Are Filipino Women in Korea Qualified English Teachers?[*]

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As the demand of English education is increasing, the demand for Native English speaking teachers (NEST) is rising, especially in Asian countries. However, due to the low number of NEST, the Korean government is suggesting that Filipino Women be used as English teachers as an alternative. This study aims to answer three questions: (1) are Filipino women in Korea qualified to teach English based on the error analysis of their written essays? (2) what are the linguistic features found in their diagnostic essays? and (3) is their written English better than Korean college students' written English based on the comparison of the two groups? The findings from the Filipino participants show the most frequently occurring errors are related to punctuation usage (commas and hyphens), vocabulary (word choice), verb usage, redundancy, and even as basic as capitalization usage. The results from the comparison of the two groups show that the percentage of the Filipino participants' written error was 14% while the percentage of the Korean participants was 17%. The findings would give us some ideas on the qualification of Filipino women in Korea as English teachers.

[native English speaking teachers/non-native English speaking teachers/English teachers training/Filipino English teachers]

I. INTRODUCTION

As English has spread globally, its varieties have been constructed with influence from different sources involving the first languages of its speakers, which has resulted the development of varieties of English in such countries as the Philippines, Nigeria, India, and Singapore, which are known as the 'New Englishes' (Kachru, 1985; Trudgill & Hannah, 2002). Similar to 'New Englishes,' the notion of 'World Englishes' was established by Kachru to identify the characteristics of second-language speech

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communities. Brutt-Griffler (2002) focused on the spread of World Englishes as a linguistic process. The spread of a language to another speech community is associated with language acquisition of a specific type. For instance, new speakers acquiring English from different language groups have not acquired English as their first language. The ultimate result of English spreading around the globe is that the language itself changes as it touches, and evolves within, each new context. This language change has produced the concept of the varieties of English and terms such as New Englishes and World Englishes.

Within the globalization of English language teaching (ELT), the area of World Englishes has become a pivotal field of study in recent years. With this prominence, an increasing appreciation for the fact that the English language is changing is to meet the needs of cultural interactions and markets throughout the world. Consequently, the world market demands an acceptable mastery of English as a requirement of international communication and communicative competence in English, and the necessity of English education is increasing worldwide. Naturally, in the field of ELT, the number of native English speaking teachers (NEST) and non-native English speaking teachers (NNEST) is on the rise, and the growing number of teachers is not NESTs. However, most English as a Foreign Language(EFL) teaching positions in Asia and particularly in China specify native English speakers only at some online esl-jobs-forum; moreover, they want those from certain countries like UK, Australia, and the USA.

Native English speakers without teaching qualifications are more likely to be hired as EFL teachers than qualified and experienced NNEST, especially outside the United States (Amin, 2000; Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999; Rampton, 1996). However, many in the profession argue that teaching credentials should be required of all ESL (English as a Second Language) or EFL teachers, regardless of their native language (Nayar, 1994; Phillipson, 1996). There are many studies that a non-native speaker's language and teaching ability may be better than many native speakers (Medgeyes 1996, Phillipson 1992), but it is doubtful whether administrators or recruiters will want anyone other than blue-eyed, blonde Caucasians to parade in front of prospective parents and their students. This phenomenon is not exceptional in Korea. This would shift the emphasis in hiring from who the job candidates are (i.e., native or non-native speakers of English) to what they are (i.e., qualified English teachers) and allow for more democratic employment practices.

Due to the change of the English education system in elementary schools and the increase in the importance of English education, there is an ever-increasing need for more EFL teachers in Korea. With the limited number of NESTs, administrators or recruiters have difficulties in hiring them, and to solve the problem a few cities in Kyungki province and Chunra province have initiated training Filipino immigrant

women to place them in elementary schools as English teachers or assistant English teachers as supplements of NETs, and many English institutes also look for and hire them as English teachers. At this point, we must ask ourselves a question as to why administrators and recruiters do not utilize Korean English teachers instead of Filipino women. Why Filipinos? It must be our misconception that Filipinos' L1 is English, which is not true. Therefore, English learners of Koreans choose Filipino EFL teachers instead of Korean EFL teachers, and they even go to the Philippines to study English because most Koreans consider that Filipinos are native English speakers.

The goal of this study is to investigate English usage in the Philippines, to evaluate the Filipino English teacher trainees' credential with their diagnostic essays, and to compare their result with Korean college students. A question can be thrown 'Why writing? Why not speaking?' Writing is the most advanced skill among listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and it is something that needs to be taught and learned. Writing is a product to evaluate learners in terms of the target language norm. Also, writing is considered as a creative process through which learners express ideas and convey meanings (Raimes, 1987). Therefore, it is natural to look into learners' writing process to find out what learners do to deal with the problems stemming from imperfect competence in L2 writing, and in order to do so the teachers need to have a good writing skill. In the US, when a Public School District hires substitute teachers, they have to pass a writing test but not a speaking test. The researcher experienced to write an essay to become an ESL substitute teacher at Fort Worth Public School District in Texas in 2000.

The present study addressed the following research questions: (1) are Filipino women in Korea qualified to teach English based on the error analysis of their diagnostic essays? (2) what are the linguistic features found in their diagnostic essays? (3) is their written English better than Korean college students' diagnostic essays based on the comparison of the two groups?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Native vs Non-native

The concept of a native speaker springs from a need for having models, norms, and pedagogical goals, whether these focus on the teaching of a first or a second language. The question remains embedded, to some extent, in the nature of the speaker. Theoretically, the native speaker concept is vague. For instance, it is unclear whether the term refers to individuals or populations; moreover, it is increasingly unclear which of

many varieties count as standards or norms by which to evaluate 'native' mastery (Han, 2010).

Several kinds of evidence have been traditionally advanced to support the original notion of native speaker superiority. Native speaker teachers have a better command in terms of fluency and idiomatically correct language forms. In addition, they are more knowledgeable about the cultural connotations of the language forms and are the final arbiters of the acceptability of these forms. However, Phillipson (1992) argued against the uncritical acceptance of these assumptions about native speaker language teachers. He used the phrase 'the native speaker fallacy,' referring to the false hypothesis that "the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker" (p.185) in the language profession. The term was coined as a reaction to the tenet that 'the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker,' proposed at the 1961 Commonwealth Conference on the Teaching of English as a Second Language in Makarere, Uganda. He insisted that non-native speakers could be taught this ability through teacher training. He included in this training the mastery of correct forms, appropriate use of the language, and the ability to analyze and explain the language. In short, he believed the term 'native speaker fallacy' was erroneous.

In Hong Kong, Tang (1997) carried out a study of 47 NNESTs on their perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs in terms of proficiency and competency. The results showed that although NESTs were believed to be superior to NNESTs in speaking, NNESTs were felt to be associated with better accuracy. The respondents, however, did not specify who was or would make a better English teacher.

Liu (1999)'s study investigated perceptions of non-native ESL/EFL professionals teaching in the United States through the qualitative method. Regardless of whether participants preferred to be labeled as NNESTs, NESTs or bilingual teachers, there was no suggestion of who was the best ESL/EFL teacher. In terms of native or non-native constructs, the participants reported difficulty in affiliating with either the native or the non-native category, claiming that such taxonomy would not sufficiently represent the true nature of being a speaker of a language and would then diminish the experiences and language skills of EFL professionals.

Medgyes also (1996) conducted a survey of NESTs and NNESTs working in 10 countries to determine their success in teaching English. He concluded that the two groups had an equal chance of success as English teachers and NNESTs can be good learner models, having gone through the experience of learning English as a second (or third or fourth) language

The existence of NNESTs around the world has opened debate on issues related to their credentials. In particular, research on NNESTs is a recent research phenomenon in TESOL and the applied linguistic field (Braine, 1998, 1999; Kamhi-Stein, 1999; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). Teachers of English in ESL/EFL context, as well as

non-ESL/EFL context, have been growing including many new prospective non-native English speaking scholars every year. Moreover, the EFL market, where the greatest percentage of professionals are NNESTs, has continually expanded since World War II and has gained the favor of being named as a specific interest group (Phillipson, 1992; Pennycook, 1994, 1998)

Both NESTs and NNESTs around the world play a crucial role as they continue to contribute to English language teaching programs. A growing number of English teachers are NNESTs. Some recent research studies have been conducted to investigate NNESTs' perceptions of themselves as ELT professionals and what they think of the native and non-native conceptions. For instance, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) examined the way non-native speaking TESOL graduate students studying in the United States viewed themselves professionally by using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The results revealed that though the participants perceived many differences between NESTs and NNESTs; the question of whether native or non-native speakers are better language teachers was not the issue. What is important was how qualified an ESL /EFL teacher is regardless of his or her native or non-native status.

2. Stances of English in the Philippines[1]

1) The Use of English

In the Philippines, there are more than 150 languages spoken, with the major languages being Tagalog, Cebuano, Ilocano, Hiligaynon, Waray, Bicol, Kapampangan and Pangasinan. According to census data, 99 percent of Philippine households speak Filipino or Tagalog as a first or second language. Social Weather Station, in a 1994 survey, found that 56 percent of Filipinos could speak English as a second or third language. Reports estimate that a very small number (approximately 30,000), speak English as a first language; most of them are Americans living in the country.

English as the medium of instruction will widen the gap between the rich and the poor. The use of English as the medium of instruction will not improve the quality of English in the Philippines. Nor will it bring the opportunities for intellectual and economic advancement claimed by its proponents. The ones who will benefit the most from the education in English are those who have high levels of proficiency in English to start with, and those who belong to environments where English-language inputs, materials and resources are available. The overwhelming majority of Filipinos will forever

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[1] The information in 2. is based on the reports from the Philippine Daily Inquirer posted on June 10, 2008 and Sep. 24, 2010.

struggle with English as a foreign language, and they will feel alienated in the classroom where they are required to speak in English. They are likely to learn very little and to enjoy the learning process even less. They will fail examinations and eventually drop out. The use of English as the medium of instruction in schools may also explain the lapse into illiteracy among school dropouts who were taught to be literate in English through rote memorization. English, therefore, is not the solution to poverty in the country; it may actually be part of the cause of Filipino poverty.

2) The Cause of Illiteracy and a Damaging Effect on Learning

The 2008 Functional Literacy and Mass Media Survey released by the National Statistics Office in September 2010 showed that one out of every 10 Filipinos aged 10 to 64 was functionally illiterate, or had difficulty in reading, writing, computing and understanding. The survey was administered on a sample of some 70,000 Filipinos nationwide. Based on FLEMMS results, Nolasco, an associate linguistics professor at the University of the Philippines-Diliman, noted that the number of Filipinos who can read but cannot understand rose from 19.6 million from 2003 to 20.1 million in 2008 given the rise in population.

Learning is primarily mediated by language. The use of English in Filipino education has been contested throughout the history of its use, beginning with the American colonial government that instituted English as the medium of instruction in 1900. When the Filipino educational system was officially reviewed by the Monroe Survey Commission in 1925, the foreign language handicap was cited as the major stumbling block. Since then, the most consistent empirical evidence has shown the damaging effect of English on Filipino student learning. When English is used, students do not learn well, and at times do not learn at all. It will actually have a damaging effect. The use of a foreign language at the early stage of formal schooling has been identified as among the factors why students drop out early. A student who leaves school even at the fourth grade will risk reverting to illiteracy, especially if he or she has no reading materials and lacks learning stimulants in the home and community environment. Another factor is the number of years that children then spent in school, which is about 14 years; thus, students were able to learn English first, in order to benefit from instruction in English. Today, large numbers of students will drop out before completing elementary or secondary school. These are the students who will suffer the most if they are taught in a foreign language, which is English.

Using English as the medium of instruction on some subject areas (i.e., Math and Science) prevents students from learning as much as they could in their mother-tongue.

They have started their native language instruction (i.e., Tagalog, Cebuano, Ilocano, Hiligaynon, Waray, Bicol, Kapampangan, or Pangasinan) in some 100 public elementary schools around the country to prevent illiteracy and early drop-outs. This native language instruction movement started in the 1950s by UNESCO advocators. The results of the mother-tongue instruction showed significant improvement in learning and understanding among students. The use of the mother tongue will not only improve the quality of education; it may also be the tool for learning and improving English.

III. METHOD

1. Participants

The data is made of 8 diagnostic essays written by Filipino English teachers at a teachers' training program which was organized by the Korean government and 8 diagnostic essays written by Korean college students. 50% of the Filipino participants had 4-year college degrees and the rest of them finished 2-year junior colleges. The youngest Filipino participant was 24 years old and the oldest was 42 years old. Their average age was 30 years old, and all of them are married to Korean men and reside in Korea. The Korean participants were sophomores, juniors, and seniors in TOEFL class at the university where the researcher teaches and their majors are various. Their lowest TOEIC score was 650 and the highest was 835.

2. Data

The participants were informed that their essays would be used to diagnose their weaknesses in writing. They devoted 20 to 30 minutes to the activity. The data for the study consist of essay scores used to classify texts in coded errors. Identifying and counting the errors in the essays were the most difficult parts. A preliminary list of typical errors created by EFL writers at La Trobe University (Table 1), which was based on the description of error categories by Ferris and Roberts (2001), was prepared using the error categories identified. The list expanded as more errors were identified. The researcher had to validate her coding of some of the tricky structures by discussing their grammaticality or ungrammaticality with a colleague before they were labeled as errors.

3. Analysis
Word-processed files were made to facilitate clear reproduction of the essays for scoring and coding purposes. The typists were instructed to retain the errors found on the

TABLE 1

Description of Error Categories Used for Analysis

Articles	A mistake with the article – a, an, the or nothing
Verb Tense	A mistake with the verb tense
Subject Verb Agreement	The subject and verb do not agree in number e.g. *They is sleeping/He smoke.*
Singular / Plural	A mistake with number (singular and plural) e.g. *I bought 2 book/one weeks ago*.
Punctuation	Capital letters, full stops, or commas missing
Word Class	The word is in the wrong class e.g. *She is unemployment.*
Vocabulary	The wrong word is used. e.g. *She is married with an Australian.*
Sentence Structure	Errors in sentence/clause boundaries (run-ons, fragments) word order, unnecessary words or phrases, other unidiomatic sentence construction.

essays for the participants. After word-processing, the researcher reviewed the files to remove all typographical errors made by the typists to ensure that the errors in the essays were performance errors on the part of the writers. For identifying and counting the errors in the essays, another English professor, who has taught English Communication for 17 years, participated. We obtained word counts for each student text by using our word processors (Word 97). This procedure consists of dividing the error counts (for each separate category and for the total errors) by the number of words in the text and then multiplying them by a standard number representing the average number of words in each text in the whole sample. Unfortunately, the coders identified more errors than the software did. Some errors involving word order, word choice, pronoun shift, and many more were not detected by the program. It did help though in confirming many of the errors identified by the coders. Data generated from frequency counting were run in EXELL software program to generate means, sums, standard deviations, and percentages to compare the difference in the two groups and were analyzed using SAS (version 9.1).

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Type and Number of Errors in the Filipino Participants

The results of the manual coding and counting of errors in the Filipino participants are shown in Table 2. Related subcategories were classified under one category.

TABLE 2

Type and Number of Errors in Filipino English Teachers' Essays

Error Types	% of sub-category	total % for each category
Punctuation Errors		19.37 %
Comma missing	6.80 %	
Comma unnecessary	5.24 %	
Hyphen missing	5.76 %	
Punctuation missing	1.57 %	
Sentence Structure		10.50 %
Run-on	10.50 %	
Word Errors		17.26 %
Missing word	2.09 %	
Subject missing	6.80 %	
Word order	2.09 %	
Noun endings	3.66 %	
Form	2.62 %	
Spelling	5.76 %	5.76 %
Articles	6.81 %	6.81 %
Capitalization	7.85 %	7.85 %
Word choice	6.28 %	6.28 %
Verb		14.12 %
Agreement	4.70 %	
Tense	3.66 %	
Shift	0	
Form	2.62 %	
Missing verb	3.14 %	
Preposition	6.8 %	6.8 %
Redundancy	5.24 %	5.24 %

Results show that the most frequent error found in the Filipino participants' essays is a punctuation error, and it agrees with Espada-Gustilo's (2009) results. The analysis identified two types of comma errors: unnecessary and missing commas as in:

[1] *My second difficulties is the Korean language, although I stayed for 9 years*

[2] *I wan to work in an office __ but it's hard for me to find one.*

Another punctuation error was missing punctuations: a hyphen as in [3] and a period as in [4]:

[3] *my mother in law dindn't like For the First time.*

[4] *My relation to my_ mother in law is good_*

Although the design and scope of this study left us with no way to find out the perceptions of the participants, the researchers could hypothesize two reasons for this error: (1) the participants may have not fully grasped the rules on punctuation usage, or (2) they may have been careless in writing, treating punctuation as very minor that will not cause major breakdown in the transmission of meaning.

Next category with high frequencies of errors is that of verb usage for the Filipino participants while the category of verb usage is the most frequent errors for the Korean participants. Four subcategories under this usage were identified:

[5] Subject-verb agreement: *My mother in law correct [corrects] me.*

[6] Verb tense: *Sometimes my mother in law compared [compares] me to my brother in law's wife.*

[7] Verb form: *I begin to loved [love] Korean foods.*

[8] Verb missing: *But my husband ___ since he loves me.*

It is puzzling that one of the biggest percentages of errors is that of capitalization usage. This unexpected result caused us to go back to the handwritten essays to check whether these were typographical errors or real performance errors. Some of the participants used the lower case in writing the words *I* and the first letter of the word English (i.e., *i* and *korea*, respectively) as in items [9] and [10]:

[9] *i don't know well.*

[10] *I have a difficulties of living in korea.*

Noun endings (i.e., errors in the number of nouns as in *I speak three language_*) and articles constitute almost 10.5% of the total errors. Articles a, an, the, and O (zero article) are the most difficult to master in English grammar (Bautista, 2000). Even the advanced learners find the rules of article usage very difficult. Aside from the rules for definite and indefinite reference which go with the kind of nouns, the participants had to also become

familiar with other rules such as familiarity versus unfamiliarity and first and second mention. The errors in noun usage are illustrated in the following examples:

[11] *I have a difficulties of eating Korean foods.*
[12] *My second difficulties is the Korean language.*

Wrong choice of words follows next as one of the most frequent errors and accounts for a little over 6.28 % of the total errors. This category can be said to be one of the most troubling of all grammatical/syntactic error types because the participants could not find appropriate words to match their intended ideas, which may be attributed to their limited vocabulary resources. The findings here corroborated Espada-Gustilo's (2009) finding who also found extensive errors in word choice in the written output of 237 first year college students in Thailand. They posited that errors in word choice are a product of mother-tongue interference in the form of translating L1 into English word by word.
The examples below illustrate the participants' errors in word choice:

[13] *Writing and speaking in Korean is very difficulty.* (difficult)
[14] *Korean food is very spice.* (spicy)

In example [13] and [14], the participant chose a noun category instead of an adjective. Another most frequent error is that of preposition usage, which has three types of errors: wrong preposition as in [15], unnecessary preposition as in [16], and missing prepositions as in [17].

[15] *I teach simple English with my kids.*
[16] *It is hard for me to understand in long sentences.*
[17] *I have to limit myself __ going outside and sleeping.* (from)

Filipino languages have no elaborate system of prepositions that correspond to each preposition in English, part of the reason, perhaps, why the participants had trouble using the prepositions in their essays. For instance, the generic *sa* can mean at, in, on, to, into, and towards.
Run-ons and fragments are another troublesome category. Learners have to be familiar with comma and period rules in addition to having a good grasp of what constitutes appropriate sentence structures. The participants in this study produced stringy sentences as a result of run-ons [18], and choppy ungrammatical strings of words as a result of fragment errors [19] as seen below.

[18] *I my family get together I'm just in a side it's like that I'm out of place with them.*

[19] *Because she said that I'm a Foreigner that I dn't know everything. But my husband since he loves me very much. He Fight For out love.*

2. Correlations between the Two Groups of the Errors

The results did not show any significant difference in making errors from the two groups; Filipinos had 14% chance of making errors while Koreans had 17% chance. The Filipino participants showed only 3% of less chance of making errors than the Korean participants did in their diagnostic essays as in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1
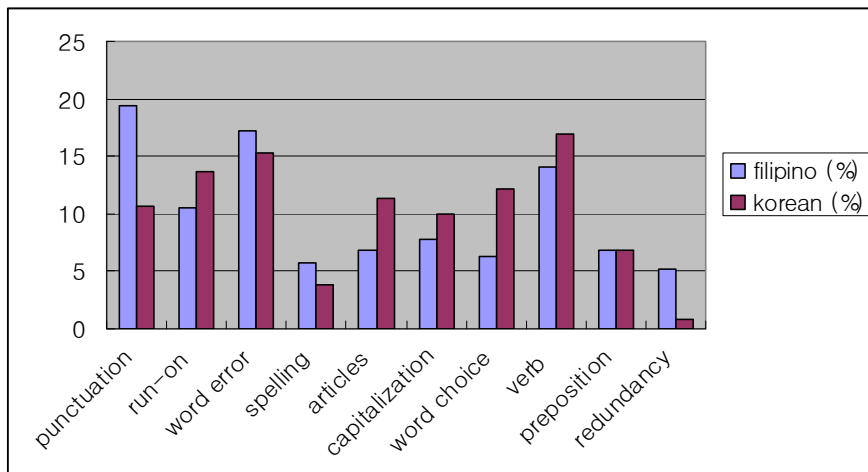**Error Comparisons of the Two Groups by Percentage**

Figure 1 shows that the biggest difference between the two groups, the Filipino participants and the Korean participants, was their punctuation errors and redundancy, and Table 3 supports the results statistically. Table 3 shows that there was little relationship between the two groups. The only significant correlation was in the punctuation category, $P=0.002$, and in the redundancy category, $P=0.031$. The Filipinos' error rate in punctuation was 0.19, and the Korean participants' error rate in the punctuation was 0.07. The Filipinos' error rate in the redundancy was 0.05, and the Korean participants' error rate in the redundancy was 0.01. Other than the punctuation category and the redundancy category, there were no significant differences. In the sub-categories, the only significant correlation was in hyphen missing, $P=0.005$, in subject missing, $P=0.028$, and in verb shift, $P=0.015$.

TABLE 3
Correlations between the Two Groups of the Errors

Category	Sub-category	Filipinos		Koreans		z	Significance
		Frequency (n)	Error rate	Frequency (n)	Error rate		
Punctuation	comma missing	13	0.07	3	0.02	1.8180	0.069
	comma unnecessary	10	0.05	3	0.02	1.3063	0.191
	hyphen missing	11	0.06	0	0	2.7843	0.005
	punctuation missing	3	0.02	3	0.02	-0.4786	0.632
	Total	37	0.19	9	0.07	3.1248	0.002
Sentence Structure	run-on	20	0.10	18	0.14	-0.9188	0.358
Word Error	missing word	4	0.02	2	0.02	0.3609	0.718
	subject missing	13	0.07	2	0.02	2.1952	0.028
	word order	4	0.02	6	0.05	-1.2763	0.202
	noun ending	7	0.04	6	0.05	-0.4241	0.672
	form	5	0.03	5	0.04	-0.6219	0.534
	Total	33	0.17	21	0.16	0.2642	0.792
Spelling	Spelling	11	0.06	5	0.04	0.7731	0.439
Article	Article	13	0.07	15	0.12	-1.4749	0.140
Capitalization	capitalization	15	0.08	13	0.10	-0.6691	0.503
Word Choice	Word Choice	12	0.06	16	0.12	-1.8779	0.060
Verb	agreement	9	0.05	5	0.04	0.3729	0.709
	tense	7	0.04	5	0.04	-0.0840	0.933
	shift	0	0	4	0.03	-2.4395	0.015
	form	5	0.03	4	0.03	-0.2446	0.807
	missing verb	6	0.03	5	0.04	-0.3407	0.733
	Total	27	0.14	23	0.18	-0.8624	0.388
Preposition	Preposition	13	0.07	9	0.07	-0.0406	0.968
Redundancy	Redundancy	10	0.05	1	0.01	2.1593	0.031

Z test results: P<0.05

TABLE 4
Types and Numbers of Errors in Korean College Students' Essays

Error Types	% of sub-category	total % for each category
Punctuation Errors		10.68 %
Comma missing	5.30 %	
Comma unnecessary	3.10 %	
Hyphen missing	0	
Punctuation missing	2.28 %	
Sentence Structure		13.70 %
Run-on	13.70 %	
Word Errors		15.34 %
Missing word	1.52 %	
Subject missing	1.52 %	
Word order	5.40 %	
Noun endings	3.10 %	
Word form	3.80 %	
Spelling	3.80 %	3.80 %
Articles	11.40 %	11.40 %
Capitalization	9.94 %	9.94 %
Word choice	12.22 %	12.22 %
Verb		16.90 %
Agreement	3.80 %	
Tense	3.10 %	
Shift	0	
Form	6.20 %	
Missing verb	3.80 %	
Preposition	6.86 %	6.86 %
Redundancy	0.77 %	0.77 %

Referring to Table 2 and Table 4, the biggest contribution was due to hyphen errors made by the Filipino participants, which is 5.76%, but none by the Korean participants. The Korean participants' biggest contribution to punctuation errors was missing commas and using unnecessary commas.

The category of verb usage is the most frequent error for the Korean participants as in Table 4. The next most frequent error for the Korean participants is the category of word errors, which is 15.34%, and the Filipino participants' second most frequent error was also the category of word errors, which is 17.26%. The third category in which the Filipino participants made more errors was redundancy. Their redundancy was 5.24% while the Korean participants' was only 0.77% according to Table 2 and Table 5. The third most frequent error for the Korean participants is sentence structure, which is 13.70%, while the Filipinos' result shows 10.50% for the same category. This result

explains that the Filipino participants are better at building sentences than the Korean participants. Both groups show the same results in the preposition category, which is 6.8%. For the spelling category, the Filipino participants made more errors than the Korean participants, and the results are 5.76% for the Filipino participants and 3.82% for the Korean participants. In the rest of the categories, the Korean participants made more errors than the Filipino participants.

V. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to find out if English is Filipinos' native or first language, to investigate on the use of English in the Philippines, to examine and analyze errors that Filipino women made in their diagnostic essays, and to compare the results with results that Korean college students made in their diagnostic essays in order to find out whether Filipino women have the qualifications to teach English in Korea or not. It was found that 56 percent of Filipinos could speak English as a second or third language in a 1994 survey and 99 percent of the Philippine households speak Filipino or Tagalog as a first or second language. There have been reports estimated that a very small number (approximately 30,000), speak English as a first language; most of them are Americans living in the Philippines. Due to the unsuccessful experiences of English usage in the Filipino schools, there has been an increase of illiteracy and drop-outs in elementary schools; therefore, the importance of mother-tongue education has been recognized, especially among early elementary students.

The results from the participants' diagnostic essays did not show any significant difference in making errors between the two groups; the Filipino participants made a little smaller chance of making errors than the Korean participants did. Besides the punctuation category and the redundancy category, there were no significant differences in other categories. With increasing illiteracy, it is difficult to consider that English education in the Philippines is better than English education in Korea. The results show that the Filipino women EFL teachers do not have the capability of giving proper responses to errors since their diagnostic essays are not significantly better than the Korean colleges students. Therefore, it is hard to say that the Filipino women EFL teachers in Korea are better qualified to teach English.

Yates and Kenkel (2002) and Leki (1992) made suggestions for treating errors in students' writing; they stated that teachers who would like to help students correct sentence-level errors might begin to get a picture of the students' interlanguage by asking them to explain their reason for constructing a phrase or sentence as they did.

Sometimes students have internalized an incorrect version of a grammar rule. Yates and Kenkel (2002) also claimed that teachers cannot separate L2 writing instruction from L2 langue instruction. All EFL teachers should have capability of teaching English writing along with speaking, listening, and reading. It is possible that focusing only on speaking and listening excessively can create foreign language illiteracy in English education in Korea; therefore, it is necessary to teach English in speaking, listening, reading and writing in all four areas equally. Therefore, instead of training Filipino women to become English teachers using a great amount of expense, it would be more effective and patriotic to train Korean college graduates to be hired as English teachers. As Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) stated, what is important is how qualified an ESL/EFL teacher is regardless of his or her native or non-native status.

The intention of this present study is to be against hiring Filipino women English teachers in Korea, but from the results of the diagnostic essays, they need to have proper qualifications in order to become successful EFL teachers. Not only Filipino women but also Korean college graduates can become successful English teachers; the results of the diagnostic essays showed their potential ability in their written English. Additionally, indiscrete ideas that NESTs, especially blue-eyed, blonde Caucasians, are better EFL teachers should be recognized that they are unwise and improper. As Phillipson (1992) insisted that non-native English speakers with the mastery of correct forms, appropriate use of the language, and the ability to analyze and explain the language be qualified EFL teachers, the qualifications of EFL teachers should be emphasized and demanded for realistic English education in Korea.

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Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable Levels: All Levels

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