appears that the mere presence of an increasing population of pests was enough basis for farmers to use pesticides. This paper recommends that the Department of Agriculture should sustain, expand, and be more aggressive in promoting Integrated Pest Management (IPM) practices among vegetable farmers. Good IPM practices encourage using other non-chemical methods for pest control that do not endanger farmers' health, food safety, and environmental quality.

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On Test Blueprints and Validity: Discerning the Complexities of Test Construction

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Testing and assessment is probably one of the most uncomfortable areas for me. It is not that I find it less interesting or that I do not see how greatly consequential it is. In fact, I see assessment as far too important yet also too complex that I often find myself still lacking the essential tools to navigate its intricacies. Although I have read a handful few sources and have gained some understanding of basic testing principles and theories, things just look different, more perplexing to be exact, whenever I have to apply the theories to make my own language tests or in this case revise one. This sounds cliché, but it feels like treading uncharted waters. Each time, I still get confused, doubt my judgment, and feel overwhelmed by all the principles I have to internalize. Perhaps, even after years in the classroom, I still have much learning to grapple with. I thus took this reflection task as an opportunity to share my learnings and insights from the test revision process.

Last school year, one of the major requirements in my Language Testing class at the graduate school was to revise a test according to the comments and suggestions of a peer moderator. For this task, I chose an old archived test in Basic Communication 12 (BC 12) which was an old-curriculum subject that focused on academic reading and writing for college students. I submitted

the test to a classmate who served as a peer moderator who critiqued the test and generated a list of suggestions (based on testing principles) for the improvement of the test. The test revision process was far from neat and clear-cut. In fact, I felt a little bit dizzy going back and forth the table of specifications (TOS), the test paper, and my sources several times over the process. Nevertheless, it was an opportune time for me to learn and keep abreast with some developments in language testing and assessment. From the revision task I reckoned that issues concerning test design and blueprint, test validity, and the sheer intricacy of test elements are a few reason why testing and assessment can be intimidating and cumbersome to language teachers and perhaps to other stakeholders.

Reviewing and revising the BC 12 test enabled me to ponder on some issues concerning test construction and design. The BC 12 final exam subjected to revision was made about 10 years ago when the English and Literature Department was at the height of practicing test moderation and collaborative test construction. I was therefore not the only one who made the test--in fact, I can hardly recall anymore which part I contributed. But I vividly remember that I used the test in my classes several times over—four semesters to say the least. In retrospect, it feels like I was just a mere consumer of the test, lacking in insight and reflection back then. At the time, the thrust of the department was towards creating text-based, communicative tests that evaluated BC 12 students' writing skills and abilities in the context of critically processing and producing various text types. In relation to these text types, students' ability to use relevant language features was also evaluated. Reviewing the test, I could appreciate how it reflected the discourse/text-based nature of the course, where critical thinking and comprehension of the rhetorical situation (i.e. topic/main idea, context, and writer's purpose) are dealt with foremost before focusing on relevant language features and grammar points. This is what Celce-Murcia and Olhtain (2000), in their book *Discourse and Language Teaching*, called the top-down processing which is an ideal design for a critical reading and writing class. Needless to say, I kept the original design of the test.

Revisiting the test design, I was reminded of the centrality of the test blueprint to the entire test construction process. The process of formulating a test blueprint or table of specifications (TOS) is something that I completely understood through experience. A clear understanding of the principles came

in later when I pursued further education. Having worked in three secondary schools, I had seen at least three similar-looking formats of the TOS. On my first year of teaching, I simply followed what my subject area coordinator taught me as regards formatting and preparing the TOS for my periodic exams. When I was lucky, the subject area coordinator would decide for a departmental exam and the TOS would be made by the most experienced faculty member. Back then, the TOS, to me, was a mere requirement I had to comply with. However, as I gained experience in language teaching and testing, and thanks to the mentoring I experienced at the English and Literature Department of Silliman University, my appreciation of the TOS went beyond mere formatting and compliance. From the three different formats I had seen back then as a young teacher, I started to notice how closely knit the TOS is to the curriculum, the syllabus, and to the learning standards articulated by the institution. Moreover, the TOS ensures that a test consists of a fair and representative sample of questions that measure students' achievement in the learning domains of a given subject area. Since TOS enables the teacher to focus on key areas whose respective weights are determined based on their importance, it is therefore a source of evidence for the content validity of the test (The University of Kansas, n.d.).

A few months ago, when I suggested that our department should require teachers to use the TOS for major exams, I was asked by a young teacher as to what use it would be since he believed that the TOS was "obsolete" and was therefore unnecessary. Having understood from both theory and practice the integral role of TOS in designing tests and assessment tools, I was seriously taken aback by the question. But as I tried to be reflective, it had me guessing where such assumption would come from. Didn't I have such attitude as a young teacher also? More alarming is the possibility that many a young teacher out there and even experienced ones perhaps have not clearly grasped the process of test design and how it connects with the entire curriculum implementation. What kind of test construction philosophy is embraced by schools, both public and private? I then had to ask my young colleague where his test would come from and how he could possibly critically think about the test design without the blueprint.

Critical thinking is essential to the process of deciding what goes into the TOS, formulating the objectives, choosing the appropriate process verbs to use, and ensuring that all the elements aligned are critical skills teachers

need to develop. Revisiting the TOS and juxtaposing it with the test paper during revision, I realized that dealing with test design is just highly cerebral no matter one's experience in teaching or in test construction. Designing a test is a craft no one learns overnight, and the skill needs to be polished by constant practice and continuous learning. Educational institutions therefore, whether public or private, should invest time and resources in training teachers on test construction and design if they aim to successfully implement their programs and subject area curricula. In private schools, training could be more readily accessible at the department level. Reviewing the Curriculum Triangle and the Test-Programme Relationship models by Carroll and Hall (1985) as well as Brown's model of Systematic Approach to Designing and Maintaining Language Curriculum (2000) and Graves' model of the Cycle of Course Development (2000), one would easily observe the inherent importance of the evaluation and testing to the curriculum design. Carroll and Hall's models show that the curriculum cannot stand without a testing system. Brown's model shows that evaluation cuts across curriculum elements (i.e. goals, objectives, teaching, etc.). Graves model places assessment at the center of curriculum design. The integral place of assessment and evaluation in these language curriculum models imply the importance of testing. Educational institutions therefore should find it non-negotiable to embrace a sound and systematic testing and assessment culture.

The importance of having an established and sound testing and assessment culture in every educational institution cannot be overemphasized. As I examined the parts of the BC 12 exam and evaluated them based on testing principles such as validity, reliability, and so on, I was reminded of how my own understanding of these principles influence and define the way I design my tests and how such design would affect test validity, reliability, and test performance. All these have corresponding implications on the backwash effect the test brings about or the influence of testing on teaching (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). Making things more compounded is the need for one to be equipped with a profound understanding of at least three types of validity such as concurrent validity, content validity, and construct validity among other principles in order to successfully navigate the test construction and revision process.

In terms of content validity, which requires that a test should be "a representative sample from the domain that is to be tested" (Fulcher &

Davidson, 2007, p. 6), the BC 12 test, I would say is valid. The text used and the nature of tasks reflected the types of texts and activities students were exposed to in the classroom. In BC 12, students are exposed to tasks that require them to apply comprehension and critical reading skills such as summarizing, paraphrasing, mapping out ideas, and noting details, among others. According to Fulcher and Davidson (2007), the texts selected for the test must be “typical of the types of text” students deal with in their classes. Determining the construct validity was a more perplexing process, in my opinion. To begin with, there seems to be no clear-cut definition of construct validity. According to Fulcher and Davidson (2007), the word construct is hard to define and one has to think in terms of abstract nouns such as love, intelligence, and anxiety in order to somehow grasp what the word means. Hughes (1989) however simply put construct as the ability that a test intends to measure. Construct therefore ties with the specific process objectives and target skills of the test.

To examine the construct validity of the test I therefore revisited the skills and objectives stated in the TOS and tried to evaluate whether the test tasks actually tested the constructs specified. For example, as I understand, reading comprehension is a construct that is being tested in the exam, and so I had to check whether the subskills such as identifying main ideas, determining the writer’s purpose, noting details, etc. are constructs of comprehension and whether the tasks actually require the use and demonstration such constructs or skills by the students. I had to deliberate with myself. Doing so reminded me that test construction and revision cannot be successfully done on a “solo performance” but on a collaborative and collegial environment where everyone involved can reason together towards a successful development and revision of valid tests and assessment tools. Due to some limitations, the reliability of the test could not be determined. However, in terms of scoring, the weight given to each test item was reviewed and a rubric for grading the paragraph had been added. These were hoped to contribute to the reliability of the test.

All principles (e.g. validity and reliability) and elements (e.g. test design, test objectives and content, etc.) of testing and assessment are so intricately interwoven that one cannot be isolated from the rest. For instance, the effectiveness of the test blueprint influences test validity, the choice of texts and test types are connected to the test objectives, the soundness and

accuracy of the questions affect the validity and reliability of the test, and so on. Such complexity can present as intimidating and overwhelming to a language teacher, equipped or not equipped for the task. Adding to the challenge and complexity is the introduction to the Philippine educational system of non-traditional, student-centered curriculum and assessment paradigms (e.g. outcomes-based vs. performance-based curriculum of CHED and DepEd, respectively) that have redefined the principles of assessment for many teachers and administrators, especially those who are still more comfortable with traditional teaching and assessment methods. I wonder then how institutions could simply go easy on training their faculty and establishing a real assessment and testing culture that works.

For many reasons, testing has remained an uncomfortable place for me. It demands considerable skill, commitment, time, and resources among many others. The tediousness of constructing the blueprint, carefully choosing and writing the questions, and determining the scoring scheme among others all bring about patience, dedication, and commitment in a teacher. Thus, central to all efforts at making assessment and testing work is a thrust towards fairness, truthfulness, and effectiveness in curriculum implementation. The principles of validity and reliability are the very same qualities that should characterize the kind of education learners should have access to. Perhaps this is why the area of testing and assessment is not a comfort zone—because all these present as a seemingly monumental task. But as the author Seth Godin wrote (as cited in Patel, 2016), “Discomfort brings engagement and change.” Perhaps it is not bad to feel uncomfortable after all.

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Karlo Antonio G. David

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Jennifer Eve A. Solitana, Joan C. Generoso

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Ronald B. Kinilitan, Jean Cristine V. Ontal, Ginalyn A. Orillana

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John Edgar C. Rubio, Warlito S. Caturay Jr., Joan C. Generoso

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Mary Ann M. Temprosa

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Roann P. Alberto

Effectiveness of Biodiversity Conservation Campaign Materials and Strategies in The Forest Ecosystem of Carranglan, Nueva Ecija, Philippines

Jose Edwin C. Cubelo

Factors Associated with Pesticide Use Among Vegetable Farmers in Negros Oriental, Philippines

NOTES SECTION

Myla June T. Patron

Reflections on The Test Revision Process

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