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CPU College Freshmen's

Reasons for Taking the Course

They Are Pursuing

Elma S. Herradura *

What factors influence Filipino young men and women's choice of their college courses? In order to shed some light on this question, a survey was made of the reasons of the college freshmen of Central Philippine University of the school year 1973–1974. The reasons for the choice of one's college course were elicited as part of a questionnaire survey that was conducted among the freshmen of six colleges of the University; namely College of Arts and Sciences, Agriculture, Commerce, Education, Engineering, and Nursing. The freshmen were asked to complete the completion-

type item, "I decided to take the course I am taking now because . . :" Out of a total of 1,529 enrolled as "freshmen," 1,197 participated in the survey. Only 1,192 fully accomplished questionnaires could be included in the analysis of the data.

Each of the college groups was divided into the younger and older sub-groups. The younger students consisted of those who were born in 1955 and later; the older respondents included those born in 1954 and earlier. Each age sub-group was sub-divided into two— those who belong to the low socio-economic group (from now on to be

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referred to as the low SES sub-group) and those who belong to the high socio-economic group (from now on to be called the high SES sub-group.) The low SES sub-group was composed of students who got scores of 10.5 and less; the high SES sub-group made up of students who got scores of 11.0 and higher, in the Socio-Economic Scale.

Thirty questionnaires were randomly chosen for the purpose of establishing the categories that were used in the content analysis of the freshmen's responses. At first, twelve categories were established. The mutual exclusiveness and exhaustiveness of the twelve categories were further tested as the researcher content-analyzed more papers. One category "the course is in demand" was eliminated because it soon became evident that the respondents emphasized different things when they described a course as being "in demand," depending on what was emphasized by the respondent, his response was classified under either of two other categories. Two other categories were eliminated for a similar reason. A fourth was excluded when it became evident that there were not enough responses to warrant its being treated a separate category.

Each of the remaining eight categories was defined in terms of an anchor statement or phrase and in terms of typical statements tallied under the category. In order to check on the reliability of the categorization of the responses, the two members of the Social Science Research Unit of CPU were asked to make an independent content analysis of the responses of the Nursing and Agriculture students. A clerk then checked on the correspondence between the researcher's categorization and that of the independent content analysis. It was found that there was one hundred per cent correspondence between the two content analyses. This was probably because the two Social Science Unit researchers were using the detailed definitions of the categories that had been set up. A one-hundred per cent correspondence might not have been obtained on all the questionnaires. However, a very high percentage of correspondence could be safely presumed.

In the analysis of data, it was found necessary to obtain scores for various categories of responses, rather than frequencies of mention, for the various reasons:

Most respondents gave more than one reason for their choice of

a college course. Below the stimulus-phrase "I decided to take the course I am taking now because _____," was written "You may write your other reasons below, if **you had more than one** reason." This was done because the try-out studies showed that even when the students were asked only for one reason, the majority of them gave more than one, a fact clearly indicated that in most cases the student or his parent had more than one reason for their decision. If additional reasons had not been solicited, there would have been no way of knowing, which respondents had really only one reason and which ones gave only one reason simply because they were the type who follow instructions carefully. Since it was not easy to ignore the additional responses, it was decided to give all the respondents equal opportunity to give more than one reason, if they wanted to. In the final survey, the desire to give more than one answer was shown by the student's writing more than one answer on the space provided for the first reason. This indicated that even if their reasons had not been solicited, they would have given multiple reasons, anyway.

Since it was cumbersome to deal with three frequencies for each category, it was decided to score each by giving a weight of 2 to the first-mentioned response and 1 to each additional reasons. Reasons after the third one were arbitrarily ignored.

FINDINGS

The three high ranking reasons for choosing a college course were the same for boys and girls, both when they were taken as whole groups and as age or SES sub-groups. However, only the first-ranking of these three reasons (suitability to the respondents abilities, personality, etc.) was given first by all sub-groups, except the high SES sub-group of boys who ranked this only second. This finding shows that even when students and/or their elders considered other important factors in choosing a college course, the primary consideration was the student's interest in the work, his aptitude and inclination for it and the feeling that he can intellectually cope with the course work. This interest or inclination was commonly expressed in phrases like "I enjoy working with people" (given by social work students), "It has always been my ambition to be a _____", "I

want to know more about_____
(a particular kind of work is mentioned) and I am sure I will succeed
as a _____ ." Under "suitability
to the respondent's abilities, aptitudes, personality" are included
only those responses that clearly
indicate the respondent's own inclination, interest, or desire. Responses like "My parents (or other
elders) and I chose this course" and
"I like this course. My parents like it
too," were tallied under influence or
urging of elders." The arbitrary decision to so classify such responses
was made with cognizance of the
fact that the choice could have
been primarily been made by the
student in view of his own inclination, abilities, and personality and
was only endorsed by the elders for
the same reason. Despite this, it
was decided to categorize such replies under "elders' influence" because the mention of the parents'
concurrence with the choice indicated that the child considered
important his parents' opinion on
the matter.

The next two most popular
reasons of boys and girls were given
different ranks by the two groups.
The girls ranked economic considerations only thrid; this was the boys'
second choice. Altruism, the third

choice of the boys, was the girls'
second choice.

Among the boys, only the
high SES sub-group did not rank
second "economic consideration."
Respondents whose replies were tallied under this category generally
looked upon the college education
on the whole, not necessarily the
particular course they had chosen,
as an avenue to economic security
or at least to the improvement of
the economic lot of the respondent
and his family.

The sub-groups of girls unanimously chose altruism second.
Responses tallied under altryism
emphasized human welfare, service
to God, fellowmen, community and
country.

The reason that ranked fourth
in importance as a determinant of
the boys' and girls' choice of a career
is the influence of elders. However,
the figures in Tables I and II show
that among both the boys and girls,
it was a poor fourth. All the subgroups of girls ranked this fourth,
but the older and low SES subgroups of boys ranked this sixth
and fifth. Taken as a whole group,
the boys gave this category fourth
rank.

Among the girls, the first four
reasons were given the same ranks

by the various age and SES sub-groups.

The other four reasons included in the analysis obtained low scores. It may be worth noting that "the course chosen being in line with the family's business" was a close fifth to "elders' influenec" in the case of the boys' "Family business" was also ranked fifth by the girls. The last three reasons, viz., "the course is second only to the first choice which could not be pursued for reasons," "desire to go abroad," and "it is an inexpensive course" got negligible scores among the boys as well as among the girls. Each of these last four reasons got about the same ranks among the various sub-groups of boys and girls. A rho of .91 was found between the boys' and girls' reasons, signifying substantial agreement between the two sex groups. The same extent of agreement was found between the older and younger boys

TABLE I

Scores and Ranks of Boys' Reasons for Choice of Courses

Reasons	Scores					Ranks				Whole
	Older	Younger	High	Low	Whole Group	O	Y	H	L	
1. Fitness for line of work (as to interest, inclination, intellectual abilities, personality)	75	212	64	223	287	1	1	2	1	1
2. Economic considerations (security, improvement of one's lot)	74	153	74	153	227	2	2	1	2	2
3. Altruistic reasons	34	107	40	101	141	3	3	3	3	3
4. Influence of elders	6	59	20	45	65	6	4	4	5	4
5. Preparation for helping with family business	10	51	14	47	61	5	5	5	4	5
6. First choice beyond reach	11	10	4	17	21	4	6	6	6	6
7. Avenue for going abroad	3	5	2	6	8	7	7	7	7	7
8. Low expenses involved	0	3	0	3	3	8	8	8	8	8

Full definitions and examples of these categories are given in the full report. The concise forms of the responses given above do not always adequately express the reasons included in each category.

as well as between the older and younger girls. (rho.91 in each case.) A slightly higher agreement was found between the SES groups (rho.95 between the two SES groups of boys and rho.98 between the SES groups of girls.)

A SUMMARY AND A COMMENTARY

Regardless of sex, age, and SES, the college freshmen tended to consider important three reasons in choosing their college courses;

suitability to their abilities, interests and personality; altruism; and economic considerations. Of paramount concern to all groups and sub-groups was one's fitness for the kind of work, in regard to interest, capacities, and personality. The development of this concern is a task of vocational guidance; in case of present respondents this task seems to have been accomplished. Altruism and economic considerations were ranked second and third by the girls and conversely by the boys. Parental influence was a poor

TABLE II

Scores and Ranks of Girls' Reasons for Choice of Courses

	S C O R E S					R A N K S				
Reasons	Older	Younger	High	Low	Whole Group	O	Y	H	L	Whole
1. Fitness for line of work	89	627	195	521	716	1	1	1	1	1
2. Altruistic reasons	68	592	191	469	660	2	2	2	2	2
3. Economic considerations	49	438	108	379	487	3	3	3	3	3
4. Influence of elders	16	119	24	111	135	4	4	4	4	4
6. Avenue for going abroad	4	45	14	35	49	7	5	5	5	5
6. Preparation for helping with family business	11	28	9	30	39	5	7	6	7	6
7. First choice beyond reach	7	31	7	31	38	6	6	7	6	7
8. Low expenses involved	2	12	3	11	14	8	8	8	8	8

Full definitions and examples of these categories are given in the full report. The abbreviated forms of the reasons here do not always adequately express the reasons included in each category.

fourth choice; this influence was reported by a greater proportion of the boys than of the girls. The latter fact seems contrary to the common belief that girls heed their parents' wishes more than the boys do.

That the girls gave slightly more importance to altruism than economic considerations, and that the boys did conversely, are not surprising. These findings seem to indicate the boys' anticipation of their role as bread winners. Heads-to-be of families naturally would be concerned with completing a college course which promises greater capacity for securing economic adequacy and stability. In a content analysis of adolescent high school boys and girls' compositions (in General Santos, Cotabato), de la Cruz[1] found that the boys had significantly more frequently made mention of materialistic or economic concerns than did girls.

The greater concern of the girls with humanitarian and altruistic considerations gives further support for the belief, championed by Ashley Montagu, that the female is the more humane of the sexes. "Women are the carriers of the true spirit of humanity — the love of the mother for her child."[2] Frank[3] society, the family can still serve as the primary source of goals and standards while the adolescent shifts from a dependent to an independent role. If Frank's statement is valid, this finding implies that the Philippines, the Western Visayas (where most of CPU freshmen come from) to be more accurate, is not exactly tradition-bound but is a society in which traditions still play some part. "Parental influence" would probably have scored higher if this were a tradition-bound society. □

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[1]Juanita de la Cruz, "Likes and Dislikes (about Adults of Filipino Adolescents" (unpublished Master's Thesis, Central Philippine University, Iloilo City, 1972)

[2]Ashley Montagu, *The Natural Superiority of Women* (New York: MacMillan Company, 1953).

[3]K. Frank, "The Adolescent and the Family," *"Adolescence* Forty-Third Yearbook, NSEE, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944), p.240.

Social Conscience Orientation
of C. P. U. Students [*]

Macario B. Ruiz

This study is one of a series of investigations on the attitudes of Central Philippine University students in pursuance of one of the objectives of the University Research Center to undertake institutional research. [1] This study aimed to investigate the moral concern of students about perceived social ills or what might be termed institutional wrongdoings. What, for instance, would their reaction or feeling be if they knew that one of their classmates is a "drug addict" or is "spending money for cigarettes but won't even buy their notebooks for school work?"

It is to be noted that commitment to an enlightened social conscience is one of the objectives of the general education program of the University. [2] It is therefore planned to use the findings in these investigations as benchmark information against which to compare value changes in the students after a two-year period.

PROCEDURE

The procedure followed in this investigation is similar to the one in a previous report. [3] In fact, the data for this study were gathered from the same sample and the same questionnaire.

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[*] This is the ninth of a series of Institutional Studies being conducted by the Research Center under Dr. Ruiz's direction.

[1] See Research Bulletins No. 6, 1974, No. 1, 1975, No. 2, 1975, for studies on students' attitudes and environmental perceptions.

[2] See "Objectives of Central Philippine University," Section 1.6.

[3] See Research Bulletin No. 1, s. 1975, ibid.

The instrument. Part II of the research instrument consists of thirty statements of the Likert type, with four foils from which the respondent was asked to select one. These thirty items attempt to assess the student's religious orientation, social concern, and social conscience. Only the findings on social conscience are presented in this report.

One item is given below for purposes of explanation of the design of the foils:

"If you knew a classmate here who is a drug addict, what would you most likely do? "

   (a) Nothing; I wouldn't be disturbed. None of my business.
   (b) I would be disturbed but do nothing.
   (c) I would be disturbed but whether I took action would depend on who the student was.
   (d) I would express my concern only to the student, maybe advise him to stop it or see a doctor.

Attention is invited to the way the foils are worded. Foil a describes an attitude of indifference or apathy; Foil b describes a disturbed feeling, concern, but no action is taken; Foil c and Foil d also show the same orientation as the first two in that there is a "scaling" pattern to assess the degree of disturbance or concern and a possible course of action. This design has been followed in all the ten items which make up the inventory wherever it was possible. In all cases, though, the scaling pattern was maintained.

Reliability and validity of the inventory. Based on the item responses of 175 or more students chosen by systematic sampling design from the seven college groups (except Theology where all the 18 respondents were included), the reliability coefficient [4] was .93.

A combination of different methods of validation was used.

   (a) It was hypothesized that if the inventory discriminated certain groups of known social conscience orientation he and those with somewhat lower social conscience, the inventory, for one thing, should be valid. The Theology group, whom we assumed to belong to the first, did better in the inventory in a "try-out" computation than a random sample from

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[4] The coefficient alpha as developed by Cronback, L.J., "Coefficient Alpha and Internal Consistency of Tests," in *Psychometrika*, 1951, was used.

all the other six groups. The difference between the means of these two trial groups was 3.62 in favor of the former. The critical ratio was 6.2, which indicated that the difference was significant at the one per cent level. The weakness of this method is that the assumption about the superiority of the Theology group is open to question.

(b) It was assumed that this inventory would correlate rather highly with the social concern inventory on the theory that both had a fairly good similarity of orientation and content. The obtained coefficient of correlation was .69. This, of course, was an **ad hoc** method, since the research versions of the two inventories were used.

(c) It was assumed that the inventory had validity if there was agreement in the rankings of the items based on weighted group scores of the seven colleges represented, it would be assumed that the inventory had validity as a group measure. The Kendall "W" [5] was .74, which is very high and significant at the 1 per cent level.

(d) Finally, the item/scale correlations of the items were computed. The findings were:

Item 2	.93
Item 5	.79
Item 8	.83
Item 11	.42
Item 14	.46
Item 17	.39
Item 20	.0 (?)
Item 23	.64
Item 26	.54
Item 29	.67

(4) The coefficient alpha as developed by Cronback, L.J., "Coefficient Alpha and Internal Consistency of Tests," in **Psychometrika**, 1951, was used.

Item 20, obviously is a poor item. It should be replaced or revised in a future version of this instrument. We included this item in the scoring of figures in the paper. On the whole, however, it can be said that for purposes of this study, the inventory was sufficiently valid and reliable.

Description of the inventory. As mentioned in Section 2.1, the inventory is of the Likert type. Some of the "themes" tapped are about cheating, gambling by juveniles, exploitation of labor, poverty, irresponsible use of leisure time, etc. High scores in the inventory

[5] John J. Peatman, *Introduction to Applied Statistics,* Over seas edition. New York: Harper and Row, 1964, pp. 382 – 385.

indicate that the respondents express concern about these themes, while low scores imply that the respondents are apathetic, undisturbed, or detached about the matter.

Scoring. The foils in each of the ten items were given arbitrary weights, as follows:

Foil a ... 1·   Foil b ... 2
Foil c ... 3   Foil d ... 4

If a respondent marked Foil d, his score for that item was 4; if he marked Foil a, his item score was 1. His total scale score was the sum of all the item scores. Thus, if he marked all Foils d in every one of the ten items, his scale score would be 40, which is the highest possible score. If he marked Foils a in every one of the ten items, his scale score was 10, which is the lowest possible score.

Determination of "high" or "low" scores. Since the means and standard deviations of the instrument in social concern [6] and this one are particularly the same (M = 31.2 and 31.1, SD_s = 4.36 and 4.25 respectively) and the SE_m of both were the same, the model for categorizing the scores used in the former was adopted here.

The reader is referred to Research Bulletin No. 2, s. 1975 for an explanation of the rationale of the model.

Class Interval	Description of Categories
37 – 40	Very, very high
33 – 36	Very high
29 – 32	High
27 – 28	Uncertain
23 – 26	Low
19 – 22	Very low
15 – 18	Very, very low
14 – below	Extremely low

[6] See Research Bulletin No. 2, s. 1975.

FINDINGS

The findings are presented in two sub-sections.

Comparative data by college groups. Table 3.1—a reports the means, standard deviations, and standard error of the means for each of the seven college groups included in this study.

Attention is invited to column "total." With an SE_m of .19, the population mean can be estimated to fall between 31.2 + .49, or (30.71—31.69) or 31 in round figures. This is three score points above the out—off point of ·28, (CR = 11). This says that if another random sample of 514 from the population of CPU college students, the odds are better than 99 in a hundred that the mean of that sample would be more than 28.

Analysis of the differences of the means of the seven groups represented was done by computing the entry all pair-by-pair means. Table 3.1—b reports the obtained values.

The Theology group tops the other six groups significantly. Nursing tops Engineering, Arts, Agriculture, and Commerce, but not Education. Education tops Arts, Agriculture, and Commerce but not Engineering. There are no significant differences between the means of Engineering, Arts, Agriculture, and Commerce.

The distribution of scores according to the model is given in Table 3.1—c, below.

TABLE 3.1—a

Means, Standard Deviation and Standard Error of
the Means by Colleges
(Social Conscience)

	Theol.	Nursing	Educ.	Eng'g	Arts	Agric.	Com.	Total
M	33.62	31.60	31.16	29.90	29.66	29.64	29.20	31.20
SD	2.32	3.75	4.65	3.79	4.30	4.04	4.30	4.25
SE_m	.55	.31	.64	.44	.42	.52	.55	.19
N	18	146	52	73	103	61	61	514

TABLE 3.1–b

Matrix of Critical Ratios of
Differences of Means
(Social Conscience)

	Theol.	Nursing	Educ.	Eng'g	Arts	Agric.	Com.
Theol.	x	3.2	2.92	5.7	5.2	5.2	5.7
Nursing		x	.61	3.2	3.7	3.3	4.0
Educ.			x	1.8	2.0	2.82	3.28
Eng'g				x	.8	.4	1.0
Arts					x	.03	.7
Agric.						x	.6
Com.							x

Note: Critical ratio of at least 1.96 and 2.58 are necessary for the difference to be significant at the 5 per cent and 1 per cent level of significance respectively. Differences between means can be abstracted from Table 3.1–a.

TABLE 3.1–c
Distribution of Scores According to the Model
N = 514

Scores	Categories	No.	%	Sub-tot. No.	Sub-tot. %
37–40	Very, very high	53	10.28		
33–36	Very high	166	32.20		
29–32	High	158	30.65		
Sub-Total				380	73.15
27–28	Uncertain	65	12.61	65	12.61
23–26	Low	55	10.67		
19–22	Very Low	17	3.30		
15–18	Very, very Low	0	—		
14–below	Extremely Low	0	—		
Sub–total				72	13.97
Total		514	99.71	514	99.71

Seventy-three per cent of the sample come within the "high to very, very high" categories, whereas only 14 per cent come within the "low to very, very low" categories. These facts should confirm the observation made earlier in this subsection that the obtained mean is significantly higher than the cut-off point of 28.

Table 3.1—d below, gives a breakdown of the distribution of the scores by colleges according to the model.

All the respondents from Theology fall within the "high to very, very high" categories, while nearly 28% of the Commerce group fall within the "low to very low" categories. Almost 22% of the Engineering groups had scores falling within the "low to very low" categories.

DISCUSSION

The findings imply, for one thing, that as a group, C.P.U. college students have reached or are reaching the threshold of critical aware-

TABLE 3.1—d

Distribution of Scores According to the Model
by Colleges

Scores	CAT	Theol. No. %	Nursing No. %	Educ. No. %	Eng'g No. %	Arts No. %	Agric. No. %	Com. No. %
37-40	VVH	3 16.6	22 15.1	7 13.4	4 5.4	9 8.7	5 8.2	3 4.9
33-36	VH	12 66.6	57 38.8	13 25.0	13 17.8	38 36.9	20 32.8	13 21.3
29.32	H	3 16.6	45 30.8	18 34.6	33 45.1	24 23.3	17 27.8	18 29.5
27.28	UN	— —	15 10.2	6 11.5	7 9.5	16 15.5	11 18.0	10 16.4
23-26	L	— —	5 3.4	6 11.5	12 16.4	12 11.6	7 11.4	13 21.3
19-22	VL	— —	2 1.4	2 3.8	4 5.4	4 3.8	1 1.6	4 6.5
15-18	VVL	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —
14-below	ExL	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —
Total		18 99.8	146 99.7	52 99.8	73 99.7	103 99.8	61 99.8	61 99.9

ness - awareness of the ills of the social order, as well as its virtues. This is another way of saying that they are developing an enlightened conscience, which, by the way, is one of the objectives of our general education program. They are, in a manner of speaking, ready for change. The potentialities for positive social and individual action are there. What remains for us to do is to externalize that enlightened conscience from the level of "pure thought" to that of positive action.

Just how?

The problem, we like to think, is not really change itself, for whether we do anything about it or not, change is most certainly going on. The problem is the management of change. And change management, in turn, requires a good deal of understanding of institutions and how people behave in them.

Then we might add that sudden imposed change may be more harmful than beneficial. We are not referring to sudden change in the area of quantitative measurable change like the physical environment, buildings, facilities, and the like. We are speaking of imposed sudden change in the realm of the moral, spiritual, or attitudinal.

We might select one concern perceived to be a hindrance to individual or social development, say the maximization of the use of personal resources. The selection of this concern is, of course, the outcome of a dialogue between the teacher and the students. The less we talk about our positions in the philosophy of change the better — whether society should first be changed and society will change the individual, or whether we should change the individual first and society will change accordingly. This might result in the polarization of people into opposing camps, and will, eventually have nothing to do with each other.

Both positions are necessary. They complement each other. The strategy, maybe, is to focus on inner-directed change, acceptance of the need for change at the grass-roots level. The next phase of this suggested strategy is to create and/ or provide the supporting structures by means of which the individual student is given the opportunities to externalize the needed change over time. □

A Study of Filipino Adolescent's Reactions to Their Readings *

Norma P. Jayme

This study is concerned with the fourth level of reading. It was the purpose of this study to find the influence of reading on the concepts, attitudes, and behaviour of Filipino adolescents.

A modified critical-incident technique was used as the basis for collecting the data. The aim of the technique was to obtain self-observation of internal behavior of students. Students were asked specifically how books, stories, poems, and articles had affected their attitudes, ideas and behavior. The major instrument used was the questionnaire, and the information gathered was supplemented and validated by interviews and further validated by case studies.

The subjects were 396 junior and senior students in both public and private schools in the city of Iloilo. In this study, three schools were chosen; namely, a private Roman Catholic school, a private Protestant school, and a public secondary school.

The data gathered from the questionnaires were transmuted to percentages to make values parallel and hence meaningful. Types of literature considered influential, the types of influence, the general types of readings, and the situation in which reading was done were each correlated with sex and age, respectively. The chi-square and the significance of the difference between two percentages were used in determining the degree of relatedness between any two of the factors cited above.

A random sampling of thirty students from the original 396 were interviewed. Students whose interview responses showed extreme patterns of high and low influence were selected for case studies. There were twelve students selected for case studies: six from the high influence group and six from the low influence group according to the criteria set up by the investigator. Other kinds of information to round out the case studies were taken from the guidance counselor's records, teachers' ratings and records, and cumulative records.

The findings from the questionnaire, interviews and case studies revealed the following:

1. That adolescent in general were most influenced by short stories.

2. That the event of the story, the personality of the characters and the usefulness of the ideas in personal life were the parts of the stories that influenced the students the most.

3. That there were changes in concepts, attitudes and behavior of the adolescents as a result of their readings.

4. That the adolescents as readers tend to be observers, participators, and synthesizers in that order.

5. That the adolescents were most influenced in the following areas: philosophy of life and self-image.

6. That these adolescents were influenced more by voluntary reading than specifically assigned reading.

7. That the adolescents were influenced more by works of imagination than works of fact.

8. That adolescents were highly influenced by their readings, but such influence was not related to sex.

9. That adolescents were influenced more on the positive side than on the negative side.

On the basis of the findings, the following recommendations were offered:

1. Teachers put more emphasis on the use of the reading program for the development of character values.

2. Introspective reports might be used by teachers to ascertain the kind of reading materials that influence their students.

3. Teachers and librarians inform their students that there are other materials in the libraries that are as interesting as novels and short stories.

A Study of Certain Common Errors in English Sentence Structure as Influenced by the Hiligaynon *

Blanca S. Sobrejuanite

A number of studies have been done to determine the influence of the native language of a student on his study of a foreign language. The data yielded from those investigations have been of much help to the teachers, the supervisors, the textbook writers, and other researchers.

The grammatical structures of the native language have indeed been found to have influence, either to interfere with the learning of categories in the target language or to facilitate it. The second-language learner's first language is, therefore, of interest to his language teacher.

Structures of the foreign language which are similar in meaning and distribution and formation to some structure in the native language will be easy to learn because old learning can be transferred. Some structures are difficult because they require the second-language learner to change his old habits, or to reorganize his old habits under a new system.

The results of the investigations have given rise to more fruitful methods of teaching English as a second language. If the English teacher is aware of the trouble spots the students will have in their oral and written work, he will be guided well in the preparation of his lessons and in his choice of devices or techniques to be employed. Conversant with the "do's" and "don't's" of effective language teaching, the English teacher will have more success in his teaching.

This study was an attempt to pinpoint the trouble spots in English noun-head modifications which were due to the interference of the native language, to classify them, to obtain some indication of the magnitude and persistence of these errors, and to establish the hierarchy of difficulty of these structures.

METHODOLOGY

Since the student's original written work is a good indicator of how much learning has taken place, the written compositions of 800 students from five grade levels, Grade VI to the Fourth Year in high school, served as the corpus of this study. The compositions were selected at random (one out of three) from 2,402 compositions collected from six schools.

Then these compositions were grouped and analyzed by grade levels. During the running tally of the errors, emerging patterns of types of errors in noun-head modifications were noted. Then the errors were classified into categories. Later, some types were reclassified into sub-types. With the errors properly listed and grouped, a frequency count of the occurrence in each year was taken. The percentage equivalent of each

error in relation to the total number of errors was taken for each grade level to derive some measure of the magnitude of the difficulty for each grade and its persistence through the years.

As the third step, a count of both the correct and the incorrect usages under each category found in the compositions of the fourth year cases was done to determine the success of teaching at the end of the period of study. Then the percentage equivalent of the wrong usages in relation to the correct usages was solved for each category. The rank of difficulty of the errors was then determined in terms of the relative mastery of each structure as revealed by these percentages. Another frequency count was taken, this time in terms of the students committing the error, in order to nullify the effect of length in composition work. The error had to be committed twice by a student before he was considered as one who had not mastered that structure and be tallied as a "case in error." The percentage equivalent in relation to the total number of cases was computed to show the ranking difficulty of the errors with this new perspective. All the tables were then studied and interpreted.

The fourth procedure was a contrastive study of comparable English and Hiligaynon sentences. The correct English versions of the sentences used as "key" for each error type under study was given to a native informant to translate into Hiligaynon. An analysis of the structuring of the correct English sentence, the incorrect English sentence, and their Hiligaynon gloss was undertaken. Comparison revealed which types of errors were caused by the interference of the native language.

FINDINGS

The gross count of the frequency of errors and the count of the number of cases committing each error pointed out the relative difficulty of each type of error in five grade levels. The types of errors in the first half of the ranking lists were the same for both. Of special interest is the consistency of the ranking of the difficulty in the use of articles, the observance of number agreement between noun-phrase markers and the noun head, and the construction of modifying clauses, which were first, second, and sixth, respectively, in both. The types of errors which were committed more frequently by the fourth year students are those more

advanced students should be expected to commit when they are trying to express themselves more freely, but the great persistence of the error in the use of the genitive should be a cause for much concern because it is a basic structure. The two other basic structures which have not been mastered even after ten years, as shown by a percentage equivalent that is still high, are the use of articles and number agreement. These types of errors are due to the influence of the Hiligaynon. Error in the use of pronominal modifiers, which is another basic structure, is also due to the interference of the native language. The word-for-word translations of the dialect result in the use of irrelevant expressions, error in position of modifiers, error in word order, error in clause constructions, and error in expression of comparison. When one concept in Hiligaynon equals several concepts in English, errors in choice of vocabulary and word building occur. It has been shown that the eleven types of errors were caused by the interference of Hiligaynon.

CONCLUSIONS

Much of the difficulty in learning a second language is due to

interference from the native language of the learners. The interference found by this study arises from the following differences in the signalling systems involved:

1. One concept in one language is split into several concepts in another;

2. A relatively free word order is translated into a relatively fixed word order;

3. Obligatory word orders which are similar in meaning are opposite in arrangement;

4. The same concept is signalled by different morphological processes.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Here are a few recommendations based on the findings of this study;

1. Language teachers can improve their teaching by always trying to spot errors that often occur and making even just an informal contrastive analysis of the native way of expressing the communication situation involved and the foreign language way, to see whether any interference in the new learning is due to former speech habits.

2. Since non-mastery of the basic structures in the early years will compound difficulty later (this study shows that such errors also tend to be persistent), it is recommended that the basic structures be given much emphasis during the early years of study so that correct use of such structures as the articles, items with special distribution like "little" and "few" and the common "one of . . . " becomes automatic.

3. The child's loyalty to his native language is a strong impediment in learning; therefore, strong motivations must go with foreign language learning, no matter at what age.

4. More studies of the distinctive features of Hiligaynon be conducted. Researches on the following are recommended:

a. The System of Particles — Particles like "sang," "sa," "nga," etc. interfere with the learning of English especially. Although some indication of how they function is given here, a more definitive description of their distribution and function is needed before the full extent of their influence on the learning of a second language by a Hiligaynon speaker can be determined.

b. Word Order — Word order in Hiligaynon is optional and it is obligatory in English. These conflicting features provide a reason for an interesting study in

this area. Some such questions as these seek answers: How free is Hiligaynon word order? Among the possibilities, are some preferred to others so as to be considered "characteristic" of dialect?

c. The Function Words in Hiligaynon — What are the function words in Hiligaynon? What is their distribution? What structural meanings do they signal? How do they compare with English function words?

5. This study is limited to errors in the use of noun-head modifiers. Further studies of the same nature may be on the modification structure of the verb and that of the modifiers themselves.

6. School personnel, including classroom teachers, should study the literature on bilingualism in order to avail themselves of findings of studies on the effect on the child of the study of more than one language. This background should help curriculum makers decide what realistic objectives to set and what accomplishment to expect. Teachers should be helped by their study in (1) providing the appropriate background for language study, (2) providing proper motivations for learning, (3) choosing effective aids, (4) knowing what

achievements a language learner can be capable of, (5) deciding on the nature and sequence of the learning activities.

7. Teachers, English teachers in particular, should know about the basic structures of Hiligaynon. A teacher's adequate knowledge of how the native language words is essential to his compraative study of the two languages. □

Filipino Adolescent's . . .

In addition, the study has pointed the need for further investigation such as:

1. The case study method be used for the study of individual patterns of response.

2. The relationship between reading and other variables, such as socio-economic class and other personality characteristics, if any, be studied.

3. Negative influence from reading might be further investigated.

4. The relationship of sex to situation in which reading was done be further studied especially in schools where the males are segregated from the females.

5. The relationship between reading and intelligence and reading comprehension be studied. □

Case Studies on Fifteen High School Underachievers *

Sr. Therese Immaculate Koottiyaniyil, R.A.

This study was undertaken with the purpose of discovering the problems that are related to underachievement. Through the analysis of many measures and data about each case, the researcher aimed to discover the following:

1. The characteristic patterns of personality traits of underachievers.

2.a. The problem areas through the administration of the Mooney Problem Check List, and the specific problems in these areas that are mentioned by the majority of the underachievers.

2.b. The seriousness of underachievers' problems regarding home and family.

3. The acceptance of the underachievers by their peers.

4. The adequacy of their self-concept.

5. The level of their academic motivation.

6. Their study habits and attitudes, and the specific problems, in the SSHA, that are common to the majority of underachievers.

More specifically, the following research hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1. There are negative personality traits that are common to the majority of underachievers.

Hypothesis 2.a. There are problems identified by the use of Mooney Problem Check List that are common to the majority of underachievers.

Hypothesis 2.b. The area of home and family is a serious problem area for the majority of the underachievers.

Hypothesis 3. The majority of underachievers is not well-accepted by their peers.

Hypothesis 4. The majority of underachievers does not have adequate self-concept.

Hypothesis 5. The majority of underachievers does not have high academic motivation.

Hypothesis 6. The majority of underachievers does not have good study habits and attitudes. There are problems in this area that are common to the majority of cases.

The subjects of this study were fifteen (nine third year and six fourth year high school) male students of Central Philippine University, in Iloilo City, of the school year 1974-1975. These were students whose IQ's were 110 or higher according to Leila Padilla Philippine Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability. None had a general average of 86 or above. The general average of each student for the previous school year was made the index of academic achievement. All belonged to the lowest twenty per cent of their respective sections in academic achievement.

The Sixteen Personality Factor Test, Mooney Problem Checklist, Sociometric Test, Self-Concept Inventory, Motivation Inventory, Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes, Personal Data Form, and Interviews with parents, teachers, and the underachievers were the sources of data.

METHODOLOGY

The method used in this study was the case study method of research. Arbitrary qualitative terms were assigned to values or ranks in order to facilitate the interpretation of different test results. One set of qualitative term used in connection with Motivation, Self-Concept, Social Standing, and Study Habits and Attitudes were also translated into "degree of seriousness" in order to facilitate the presentation of facts expressed in different categories in only one graphic presentation. The results of the diagnosis of the problems of each case were presented in the form of an individual graphic profile and a descriptive case study report. Finally, a color-chart was prepared to enable the researcher to see at a glance the problem areas of all fifteen cases, thus enabling her to draw up a profile of underachievers as a group.

FINDINGS

The following were the significant findings of this study:

1. **The Personality Character-istics of the Underachievers.** Ten or more of the fifteen cases had the following personality character-istics: they were somber; had high scholastic mental capacity; had aver-age superego strength; were neither submissive nor dominant; neither relaxed nor tense; they tended to be shy, and self-sufficient. Eight to nine cases were emotionally less stable (affected by feelings), appre-hensive or prone to worry, suspi-cious, and controlled. Among the fifteen cases only one -- a different case at each instance -- was trusting, emotionally stable, reserved and casual. None was happy-go-lucky, socially bold or venturesome, and none with high ergic tension.

2. **Problems Areas.** The use of the Mooney Problem Check List showed that the four most common problem areas of the underachievers were the personal psychological re-lations, the social recreational activi-ties, adjustment to school work, and the social psychological rela-tions. The problems, in these areas, that are common to the majority of cases were: losing their temper; worrying; daydreaming; being care-less; feeling awkward in meeting people; having trouble in keeping a conversation going; not spending enough time in study; getting low grades; not being interested in some subjects; and having trouble with Mathematics.

As far as the area home and family was concerned, it was among the least serious problem areas for the majority of the cases. The single problem in this area that was com-mon to two-thirds of the cases was "wanting more freedom at home". Six underachievers were identified as having serious problems related to home and family. The most common problems of these six cases were: "wanting more freedom at home"; "being treated like a child"; and "worried about a mem-ber of the family".

The Acceptance of the Un-derachievers by Their Peers. The Sociometric test results showed that the majority of the cases was not very popular among Their Peers. More specifically, out of fifteen cases, four were well accepted; six were average; and five were not well accepted. Of these five, two were ignored or rejected by their peers.

4. **The Adequacy of Their Self-Concept.** The use of the Self-Con-cept Inventory indicated that out of

fifteen cases only three had adequate self-concepts; six had average self-concepts; and six had inadequate self-concepts. The majority of the cases was found to be easily discouraged by failure. The most common problems of the six underachievers who were identified as having inadequate self-concepts were: being easily discouraged by failure; being afraid to recite in class; having to tell lies to impress people; and finding themselves trembling and sweating before they take a test.

5. The Level of Their Academic Motivation.

The findings on the Motivation Inventory showed that out of fifteen cases, none had high academic motivation; two had average motivation; three had low motivation; and ten had very low motivation. The majority of the cases agreed with the statement, in the Motivation Inventory, "Most young people do not want to go to school." The Education Acceptance Scale in the SSHA, which also measured the academic motivation, showed that all, except two, had one or more of the following problems: "lack interest in some subjects"; "lack interest in school work"; "made to take subjects I do not like"; and "if I do not like a subject, I believe in doing only enough to get a passing grade."

6. Their Study Habits and Attitudes.

It was found out through the Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes, that although none of the fifteen cases had shown a very poor work method, only three had good study habits and attitudes.

The problems, with regard to study habits, that were common to two-thirds or more cases were: not keeping their work for each subject together and carefully arranged in some planned order; not talking it over with the teacher when in trouble with their school work; not doing their assignments at school so as to reduce their home work; not completing their home work assignments on time; and not studying an hour or more each day outside of school.

The majority of underachievers did not make up their missed lessons without a reminder from the teacher. If the assignments were dull, they did not complete them. Their place of study at home was not kept neat and business-like. They did not keep their assignments up to date by doing them regularly.

The poor study attitudes common to eight or more cases were

the following: "I feel that the teachers expect students to do too much studying outside of class"; "I believe that the main job of the schools is to teach students the things that will help them earn a living"; "My teachers do not make their subjects interesting and meaningful to me"; "I feel that the teachers do not try to give the same amount of attention and help to all their students"; and "I feel that I would have studied harder if I were given more freedom to choose subjects that I like."

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings of this study, the following hypotheses were sustained: (1) there are negative personality traits that are common to the majority of cases; (2) there are problems, identified by the use of Mooney Problem Check List, that are common to the majority of cases; (3) the majority of cases does not have adequate self-concept; (4) the majority of cases does not have high academic motivation; and (5) the majority of cases does not have good study habits and attitudes.

The hypotheses which were not strongly supported by the findings of this study were: (1) the

area home and family is a serious problem area to the majority of the cases, and (2) the majority of the cases is not well accepted by their peers.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

1. It is recommended that similar studies should be conducted on the third and fourth year high school students, of the same school, having IQ's of 110 or higher on the Leila Padilla Philippine Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability but belong to the highest twenty per cent of their sections in academic achievement. The comparison of the results of the present study with those of the one proposed will help identify problems characteristic of underachievers and thus help identify factors causing underachievement.

Similar studies should be conducted in other schools to find out whether their underachievers have similar problems.

3. More studies should be conducted on the relationships between: (a) interest in the subjects and achievement; (b) attitudes toward teachers, and interest in the

A Study of the Status of Science Teaching in the Intermediate Grades in the District of Roxas City *

Lilia Barbasa

For sometime now the Philippines has been beset by the problems of insufficiency and of economic dependence on other countries. We need scientific manpower to make us self-sufficient in our staple food, rice, and to make full use of our rich natural resources in order to become economically stable. The school, being the agency that can give us the much needed scientific manpower, must have a good science program. To improve the science program there is a need to reassess the science teaching in order to know its strengths and weaknesses. The researcher, in her desire to help solve the problem, conducted a study to ascertain the effectiveness of the science teaching in the intermediate grades in the District of Roxas City for the school year 1968-1969. The study was conducted in the twenty-one out of the twenty-seven elementary schools in the said district with 745 Grade V pupils and 595 Grade VI pupils under forty-five science teachers. The methods used in the study were questionnaire, checklist, ocular survey, and interview. The mean, the S.D., SEM percentage of error, chi square and coefficient of reliability were the statistical tools used.

The Health and Science Test for both grades was made up of one hundred items: twenty-five items of the attitude test, twenty-five items of scientific skills test, and fifty items of understanding and factual test.

The curricular validity of the Grade V and the Grade VI Health and Science Test was evaluated.

Each of the two tests was evaluated by ten persons considered to be knowledgeable in science. The standard set for rating each item of the test is as follows: 5-Very very important; 4-very important; 3-important; 2-fairly important; 1-not important; 0-useless.

Any of the items that was rated not important or useless, was either improved or changed. Not one of the test items of the two tests was rated not important or useless, so not one of the test items was improved or changed. The general average curricular validity of the Grade V and the Grade VI Health and Science Test was 3.875 which falls within the category "Important."

The reliability of the test used in this research was also computed. The investigator used the split-half method of the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula. Through systematic sampling, two hundred samples were used for each of the Grade V and the Grade VI. As computed, the coefficient of reliability of the Grade V Health and Science Test was +.74 while that of the Grade VI was +.79. T.L. Kelly proposed a minimum r-value of .50 for evaluating group accomplishment. Based on this standard, the reliability of the two tests used in this research was high.

The outcomes of this study are summarized under five topics:

1. Instructional outcomes in the understanding of scientific concepts and the application of scientific processes and attitudes.
2. The science teachers' special training in science teaching
3. Preparation time of science teachers
4. Instructional materials, aids and guides, library facilities and laboratory provisions
5. Supervisory assistance of science teachers.

Instructional Outcomes in the Understanding of Scientific Concepts and the Application of Scientific Processes and Attitudes

The sample pupils' achievements in Science as revealed by the test results were as follows: The population mean of all the Grade V pupils in the schools in the District of Roxas City was estimated with 99% confidence to fall between 35-36 while that of the Grade VI pupils with also 99% confidence falls between 40-42. The Grade V pupils had developed properly only two scientific attitudes out of the seven included in the test. Not one of the skills was properly developed

in them. Out of the fifty scientific facts in the test, only two were well understood. The sample mean of the Grade V was between 35-53 with an S.D. of 7.3. As for the Grade VI, they were able to develop properly only three scientific attitudes out of seven. Only one of the scientific skills was well developed, and of the fifty scientific facts, only five were well understood. The sample mean of the Grade VI pupils was 40.59 with an S.D. of 9.25.

The Science Teachers' Special Training in Science Teaching

There is a great possibility that the special training the science teachers had on science teaching, greatly affected their teaching emphasis and the method of teaching they used which in turn had something to do with the pupils' learning and achievement in science.

Out of the forty-five science teachers under study, only fourteen or 31% had special training in the modern approach in teaching science. Only five of the fourteen teachers with special training or 11% of all the forty-five science teachers were implementing the new approach in science teaching.

Preparation Time of Science Teachers

The success of the days' teaching depends to a great extent on the teachers' preparation.

Based on the data on hand, 47% of the science teachers under study had time to prepare for their science teaching. These teachers included three relief teachers and thirteen advisory teachers. It is worth considering that these teachers did not teach science subjects only but also other subjects which call for preparation, too. Most of the teachers under study, 53% of them, lack time for preparation. For this reason one can judge how unsuccessful the daily science teaching of most of the teachers under study were.

Instructional Materials, Aids and Guides, Library Facilities and Laboratory Provision

The teachers under study were in dire need of equipment and materials for classroom demonstrations and for individual and group laboratory work. The well selected and easily accessible books, periodicals, pamphlets, and reference materials were also limited. The same situation prevailed with regard to the reading materials appropriate

for pupils of different activities and interests. As for the study and teaching guides, laboratory manual and project materials, and resource units, the teachers under study had moderate supply. However, based on Table XIV and on the interview, a great percentage of the teachers, 89% of them or 40 out of 45 science teachers under study did not follow the guide in the process approach for the reason that they lacked needed materials for demonstration and experiments aside from the lack of time to prepare for laboratory work, (Table XIV). For this reason, even if the science teachers had the study guides and teaching guides on hand, it did not help them make their teaching effective.

The limited or missing laboratory equipment and materials, and library facilities as well as the non-implementation of the new approach in science teaching, even with the guides on hand, may have some relation to the poor achievement in science.

Physical Facilities for Science Teaching

The physical facilities of the science room are adequately suited to science teaching if the room is comfortably wide enough for laboratory work and discussion. There are demonstration and work tables, and the important necessities in science teaching are within the easy reach of the science teachers and pupils.

The representative sample schools in the District of Roxas City had adequate classroom space for science discussion and experimentation. The science teachers held their science discussion and laboratory work in the regular elementary classrooms. The demonstration table, visible to all the members of the class, which is very necessary for the convenience on the part of the teacher demonstrator and to catch the interest and elicit the participation of the pupils, was limited. Only eleven of the science classrooms out of forty-three visited had a demonstration table visible to all the pupils. Washing facilities, more work tables, simple science equipment, adequate space, and equipment for maintaining living plants and animals were also needed. Only fifteen out of the forty-three science classrooms visited had washing facilities. Only one science room used laboratory tables for working purposes and stools for sitting. The remaining forty-two science classrooms used writing

desks for their work tables. Ten science classrooms had aquaria and one of these ten classrooms had a terrarium for maintaining living plants and animals. The other thirty-three science classrooms had none. The display shelf for preserved plants and animals was moderately provided for. Most of the science classrooms under study had limited or no provisions for the storage of equipment and materials. The provision for the safe storage and handling of hazardous materials was also limited or missing. As for the use of audio-visual equipment, readily accessible first aid and safety equipment as well as for the book shelves and magazine racks, were moderately provided.

With the kind of provisions for the physical facilities for science teaching as summarized above, the science classrooms under study were not adequately suited to science laboratory work. This condition may be one of the causes which caused the poor achievement in science of the representative sample pupils in this investigation.

Supervisory Assistance

Supervisory assistance is universally acknowledged as a "must" for all teachers. It serves as a

"peep" to teachers who are growing old in the service and it gives them a chance to have ideas of new trends in education. All these ultimately redound to the improvement of the quality of teaching. For this reason, the researcher gathered data on the supervisory assistance the science teachers under study received.

The supervision given to the science teachers under study, of the District of Roxas City, was the "Try this to find out' type. However, about 43% of the science received under study recieved no supervision at all.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this investigation as summarized, the investigator inferred that the science teaching in the intermediate classes in the schools of the District of Roxas City leaves much to be desired because of the following conditions:

1. Majority of the science teachers in the District of Roxas City had no training in the modern approach of science teaching.

2. Very few of the science teachers who had training implemented the new approach in teaching science.

3. Most of the science teachers had very limited or insufficient

time in preparing for their science teaching.

4. The laboratory equipment and materials were very limited.

5. There was a lack of well selected and easily accessible science books, periodicals, pamphlets, and reference materials.

5. The physical facilities of the science rooms were not adequately suited to science teaching due to the lack of the following:

    a. demonstration table

    b. work tables

    c. washing facilities

    d. storage space for equipment and materials

    e. safe storage and handling of hazardous materials

    f. space and equipment for maintaining living things

7. Many of the science teachers received no supervision on science teaching.

RECOMMENDATIONS

From the findings of this study and from the aforementioned conclusion, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. Majority of the science teachers in the District of Roxas City had no training in the modern approach of science teaching. Teachers therefore should exert more

effort to improve their competency by taking up subjects in science during summer sessions or Saturday classes as well as attending science seminars.

It is worth noting what L. Patton said regarding professional growth:

However well a teacher educator is equipped prior to his engagement in the task of teaching, in a very short time what he teaches would become outmoded. He can not himself remain static in a world that is dynamic. He must grow intelligently and must grow in the profession for professional maturity and competence are developed and refined on the job and an individual never reaches the point where professional growth is no longer necessary.

2. Hold science seminars to orient the science teachers on the different aspects of a science lesson, the understanding of scientific facts, and the development of science process skills and scientific attitudes. They should also be oriented with the different approaches or methods of teaching science so they will know what to use to attain effectively the objectives of science lessons.

3. Very few of the science teachers who had training implemented the new approach in teaching science. To insure the full implementation of the new approach of teaching science, there must be a close supervision of science teachers and an achievement test before the end of every school year must be given in keeping with the new trend of science teaching.

4. Most of the science teachers had very limited or insufficient time in preparing for their science teaching. For this reason, a science teacher should be given one subject teaching load less than the other teachers to give them more time to prepare for their laboratory lessons. An advisory work to a class must be given an equivalent of one subject teaching load.

5. Since the findings show that laboratory equipment is very limited in the schools under study and factory-made equipment are hard to secure in rural areas due to financial reasons, science teachers should use their initiative to make and accumulate simple science equipment out of local materials. They can also get the help of their pupils by asking them to make simple science equipment as their yearly project.

6. As to materials for science laboratory work, the schools under study had very limited supply so teachers should use local materials. They can ask their pupils to bring the needed materials before the time for laboratory work or lesson. In so doing, the teachers will have many helping hands. They can reach out to the homes of his pupils and all parts of the community as source of these materials.

7. It was found out that there was a lack of well selected and easily accessible science books, periodicals, pamphlets, and reference materials. To remedy the situation, a science teacher should try his best to put up a small science library in the science room. This cannot be done in a few days. However, science books, periodicals, pamphlets and other reference materials can be accumulated from year to year.

8. The physical facilities of the science rooms in the schools in the District of Roxas City was found not adequately suited to science teaching due to lack of demonstration and work tables, washing facilities, storage space for equipment and materials, safe storage and handling of hazardous materials, and space and equipment for maintaining living things. Our government cannot give us all that we need in school, so science teachers

A Survey of Types of Organization and Decision-Making in Business Establishments in Iloilo City *

Rodolfo Gumabong

For this study, two main objectives were set; namely, determining the types of organization found among Iloilo City business establishments and determining the distribution of decision-making in each type of organization.

Specifically, the first objective was to find out what the prevailing legal forms were and what relationship obtains between legal form and type of organization.

The second objective was to find out information about (1) who the decision-maker(s) were in each type of organization and the extent of decisions made by each, (2) whether decision-making was too centralized, too dispersed, or well-distributed, and (3) what relationships obtained between organizational form and decision-making.

For gathering data, the ques-tionnaire was used, the responses to which were verified by conferences with the business executives concerned or their appointed representatives.

Important decision-makers were determined by the number of decisions each official had to make. The type(s) of decision made by each official revealed which decisions were characteristic decisions or less frequent decisions. Since the number of corporations was relatively large, it was sought to find out whether the distribution of responsibility for decisions was in any way related to size of organization.

Finally, a definition of each type of official in business establishments was attempted on the basis of his characteristic decisions(s).

FINDINGS

Findings showed that the corporation was the prevalent legal form of business establishment in Iloilo City, followed by the single proprietorship. Corporations tended to be small and to be organized along the lines of functional and line-staff types. Their decision-makers were the president, the general manager, the department or section heads, the supervisor(s), and the foremen. In the corporation, the general manager made the most decisions, though both positions of president and general manager were to be found in it.

The single proprietorship tended to be of the line type of organization where the decision-makers were the owner, the general manager, the department or section head(s) and the supervisor(s), but the one who made the most decisions was the owner.

Several business establishments in Iloilo City appeared to have no job descriptions for the different positions in their set-ups. As a consequence, there were overlaps in decision-making in corporations, particularly in the top management level. Too many decisions were made by the president and the general manager while subordinate officials had too few decisions.

On the basis of the most frequent decisions made by each, the president can be defined as the official who usually decides on how to interpret the policies of the corporation regarding general operation and expansion; the general manager is the one who decides on what policies to adopt for the branches; the department head is the one who decides on what policies to adopt for the branches; the department head is the one who enforces company policies; the supervisor is the one who decides on how to ensure worker efficiency.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings suggest the following recommendations: (1) that officials study present practices on decision-making in order to effect any necessary improvement, (2) that officials study how to relieve high officials of minor decision-making, (3) that a job description of each position be drawn in order to mark off positions according to duties and responsibilities, and (4) that a leadership seminar on decision-making be held among executives of business firms in Iloilo City.

Revolution Since 1776: Is the American Experience a Model for Developing Areas?

Chester L. Hunt *

In the last thirty years, American foreign policy has often involved an opposition to so-called movements of "national liberation." Critics of American foreign policy charge that such opposition to revolutionary movements fighting against allegedly reactionary regimes involved a betrayal of American revolutionary tradition. In brief, the revolutionary nation in 1776 is accused of being reactionary in 1975.

Consideration of the validity of such a charge is especially pertinent at this time when the United States is preparing for the observance of the 200th anniversary of independence. Since there is no doubt about frequent American opposition to current revolutionary regimes, one pertinent question is whether or not such regimes are really comparable to the American Revolution or whether they involved a new and different type of social movement.

Colonialism Not the Issue

Perhaps the first thing that might be said is that the charge that America has reversed its position on revolution does not mean that it has ended its opposition to colonialism. The action of the United States in granting the Philippine Commonwealth status in 1935 with independence to follow, is, in itself, the first major action of decolonialization in the 20th Century.

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Since that time, the United States has rather consistently supported movements for national independence even when such support involved friction with European allies. It was, for instance, partially pressure from the United States which caused the French to grant independence to their North African colonies and the Dutch to withdraw from Indonesia. In spite of this record, the Afro-Asian bloc in the United Nations frequently opposes United States policies. Opposition was often expressed to the U.S. support of the Saigon regime and the recent American withdrawal from Vietnam is regarded by critics as an example of the failure of an effort to stem the onrush of a valid indigenous revolutionary movement. Again, it is appropriate to repeat the question implied in the title of this article: is the American Revolution a prototype for existing revolutionary movements?

Social Conditions in 1776 and 1975

The first observation which might be made is that there is a rather considerable contrast between the social condition of the people currently involved in "revolutionary movements" and that of the people in the United States at the time of the American Revolution. For one thing, most of the people in the developing world are landless peasants with extremely limited incomes. North America was far less wealthy at the time of the American Revolution than it is today, but the bulk of the voting population were neither poor nor rich. They were mostly land-owning farmers or independent tradesmen. Further, the people in the developing countries usually have had very little, if any, experience with democratic self-government on either local or national levels. The Americans, by contrast, had a hundred and fifty years of experience in local self-government before the time of the American Revolution. Most of them were immigrants from England which had established a fairly democratic government on the local level for at least three or four centuries before the time of the American Revolution. The Revolution was not so much a sharp break in history as it was a carrying forward of trends which had been long underway.

Aims of Revolutionary Movements

Likewise, if one looks at the aims of the two types of revolutionary movements, there is a vast difference. The Americans did

not revolt because they wanted more government, but because they wanted less. They resented what today would be considered rather minor taxes and restrictions on trading activities. The American statesman who coined the phrase "that government is best which governs least" was expressing a reaction not only to the royal British government, but to any government on the American scene. The Americans felt that a government should maintain local order, defend the citizens against foreign enemies, maintain a currency, carry the mail and conduct courts of justice. At about this point, government functions should end. Even education, for the most part, was a private voluntary activity and provision for any kind of education above the primary level was quite limited. Karl Marx had not yet written his challenge to the capitalist system and the idea that the government should actually carry on important economic enterprises had not yet appeared not had the welfare state developed. No government anywhere guaranteed its citizens protection against unemployment, offered welfare for the poor or provided pensions for the old. Likewise, governments had not yet begun efforts to seal themselves off from the rest of the world. Foreigners were free to come into the country, to engage in business, to bring money in and to take profits out. Labor unions were practically unknown. Protective tariffs existed, but were used with a good deal of restraint and were only accepted on the basis that they were necessary for a limited period of time for the protection of "infant" industries. The American hoped for prosperity, but saw government more as an impediment than a help. If he felt confined and frustrated by the existing power structure, he could leave the east coast and become an independent farmer on the open land of the frontier.

The contrast with the "liberation" movements of today is well high overwhelming. These are sponsored by people who regard the government, not as a provider of minimum services, but as the principal agent to usher in an industrial revolution which will lead to a good life in the sense of a higher standard of living. The notion of the "invisible hand" proclaimed by Adam Smith, which, through the process of competition, automatically provided the best use of labor and capital is regarded as obsolete. Instead, we look to the iron fist of

government to rectify the injustices of a class system. If democracy is preceded by "peoples," then it is considered a good term. If it is preceded by "bourgeoisie," then it is regarded as a synonym for exploitation. According to the context, "democracy" is either a vague expression indicating the good life or an epithet designating supposedly imperialist nations. The American Revolution, in great part, was a protest against excessive taxation and government regulations. The current People's Liberation Movements have little concern with taxation and see prosperity as the result of a large flow of government funds.

Democracy and Revolution

Although the American revolutionists spoke much about democracy and the rights of individuals, it was a democracy carefully circumscribed in practice, with a balance of power between the judiciary, the legislative and the executive which made it difficult for the government to take prompt and decisive action in any field. Further, although the voters supposedly had ultimate control of the government, the electorate was far from comprising all of the population. At the time of

the American Revolution, for instance, women did not vote which excluded about half the people; slaves did not vote which excluded perhaps fifteen per cent and those without property were excluded which eliminated approximately half the remaining white males. The American Revolution ushered in a government whose citizens had limited expectations, whose capacity for effective action was minimized by a separation of powers and which was controlled by elections in which participation was restricted to the property owning white males. Certainly, in both spirit and form, this kind of regime is far different from the current "liberation" movements which seek a powerful welfare state of infinite power and responsibility. Such "liberation" movements laud quick and powerful government action and tend to gravitate either to a democracy based on a universal franchise or a dictatorship of some particular class or group.

Territorial Unity Vs. Fragmentation

Still another distinction between the American Revolution and today's struggles concerns the territorial dimension. If the American Revolution had been patterned along the lines of revolutions in

Africa, for instance, this would have meant the fragmentation of a continent. Instead of the confederation and eventually a nation formed by the thirteen colonies, there would have been at least thirteen separate nations. Each nation would have had frontiers, tariffs, immigration restrictions, currency controls, and consequent points of contention with other nations. Fortunately, rather than breaking down territorial dimensions to allow smaller ethnic units a place of their own, the American Revolution sought to bring substantial blocks of territory together to form a united government.

Great Power Politics in 1776

One point of similarity with present struggles in the developing world is that the American Revolution became a pawn of great power politics. The British recruited soldiers from the German State of Hesse to enlarge their counter revolutionary forces, but it was the French who determined the outcome of the war. The final victory of the American Revolution could not have been achieved without the cooperation of the French fleet. One difference from contemporary "liberation" movements though is that after independence was

achieved, the United States was economically viable without the aid of foreign governments. In part, this viability represented a moderately high degree of development; in part, it was made possible by an economic system which welcomed private foreign investments and perhaps, in part, it was made possible by the more modest expectations which people had of governments at that time.

Comparing Revolutions of 1776 and 1975.

From the foregoing analysis, it should be clear why those who are still attuned to the Revolution of 1776 may be somewhat cool to the revolutions of 1975. Beyond this coolness, the question is whether such differences reflect abiding and still pertinent divergence of thought or whether they merely represent two different periods of time in world history. As historians emphasize, it is certainly correct that history never exactly duplicates itself and each situation is, to some degree, unique. Granted that this is true, is the American reluctance to accept current liberation movements simply a sign of neo-colonialism and a reactionary social attitude or are the principles of the American Revolution still pertinent today?

Currently, the problems of "liberation" movements seem to be more apparent than their successes. These problems include constant unrest and violence, corruption and inefficiency in government, inflation which has clouded the hopes of their people for a better life, together with a trend toward increasing direction and control by governmental units of all man's activities. Perhaps these trends reach their maximum expression in the Soviet Union. Solzhenitsyn, the dissident Soviet author, in protesting some of the moves of the United States towards detente recently wrote, "I was born slave while you were born free, why do you then help our slave owners?" Many observers viewed the Khmer Rouge as a movement to liberate the Cambodian people from a reactionary regime. Such "liberation" has meant a completely totalitarian rule which solves urban problems by driving people out of the cities into the wilderness.

The emergence of governments in the Philippines and Singapore w h i c h accepts cooperation with economic forces in the rest of the world, limit the extent of popular control of government and make full use of private enterprise, seems to represent a counter trend. The form of these governments is drastically different from that of the government which emerged from the American Revolution, but the substance has more similarity than appears on the surface. They represent a realization that, if a government is to serve its people, it must be insulated, to some extent, from popular passions and demagogic agitation. The American revolutionists sought to accomplish this by restricting the franchise to supposedly responsible elements and by limiting the role of government. Neither of these approaches are acceptable today. Government cannot avoid the obligations of the welfare state and when elections are the means of decision making, no group is willing to be excluded from the voting process. When utopian schemes for a perfect society command popular support, the result is to justify rigid tyranny. Today's governments face the task of making progress toward a better life for all while simultaneously avoiding disruption by those who demand perfection at once. Such governments may follow procedures which differ from either the pattern of "liberation" movements or the limited government which was favored by the American Revolution.

Now let us turn back to a comparison of the revolutions of

1776 and 1975. It is obviously impossible to recapitulate in detail a pattern adjusted to the conditions of two centuries past. This does not, however, mean that the problems faced by earlier men and the solutions they found are irrelevant today. Thus the tension between the pattern of the American Revolution and current "liberation" movements may be a tension between destructive and constructive patterns of . social change, rather than a simple confrontation between radicals and conservatives. It is at least arguable that the American reluctance to endorse current liberation movements is not so much a blind reactionary allegiance to the 18th Century as it is a desire not to help the "slave owners." If the United States has been supporting freedom while opposing "liberation," then it may indeed be true that the ideals celebrated in the Bi-centennial observance still have some relevance for the rest of the world. These ideals include a respect for individual rights, freedom for a private to operate, responsible stewardship of economic assets and the protection of government against the whim of demagogic mob leaders. Governments today may use techniques to realize these ideals which vary from the patterns of 1776, but the ideals themselves are still as valid today as they were two centuries ago. □

Case Studies . . .

subjects, and achievement; (c) study habits, and motivation, and achievement.

4. A follow-up study of the same fifteen cases should be done by the researcher herself, if possible, with the purpose of scrutinizing the most serious problem areas of each case.

5. Educators and competent teachers should undertake more researches on how to motivate underachievers.

6. A study on the relationship, if any, between birth order and achievement should be conducted on a larger scale in order to find out which of the following tend to be underachievers: (a) the eldest; (b) the youngest; (c) the middle ones, and to delineate problems that are characteristic of birth order. □

Status of Science . . .

should learn to help themselves. The physical facilities of the science room can be improved. little by little every year through the help of homeroom parent-teachers organization, science clubs, and civic-minded citizen in the community.

9. The survey on science teaching in the District of Roxas City revealed that many of the science teachers received no supervision on science teaching. Since the number of science teachers in the District of Roxas City is too many for one science supervisor, the immediate heads of the school can help supervise them. Teachers who are competent and knowledgeable in science teaching can also help their co-science teachers in this line. □

Types of Organizations . . . .

Two studies are hereby recommended: (1) a study on the techniques of decision-making presently used and the bases chosen for decisions, and (2) the extension of the present study to include other places in the Western Visayas, for purposes of comparison. □

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