

Echoing the English Language Experiences of Multilingual Students in Formal and Informal Settings

Elle Christine Dumaguit Melendez¹

ORCID No. 0000-0002-5519-4442

Abstract

The present study investigates the factors that influenced the English language learning/acquisition of nine multilingual university students who majored in English. Using the qualitative descriptive design and Sim's categories of English language learning factors, the participants narrated their formal and informal English language experiences through a summative diary and informal interview. In general, the results show the same set of key categories that are found in previous studies i.e., motivation, beliefs, autonomy, anxiety, language learning strategies, and instructional materials, activities, and facilities. However, the collection of specific narrations paints a different picture of these multilingual participants' English language learning experiences. Based on the results, recommendations are given to enhance the teaching and learning of English in multilingual and multicultural settings and the context of the present study. It is advised to use multilingual and multicultural approaches that assist English learning and acquisition both within and outside of the classroom.

Keywords: Language learning and acquisition, summative diary, factors influencing English language learning, multilingual students

Introduction

The factors influencing the acquisition and successful learning of English have been given considerable attention for instructional and business purposes. However, work in this area has continued to thrive to better comprehend the second and foreign language learners' experiences in using a second or third language successfully. Prominent work in this field advanced the view that language acquisition/learning success is an assembly of all the factors that provide linguistic input (Krashen, 1981) and at the same time carry information for the children to figure out linguistic parameters specific to a language (Chomsky, 1986). This means that

using a language competently is not only a result of the formal language program in schools but also a reflection of the vibrant display of language learning opportunities in informal settings outside the classroom (Castello, 2015; Matic, 2011).

In the case of the child's first language, Lee and Heinz (2016) explained that acquiring it appears relatively effortless. Among second or foreign language learners, however, some individuals enjoy greater success than others, and this is attributed to several factors. Yuefang (2019) categorized these factors into internal (age, attitude, personality, motivation, and first language proficiency) and

¹ Bukidnon State University

external (political, economic, cultural, and technological) environment. Other studies also posited similar factors influencing SLA with the addition of frequency of English language use, presence of instructional materials, teaching approach/style, and language learning strategies (Dornyei, 2005; Makowy, 2007; Oztürk & Gürbüz, 2016; Sim, 2006). Among foreign language learners of English, factors like motivation and strategies were prominent (Mali, 2017; Matic, 2011).

Adding to the complex process of knowing a language is the sociolinguistic environment that may host three or more languages, potentially transmitting these languages to varying extents. Two schools of thought exist to provide learners with a conducive environment to learn English. One favors the English-only policy, and the other capitalizes on the resources of the learner's mother tongue. The rationale of the first approach rests on creating an immersive environment, which attempts to mirror the amount of exposure native English language speakers receive.

According to Ismaili (2015), some educational practitioners believe that overusing the first language limits the students' exposure to the English language. Such contention, however, has been rebutted in several studies citing the critical role of L1 in learning English (Atkinson, 1987; Fawole & Pillay, 2019; Ismaili, 2015). Continuing this approach, some families in bi- or multilingual communities practice the English-only rule at home. In the Philippines, for example, it has been observed that some young children can speak only English fluently (Martin, 2018). This may be contributed by the status of English in the Philippines as one of its official languages. These children may perhaps be considered native speakers of Philippine English.

The success of some learners in mastering English directed the exploration of the language learners' experiences outside the classroom. Learners participate in extramural activities (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012), where the home language learning practices are transferred to the learners via parental influence (Hanus, 2016; Tzanakis, 2011). The English language learning odyssey of these multilingual learners is multifaceted, and understanding the factors that contribute to their learning of English can assist second and foreign language educators and even parents/guardians in designing a favorable environment for learning English to flourish. Knowledge of what constitutes learners' contributions in the classroom can be used to establish a framework for teachers to relate theories and practices and address pitfalls in language teaching.

The list of factors that influence English language learning success may have a universal bearing, but the narratives that shape these factors may change according to the experiences of the language learners. Along this line, Bailey (1991) reviewed the use of students' vignettes and revealed that these accounts could provide insightful reminders of the students' central role in language learning and open different perspectives from the personal accounts of students. All of these prompted the researcher to conduct a study on language learning experiences which aims to (1) describe the factors that affect the English language learning experiences of multilingual students majoring in English and (2) draw pedagogical implications from these experiences.

Framework of the Study

This study focuses on the acquisition and learning of English, which is generally identified as the second language in the Philippines because of its presence and role

in society. Krashen (1981) hypothesized that knowing a second language (L2) may take the acquisition or the learning route. In acquiring an L2, the child is deeply immersed in the target language and is using it in making meaningful interactions. In contrast, learning involves the conscious knowledge of talking about linguistic forms. In 1994, however, Brown proposed the language acquisition continuum arguing that both concepts are essential to become communicatively competent. While this continuum is recognized, the present study maintains the acquisition learning distinction to describe the linguistic environment and activities experienced by the participants in formal (classroom) and informal environments (outside the classroom). Krashen also proposed the input hypothesis, the linguistic information higher than the learner's current level. Thach (2022) further elaborated that comprehensible input in English can come from hearing or reading linguistic sources that learners understand.

Lastly, the study focuses on the six factors (Sim, 2006) that contributed to the English language use of students. These are motivation, beliefs, autonomy, anxiety, strategies, instructional materials, activities, and facilities. Motivation is a multifaceted concept that is considered a powerful determinant of second language learning achievement (Dornyei, 1994). Among those that dominate the discourse on motivation is the seminal construct on integrative-instrumental structure (Gardner & Lambert, 1972 as cited in Dornyei, 1994). Also, current observations on motivation show that sources of motivation could differ based on local contexts (Zhu, 2014). The second factor affecting language learning is beliefs. Accordingly, it is one of the most important factors affecting English language learning success (Horwitz, 2008;

Zhen, 2018). Zhang (2008, as cited in Zhen, 2018) defined language learning beliefs as learners' understanding of the nature and method of language knowledge learning. Horwitz (1988) emphasized that students bring to the classroom their preconceived language learning beliefs, consequently influencing the way they learn a language.

The third factor affecting language learning is autonomy. The concept of autonomy is linked to the idea of actionability, which in this context refers to the potential to learn in ways other than simply following a course. Since it is not a natural talent, teachers may have the chance to assist students in helping to self-direct their learning (Karlsson et al., 1997). Further, Little (2003) argued that learners who are proactively dedicated to learning are able to overcome brief motivational obstacles. Anxiety has also been considered to affect the rate of language learning and language learners' performance in the classroom. Language anxiety is a temporary emotional condition marked by feelings or tension that may change in severity over time as well as a tendency to see a larger range of situations as threatening (Qingyun et al., 2022). It is a psychological or physiological condition brought on by behavioral, cognitive, emotional, and physical variables (Alnuzaili & Uddin, 2020) and may cause detrimental effects on language learning (Alnuzaili & Uddin, 2020; Horwitz et al., 1986; Teimouri et al., 2020).

Also important in the study of language learning are the strategies employed by language students. Oxford (2001) defines L2 learning strategies as specific behaviors or thought processes that students use to establish to enhance their own L2 learning (p. 8). Similarly, Chamot (2004) explained that learning strategies are deliberate acts and thoughts people take to reach a learning objective. While more

than a handful of taxonomies have been proposed, it is recognized that the use of these strategies is influenced by culture and context among others (Jing, 2010). Oxford further recommends for teachers to assist students in developing awareness of these strategies and teach these strategies explicitly (Chamot, 2004).

The sixth factor falls under language learning resources, in particular the instructional materials, facilities, and activities. Instructional resources like facilities, teaching materials, and activities are important in learning English. Ajoke (2017) said that instructional resources like teaching materials are crucial to effectively teach and raise student achievement. It gives students the sensory experiences they need to promote interaction and engagement. The incorporation of technology, for example, can effectively enhance the learning of English (Rahmati et al., 2021; Yunus & Lubis, 2009). In terms of activities, Gari (2020) explained that this form of instructional resource can be used to improve performance, encourage interaction, and promote an engaging way to learn English. For multilingual learners, their voices may bring out a different perspective on how these factors are experienced, ultimately contributing to their ability to use the English language.

Methodology

The research employed the qualitative descriptive research design (QDRD) and used the summative diary in gathering data. QDRD uses a categorical type of inquiry and it does not necessitate the rendering of data in a conceptual or another highly abstract manner (Sandelowski, 2000). This design is also open to varied data-gathering methods, one of which is the use of diaries. Krishnan and Lee (as cited in Yi, 2008) define diaries as accounts of personal encounters. Bailey

and Ochsner (1983) also explained that a diary in second language acquisition allows for reporting the inaccessible experiences hidden from an external observer.

Ethical Requirement

Nine multilingual university students who majored in English were recruited to participate in the study— eight females and one male. The academic program of these students selects and screens incoming first-year students. The program's retention policy also indicates that the students must not receive a grade below 2.25 in the core subjects. Only those who perform well in the first two years may be retained in the program, so fourth-year students can carry out conversations successfully and write academic papers in English. These students can also speak Filipino (the official language) and Cebuano (L1).

Teachers were asked to nominate students who, based on the student performance in their classes, were better users of the English language. Consent was sought from these graduating students whose ages ranged from 20 to 23 years old. Aside from getting consent from the participants, the researcher also asked permission from the program chairperson to conduct the study.

Data Gathering

The students were given two weeks to write their summative diary. The first meeting was used for orientation of the study and for the researcher to talk about the diary guide. They were informed of the purpose of the study, and they were also briefed on how to write their summative diary using the diary prompts, which were explained to them in detail. If, however, they want to share other language learning/acquisition experiences that they think are not covered by the prompt, they may do so. In addition,

the students were oriented that they could use Cebuano, English, or Filipino in writing their summative diary. One session was also allotted for the informal interview to clarify some entries in the diary. Three English language teachers coded the data, and the consensual approach was applied.

The researcher patterned her questions after Sim's (2006). There are, however, several modifications in the prompts. Instead of the ten questions, the researcher used only six of them. These guide questions are: (1) Were you eager to learn? What motivated you in your English learning? (motivation); (2) What do you think of yourself as a language learner? (beliefs) ; (3) Have you experienced anxiety in your language classes? How did it affect your performance? (anxiety); (4) Do you prefer to learn on your own or with someone else's help? Would you like to decide on what to learn and how to learn if given a chance? (autonomy); (5) What methods or strategies have you found useful in improving your English? (strategies); and (6) Which aspect of your course helps you learn best? (materials, activities, tests, etc.).

Results and Discussion

The factors that influenced the English language learning/acquisition of the participants are presented first followed by the pedagogical implications.

Motivation

The finding on motivation concurs with Dornyei's (1998) statement that motivation in learning a second or foreign language is not as straightforward as we assume. There are many sources of motivation, and they can differ based on context and learner aspirations. Similar with the findings of Tuan (2012), the participants also identified the teachers and peers as influential in

learning English. Table 1 lists these factors or sources of motivation.

Table 1

Sources of Motivation

Reasons/Sources	Entries from the Diary and Informal Interview
Increased Job Opportunities	"I believe that being good at the English language opens doors to success. In Other Asian countries, for example, they are looking for fluent English speakers who can teach them the English language [sic]."
Interact with English language speakers	" I want to learn the [sic] English language [sic] to communicate with people who speak English."
Academic purpose	"I want to have good grades."
Teacher's role	" I was amazed by one English language teacher who is very fluent in the said language. I said to myself that I will [sic] be as good as her." " I have a teacher who praised me for [sic] getting high scores and for doing my work well. This makes me work harder to maintain my performance [sic]." "...but the most important lesson that she had inculcated in me are [sic] the words of encouragement that boost [sic] my morale, especially when I started to feel down and lost my self-confidence. She told us that it is okay to commit mistakes."
Classmate's role	"I am not into reading stories but I was challenged by my classmates because they always read books [sic]."

The learning of English among these graduating multilingual students is influenced by the utilitarian function of English and the learners' career path. The global market offers several opportunities for those who are proficient in English. It is considered the "tool language of employability" (Pandey & Pandey, 2014) and is highly valued by employers (Ting et al., 2017). Similarly, Abejuela and Melendez (2015) also reported that one

hidden dimension of global business English proficiency is the provision of English language training, validating the importance of English in the global market.

To interact with other speakers of English also motivates them to learn English. Among the multilingual Filipino students, the use of English in social interaction is a common scenario. For those living outside the Luzon area, the use of English to communicate with speakers of Tagalog is more likely preferred to amplify the status of English in the Philippines as prestige and official language alongside Filipino.

Learning English is also a form of achievement motivation (Mustafa et al., 2015). Earning good grades may be a sign of good English language performance and may lead to occupational success. Aside from grades, the English language teachers themselves and the environment that they provide in the classroom can be the source of the student’s motivation to learn English. They exert a strong influence on learners, manifested in their ability to serve as models of the students’ future selves, consequently building what Dornyei (2005) calls purposeful behavior. Another source of motivation that strongly influences learning is the teachers’ feedback, but this influence on some learners can be perceived positively or negatively (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

The classmates were also recognized for playing a part in motivating the learners to develop their English language skills. Several studies have shown that peers can significantly influence language learning (Chen et al., 2020; Yan, 2017) and that they add to the building of an optimal learning environment (Littlewood, 1995; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Observation is also critical in learning (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). In this study, having classmates who read inducts the learner into the literacy practice.

Language Learning Beliefs

The students reported in their entries how they see themselves as language learners. There seems to be a relationship between the students’ efforts in an activity and their awareness that they possess the skill to accomplish it. Table 2 presents the narratives of the participants related to language learning beliefs.

Table 2
Narratives on Language Learning Beliefs

Beliefs	Entries from the Diary
Self-efficacy	“Among the four macro-skills, I love reading and writing that’s [sic] why I can say that I am good in these fields. I read and write most of the time. I compose poems, literary features, and others [sic] articles, and the fact that I am in the school paper makes me improve [sic] and helps me develop these skills.”
Perseverance	“As a language learner, I need to persevere. I also need the guidance of the instructor to have more practice in learning the language.”
How language is learned	“I think that people don’t have special language skills. It is just a matter of exposing a person more to that kind of language then he/she will become familiar with using that language.”

The entry seems to show that the interaction between proficiency and choice of activity is bilateral. This result corresponds with Bandura’s (1982) and Wachob’s (2004) findings that positive beliefs rest on one’s capacity to perform a task choice, effort, and persistence. Furthermore, Graham (2022, as cited in Bandura, 1999), explained that persistence drives learners to endure stressful situations. Considering that the participants in the present study are English language majors, the value they hold for learning English may be higher, which may offset their opposing beliefs.

The study also found that experiences can influence students' belief in learning a language. This statement aligns with Kuntz's (1996) finding that previous language experiences can influence learners' beliefs about language learning. When prompted further, the participant revealed the reason for believing that exposure is the key to developing proficiency in the language.

Excerpt from the informal interview

“When I was still 3 years old, I was very much exposed to the English language because my mother would talk to me in English even my grandparents would always talk to me in English. Though it is not my first language I became familiar with it. My first school was in _____. We were not allowed to speak vernacular if possible. That is why it is easy for me to speak English now because I was exposed to this language at a very young age” [sic].

The participant's explanation leads to two practices in some bi-/multilingual communities – the English-only policy in school and the English-only rule at home. While the discussion here is on beliefs and how it is shaped by experience, a brief commentary on this practice in a multilingual setting is relevant. The English-only policy in some schools in Taiwan, Nigeria, Malaysia, the Philippines, and other ESL contexts aims to provide an immersive environment. Adamo and Igene (2015) mentioned that other English language educators believe that an English language immersion should be created in schools. This native speaker myth goes against the highly supported translanguaging practice in the teaching of English in a multilingual

environment (Erling et al., 2021; Fawole & Pillay, 2019) and disadvantages ESL and EFL learners because of the time required to develop basic communication skills and academic proficiency (Cummins, 1981).

Anxiety

McIntyre as cited in Zheng (2008), defines language anxiety as “the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language” (p. 27). In the work of Horwitz et al. (1986), they conceptualized anxiety as situation-specific arising from the unique process of learning a language. This present study documented the different sources of anxiety experienced by the students, shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Sources of the Participants' Anxiety

Sources of anxiety	Excerpts from the Diary
Audience	If I'm in front [sic], I can't remember even a single word. Aside from the teachers, the number of people present also makes me anxious. The larger the number of students who will judge my performance, the more anxious I become.”
Teacher	“But if my teacher is somewhat strict, for example, when C (teacher) enters the room I tremble and I experience [sic] mental block. If my name is called, my knees tremble. Even if I have already memorized and mastered what I have to say nah (expresses the intensity of emotion)!”
Task Difficulty	“I was exposed to the English language at a very early age, so I think that is why it is easy for me to communicate with other people using English. When we have oral recitation, I don't stutter even if I am very nervous or very tense and excited. But when we have our essays, it was so hard for me to express my ideas. I became more conscious about the rules of grammar (I don't even remember the rules!) until such point that I cannot express my ideas very well.”
Performance of classmates	“I cannot avoid feeling pressured whenever I speak especially if I have classmates who speak English very well.”

The work of Zheng (2008) supports the findings in Table 3. However, in addition to the listed causes of anxiety, the present study found that having classmates who are good English language speakers can trigger anxiety. Another source of anxiety is the students' opinion of their teachers. According to Young (1991), the teachers' chosen methodology, manner of speaking, and even nonverbal forms of communication can trigger language learning anxiety. The data also revealed that language tasks are perceived differently. For example, speaking in front of an audience causes anxiety (Raja, 2017) and may prevent one from performing well. The data in the study showed that a student was able to manage her speaking anxiety very well but failed to do the same in writing. This experience may be attributed to rich English language exposure and constant use of English. In contrast, the writing anxiety that the student experienced may be brought by individual differences, perceived competence, and focus on form instructional approach.

Autonomy

Pemberton et al. (1996) cited Holec's (1981) definition of learner autonomy as taking charge of one's learning. In line with this is the commentary from Nunan (1996), who stated that not all learners enter the classroom ready to assume responsibility for their learning. As shown in the data, out of the nine participants, only four reported their application of the concept in learning/acquiring English. Table 4 showcases the students' narratives on autonomy.

Accordingly, students become more motivated when they can proudly claim ownership of their outputs. This feeling of ownership propels them to exert more

Table 4

Narratives on Learner Autonomy

Types of Self-assessment	Narratives from the Diary and Interview
self-directed learning	"When I was in my second year in college, I do [did] my research and study every day even If I am [sic] not told to do it because I'm not only learning but I'm also enjoying myself. In third year, M (teacher) asked us to study a subject but I researched something that is not included.
Positive self-assessment of progress	When I evaluate myself, I can say that I'm good in English, especially in writing for I really love writing."
Negative self-assessment	"As a language learner I think I am a poor learner but as an English language major I found out [sic] in my personality the eagerness to learn and practice this language. I also need the guide of the instructor to have more practice in learning the language.

effort because they are empowered to plan and direct the process of language learning (Little, 1991). Another key indicator of autonomous language learning is the ability to self-assess, and this is particularly important when there is less self-directed learning in the formal environment (Harris, 1997). The excerpts in Table 4 provide evidence of the students' ability to evaluate their progress, including their limitations in learning English, which according to Lier (1996) a single teacher-made test may not be able to identify. Doing so will help teachers gather feedback to improve teaching and learning. Being an autonomous learner also means working beyond instructional time. As shown in Table 4, the students performed academic tasks outside the classroom extending their learning in an informal setting.

Learner Strategies

Chamot (2004) defines language learning strategies as the conscious thoughts and actions learners take to achieve a

learning goal. These strategic learners possess metacognitive knowledge and use it to accomplish language tasks. In the study, five of the six strategies identified by Oxford (1990) were reported in the entries below.

Table 5

Language Learning Strategies Used by the Participants

Strategies	Excerpts from the Diary
Cognitive Learning Strategy	“I am always bringing my dictionary because if there are words that I don’t understand I could easily find their meaning.”
Memory Strategy	“I memorize interesting phrases that I encounter from my readings. For example, I memorized this: Look, if this is going to be one of your unsolicited, unwelcomed match-making attempts, well, I’m not in the market.”
Metacognitive Strategy	“I have a small diary that I always bring anywhere I go. I divided it into three: The first part is for my “Word for the Day,” the second is for “My Need to read books”, and the third part is for my assignments.”
Social Strategy	“I want to discuss the lessons with friends.”
Affective Strategy	I know that I will improve my language skills if I really practice.”

The number of reported strategies seems to correspond with the “threshold effect” espoused by Mißler (2000, as cited in Pawlak & Kiermasz, 2018), which means that the number of languages learned/acquired by a multilingual translates into more meaningful use of language

learning strategies. In the present work, the participants’ use of these strategies resonates with the conscious efforts taken to promote the acquisition of English, and expectations may heighten this that as an English language major, one has to be competent and proficient in the target language. The narratives in the table also show that students engage in extramural work; that is, they learn English, and use the target language even if they are outside the formal instructional settings.

Instructional Materials (IMs), Activities, and Facilities

Two participants reported significantly benefiting from using instructional materials and activities. They claimed they could now communicate easily with other people using English. Seven of them, however, clamored for more instructional materials and activities. These are reflected in the three entries below.

Entries

“We need more books and materials?”

“We need more activities to practice the use of English.”

The importance of sufficient instructional materials (IMs) and facilities are highlighted in several studies, which record a significant correlation with high academic performance in English (Adelodun & Asiru, 2015) and promote the learning/acquisition of English language skills (Crawford, 1995; Rondon & Vera, 2016). Subsequently, sufficient, validated, and approved instructional resources that consider the learners’ contexts should be available.

Pedagogical Implications

Based on the above findings, the following pedagogical implications were drawn. These pedagogical implications follow the same arrangement as the sub-sections in the findings.

On Motivation

The participants in this study are more extrinsically motivated to learn the English language, but this may be insufficient to warrant sustained eagerness to continue learning because once the external condition becomes less apparent, their motivation will eventually decrease (Nguyen, 2019; Sim, 1996). In such cases, teachers may provide a supportive environment (Lightbrown & Spada, as cited in Nguyen, 2019) to sustain the student's motivation to learn the language. They can employ innovative approaches and strategies in teaching English that not only meet the needs of the students but also offer a safe space to enjoy learning. In addition, teachers can be the most potent instrument to increase learner motivation. As shown in the entries, teachers can uplift the spirits of their students and serve as role models.

Yu (2007) also posits that feedback can influence students' motivation. This means that teachers should promptly recognize the work or achievements of their students because this can spur high motivation. In addition, teachers may select intellectually stimulating learning tasks, simultaneously providing students the opportunity to experience success. Lastly, opportunities that provide learners with a feeling of social support from both teachers and fellow students are highly encouraged. This will produce a multiplier effect in learning a second language. The

suggestions of Dornyei (1994) on how to motivate students along the three levels of motivation – language level-oriented, learner, and learning situation – may be considered in addition to those mentioned.

On Language Learning Beliefs

Several researchers found that beliefs can significantly impact students' performance in learning a language (Bandura, 1982; Wachob, 2004). Therefore, teachers should study their students' beliefs to guide them in incorporating lessons that will gradually and constructively change their students' attitudes towards language learning and increase their awareness of how they see themselves as language learners. Awareness of these beliefs will assist students in modifying their negative language learning behaviors and assist teachers in creating a collegial classroom environment. In addition, Horwitz (as cited in Abdi & Asadi, 2015) advised teachers of possible encounters with unexpected beliefs that may be unfavorable to language learning success. Dealing with these unanticipated beliefs early on will positively impact positively the intake of input and promote engagement in classroom activities.

On Anxiety

Reducing anxiety in the classroom can present a considerable challenge to teachers. It may help to incorporate reflective teaching practice to reduce anxiety triggers because a classroom that nurtures a healthy affective environment can facilitate language learning. Moreover, continually assessing anxiety-provoking situations and cultivating an accepting environment towards mistakes or failures may cultivate a sense of commonality and active participation. This will encourage

learners to take more risks and benefit from group interactions. In terms of class size, smaller class sizes may be considered to promote maximum student-teacher and student-to-student interaction.

On Learner Autonomy

To support learner autonomy, teachers may provide more room for independent learning. Guided and scaffolded learning may gradually assist learners in taking charge of their learning. Recently, autonomy support (Reeve & Cheon, 2016) became one of the guiding principles of English language teachers. Four interconnected instructional acts of autonomy-supportive instructional behaviors (ASIBs) are observed – taking students' perspectives, supporting intrinsic motivation, supporting internalization, and transforming controlling teaching into ASIBs. In a traditional teacher-controlled classroom, welcoming ASIBs means a change of paradigm in English language teaching and gradually letting go of stringent control.

On Language Learning Strategies

Considering the positive effects of the tailored use of language learning strategies on language achievement and proficiency, teachers may train students to use appropriate language learning strategies. If students are armed with a repertoire of strategies, they can confidently manage language learning because they have at their disposal tools to base their decisions on and complete coursework. Teacher modeling of a strategy may allow students to see the application of a strategy in accomplishing language tasks. In addition, teachers may reassess the lesson to determine if students are provided with opportunities to develop these strategies.

Concerning self-assessment, the results can be used as a form of formative assessment. In addition to other data sources, the English language teachers may have a better profile of the strengths and weaknesses of the English language learners. They can better design tasks to address learning gaps. Training students in using these strategies may also help them maximize the benefits of language learning opportunities. Lastly, sharing with students articulated self-assessment guidelines, including the criteria for assessing language outputs, may help strengthen the practice and quality of the assessment data.

On Instructional Materials, Activities, and Facilities

In terms of facilities, the recommendations of Barrett and colleagues (2019) on creating design and layouts that align with pedagogy may be considered. For example, to better engage students in language learning/acquisition activities, universities may plan to construct innovative learning spaces to address current needs and prepare to implement identified signals from the future.

Adding to the collection of instructional materials is perhaps the acquisition of innovative and interactive software or applications and the incorporation of technology in the design of English language materials. English language teachers may also want to study other approaches like translanguaging, Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), and Special Design Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE). Translanguaging has received wide approval in teaching English among multilinguals, while CALLA and SDAIE have demonstrated their effectiveness in assisting students to learn the English language (Moughamian et al., 2009, as cited in Adelodun & Asiru, 2015).

Conclusion

The study recognizes that several factors contributed to the English language learning/acquisition of multilingual students majoring in English and that each of these factors is shaped by the unique narratives of the participants based on their experiences in formal (in the classroom) and informal (outside the classroom like the home) environments. These narratives may be positive or negative, but they offer a wealth of information for the success of language learning instruction. They may reveal other factors and practices which could be applied in other English language learning contexts.

Recommendation

Teacher training or professional development sessions on identified factors of English language learning may propel teachers to reexamine their instructional practices and conceptions of teaching English in the Philippine context. A series of studies may also be undertaken to focus on a single factor influencing the learning of English. This will be analyzed through a different lens and situated in multilingual and multicultural contexts. The new educational landscape in the multilingualism sphere may offer new insights relevant to present discourses on English language teaching and learning.

It is further recommended for the family to provide, if possible, rich English language and literacy experiences. Early exposure to the target language through informal literacy events at home facilitates the acquisition of English and advances the development of comprehension skills. Moreover, both the students and perhaps the English language instructors should work for the student's development or enhancement of agentic engagement

skills. Being able to actively construct and maximize language learning opportunities may offer huge gains in English language learning/acquisition. English language instructors and English language managers may also reexamine the syllabus and the teaching approaches bearing in mind that among second language learners the recognition of the L1 in the classroom promotes language learning. Lastly, English language instructors may blend the use of communicative language teaching with translanguaging and other approaches mentioned in this paper.

References

- Abejuela, H., & Melendez, E.C. (2015). Uncovering the hidden dimension of global business English proficiency: A fractal analysis. *Asia Pacific Journal of Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 12,13-20.
- Abdi, H., & Asadi, B. (2015). A synopsis of researchers on teachers' and students' beliefs about language learning. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature*, 3(4), 104-114.
- Adamo, G., & Igene, S. (2015). Teaching English in a multilingual and multicultural context: The Nigeria experience. IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning - Dubai 2015 Official Conference Proceedings. https://papers.iafor.org/wp-content/uploads/papers/iicll2015/IICLL2015_07373.pdf
- Adelodun, G.A., & Asiru, A.B. (2015). Instructional resources as determinants of English language performance of secondary school high-achieving students in Ibadan, Oyo State. *Journal*

- of Education and Practice*, 6(21), 195-200.
- Ajoke, A. (2017). The importance of instructional materials in teaching English as a second language. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention*, 6(9), 2319 – 7714.
- Alnuzaili, E., & Uddin, N. (2020). Dealing with anxiety in foreign language classroom. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 11(2), 269-273.
- Atkinson, D. (1987). The mother tongue in the classroom: A neglected resource? *ELT Journal*, 41(4), 241-247.
- Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37,122-147
- Bandura, A. (1999). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 2(1), 21–41. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-839x.00024>
- Bailey, K. (1991). Diary studies of classroom language learning: The doubting game and the believing game. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED367166.pdf>
- Bailey, KM., & Ochsner, R. (1983). A methodological review of the diary studies: Windmill tilting or social science? In K.M. Bailey, M.R. Long, & S. Peck (Eds.), *Second language acquisition studies* (pp.188-198). Newbury House.
- Barrett, P., Treves, A., Shmis, T., Ambasz, D., & Ustinova, M. (2019). The impact of school infrastructure on learning: A synthesis of the evidence. The World Bank.
- Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Castello, D. (2015). First language acquisition and classroom language learning: Similarities and differences. <https://www.birmingham.ac.uk/Documents/college-artslaw/cels/essays/secondlanguage/First-Language-Acquisition-and-Classroom-Language-Learning-Similarities-and-Differences.pdf>
- Chamot, A. (2004). Issues in language learning strategy research and teaching. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 1(1), 14-26.
- Chen, J., Justice, L., Tambyraja, S., & Sawyer, B. (2020). Exploring the mechanism through which peer effects operate in preschool classrooms to influence language growth. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 53, 1-10.
- Chomsky, (1986). *Knowledge of language: Its nature, origin and use*. Praeger.
- Crawford, J. (1995). The role of materials in the language classroom: Finding the balance. *TESOL in Context*, 5(1), 25-33.
- Cummins, J. (1981). Age on arrival and immigrant second language learning in Canada. *Applied Linguistics*, 2, 132-149.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, 31(3), 117-135.
- Erling, E., Foltz, A., Siwik, F. & Brummer, M. (2021). Teaching English to linguistically diverse students from

- migration backgrounds: From deficit perspectives to pockets of possibility. *Languages* 7(3), 1-22. <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages7030186>
- Gardner, R.C., & Lambert, W.E. (1972). Attitudes and motivation in second language learning. Newbury House.
- Gari, B. (2020). Activities – Enormous importance in the English language classroom. *International Journal of Innovative Science and Research Technology*, 5(9), 428-430.
- Fawole, A., & Pillay, P. (2019). Introducing the English language to learners in a multilingual environment: A dilemma that must be resolved. *Gender & Behaviour*, 17(1), 12583-12596.
- Graham, S. (2022). Self-efficacy and language learning – what it is and what it isn't. *The Language Learning Journal*, 50(2), 186–207.
- Harris, M. (1997). Self-assessment of language learning in formal settings. *ELT Journal*, 51(1), 12-20.
- Hanus, K. (2016). Factors that influence learning by English language learners (ELLs). *BU Journal of Graduate Studies in Education*, 8(2), 19-22.
- Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 81-112.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy in foreign language learning*. Pergamon.
- Horwitz, E. (2008). Why student beliefs about language learning matter: Issues in the development and implementation of the beliefs about language learning inventory. In H.J. Siskin (Ed.), *From thought to action: Exploring beliefs and outcomes in the foreign language program* (pp. 2-8). Thomson Heinle.
- Ismaili, M. (2015). Teaching English in a multilingual setting. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 199, 189 – 195.
- Jing, L. (2010). Language learning strategies and its training model. *International Education Studies*, 3(3), 100-104.
- Karlsson, L., Kjisik, F., & Nordlund, J. (1997). From here to autonomy: A Helsinki University Language Centre Autonomous Learning Project. Helsinki University Press.
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Pergamon Press.
- Kuntz, P. (1996). Students of anxiety Egyptian: A pilot study of beliefs about language learning [Doctoral thesis, the University of Wisconsin]. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED397649.pdf>
- Lee, J. ,& Heinz, M. (2016). Learning strategies reported by advanced language learners. *Journal of International Education Research*, 12(2).
- Lier, V. (1996). *Interaction in the language classroom: Awareness, autonomy, and authenticity*. Longman.
- Lightbown, P.M., & Spada, N. (1999). *How languages are learned?* Oxford: Oxford University
- Little, D. (2003). Learner autonomy and second/foreign language learning. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/259874624_Learner_autonomy_and_secondforeign_language_learning
- Little, D. (1991). *Learner autonomy: Definitions, issues, problems*. Dublin: Authentic.

- Littlewood, W. (1995). *Foreign and second language acquisition*. Prentice-Hall.
- Makowy, L. (2009). Factors affecting second language acquisition. <http://liu.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:280478/FULLTEXT01.pdf>
- Mali, M. (2017) Adult learners' experiences in learning English: A case study of two university students in Indonesia. *IJOLTI*, 2(2), 131-146.
- Martin, H. (2018). Why Manila's English-speaking bubble needs to pop. *The McGill International Review*. <https://www.mironline.ca/why-manilas-english-speaking-bubble-needs-to-pop/>
- Matic M. (2011). The English language learning experience and its impact on the future English language teacher's career. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 11, 132-135.
- Mißler, B. (2000). Previous experience of foreign language learning and its contribution to the development of learning strategies. In S. Dentler, B. Hufeisen, & B. Lindemann (Eds.), *Tertiar- und Drittsprachen. Projekte und empirische Untersuchungen* (pp. 7-21). Tübingen, Germany: Stauffenburg.
- Moughamian, A.C., Rivera, M.O., & Francis, D.J. (2009). *Instructional models and strategies for teaching English language learners*. University of Houston.
- Mustafa, H.H., Rashid, M., Atmowardoyo, H., & Dollah, S. (2015). Students' attitudinal factors in learning English as a foreign language. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 6(6), 1187-1194.
- Nguyen, H.C. (2019). Motivation in learning English language: A case at Vietnam National University, Hanoi. *European Journal of Educational Sciences*, 6(1), 49-65.
- Nunan, D. (1996). Towards autonomous learning: Some theoretical, empirical, and practical issues. In R. Pemberton, Li, E., Or, W., & Pierson, H., *Taking control: Autonomy in language learning* (pp. 13-26). Hong Kong University Press.
- Oxford, R. (2001). *Language learning styles and strategies: An overview* https://www.researchgate.net/publication/254446824_Language_learning_styles_and_strategies_An_overview
- Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies: what every teacher should know?* Newbury House/Harper & Row.
- Oxford, R., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 12-28.
- Oztürk, G., & Gürbüz, N. (2016). The impact of early language learning experiences on EFL teachers' language teaching beliefs and practices. *ELT Research Journal*, 5(2), 0-0. <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/eltrj/24405/258711>
- Pawlak, M., & Kiermasz, C. (2018). The use of language learning strategies in a second and third language: The case of foreign language majors. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 8(2), 427-443. <https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2018.8.2.11>
- Pandey, M., & Pandey, P. (2014). Better English for better employment opportunities. *International Journal of*

- Multidisciplinary Approach and Studies*, 1(4), 93-100.
- Pemberton, R., Li, E., Or, W., & Pierson, H. (1996). *Taking control: Autonomy in language learning*. Hong Kong University Press.
- Qingyun, D., Haowen, L., Chengjiao, Y., Xiaoyu, C., & Xiaoyuan, Z. (2022). The development of a short Chinese version of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. *Front Psychiatry*, 13, 854-547. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2022.854547>
- Raja, F. (2017). Anxiety level in students of public speaking: Causes and remedies. *Journal of Education and Educational Development*, 4(1), 94-110.
- Rahmati, J., Izadpanah, S., & Shahnavaz, A. (2021). A meta-analysis on educational technology in English language teaching. *Language Testing in Asia*, 11(7), 1-20. 21. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-021-00121-w>
- Reeve, J., & Sung H. C. (2021). Autonomy-supportive teaching: Its malleability, benefits, and potential to improve educational practice, *Educational Psychologist*, 56(1), 54-77. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2020.1862657>
- Rondon, E.J., & Vera, L.F. (2016). Understanding the role of teaching materials in a beginners' level English as a foreign language course: A case study. *Profile*, 18(2), 125-137.
- Sandelowski, M. (2000). Focus on research methods: Whatever happened to qualitative description? *Research in Nursing and Health*, 23, 334-340.
- Schunk, D., & DiBenetto, M. (2020). Motivation and social cognitive theory. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 60, 101-832.
- Sim, F. (2006). Reflections of PRC ESL learners on their English language learning experience. RELC. Singapore: Center for English Language Communication, 5 (2), 25-46.
- Sylvén, L.K., & Sundqvist, P. (2012). Gaming as extramural English L2 and L2 proficiency among young learners. *ReCALL*, 24, pp. 302-321. [doi:10.1017/S095834401200016X](https://doi.org/10.1017/S095834401200016X)
- Thach, T. D. L. (2022). Teachers' perceptions of comprehensible input on English vocabulary acquisition. *International Journal of Language Instruction*, 1(1), 120-131. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.54855/ijli.221110>
- Teimouri, Y., Goetze, J., & Plonsky, L. (2018). Second language anxiety and achievement: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 0, 1-25.
- Ting, S., Marzuki, E., Chuah, K., Misieng, J., & Jerome, C. (2017). Employers' views on the importance of English proficiency and communication skill for employability in Malaysia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7(2), 315-327.
- Tuan, L. (2012). An empirical research on EFL learner's motivation. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(3), 430-439.
- Tzanakis, M. (2011). Bourdieu's social reproduction thesis and the role of cultural capital in educational attainment: A critical review of key empirical studies. *Educate*, 11(1), 76-90
- Wachob, P. (2004). Training Chinese students to be 'western learners'. *STETS Language and Communication Review*, 5 (2), 25-46.

- Yan, T. (2017). Exploring interactions between adult English learners and their teachlive digital character peers [Doctoral thesis, University of Central Florida]. Electronic Theses and Dissertations. <https://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd/5548>
- Yi, J. (2008). The use of diaries as a qualitative research method to investigate teachers' perception and use of rating schemes. *Journal of PanPacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 12(1), 1-10.
- Young, D. J. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal*, 75, 426-439.
- Yu, R. (2007). Motivating English students. *TESOL*, 4(4).
- Yuefang, S. (2019). An analysis on the factors affecting second language acquisition and its implications for teaching and learning. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 10(5), 1018-1022. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1005.14>
- Yunus, M., & Lubis, M. (2009). Language learning via ICT: Uses, challenges, and issues. *WSEAS Transactions on Information Science and Applications*, 9(6), 1452-1467
- Zhen, Z. (2018). On the relationship of students' English learning beliefs and learning strategy in the university. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 9(1), 175-180.
- Zheng, Y. (2008). Anxiety and second/foreign language learning revisited. *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*, 1(1), 1-12.
- Zhu, Q. (2014). Motivation for a second or foreign language learning. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270837339_Motivation_for_a_Second_or_Foreign_Language_Learning