# Second Language Learning and Acquisition

## *Among Filipino Children of 1st Generation Immigrants in their Two Years Stay in Norway*

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# Abstract


## Thematic Background

How are second language learners, particularly children, introduced to, evaluated and finally placed in the regular school according to language proficiency? This question led to an attempt to measure the degree to which Children of First Generation Filipino Immigrants mastered the receptive Norwegian vocabulary. The participants in this study have lived in Norway for more or less two years; thereby making them relevant to the Language Introduction Policy provided to Linguistic Minorities prior to their transfer to a regular school in Norway. This study's main question is: "*What characterizes the Norwegian vocabulary development among Filipino children of first generation immigrants within their first two years in Norway?*

The Socio - cultural concept by Vygotsky is the main theory used in this study with the use of two levels of development: *zone of actual development and zone of proximal development (ZPD*). Interaction and Systems theory on the other hand, play as supporting concepts in looking into the relationship of language variables to the language attainment of the sample.

## Method

The sample, consisting of 19 children (ages 6-12 years) was randomly chosen from different Filipino communities and affiliations in Oslo and was assessed with the standardized British Picture Vocabulary Scale (BPVS II) in Norwegian and in English. No one from the participants is diagnosed to have language disability. The quantitative method was used mainly in this study with a descriptive design and later on, a comparison of the results to a Norwegian norm. A questionnaire was given to the parents of the participants to gain information about the arenas where their children use Norwegian. Because of some relevant background information from the participants' parents and due to observations noted of the children during the testing; this study has the slight element of a qualitative approach. The children were also tested with the English version of the BPVS II since there is no Filipino version of the test. The testing in English is only meant to look into the attained level of development in a language familiar to them. This was conducted six months after the

Norwegian version in order to avoid the participants making any association from previous testing.

## Data analysis

The data collected through BPVS II was transpired into Excel then to SPSS statistical program for presentation, interpretation and analysis.

The discussion revolves around the computed means and standardized scores in relation to the aspects and areas where second language learning is triggered: cognition, motivation, age, gender, length of stay in Norway, number of sibling, bilingualism etc. The descriptive analysis of the findings is used in an attempt to answer what characterizes the participants' receptive Norwegian vocabulary mastery.

## Results

The results in this study show that the sample reached a satisfactory mastery of the Norwegian receptive vocabulary. However, the result cannot be generalized with the entire population because of the small number of participants. During the gathering of data, it was found out that there seem to be a strong audible resemblance between some of Norwegian words to English words.

The study ends with some suggestions for future studies or references. Recommendation speaks on repeating the study to other Filipino first generation immigrant with a bigger sample or to other language minorities in Norway.

# Foreword

## Dedication

I dedicate this paper to the late Peter Albertsen, who has always been fond of the Philippines and its people. I thank him for believing and trusting me with this gift. I also dedicate this work to my mother. My achievements are credit to her.

## Acknowledgement

It is a gift to have been given a chance to go back to school after ten years. My hope to refresh my mind to what is new has come true. I thank God for everyone: for the University of Oslo and all those who labour behind the Special Needs Programme in the Department of Education. Special thanks to Maren Lise Graff for helping me with the assessment in Norwegian. Her insights, expertise in language, and treating this study like hers were an inspiration. I thank all the willing and enthusiastic participants and their parents for their trust, time and effort in taking part in this study. I thank my first adviser, Anne-Lise Rygvold for guiding me with the first draft of this paper and for introducing to me the tool British Picture Vocabulary Scale (BPVS II). I am grateful to Janicke Karlsen, my second adviser, for her meticulous and perceptive comments on a later draft of this paper. Thanks for the moments and learning experience together with my international master studies classmates (batch, 2010).Thanks for the prayers and good wishes of my Church and friends. BIG thanks to my husband for editing, technical help, love, support and understanding during the course of this study.

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# 1 Introduction

Second language learning (SLL) is a huge complex phenomenon. People who have experienced learning a second language (L2) may have had ideas of how they learned the L2 effectively. However according to Mitchell and Myles (2004) people cannot reliably describe the language rules as they have somehow internalized, nor the inner mechanisms which process, store and retrieve many aspects of that new language.

The Norwegian language on the other hand has and always will be a barrier for second language learners to immediately participate and function in the Norwegian school. Whether it is among young learners or adult learners; their mastery in the target language will in different degrees determine how integrated they will be in school.

This research is on second language learning among children of Filipino first generation immigrants in Norway. Language learning is an enormous subject. Therefore, this study will only focus on the assessment of the participant's receptive vocabulary attainment within their first two years in Norway. This study will also look into the variables triggering language learning and their relationships to SLL.

The socio - cultural perspective of Vygotsky is used as the main theory to explain and describe relationships between variables of language learning. One key feature the socio - cultural theory has is that higher order functions develop out of social interaction. Vygotsky (1978) argues that a child's development cannot be understood by a study of the individual alone. Instead, he proposes to examine the external social world in which that individual life has developed with the help of an adult or an able peer.

Although written language has an influence to the vocabulary size of the participants especially to the older age-group; it is of lesser effect compared to how oral language affects their receptive vocabulary development. That is why oral language development is given more focus in this study. Moreover, oral language is the medium with which the participants are assessed. They are only required to listen to a word and associate it to a picture it corresponds with.

Cummins (2000) suggests that there is a role for assessment of more limited indicators of cognitive academic language proficiency. Specifically, he argues that the most promising

measures to assess general academic dimension of proficiency are those that tap lexical knowledge.

In this study the British Picture Vocabulary Scale II (BPVS II) is used to provide an *estimate* of the individual's receptive vocabulary in Standard Norwegian within their two years stay in Norway. Later on, this estimate is compared with a Norwegian norm.

## 1.1 General Statement of the Problem

Why focus on vocabulary? According to Milton (2009), words are the building blocks of language and without them there is no language. He quoted Wilkins (1972:111) saying, "Without grammar very little is conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed (Milton, 2009:3). Cummins (2000) also notes that most (59%) of the educators who responded to Solomon and Rhodes' survey on academic language suggested that vocabulary is a key feature of the construct and the language used in various content areas such as math, social studies, science, and so on, require mastery of specific terms and phrases unique to these areas" (1996: 5). For this reason, Cummins (2000) argued that lexical knowledge is at the core of the general academic language proficiency factor and a central component required in virtually all the facets of language performance in academic contexts.

However, the importance of vocabulary learning has not been fully recognized according to Milton (2009). He argues that much of the literature on second language acquisition as a general process pays little attention to vocabulary learning. Instead, he claims that vocabulary is rather sidelined in the teaching, learning and testing process. Milton (2009) gave 3 reasons why this is so. First, there seems to be an idea that words are just words and that learning them is unsystematic. Second, is the belief that it is possible to become highly skilled in a foreign language with limited vocabulary resources. Milton mentioned Harris and Snow (2004) in their belief that time spent in explicit vocabulary teaching is wasted because few words are retained from those which are learned by direct instruction and that most L2 vocabulary is learned incidentally, much of it from oral input (Milton, 2009).

Milton argues that incidental language exposure is usually negligible but that successful learners acquire large volumes of vocabulary from the words explicitly taught in the classroom and supplement their learning by targeting in activities like, learning the words of songs outside of class (Milton, 2009).

In a large-scale proficiency study described in one of Cummins' work, there were no measures specifically designed to assess lexical proficiency – not because lexical proficiency was considered unimportant, but because it was assumed to enter into performance on all the tasks assigned.

If Milton is right on his claim about the essence of vocabulary; do second language learners have to learn all the words in the target language? How long will this take on the part of the SLL? If not, are their particular words in the target language that must be learned by the second language learners? How many are really used by normal speakers in order to function and participate in a regular school?

According to Milton, it turns out that thousands of words are needed even for basic communication let alone for fluency. Elementary school years and beyond serves as a continuing process of conceptual development which includes the expansion of the underlying concepts as children acquire new vocabulary (Blachowicz & Fisher, 1994).

## 1.2 Research Questions

With the knowledge of how many words needed in everyday conversation, one can imagine that learning words is both time consuming and demanding in relation to the Language Introduction Policy in Norway. In addition, the aim of the Norwegian government, through the policy, is to provide basic skills in Norwegian, insight into the Norwegian society and prepare for participation in working life and/or education as soon as possible (http://eurydice.org).

With this in mind, the researcher arrives at the following question: What characterizes the Norwegian vocabulary development among Filipino children of first generation immigrants within their first two years in Norway?

To answer this question, the researcher looks into the level of receptive vocabulary knowledge among children of first generation immigrants from the Philippines using the British Picture Vocabulary Scale II (Dunn, Dunn, Whetton and Burley, 1982). The researcher also looks into the different arenas or factors triggering language learning among the participants. The BPVS II stimulus words and the administration of the test are translated into Norwegian. After six months the same participants are tested with the BPVS II in English.

The six months gap is to keep the participants from making any association with the first testing.

Receptive vocabulary development is presented in this study to show the established mental functions of a second language learner (Vygotsky, 1978). An element of development is presented relevant to the fact that this study specifies the length of time the children stayed in Norway in relation to their mastery of the Norwegian receptive vocabulary.

In this study, data about the participants' family background were also collected through a questionnaire administered to parents and gate keepers. The responses and information taken from casual interviews with parents of the participants are also helpful in the study of the relationship of language learning attributes to SLL.

## 1.3 Significance of the Study

Second language learning is a complex phenomenon. To break it down, we can start by contributing to specific levels of language like vocabulary learning; and make use of local existing phenomenon, like the diversity of language.

In Norway, it has been reported that there has been no standardized assessment procedures to clarify whether a pupil has sufficiently good Norwegian to transfer to ordinary Norwegian teaching. For example, there is no standardized test on vocabulary proficiency, since it is already considered to be a part of the general areas of learning (Norwegian Ministry of Education, 2009). Many municipalities do not know enough about their obligations or what to take into account when they make individual decisions since there is a lack of competence among teachers teaching Norwegian (Norwegian Ministry of Education: Strategic Plan, 2007).

Furthermore, the report states that the former curriculum in Norwegian as a second language and other special teaching in Norwegian has, not for many years, been the platform for a transition to the ordinary curriculum that it was meant to be (ibid).

These reports show that there are gaps of knowledge about second language learners in Norway. Therefore, specific studies such as this could be of help to the understanding of language development of language minorities like Filipinos in particular.

In 2007, the Ministry of Education established a new curriculum for basic Norwegian for linguistic minorities, based on level, replacing the old curriculum for language minorities which was based on age. (See 1.5.5) It is to my impression that this transition curriculum is very new in practice. Therefore the review of present knowledge such as this study will hopefully, to some extent, help the pedagogical staff working with language minorities identify which language-level language minority children are at. This study could possibly increase insight into the effect of the mother tongue to the L2 or vice versa, including bilingual teaching and Norwegian as a second language. It could also inspire research to expand on the search of knowledge about the dynamic differences or similarities of language learning among language minorities in Norway.

# 1.4 Background Information

This study pertains to language learning among Filipino children of first generation immigrants in Norway. It is therefore important to first get background information about Filipinos as immigrants and 2nd language learners. Secondly, because the study is conducted in Norway, it is relevant to mention some history of immigration, curriculum and provisions for second language learners. It is also of relevance to reveal information about laws and regulations which guide the process of language learning among language minorities in Norway.

The term language minority is used in this research to refer to non-native speakers of Norwegian or Sami (Norwegian Statistics Bureau, SSB, 2007) and thus used to Filipino non-native speakers of Norwegian.

## 1.4.1 The Philippines

The Republic of the Philippines is a country in South East Asia, with Manila as its capital city. It comprises 7,107 islands in the western Pacific Ocean. The Philippines is the world's 12th most populous country, home to around 95 million people. It is one of the most diverse countries in the world because of its multiple ethnicity and culture *(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Philippines, 2010).*

The diversity of Filipinos both in language and ethnicity can be attributed mainly to the Spanish, American and other occupations. There are more than 170 languages spoken in the

country (*Languages of the Philippines, 2010*). English and Filipino (Tagalog) are the official languages, and are mastered by the vast majority of Filipinos. Many other major regional languages are also used in workforce and in daily conversations.

### 1.4.2 The Filipino Diaspora

Diaspora is defined as the placement of the community in a global transnational context that includes the Philippines and other overseas Filipino communities (Hvenekilde & Lanza, 2001). Employment and better existence has been the major reason why Filipinos immigrate and thus explaining the approximate 11 million overseas Filipinos. Filipino Diaspora is either voluntary when people leave their country for the sake of better living opportunities, or involuntary when forced by circumstances like poverty or political persecution.

In September 2009 the *Norwegian Bureau of Statistics (SSB)* reported a total of 11, 631 Filipinos in Norway mostly residing in the Oslo urban area. Among these were 448 children from 6-12 years old. Females are the most employed part of this population, working as nurses, caregivers and au pairs, and others married to Norwegian citizens. Females dominate the whole population by 76% (SSB, 2009).

Filipino overseas workers first came to Norway in the late 60s and early 70s to respond to the gaping need for labourers in the service sector. During this period, several Filipino seamen stationed in Norway, chose to stay on as foreign workers and later on with their families (the Philippine Embassy in Norway, 2007).

According to SSB, there are two generations composing Filipino immigrants: First generation – those who are born in the Philippines and later moved to Norway; second generation – those who are born in Norway but whose parents are Filipinos. As mentioned, this study will focus on the first group.

### 1.4.3 English: A Second Language to Filipinos

English is the language of government, education, commerce and industry among Filipinos. This is why one could almost say that English acts like a first language, but is still different from the mother tongue.

This familiarity with the English language is evident in the surrounding media written in English: placards, leaflets, ads, newspapers and magazines. In the same way that textbooks, legal and public documents, and electronic media are very much available in English. In schools both in public or private hang posters stating “speak in English”. Western music and films are also very much patronized.

Furthermore, the growing mobilization of Filipino skilled workers around the globe is mainly attributed to the fact that Filipinos however fluent or poor their skill in English is; it is their gateway to employment.

One good example of this is the genesis of Filipino English-teachers to the neighbouring countries such as Japan, China, Korea, Singapore, and the Middle East, even to some countries in the west. One interesting phenomenon is the 1,500 South Korean students flocking the Philippines every month to enrol in both short and long term courses in English language. They benefit with the fact that Philippines ranks in the top 5 of English speaking population in the world in an affordable education (Wikipedia).

### 1.4.4 A Glimpse on Immigration in Norway

The Norwegian context of immigration includes the complexities of values, religious affiliations, ethnicity, languages, and lifestyles. Although there has been migration to Norway since the year 900, the last period stands out in terms of magnitude, complexity and speed (Brochmann & Kjeldstadli, 2008). In 2009, 65,200 immigrants were registered. This is the second highest immigration ever according to SSB.

Meanwhile, the 21st century immigration has its two spheres: First, those characterized by economic themes like the labour market and national economy; secondly, those pertaining to culture, identity, belonging, and tradition. The career migrant, labour migrant and the refugee migrant makes up the spheres (Brochmann & Kjeldstadli, 2008). SSB limits and defines the immigrant population to first generation immigrants and persons born in Norway to two foreign-born parents.

Extensive immigration in Norway however in previous years has been due to extraordinary large numbers of refugees. But, at the moment, labour migration account for the high net of

immigration. Europeans still dominate the population of immigrants with people from Poland, Sweden, Germany and Lithuania (SSB, 2010).

### 1.4.5 Integrating Language Minorities into the Norwegian School

What does the Norwegian Education Act say about the rights of minority language pupils? Section 2-8 of the Education Act applies to 10-year compulsory schooling and states the following special language education for pupils from language minorities:

"Pupils attending the primary and lower secondary school, who have a mother tongue other than Norwegian or Sami, have the right to special education in Norwegian until they are sufficiently proficient. The municipality/county authority considers whether a pupil has the right to special language education (http://odin.dep.no/kd/tema/utdanning/grunnopplæring/regel/bn.html).

In spring 2007, a new curriculum for linguistic minorities based on level was established, replacing the curriculum in Norwegian as a second language that was based on age. A new curriculum in native languages was also introduced, which was based on level as well. New standardized assessment tools were also established which made it simpler to decide when students have sufficient proficiency to follow the normal curriculum. Training and guidance were also established as requirement for teachers who teach basic Norwegian (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2007)

### 1.4.6 How are language minorities faring in the Norwegian mainstream education?

The available data show that completion is higher for non-immigrant students than for students with immigrant background. In Norway the completion rate for immigrant students is relatively low (OECD Ministries of Education, 2009). In the same way, both Norwegian and international reports consistently show that linguistic minority students as a group score lower than linguistic majority students (Wagner 2004, Hvistendahl and Roe, 2004). The national tests for students in 4th and 10th grade showed that average first generation immigrants achieved weaker results than descendants of immigrants (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2004).

According to Brox (1995) a lot of children from linguistic minorities drop out of school prematurely. They are poorly positioned with the prospect of completing high school, and particularly in the job market they face huge problems. It is also a complex phenomenon that the group of immigrants is very heterogeneous. Even though they score lower as a group there are major individual differences.

### 1.4.7 The Importance of Bilingualism in Norway

The "Soria-Moria" declaration points out that being bilingual is a resource in a globalised world (Ministry of Education and Research, 2007). This provides an opportunity for every child especially children with an immigrant background, to have access to the target language - Norwegian and at the same time link to their self identity by a continuous knowledge of the mother tongue.

### 1.4.8 "Second Languages"

Mitchell and Myles (2004) define "second languages" as languages of wider communication encountered within the local region or community (e.g. at the workplace or in the media). Thus "second languages" may be the second, third, fourth, or even fifth language. This definition suits the participants in this research since most already know two or more languages from their country: Filipino is their first language L1, English is most often their second language L2, and they also sometimes have other local languages L3 learned previously from their country, and Norwegian. Because most of the participants in this study have more than one or two known languages they may be called multi-lingual; but they are referred to as bilingual in this study because the focus is on the relationship of L1 and the target language Norwegian.

# 2 Theoretical Framework

The emphasis in this research is on language as a result of learning and acquisition. In order to have a better understanding of how this final result is attained it is appropriate to test proficiency by making use of a standardized test. It is also of importance to present how language is learned, acquired and developed especially among second language learners.

This study started with the process of identifying the research problem inspired by the researcher's interest in languages. Then an extensive review of the literature was made especially about second language learning and acquisition, bilingualism and vocabulary development. The aim was to find a theory that explains how language is learned and acquired in addition to the theories that present and discuss factors triggering language learning and development.

This section presents the receptive vocabulary development and its importance to the learning of a new language. Bilingualism is also elaborated in this section as giving focus on how the L1 comes in contact with L2. This is then followed by the socio cultural perspectives featuring two levels of development: The Zone of Actual Development and the Zone of Proximal Development by Vygotsky. The relationship of assessment to second language learning and disability is also presented and then the idea of language transfer which is suppose to point out similarities between two languages according to their structure. Finally, factors affecting second language learning are presented in no particular order of importance in addition to their advantages and disadvantages to language learning process.

## 2.1 Receptive Vocabulary Development

Long before toddlers begin speaking, they build up receptive vocabularies - words and concepts in their heads. This means that children understand many words and concepts before using them meaningfully (Haliwell, 2003: 51-52). Receptive language according to Haliwell is what the child understands. A very concrete example of this is how recognition of oral vocabulary assists a child in reading (Bernhardt, 1991). Also, the strong receptive vocabulary foundation in one language helps to trigger acquisition of another language vocabulary (Cummins, 1984).

One exciting question is whether there are more important words to be learned and spoken by native speakers?

According to frequency studies, not all words are of equal value to the learner. Some words are much more useful than the others (Nation, 2001). Nation refers to four kinds of vocabulary: high frequency words, academic words, technical and low-frequency words.

High frequency words are important because their words cover a very large proportion of running words in spoken and written texts and occur in all kinds of areas of language. Usually the 2,000 – word level has been set as the most suitable limit for high-frequency words. Nation and Hwang (1995) present evidence that counting the 2,000 most frequent words of English is still the best measure of how large is the group of words in deciding for learners going on the academic study. The classic English list of high-frequency words is Michael West's General Service List which contains 2000 word families: meaning 165 word families are function words such as a, some, two, because and to. The rest are content words like nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs (Nation, 2001).

Frequency lists may disagree with each other about frequency rank order of particular words but if the research is based on a well-designed corpus there is generally about 80 % agreement about what particular words should be included (Nation, 2001).

It is important to remember that the 2000 high frequency words of English consist of some words that have very high frequencies and some words that are only slightly more frequent than others not in the list. Other second language acquisition research however, suggests that adult second – language learners must have a command of at least 3000 most common words in order to get by in speaking as well as in writing (Novus AS, 2007). Notice that English learning is probably rather known to all, but what we don't know much about is how our own local languages are learned.

## 2.2 Bilingualism in relation to 2nd language learners

It has already been established in the former chapters that second language learners already have knowledge of their L1 or other languages spoken in their country of origin. Others may consider second language learners as multilingual. However as mentioned earlier, this study focuses on bilingualism.

Given the many definitions of bilingualism by different authors and researchers, Beardsmore's (1986) advice is to be cautious on giving meaning to bilingualism and that it would be better to relate it to different contexts. For this reason, this study uses bilingualism with reference to the context of Filipinos as bilinguals in Norway.

Bilinguals are sometimes categorized as groups attaining literacy in a second language and constituted by students who received their education in their mother tongues, but who also receive second language instruction (Bernhardt, 1991). Bilingualism is also referred to as the immersion and submersion - situations where the child is required to use in school a language that is different from that used in the home. Immersion according to Cummins and Swain (1978 c) is when children from the same linguistic and cultural background who have had no prior contact with the second language are put together in a classroom setting in which the second language is used as the medium of instruction. Submersion on the other hand is a situation encountered by some children wherein they must make a home-school language switch, while others can already function in the school language Ibid.

Within the same classroom, then, one might find children who have knowledge of the school language, varying degrees of facility in the school language through contact with the wider community, and native speakers of the school language Ibid.

Bilingualism may also be related to proficiency. How well does the bilingual know each of the languages (L1 & L2)? Is it possible that a person may know some words in a language, yet fail to function with them in a daily conversation? Maybe a person might, for example, have no productive control over a language, but is able to understand utterances in it. In such instances Romaine (1995) refers to it as passive or receptive bilingualism.

Furthermore, is it possible to be good in daily conversations using the target language, but be poor when using it in academic settings? In this light, the contexts in which individuals have the opportunity to use a particular language will affect their competence in it (Romaine, 1995).

## 2.3 Socio-cultural Perspectives

Language emerges as a function of the mix between biological (psycholinguistic) inheritance and socio cultural (sociolinguistic) experiences (Adler, 1993).

However, one main point of view or set of priority among SLL researchers as far as the learner is concerned is the socio-cultural perspective, which is concerned with learners as social beings and members of social groups and networks. It seems inevitable to assume that in order for children to acquire more than the rudiments of language they must not only hear (or see) language but also participate in the activities which that language is helping to create (Cole, 1996).

This point of view best caters to the description of the participants in this research since they are a part of social groups or networks aside from school and home. They need these networks to extend their use of the target language in a more informal and relaxed atmosphere. But, it is also important to remember that second language learners carry with them the rudiments of their former participations in their country of origin.

### 2.3.1 Second Language: learned and acquired

Is language learned or acquired or is learning better in a formal or an informal setting? This section shows the distinction between naturalistic and instructed second language acquisition; according to whether the language is learnt through communication that takes place in naturally occurring social situations or through study, with the help of "guidance" from reference books or classroom instruction.

Learning vocabulary for example, develops by experience and exposure to the words surrounding us. Bruner (1990) among others focused more on language acquired through use and making meanings. Vygotsky (1978) describes how the growing child internalizes social language and makes it personal.

Gardner (2004) on the other hand gives the distinction that the syntactic and phonological processes appear to be specific to human beings and both develop with a relative need for support from environmental factors. While the other aspects of language such as the semantic and pragmatic domains, may relate more to general human information – processing mechanisms and are less strictly or exclusively tied to "language organ" (Gardner, 2004).

Brunner (1990) suggests that once young children come to grasp the basic idea of reference for many language uses like naming, noting recurrences and registering termination of existence; their learning become more meaningful because of their interest and attention. This

means that learners need the chance to talk with native speakers in fairly open-ended way, to ask questions and to clarify meanings when they do not immediately understand (Krashen, 1998). This suggests that there is a native desire to understand others as well as being understood by others (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

There is a relationship between practical and theoretical discourse to experiential and expository and learning and to practical and theoretical content. The former distinction is between learning from experience and action as compared to learning from texts and teachers; the latter refers to the specific content that is close at hand as compared to general concepts and explanations. The three principles together provide for a sequencing for academic and language content that will expand from experiential learning of hands - on content and here - and now language to the learning of more abstract content presented in the more expository way by means of language itself.

Krashen (1998) further said that interaction acts as guard to learning from selective attention, the usefulness of heightened saliency for promoting language processing, or the possible influence of a variety of processing constraints on intake. He calls this Acquisition-Learning hypothesis which means learning is either subconscious or conscious. This hypothesis however led to criticisms on the ground that definition of what constitutes conscious versus subconscious processes is vague, as they are very difficult to testing practice: how can we tell when a learner's production is the result of a conscious process and when it is not?

Nonetheless, this contrast between language acquisition and learning has been very influential, especially among foreign language teachers who saw Acquisition – Learning hypothesis as an explanation of the lack of correspondence between error correction and direct teaching, on the one hand, and their student's accuracy of performance, on the other (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

### 2.3.2 Learning a Second Language in the Zone of Proximal Development

There is already an attained development of children prior to learning a second language according to Vygotsky (1978). He proposed two language levels of development: Zone of Actual Development and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Zone of actual development is the level of a child's mental functions that has been established as a result of certain already completed developmental cycles (Vygotsky, 1978). The zone of proximal

development on the other hand is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.

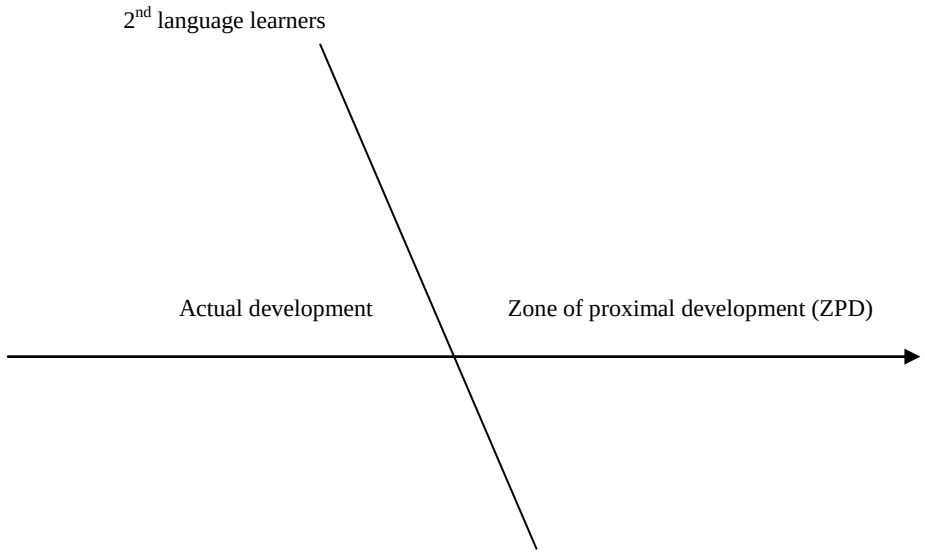
Vygotsky argues that children's learning begins long before they attend school. He said that any learning a child encounters in school always has a previous history. He further argues that in the first questions of a child, he assimilates the names of objects in her environment and therefore he is learning. A child for example at 6 has already gained most of the grammatical rules and is able to give explanations about the meaning of a word in his L1 (Cole & Cole Lightfoot, 2005; Haliwell, 2005).

Furthermore, ZPD defines those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state (Vygotsky, 1978).

Because of these two zones of development, one could assume that a second language learner could be in between the zone of actual development and ZPD. If for example a second language learner belongs to a younger age group; it is probable that he has not matured yet both in his L1 and L2.

The researcher created a diagram describing where language learners could possibly be placed in the process of language learning:

Figure 1: Zone of Actual Development/Proximal Development




*The horizontal line shows the division of two developments: the Zone of Actual Development and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) from the Socio - cultural theory of Vygotsky*

*(1978). The diagonal line shows where second language learners could possibly be in the process of language learning and acquisition.*

## 2.4 Language Assessment and Language Disability

It is necessary that assessment beforehand is made before making any conclusion of a child's language proficiency. Otherwise, jumping into conclusion and misinterpretation of an attitude or say scores in tests might create further damage to the child because not only is he misunderstood, but worse misplaced in the teaching and learning process.

Some assessment tools evaluate where the child is on his individual development scale in order to see the next step he is ready to make. This could mean what is the child's ZPD as described by Vygotsky.

According to Cummins (2000) schools rarely assess dimensions of students' native language such as conversational fluency or pronunciation that most children have already mastered by the time they arrived in school. In the same way that students who immigrate to a new country are not required to be assessed on how far they have mastered their native language. Instead, the government spends enormous amounts of time and money preparing students from language minorities for the complex linguistic realities related to employment and citizenship. With this in mind, one can just imagine the difficulty most language minorities face being required to compete with native speakers of another language (Cummins, 2000).

Because the bilingual's skill may not be the same for both languages at all linguistics level, proficiency needs to be assessed in a variety of areas (Romaine, 1995). Generally in the case for lexical knowledge most people have a far greater passive vocabulary used in reading than they employ in speaking. At the semantic level a bilingual may be able to express meaning better in one language than another, particularly in relation to certain topics or in certain contexts. A language used informally at home may not be used for talking about school topics if schooling has taken place in another language. Similarly, the bilingual's ability to employ different styles and to exploit the stylistic range of a language will vary depending, on ability and also topic.

The matter of assessment must be brought forth in relation to learning disability (e.g. language disability). It is a matter of importance to know whether a language minority has "learning disability" or is merely experiencing a temporary "language barrier" as a result of

lack of sufficient exposure to the target language. It is a question whether results from language assessments are misused for example in placements, giving grades, or merely labeling them as slow learners. Utne (2006) criticizes the use of textbooks and assessments manufactured in other countries. This is very crucial especially in the interpretation and use of test results or scores.

A precise understanding of issues such as what a "learning disability" is how long it takes immigrant students to have "language proficiency", the nature of "language proficiency" and its relationship to academic skills is indeed very important. Similarly, the form of assistance or intervention that is deemed appropriate for a bilingual child experiencing difficulties is likely to be more effective if it takes account of principles of language and literacy acquisition as well as what is known about the relationships between first and second language (L1 and L2) academic skills through assessment.

Not all groups of minority students tend to be characterized by academic underachievement and, for those groups that do experience academic difficulty, the causes are complex, involving interactions among social, cultural, educational and linguistic variables.

Language disorders like: mental retardation, deafness, and hearing impairment, emotional disturbance and autism, childhood aphasia and neurologically based disorders are intervening factors to language learning and development.

## 2.5 Language Transfer

Language transfer happens when structures in the L1 is similar to those of the L2. This helps the learning of a new language easy because children are able to associate L1 to L2.

If, however, structures are realized differently in the first and the second language, then learning will be difficult (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Languages that are linguistically distant (e.g. Japanese-English) can cause less proficiency in learning a second language while languages that are relatively close to each other (e.g. Norwegin – English) may have a positive proficiency effect on the learning of a second language (Romaine, 1995).

Romaine (1995) referred to Clyne (1967) as someone who prefers the term "transference" rather than interference, which has somewhat negative connotation. Romaine (1995) referred Haugen (1972) who defined transference as the adoption of any elements or features from the

other language. The term transfer has been used particularly in connection with the study of second language acquisition. It was taken over from psychology, where the term is applied to the phenomenon in which previous knowledge is extended to a new domain. Depending on the areas of difference and or similarity between two languages, transfer maybe positive or negative, although the focus of second language researches has been mostly on negative transfer (Romaine, 1995).

According to Romaine positive transfer occurs when previous knowledge facilitates the learning of new material, negative transfer refers to cases where previous learning interferes with or has detrimental effects on the learning of a new and independent linguistic categories corresponding to articles and prepositions.

Oral interaction situations are more strongly related across languages than cognitive/academic measures Ibid. Strong cross-lingual relationships are observed for attribute-based aspects of L1 and L2 proficiency as a result of the fact that underlying attributes of the individual manifest them in the individual's performance in both languages (Ibid).

## 2.6 Factors Influencing Second Language Learning

This part of the study reviews the different factors influencing second language learning. These factors could either give a positive or constraining impact on language learning and development.

Development accounts individual differences of children. Researchers say that children without disability have a common developmental route, yet they differ greatly in the degree of success that they achieve (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). This could be due to different factors or experiences affecting language learning. For example, exposure to language (Kirk, Gallagher, Anastasiow, & Coleman, 2006); like vocabulary is dependent on experience (Bialystok, 2001). This means that time in the host country probably will affect the vocabulary knowledge of the second language learner.

Other factors in the social environment and individual factors like motivation, age, and gender, educational and economic background of the family may also affect the learning and acquisition of the second language learner and will therefore be discussed in the following:

### 2.6.1 Cognitive Factor

The cognitive factor relates to looking at language development as related to cognitive development. For example, the term “vocabulary spurt”, meaning a sudden increase in learning words through “object permanence” characterizes a child’s cognitive proficiency being able to remember the objects by putting labels on them. This may seem that a child has his own innate faculty that guides him in the learning of a language (Chomsky, 2002). Chomsky argues that given a body of speech, children are programmed to discover its rules, and are guided in doing that by an innate knowledge of what the rules should look like. When applied to second language learning, this approach is viewed as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill.

To learn a second language is to learn a skill, because various aspects of the task must be practiced and integrated into fluent performance. This performance is related to cognition – a process of thinking.

However, one disadvantage of learning a second language to cognition lies when language intervenes in the process of learning or cognition. Therefore, other researchers predict that if the development in the first language is not yet fully reached or is interrupted by learning a new language, it will affect negatively his performance in language or even his cognition (Cummins, 2001).

Specifically, it was hypothesized that continued academic development of both languages conferred cognitive or linguistic benefits whereas less well-developed academic proficiency in both languages limit children’s ability to benefit cognitively and academically from interaction with their environment, for example in at school (Cummins, 2001). Vygotsky (1962) and Luria (1961) says that the development of children’s ability to control their own cognitive processes is contingent upon their mastery of language.

Therefore a question is raised whether positive and negative cognitive consequences are associated with bilingualism? This is so since second language learners are also bilinguals. Cummins and Swain explained that although majority of early studies had serious methodological defects, taken together they seemed to indicate that bilinguals suffered from a language handicap when measured by verbal tests of intelligence or academic achievement.

In order to provide a better basis for analyzing the language demands underlying academic tasks, Cummins introduced Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency CALPS or Basic Interpersonal Communicative skills BICS (Cummins, 2000). There distinction is elaborated into a framework that explicitly distinguished cognitive and contextual demand.

BICS relates to range of contextual support available for expressing or receiving meaning and CALP relating to the amount of information that must be processed simultaneously or in close succession by the student in order to carry out the activity.

Academic language proficiency refers not to any absolute notion of expertise in using language but to the degree to which an individual has access to and expertise in understanding and using the specific kind of language that is employed in educational contexts and is required to complete academic tasks.

### 2.6.2 Age Factor

Researchers agree that "the younger the better" is a useful guiding principle in teaching and learning a second language (Mitchel & Myles, 2004). Children between 2 and 4 years old make faster progress than those taken on for help at the age of 4+ years (Cooper, Moodley & Reynell, 1978). This supports the Critical Age or Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), describing the ability of a child to automatically absorb language just from exposure and will eventually disappear after puberty (about 12-13 years of age) and thus foreign languages must be learned through education, and with great conscious effort (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

Bialystok (1997) said that there is an optimal age - a particularly propitious moment in which to learn a second language, and then it seems to be undoubtedly the case that young learners are better placed to achieve high level of proficiency than are older ones. There is a relationship between age of learning and success in second language phonological competence. She precisely defined the way in which age of learning influences second language acquisition. It can be seen in two interpretations of the child advantage.

The first is a descriptive statement: *On average, children are more successful than adults when faced with the task of learning a second language.* The reasons why it maybe true include such factors as social, experiential or educational aspects of second language learning, all of it tend to favour younger learners.

Romaine (1995) referred to Long (1990) arguing that these factors are important in understanding the child advantage in second language acquisition and undoubtedly conspire to make childhood an "optimal" time in which to embark upon learning a second language.

The second is causal statement: *Children are better second language learners than adults.* This statement is a claim about how learning takes place and can only reflect biological differences between child and adult mechanisms. The statement is causal because it sets conditions on the learning mechanism and provides younger learners with a mental system that is, quite simply, "better" for language learning.

Although environment factors continue to be relevant, especially by modifying the degree of effect, the possibility for learning is controlled by the maturational state of the organism.

However, in spite of the support for the critical age – hypothesis and besides the fact that children have more time to learn the language, there are also some aspects of language better or faster learned by adults. Like for example language grammar and structure (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

### 2.6.3 Length of Residence

As mentioned in the earlier section of this study length of residence (LOR) in the host country will also affect the level of language proficiency.

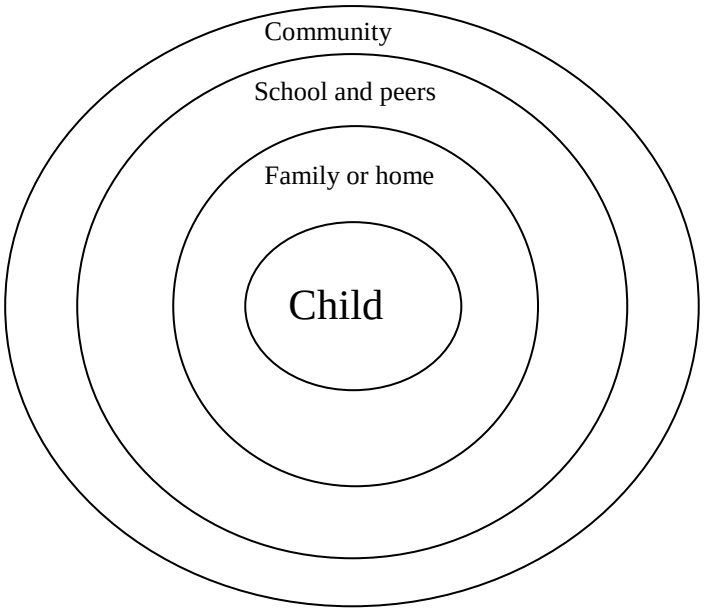
Research shows that while many English language students for example can develop fluency in basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) within one or two years, it generally takes them a minimum of five years to develop cognitive academic language proficiency at the same level as their native speaking peers (Cummins, 2000). The importance of quantity input is clearly indicated by the consistently strong relationships observed between length of residence (LOR) and L2 acquisition Ibid.

### 2.6.4 Social Environment Factor

Social environment is probably best factor that triggers second language learning. This is because we come in contact with the environment around us all the time.

This may relate to the Ecological Systems theory popularized by Urie Bronfenbrenner, (1979) claiming that one must understand the context that the children interact with on a daily basis. This theory holds that there are different layers affecting the person on different levels. The different layers of society are often "nested" in each other. The illustration below is a modified representation of the different systems that surround the learner inspired by Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory:

Figure 2: Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (simplified)




The first ring refers to the role of the family in transmitting language to the child starting from birth. It is in the family (microsystem) where the first language development occurs. Most often the father and the mother models for their children in conversation while the children appropriate and internalize the language for themselves (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Researchers also agree on the excellent role of older sibling in affecting the younger siblings' learning of language and culture (Obied, 2009). A Portugal ethnographic research found that first born has to negotiate language use with the parents in respect to literacy practices, whereas, younger siblings may identify closely with their older siblings in their language choice, or conflicts may arise between siblings Obied (2009). The consequences will be that the language minority children will become better in the target language. Their exposure both at home and in school (mesosystem) will give them an avenue to practice the second language more.

As the child's physical abilities and accumulating experience increase, the developmental niche organized for them by the adults also changes (Cole, 1996).

The community (exosystem) is an avenue where children meet their peers. According to Rogoff (2003), peers is not only limited to children of their age, but also adults who organize lessons and induce children's involvement through providing mock excitement and praise. An example of this is the many middle class U.S parents regarding their participation in pretend play as important for preschoolers' cognitive and language development, and some see their involvement as preparing their toddlers for school (Farran, 1982).

The other layers of the ecological model are sometimes settings affecting the individual, although the individual is not required to be active participant (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Macrosystems, the last system includes cultural influences: geographically, physically, emotionally, and ideologically. All influences the learning behavior of a second language learner.

### 2.6.5 Motivation

For Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 2), the motivated individual "is one who wants to achieve a particular goal, devotes considerable effort to achieve this goal, and experiences satisfaction in the activities associated with achieving this goal". So, motivation is a complex construct, defined by the three main components: "desire to achieve a goal, effort extended to the direction, and satisfaction with the task" (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993: 2). It is likened to an intrinsic motivation that is not influenced by any outside stimuli but a drive within.

Gardner and MacIntyre also pointed the relationship of motivation to language anxiety. They said that there is a difference between language anxiety and willingness to communicate. The anxious learner is less willing to speak in class, or to engage target language speakers in informal interaction. They further emphasized that the language learners tend to avoid difficult linguistic structures that the more relaxed students would be willing to attempt.

## 2.7 Bilingualism: advantages and disadvantages

Bilingualism does not necessarily restrict itself to situations where two languages are involved but it is often used as a shorthand form to embrace cases of multilingualism (Beardsmore, 1986; Romaine, 1995).

For many, particularly parents, the major worry of becoming bilingual is its effects on personality development and mental capacities. There is always a need to be understood and to understand and if these are not met it could lead to anxiety, boredom and withdrawal. On the other hand programs, like incorporating the L1 offer opportunities for learning through social interaction and play an important role in the self-esteem and identity formation (Krashen, 1996).

In most cases language minority children use more time in improving their second language rather than their mother tongue they tend to forget their own language.

The trend in UK seems to say otherwise by the indicative drop of students enrolling for second language learning. According to Dewaele (2009) native speakers of English were less likely to feel a need to master a foreign language FL since English is the language of the majority. This indicates that valuing and capitalizing on the native languages and cultures students is integral to their success in school.

In the Toronto debates, advocates have seen promotion of heritage languages as academically advantageous for minority students, a means of increasing cohesion in child - adult communication within minority families, and as a means of expanding the social and cultural horizons of all students. Opponents, on the other hand, have seen heritage language teaching as socially divisive, excessively costly and educationally retrograde in view of minority students need to learn English (Cummins, 1981a).

Bilingualism also has a negative effect on cognitive development because of the confusion brought about by the two labels. Two phenomenons will enhance cognitive growth: two labels will force an early separation of word from its referent leading to a more analytic orientation to language and to the substance it conveys, thus enriching conceptual development.

On the other hand research conducted since the early 1960's suggests that when both languages continue to develop in school, bilingualism can enhance aspects of children's linguistic, and possibly cognitive, growth.

# 3 Research Method

The first two chapters of this study presented the research problem, the background information and the theoretical framework.

In this chapter is a description of the methodological procedures used in an attempt to answer the research question: *What characterizes the Norwegian vocabulary development among Filipino children of first generation immigrants within their first two years in Norway?*

This chapter is still within the support of theories. The collection and protection of the sample is also presented in this chapter together with the procedures in data coding and analysis. The data collected from the sample through the use of instrument and methods needs to be analysed and discussed in order to be compared with ideas from theoretical framework of the study. This chapter will also present validity and reliability and finally the ethical considerations.

## 3.1 Research Design

In the beginning this study was thought to be mainly quantitative in approach. Soon it was realized that it has the element of a qualitative approach.

Bennett Kastor (1998) describes the psychological and linguistic traditions in research; the first is using a quantitative approach through psychological tests and second a qualitative approach through observation.

This test is mainly quantitative since the biggest bulk of data and information are presented numerically including test administration, scoring analysis and interpretation of the data.

However this study developed to be slightly qualitative because of the observation made of the participants during testing. The observation of each child is noted in the he BPVS II record sheet which not only serves to register individual scores but the child's behaviour (e.g. confidence) and his possible responses, represented by codes (e.g. dk – *don't know,* ns – *not sure*) during the course of testing. The context of registration of language development is both within a natural environment and not in a testing room. Casual interviews are made to investigate and strengthen hypotheses and will be in the discussion chapter.

This study is not experimental in design because there is no manipulation of the variable. Therefore this study is dominantly quantitative, less dominantly qualitative, and descriptive in design.

Descriptive design aims to describe and explain the results in relation to different factors affecting language learning. The change is quantitative with the increase of the number of words the child knows as influenced by factors like age, gender, length of stay in Norway etc.

## 3.2 Selection of the sample

Participants come from First Generation Immigrants who came to Norway in the last two years (2007 – 2009). First Generation Immigrants are persons who transferred to Norway and whose parents are born in the Philippines. The best way to find them in Norway is through Filipino social networks and communities. The researcher found 19 willing participants ages 6-12 years and have already experienced basic schooling in the Philippines. This means that most of them have already started formal education in both Filipino (L1) and in English (L2). Some are also fluent speakers of their mother tongue or other languages spoken by their parents. The participants in this research are coming from accessible population, which means all the individuals who realistically could be included in the sample (Gal, Gal & Borg, 2007). I also used purposeful sampling choosing the Filipino Children of First Generation Immigrants (Gal, et al, 2007). They represent critical variables such as; age, gender; length of residence (“years in Norway), as well as educational background of their family. They are the group covered by the Introduction Policy which entitles them to free teaching and training of the Norwegian language until they are proficient enough to join a regular Norwegian school/class. Some of them are already enrolled in a regular Norwegian school.

The researcher used “snowballing” or “chain sampling" a method used by Hvenekilde and Lanza (2001). 5 more participants are added making it 19 participants in all. This was done through the help of other parents who introduced me to some of their friends who had children matching the criteria of my sample. The researcher got in touch with the parents by phone and met with them personally to discuss the purpose of the research.

The researcher herself is not a native speaker of Norwegian, so a Norwegian speech therapist helped with the testing of the children with the BPVS II Norwegian version. After six months, the same children took the English version of the BPVS II administered by the researcher. The gap was to ensure that children wouldn't make any association from the first test in Norwegian.

Some of the participants are siblings and it is difficult to pinpoint what economic status the families belong to in the Norwegian society. However, all the parents of the participants have attained university level of education and both parents are working. In a Filipino perspective, these families fall within the middle class.

## 3.3 Instruments

Two main instruments were administered in this study: The British Picture Vocabulary Scale, (BPVS II) which is a standardized test to measure receptive vocabulary especially among second language learners and a Questionnaire.

### 3.3.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire was given to the parents to find out personal information such as age, gender, educational background of the family, levels of proficiency in Norwegian, bilingualism, length of stay in Norway, and educational background of the parents. They were also asked on which arenas their children learn Norwegian.

### 3.3.2 The British Vocabulary Scale (BPVS II)

The British Vocabulary Scale (BPVS II) is a substantial revision of the first BPVS (Dunn et al, 1982). It is individually administered, norm-referenced, wide-range test of hearing vocabulary for Standard English. However, the test used in this study uses BPVS stimulus words translated into Norwegian and is also standardized to Norwegian born children.

The BPVS II contains four training plates. Each item has four simple black and white illustrations on a plate (or page) relating to a particular theme (animals, food, etc.), arranged in a two-by-two array. This is followed by 14 sets of 12 test items (168 in total). The items are arranged so that each successive set is more difficult than the preceding one. The subject's

task is to select the picture considered to illustrate best the meaning of a stimulus word presented orally by the examiner. Hence it is a multiple-choice task. The examinee starts with a plate corresponding to his/ her age to get the basal score. If the examinee misses a maximum of two words in a set of 12, the examiner goes back to a set which is of a lower level of stimulus words until the examinee gets 1 or no mistakes which is then the base score. However, if an examinee only makes zero or 1 mistake on the set corresponding to his/her age, she/he can advance to the next set until she/he gets 8 mistakes. At this point, the score is considered *ceiling*.

All the words used in the test represent familiar, everyday objects or concepts, and all are appropriate for both children and adults. However, it is originally based from the British context. The BPVS II comes with a record sheet for both scores and observation of a child's personal information, behaviour during the test and recommendation.

BPVS II is an excellent way to identify people whose oral vocabulary is significantly smaller than that of their peers (e.g. second language learners).

## 3.4 Data Coding

All data items were assigned a label and entered into an Excel spreadsheet. Information like name, gender, score, and number of siblings, age, and length of stay in Norway were assigned numerical values. All values and labels were entered into the spreadsheet and then transferred into the statistical program SPSS for analyses. These data were not all presented in the research itself; instead they are used as reference during the analysis, interpretation and discussion of the data.

The BPVS II manual of scoring and analyzing has been the guide in finding the step by step processes to arrive at significant statistical data concerning the raw scores of each participant and as a whole. Below is the step-by-step procedure to arrive at significant data:

First the researcher had to record the participants' personal information like age and date of testing and designate the participants into particular ID no.**,** for anonymity. Then the scores are listed in a record sheet.

Next the raw score of each of the participants are calculated according to the instructions in the manual, by subtracting their ceiling item – the last set they accomplished, to their number of errors.

In order to see the significance of the BPVS result conducted among Filipino participants, I compared it to the scores of the Norwegian born children, expressed in Sol Lyster's research conducted over 361 Norwegian born, ages 6 -12 years in 2007.

The unit of the statistical analysis that is used is the age group; this is to parallel with that of Lyster's group. This study has arrived at 2 Filipino age groups who are compared to 10 age group of the Norwegian counterpart.

In this study's sample group was tested in BPVS II first in Norwegian, later in English. English because I wanted to look into the language attainment already existing within the sample. English as formerly discussed in the background of this study is the closest language familiar to the sample.

From each of the tests, each child received a raw score. This was then converted to a standardized score which is found in the textbook, pages 40 to 47 (Norms Table A). The age ranges of subjects to be compared to be are given in years and months across the top of the table.

The standardized score indicates the degree to which an individual's score deviates from the average for people of the same age. The scale is based on the "normal" distribution of scores that would be expected within the population, at any given age. It is calculated on the basis that the overall mean (average) standardized score is 100 and the standard deviation is 15, so that about 68 per cent of people will score between 85 and 115.

## 3.5 Descriptive Analysis

In analyzing the statistical data I compared the results from my test 1 to the standardized norm as described in the BPVS II. Then I compared the results from my test 2 to the standardized norm as described in the BPVS II. I also compared the results from test 1 and 2. I also used the results of Sol Lyster's test to compare to the results from my test 1 in the BPVS using only her age group 6-12 years in order to much the age group of my sample consists of children also ages 6 to 12.

Furthermore, she has divided her sample groups into age groups of half-year intervals, so that i.e. children who are 6 years and 0-5 months old fall into a different age group than those who are 6 years and 6-11 months old. Since my sample group consists of only 19 children, I have chosen to have one sample group per age, so that all 6-year olds fall within the same age group. To make Sol Lyster's table of results directly comparable with my table, I have merged and recalculated her age groups, so that they follow the same pattern as mine.

## 3.6 Validity and Reliability

Vocabulary test, among others, is considered to be an intelligence test according to Gal, Gal and Borg, (2007). Intelligence tests provide an estimate of individual's general intellectual level by sampling performance on a variety of intellectual tasks (Gal et. al., 2007). This study is an attempt to see the level of vocabulary mastery among Filipino children of First Generation Immigrants in their two years stay in Norway through the BPVS II.

Gal et al. (2007) pointed out that making inferences from scores, from intellectual tests, in a research study must be supported by sufficient evidence of construct validity and reliability.

### 3.6.1 Validity

Validity refers to the degree in which our test or other measuring device is truly measuring what we intended it to measure (NESH, 2006). Just as we would not use a math test to assess verbal skills, we would not want to use a measuring device for research that was not truly measuring what we purport it to measure. More importantly, examiners need to be careful not to over-generalize from a screening device that measures only hearing vocabulary, which is just one aspect of the complex linguistic and cognitive domains. Instead, this test should be seen only as suggesting the level of present functioning of a person, leading to a comprehensive study of the individual, or alternatively as part of a test battery (Dunn et. al, 1982).

The BPVS II originated in the United States and was popularized in Britain and now in Norway. The evidence of validity based on test content is major issue in selecting this achievement test. According to Gal et al. (2007) the content of test items must parallel the

content of the instructional program or intervention must be done. It is a translation from British English which could include stimulus words that are not within the context of Norwegian or Filipino classroom learning even if it is standardized.

The BPVS II is appealing because of its convenience, shortness and simplicity, but these characteristics ironically bring serious limitations if they result in casual administration and scoring (Dunn et. al., 1982).

### 3.6.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to how precise was the researcher in following the procedures of test administration and of scoring. The risk of collecting biased information through observation is high.

The objective in using the BPVS-II is to obtain reliable test results. Since the researcher in the study is not fluent speaker of Norwegian, a speech therapist tested the sample in Norwegian. Two months before the test, the Norwegian administrator studied the whole test manual to have a good understanding of the administration, scoring, and the performance record and test plates (or test items). Prior to testing the administrator was arranged to meet most of the participants. The test was held in a kindergarten classroom to allow a natural environment for the children. The classroom was prepared so that it was well lit and ventilated.

Since there is no Filipino translation of the BPVS II, English is the closest known language to the samples. Testing them with an English translation increases reliability and give the samples a chance to be tested in a language they are familiar with from before.

Empathy and interpretations are prerequisites for the research process. This can open the door, to different, yet reasonable interpretations of the same factors. However, the fallibility and inconclusiveness attached to research do not relieve researchers from the obligation to shun arbitrary views and to strive for coherence and clarity in their reasoning (NESH, 2006). For this reason the observations in this research are only used to support the data already gathered through the instruments.

## 3.7 Ethical Considerations

As a concept, ethics "refers to a complex of values, standards and institutional schemes that help constitute and regulate scientific activity (NESH, 2006).

I secured permission from Norwegian Social Science Data Service (NSD) to conduct my research in Norway. Since my participants are children, I wrote a letter to their parents and guardians asking for their consent in written form. In my letter I stated the purpose of my research and the data I need from the participants. The children were also informed about the test and its purpose and how the results will be used. The participants have also been informed that they are free to withdraw at any time and that their request will be honoured without being held accountable.

Once the data had been collected the participants were ensured that no unauthorized personnel, (except the Norwegian test administrator and the researcher) shall have access to the data and their privacy is protected. I used code numbers to represent personal information such as names and letters to represent gender. This also aims to establish unanimity on the part of the participants. All data entered in the computer will be deleted when the study is finished (NESH, 2006).

# 4 Results

The main aim of this study is to find what characterizes the Norwegian vocabulary among 19 Filipino children of first generation immigrants within their first two years in Norway. The researcher will also look into whether individual factors such as cognition, age, length of residence (LOR), educational background of the parents, social network and motivation affected their level of proficiency.

I used descriptive analysis to look into the variation of data from each participant and into the relationship of factors triggering language learning. Afterwards, results from participants' Norwegian test are compared with the English results. I also attained a qualitative approach with some of the analyses. The qualitative results are not as easy to present nevertheless are found in the next chapter; the discussion.

The main statistical data used in this research are the results from the BPVS II test 1 in Norwegian and test 2 in English; also, results from Sol Lyster's Norwegian born children also conducted in Norwegian language and lastly some of the responses in the questionnaire given to parents are presented in tables.

The findings are presented in four parts. Table 1 describes the results from test 1(in Norwegian) in relation to the standardized norm as described in the BPVS manual. Table 2 describes the results of BPVS test 2 (in English). Table 3 compares test results of the BPVS English between BPVS Norwegian. Table 4 is a comparison between test results in BPVS (Filipino born) with the result of Sol Lyster's results BPVS (Norwegian born). Table 5 presents length of residence in relation to the standardized score in Norwegian. This chapter ends with the supplementary analysis.

## 4.1 Presentation of Descriptive Results

Table 1 The BPVS III Results in Norwegian: Filipino children

| Age | Mean Raw score | Mean std. score | Selection |
|---|---|---|---|
| 6:00 - 8:11 | 77.88 | 101.5 | 8 |
| 9:00 12:08 | 96.18 | 93.64 | 11 |

Table 1 shows the mean of both the raw score and the standardized score in BPVS II test conducted among children of Filipino immigrants ages 6-12. The standard score is higher for the youngest group of children. The sample is divided into two age group; 6-8 years and 9-12 years. The age grouping is supposed to lump individual scores so that they would appear more like a group score and not as individual. It is also to establish two age groups which are referred to as: younger age group and the other older age group.

Table 2 The BPVS II Results in English: Filipino Children

| Age | Mean Raw score | Mean std. score | Selection |
|---|---|---|---|
| 6:00 - 8:09 | 66.33 | 91.17 | 6 |
| 9:00 -13:00 | 88.08 | 86.08 | 12 |

Table 2 shows that the younger age group receives higher standardized score in English. *Notice that the age-group is different from table 1 since the participants test in English was done 6 months after the Norwegian test.*

Table 3 The Standardized Score in BPVS II: Norwegian & English

| Average of N. and E. | Std. score Norw. | Std. score Eng. |
|---|---|---|
| 71,5 | 77 | 66 |
| 80,5 | 75 | 86 |
| 81,5 | 88 | 75 |
| 83,0 | 89 | 77 |
| 84,0 | 82 | 86 |
| 84,0 | 85 | 83 |
| 86,5 | 91 | 82 |
| 87,0 | 94 | 80 |
| 87,5 | 94 | 81 |
| 89,0 | 102 | 76 |
| 89,0 | 94 | 84 |
| 89,5 | 92 | 87 |
| 94,0 | 102 | 86 |
| 95,5 | 99 | 92 |
| 96,0 | 113 | 79 |
| 102,5 | 117 | 88 |
| 110,0 | 118 | 102 |
| 115,0 | 111 | 119 |
| 125,0 | 119 | 131 |

Table 3 shows the difference between the samples' standardized score achievement in BPVS-II, in Norwegian and English, respectively. The table is sorted on average score achievement, ascending. The Norwegian and English average is calculated to see their vocabulary mastery in both languages. The only missing link here is a numerical equivalent of their vocabulary mastery in Filipino L1, which is a very important detail of their total vocabulary skill.

In table 3, 15 participants scored higher in Norwegian than in English. There were 3 who significantly scored over the norm in English. There were 7 who scored significantly over the Norwegian norm. 9 scored lower than 85 in English and 3 scored lower than 85 in Norwegian.

One child in the older age group significantly scored low on both languages. While another child in the younger group significantly scored low on both languages.

Table 4 The Norwegian BPVS II Results: Norwegian born vs. Filipino born

| | Norwegian children | | Filipino children | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age group | Raw score | Selection | Raw score | Selection |
| 6.0-6.11 | 76,67 | 61 | 60,33 | 3 |
| 7.0-7.11 | 89,13 | 45 | 93 | 1 |
| 8.0-8.11 | 96,83 | 67 | 87,25 | 4 |
| 9.0-9.11 | 99,4 | 48 | 82,85 | 4 |
| 10.0-10.11 | 112,16 | 37 | 113 | 2 |
| 11.0-11.11 | 115,88 | 59 | 104 | 2 |
| 12.0-12.11 | 120,41 | 51 | 89,33 | 3 |

Table 4 shows that Filipino children of immigrants score lower than Norwegian born in all age groups, but two. These two age groups are very small (1 and 2 children) and therefore the results must be interpreted with caution.

Table 5 Filipino Children: LOR vs BPVS II in Norwegian (standardized score)

| LOR | STD. Score | Age | Gender |
|---|---|---|---|
| 7 | 82 | 8. 0. 2 | f |
| 7 | 75 | 9. 1.1 | f |
| 9 | 118 | 7.5.12 | f |
| 9 | 119 | 10.9.2 | f |
| 11 | 99 | 11.8.16 | m |
| 21 | 89 | 6. 8. 16 | f |
| 21 | 102 | 10. 7. 26 | f |
| 21 | 94 | 8. 9. 19 | m |
| 23 | 111 | 6.5.28 | f |
| 23 | 113 | 8.11.28 | f |
| 23 | 91 | 9.6.15 | m |
| 23 | 77 | 12. 8. 28 | m |
| 25 | 102 | 9. 8. 2 | f |
| 26 | 94 | 9. 8. 2 | f |
| 26 | 92 | 9. 11. 28 | f |
| 27 | 88 | 6. 6. 5 | f |
| 27 | 85 | 12. 1. 1 | m |
| 28 | 117 | 8. 5. 22 | m |
| 28 | 94 | 11. 5. 15 | m |

Table 5 shows tendency of some participants who stayed in Norway for shorter period of time (7 months) to score higher than those who have been in Norway for a longer period (1 or 2 years). In the table we can see that girls significantly scored higher than boys.

## 4.2 Supplemental Analysis

Often the results of planned analyses will suggest questions or hypotheses that were not part of the original research proposal. Therefore, supplemental analyses could be an added hypothesis that might give clear explanation of the occurrence of a phenomenon (Gal, Gal, & Borg, 2007).

### 4.2.1 Phonological Resemblance between Norwegian Words and English Words

During the gathering of data it was observed that there is an audible resemblance between some Norwegian words to that of the English words. I reviewed all the stimulus words and noted all words in Norwegian that sound like English. Out of 144 Norwegian stimulus words in the BPVS II, 52 words are found with auditory resemblance to English. See examples below (more examples are found in the appendix):

| **Set no.** | **age** | **English** | **Norwegian** |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | (2 ½ - 3) | baby | baby |
| 2 | 4-5 | dancing | danse |
| 3 | 6-7 | panda | panda |
| 4 | 8-9 | tambourine | tamburin |
| 6 | 11 | pedal | pedal |
| 7 | 12 | collision | kollisjon |

# 5 Data analysis and discussion

This study is mainly an attempt to answer the research problem: *What characterizes the Norwegian vocabulary development among Filipino children of first generation immigrants within their first two years in Norway?* This is done by using a quantitative - dominant and qualitative - less dominant approach with a descriptive design. Comparisons will be made if only to see similarities or differences between variables. This chapter is still put within theoretical bounds. The interpretation of each result, discussion of the limitations, the implications of the findings and finally the conclusion are among the main topics in this chapter.

## 5.1 Discussion of tables

### Receptive Vocabulary Attainment of Filipino Children of First Generation Immigrants in Line with BPVS II

Table 1 is a description of the mean scores derived from Filipino children of immigrants in the BPVS II, administered in Norwegian. The result of each participant differs from each other but most of their raw scores piled within 85-100. Others even scored over the average standardized score 100. This is important because it shows that the Filipino results in the Norwegian test are within the standard norm in line with BPVS II. It is then assumed that most of the participants have learned and acquired enough receptive vocabulary within their more or less two years stay in Norway. We may consider this vocabulary attainment as their Zone of Actual Development as Vygotsky called it. Their ZPD on the other hand would be the vocabularies that are yet to be learned or that are still developing in their daily use of the language.

Many reasons may have influenced why the sample in this study are within the norm. The Critical Age hypotheses, among others, describe the ability of a child to automatically absorb language just from exposure (Bialystok, 1997). The participants of this study are a part of that age when one can easily absorb the rudiments of language. Furthermore young learners are biologically programmed to acquire languages, as differentiated with the adults (McLaughlin, (1978). Another reason is the fact that children have greater access to hear and use Norwegian at school, among peers, through media, in the community and through their siblings.

The sample in table 1 is divided into two age-groups, ages 6-8 received higher standardized score than ages 9 – 12. In this case, I suspect that individual differences in cognition, motivation, and exposure to the target language triggered the differences. After all, according to Mitchell and Myles (2004) children seem to follow the same route of development but differ in the level of proficiency. Furthermore, the size of the sample is small that makes it difficult to deduce any conclusion from.

### The Level of Vocabulary of Filipino Children in the BPVS II English

Table 2 pictures the result of the BPVS II test in English. The test was taken six months after the first test in BPVS II in Norwegian. The six months gap was a measure to ensure that the children would not be able to make associations with their first exposure to BPVS II in Norwegian.

Whether they made any association from the former testing in Norwegian is not much observed except for some who casually commented on the familiarity of pictures in test 2.

I thought that it would be significant to test the participants with a familiar language in order see the attained language development among the participants which is similar to the zone of actual development introduced by Vygotsky. In this way, it will keep us making conclusion that the score in the BPVS II - Norwegian is the only attained language development that these children have. Since the BPVS II has no Filipino translation, the closest familiar language to the participants is English.

According to the result, the participants mostly scored in English BPVS II within the standard norm. Three girls scored over 100 which are considered to be excellent. These girls according t their parents are exposed with the English language in their family and both probably have high language cognition since they also scored high in the Norwegian version.

### Comparison of Filipino Results in BPVS II Norwegian vs English

Table 3 is a comparison between the BPVS – II Norwegian (test 1) and English (test 2) results among Filipino children of immigrants. The total mean of the raw score in test 1 is higher than that of the test 2. This means that the participants are better in Norwegian vocabulary than in English. Possible explanation could be that their attention and motivation to learn the target language has become greater now that the participants are in Norway. They recognize

that L1 has not much of an importance but Norwegian is in their daily conversations among people. According to some parents of the participants in this study, their children use Norwegian to speak with each other. Though the parents do not speak Norwegian with them at home, their children respond to them in Norwegian. The older sibling seems to be the language mediator in the house and that the language she/he uses is preferred by the younger sibling. It is even the children who encourage the parents to speak in Norwegian. But since parents are the only transmitter of the Filipino language it is likely that they would commit to speaking with their children always if not sometimes in their mother tongue.

### Comparison of results from Norwegian born to Filipino born

Table 4 is another comparison between the results of Filipino children of immigrants to the results of the Norwegian – born of the same age. The notable difference between the two is in the size of participants. Out of 953 Norwegian- born from Sol Lysters sample, I only took 368 ages 6-12 as my bases of comparison which is still big compared to my sample 19 Filipino – born with the same age bracket.

It is interesting to see whether there are particular findings that differentiate or give similarities between both results. Naturally, the Norwegian – born scored higher than the Filipinos in the BPVS II Norwegian version. But the Filipino group are not far behind either. I suspect that they have been exposed well to the Norwegian language.

### Length of Residence:  influence to language acquisition

According to theory, length of residence (LOR) abroad can determine learning or building of vocabulary. In table 6, LOR seems to have no relationship between the standardized score as it is reported in other researches. Two among the participants are siblings who have only stayed for 7 months during the time they were tested. And yet both scored higher than those who have been in Norway for one or two years. In addition, neither of their parents speaks Norwegian and they don't have access to a Norwegian speaking network in their family. Furthermore, both children did not enter the Introduction Policy; instead they were placed straight to one of the regular schools in Norway. It is possible that their placement in the regular Norwegian school gave them a close contact with the native speakers of Norwegian. Their exposure to Norwegian language as taught in school made it possible for them to learn

effectively and fast. It is also possible that the cognitive skill and motivation level of these two participants stand out since their score in the English version is also excellent.

Generally, the Filipino group scored within the standard norm set by the BPVS II Norwegian, except for one who scored significantly low. The parents of this child suspect that he has a problem with language processing. Nevertheless, no formal diagnosis was done to conclude that he has a language disability. During the testing however, it was observed that he was not as confident as the others and would take a long time in giving an answer. He also shifts from one answer to another while asking questions like *"is this the answer?"* seeking assurance from time to time. There could be other factors that are affecting this child's language development. But it is important to distinguish the problem whether it is a language disability or he is merely experiencing a temporary "language barrier".

Bialystok (1997) and Kirk et al. (2006) among others say that vocabulary increases through exposure and experience. Cummins (2000) says that it takes two years for conversational language to mature while five years with the academic language.

### Age and Gender

Age in this study, within the defined age-group, has no significance to the learning of a second language. Although the age gaps between the participants are not very large, it is still remarkable that the youngest participants scored even higher than the older age group both in the English and Norwegian tests. Again this could be credited to the critical age hypotheses in addition to the fact that their exposure to L1 is shorter than that of the older participants. This means that the older participants might be in a condition where their exposure or their zone of actual development in their L1 is interfering with their learning of a new language.

The female gender not only dominated the total number of my sample (12) versus male (7), but they also scored higher than the male group. It could be attributed to difference in cognition or motivation. However, according to research, this is expected not only from girls among language minorities but also from language majorities.

## 5.2 Other factors

### 5.2.1 Parents' Level of Education

With regards to the relationship of the parents' level of education towards second language learning, Støren (2005) stated that the difference between majority and linguistic minority students is linked to the fact that linguistic minority pupils have parents with a lower level of education than the majority students. This however could not be entirely true with my sample since 98 % of the parents have attained university level education. However, the parents agree that their children are better conversationalist in the Norwegian language than them. Most of the parents rate themselves as poor or fair in their Norwegian while they marked their children as good and some even fluent.

### 5.2.2 Social Networks

The ecological model of Bronfenbrenner named different systems influencing the learning behaviour of a child through interaction. Most of my sample belongs to a big Filipino community that has a regular weekly meeting aside from Norwegian friends. Community can become a deterring factor to practice the Norwegian language since parents or adult language minorities do not often speak Norwegian with each other and seldom do they speak Norwegian with their children.

But this is not entirely true in this study since most of the participants have peers in the Filipino community with the majority of children and young adults mostly belonging to the second generation who have lived long or were born in Norway. They speak well if not fluent Norwegian. They often meet on weekends enjoying similar activities together with other Filipino families.

At home, parents said that the younger ones follow the language of the older sibling which is Norwegian. The parents might not be good mediators of the Norwegian language, but at home the older sibling takes over as the dominant teacher of language. They also have networks that are native speakers of Norwegian among their neighbours, in their community and at school. These social networks speed up the learning and practice of the Norwegian language. However, the fear of some parents is that their children might forget their first language since

their children use more time and effort in learning and practicing the target language Norwegian.

### 5.2.3 Language Transfer

English and Norwegian are both Germanic languages. According to language history, the Scandinavian language has contributed so many words that enriched the English language greatly (Bragg, 2003). For this reason, there could be a resemblance in some phonology especially the frequent words in English to that of the frequent words in Norwegian.

In line with this, I have a suspicion that the participants result in the BPVS II Norwegian version could have been related to their knowledge of the English language. In here we can recall the concept of language transfer when two languages are closely related to each other, for example audio/phonological resemblance between Norwegian and English.

For example the word “banan” in Norwegian sounds similar to “banana” in English. There were 52 words out 144 stimuli that have auditory similarity to English (entire list found in the appendix).

We can assume that some words could have been learned or acquired and accounted on the parents or siblings at home and not entirely through instruction in school. Language transfer could serve as great part on making some Norwegian words associated with English.

### 5.2.4 The Applicability of the BPVS II to Filipinos

Generally, the sample in this study passed the level corresponding to their age. This means that they have understand enough words in Norwegian expected of them according to BPVS II norm and the Norwegian norm. But some words seem not familiar to them, which will be discussed in this section.

Words like begeistret, mynt, borg, rasende and rørformet to name a few are words that most participants did not recognize. Surprisingly, the word teleskop which seems to be a familiar word both in their L1 and L2 was not recognized by most of the participants. Teleskop is presented side by side with other pictures with lenses. Instead of pointing to the word teleskop they point at the binocular, projector or microscope.I had the suspicion that this is brought about by the confusion made by the other pictures in the frame. However, this could also have

something to do with understanding. According to Cummins (2000) children master conversational language earlier than the academic language. Therefore it seems that the children know the concept "teleskop" by hearing, but does not actually know how to distinguish it among other things with lenses. There is the difference between knowing and being able to describe how it looks like, what is it used for etc. We could again assume that being able to recognize the word telescope phonologically is within the SLL zone of actual development, but the recognizing its meaning, and its uses is within their ZPD.

However, though most words in the BPVS II are taken from common human experiences, these are neither taken from the Norwegian context nor the Filipino context. The weasel is not familiar to some because it can only thrive at certain places in certain countries. A child who is not much exposed with animals in the farm because he lives in the city may not be able to distinguish a cow from a goat. For example, I noticed that all the participants in this research who use tambourine in the church were able to locate the tambourine in the picture while others who do not use tambourine failed to identify it from the picture.

Therefore, one can never be sure of the applicability of the BPVS II among Filipino children of immigrants. This gives us caution on jumping into conclusion about the language proficiency of children just by interpreting and analyzing their test scores. We are then subject to sort of limitations which the next section will discuss.

## 5.3 Limitations of the Study

The main limitation of this study is the fact that the sample is too small to make any generalization to the entire population of children of Filipino First Generation Immigrants; particularly those who only stayed in Norway for more or less two years. Secondly, this study only focuses on receptive vocabulary and not expressive vocabulary. There maybe chances that the participants can produce some words expressively.

Since this study is only limited to vocabulary, it does not show the general language attainment in the other aspects of language like grammar. Therefore a conclusion couldn't be made whether the participants in this research can function fully in a Norwegian regular school with just vocabulary. Can they use it in sentences? Can they incorporate it with the four basic skills in language? For example, a child may have learned many children songs by constant hearing exposure, but he might not be able to understand the message of the songs.

Since it is a single test on a single study the significance of the result only serves to increase the knowledge of to which extent Filipino children of 1st generation immigrants mastered the Norwegian vocabulary.

14 took the test in a kindergarten classroom while 5 at their houses since they were unavailable to attend the scheduled testing. This shows that test situation is naturalistic which could be prone to any disturbance or discomfort to a child even if measures were taken to secure comfort in the test location or among participants.

Furthermore, the procedure of sampling is limited by lack of time. It is hard to gather all Filipino Children of First Generation Immigrants in Norway as information pertaining them is confidential. The only way to trace them is through Filipino networks and communities. This too takes time.

I was not able to test the participants in Norwegian, and had to delegate the task to a Norwegian speech therapist. I call this a *language barrier* on my part as a researcher.

## 5.4 Summary and Conclusion

As Brox, (1995) has highlighted, there is a social gap between children of linguistic minorities and native speakers of Norwegian, related first to the level of education that is being completed, and later on in competition for jobs. It is probable that some of the disadvantage of children of immigrants is related to a lower level of mastery of the Norwegian language, although we must be careful not to draw the conclusion that this difference can be explained entirely by their handicap in language.

Given that the participants in this study reached a satisfactory level of receptive vocabulary within more or less two years stay in Norway and the fact that four of them did not go to any Introduction Policy; are proofs that children of Filipino language minorities could function well in a Norwegian regular school. Again, this result cannot generalize to the entire population. However it seems that language learning factors such as; cognitive skill, interaction at home and among social network, and language transfer could have helped the participants in learning a new language and in the process have assisted the Introduction Policy for language minorities in Norway.

However, it seems that the main proponent that empowers second language learners lies within the interaction of the different systems surrounding them. The microdynamics of the individual family or classroom, especially the adult-child dyad and the local characteristics of "zones of proximal development" help a great deal in fostering to children how to make their own tools for learning in the future.

## Implications for Future Research

This research might be a useful reference to other student researchers who want to study language learning especially vocabulary mastery. I suggest that other researchers should replicate or repeat this study in order to further test the validity of the knowledge claims (Gall et. al., 2007). The BPVS II test may be repeated on other immigrants of a different nationality or to a larger number of Filipino samples.

It would also be ideal to test Filipino children of immigrants with BPVS – II translated in Filipino.

## Implications for Teachers

According to research, knowledge about one's native language is important in being able to understand second language learners. Teachers and trainers of language minorities must have knowledge of the different languages represented by pupils or students that belong to language minorities. They have to learn the content and extent of mother tongue teaching or deeper and wider understanding of the factors that triggers language learning among second language learners.

## Final Reflections

I have been in Norway for more than 5 years. It took me some time to learn and acquire a considerable number of words that helped me function in the Norwegian society in a day-to-day basis. Though I have learned Norwegian words that helped me function in places or circumstances where Norwegian is used, I still find myself stumbling with words and turning to English for help. I often wondered how children of immigrants manage with a language they barely know. It has been encouraging to find that in general, the children I had the privilege of testing seem to adapt and do well.

On the other hand, discovering that none of the children in my sample group have been offered training in their native language, even though the official introduction policy grants them such a right, is for me a good example of how a noble goal can be undermined by lack of resources, possibly both financial and personnel-wise. As a result, failure to offer mother tongue training to these children puts their heritage language in danger of being forgotten. Hopefully, in the future, the practice of the Norwegian school system in integrating foreign language students will be more in alignment with the ambitious goals set in the Soria Moria declaration.

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# Appendixes

### The Letter to the Parents

Dear Parents and Guardians,

Glad greetings!

I am a teacher from the Philippines, now an international student at the graduate school in the University of Oslo. Currently I am taking my masters in Special Needs Education. The topic of my research is on Language Learning among Filipino Children of Immigrants in Norway. Since I am a Filipino learning Norwegian language myself I often wonder how far children of Filipino immigrants have learned Norwegian, especially in speech and whether their language proficiency is enough to help them get through higher level of academic studies in the future.

This research aims to assess on which level of Norwegian language Filipino children have learned over the past years in Norway. I would like to give them a standardized test focusing on vocabulary both in Norwegian and English to compare their attainment in the two languages, (and their understanding in using their vocabulary in their daily conversations both in school, at home and among their peers.) Their scores on the Norwegian test will be analyzed and compared to those of the Norwegian born peers. The data will be confidential and will be made unidentifiable in compliance to the agreement with the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD). Their test results will not be traceable back to any child or family.

This research may also help educators, curriculum planners, and immigration authorities in drafting effective provisions for language development among immigrants in Norway. This may also serve as a determinant to when is the best time children of immigrants can join the mainstream school.

I would then like to ask your permission to allow your child(ren) to be a part of the said research. You may withdraw your permission at any time without any reservation.

Sincerely Yours,

Jovie Pangsiw Edvardsen

……

Parental or Guardian Waver

I give permission for my child to participate in the study of *Language Learning Among Filipino Children of Immigrants in Norway* by Jovie Pangsiw Edvardsen. I am aware of my right to withdraw this permission anytime without reservation.

_____

Signature over printed name of the parent/s or guardian Date: _____

## The Questionnaire

Thesis Title: Language Learning among Filipino Children Immigrants in Norway

Dear Parents and Guardians,

The following questions are important to the study of language learning and development of your children in Norway. Thank you for diligently answering them. Kindly submit to the researcher after filling out this form.

QUESTIONS:

1. How many years have you been in Norway? _____

2. How long has your child been in Norway? _____

3. Where was your child born?

   □Norway

   □Philippines

   Other country _____

4. Write down how many siblings does your child have and their corresponding age/s.

_____

5. What language/s do you use at home? _____

| | Yes | No |
|---|---|---|
| 6. Do you speak Norwegian to your children at home? | □ | □ |
| 7. Do your children speak Norwegian with each other at home? | □ | □ |
| 8. Do you speak Norwegian at work? | □ | □ |

9. Do you attend a Norwegian language course?

□ □

10. Does your child attend a Norwegian course outside school?

□ □

11. Does your child attend 1st language (morsmål) class?

□ □

If yes, is this class a part of their school or outside of school?

A part of school □ Outside of school □

12. Do you have a Norwegian speaking network, group or friends?

Yes No

□ □

If yes, what language do use in speaking with them? _____

13. Does your child go to a Norwegian course?

14. Can you describe your child's Norwegian skill?

□fluent

□good

□fair

□poor

15. How do you view your skill in Norwegian?

□fluent

□good

□fair

□ poor

16. State what language/s do you use with your Filipino network or friends if there is/are any?

a. Filipino (Tagalog)

b. English
c. Norwegian
d. Others _____

17. What level of education did you/spouse finish in the Philippines?

The mother _____

The father _____

**British Picture Vocabulary Scale II - Stimulus Words in English Translated to Norwegian: Phonological Similarity**

| Set 2 | Set 7 |
|---|---|
| Plante – plant | kollisjon - collision |
| Sirkel – circle | appluderte – applauded |

reptile – reptile

Danse – dance

Set 3

Frukt – fruit

Fullt – full

Panda – panda

Mynt – mint

Komponere - composed

Set 4

Tamburin – tamburine

Teleskop – telescope

Dryppe – drip

Set 5

Bagasje – baggage

Globus – globe

Set 8

arktisk - arctic

inngravene - engrave

fantasidyr – fantacy...

isolasjon - isolation

Set 9

parallel - parallel

Kvartet - quarter

sitrusfrukt - citrusfruit

Indikator - indicator

timer – timer

Set 10

Detonasjon – detonation

Agrikultur – agriculture

Anorektisk – anorecsic

Aurodynamisk – aerodynamics

Konkav – concave

Set 11

Eksteriør – exterior

Kaskade – cascade

Vagabond – vagabond

Ballistisk – ballistic

Krater – crater

Radar – radar

Renovasjon – renovation

Set 12

Kjemi – chemist

Hydrant – hydrant

Kulinarisk- culinary

Port – port

**Sol Lyster's result on Norwegian born children in BPVS – II: 6-12 age group only**

| Age | Raw score | Std. deviation | Selection | Reliability |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6,0 - 6,5 | 73,81 | 11,6 | 27 | 0,87 |
| 6,6 - 6,11 | 78,94 | 13,58 | 34 | 0,93 |
| 7,0 - 7,5 | 90,82 | 13,55 | 22 | 0,89 |
| 7,6 - 7,11 | 87,52 | 12,57 | 23 | 0,9 |
| 8,0 - 8,5 | 93,61 | 12,22 | 31 | 0,91 |
| 8,6 - 8,11 | 99,61 | 11,32 | 36 | 0,83 |
| 9,0 - 9,11 | 99,4 | 12,55 | 48 | 0,92 |
| 10,0 - 10,11 | 112,16 | 10,58 | 37 | 0,87 |
| 11,0 - 11,11 | 115,88 | 8,59 | 59 | 0,83 |
| 12,0 - 12,11 | 120,41 | 7,92 | 51 | 0,82 |