

The Languages Used in Philippine News Agencies and the Risk Perceptions of Filipino Workers During the Outbreak of COVID-19

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Abstract

The study banks on the media coverage of Philippine news agencies during the Super Typhoon Yolanda (international name: Haiyan), which critics said affected how Filipinos responded to the possible effects of the typhoon. Both the media and government agencies failed to explain what a storm surge (*daluyong*) is and the extent of its destruction. The literature suggests that if a foreign language is used to craft a message, people would perceive and act on it with less risk in mind. As such, this research answered the question, in what language do Filipino workers perceive high-risk perception in reading, listening, and watching

news about COVID-19, in Filipino (ISO 639-3 [*fil*]) or in English [*eng*]?

Using an online survey, which is composed of three sections (words, headlines, and news clippings), administered to 100 Filipino workers, 50 males and 50 females, the research found that both the Filipino and English languages elicit high-risk responses from the respondents. Specifically, three headlines in the Filipino language received high-risk responses, while the word *pandemic*, an English word, accumulated the highest risk response in the section on words. Meanwhile, the news clipping delivered in Filipino received the lowest risk response. These results can be attributed to the fact that Filipinos are bilingual. Filipinos speak English as a second language and some workers surveyed even use English as their primary language. Therefore, we do not experience disfluency in making sense of information written in the English language.

Keywords: risk perception, COVID-19, news, language, bilingualism, Filipino workers

1 Introduction

On 8 November 2013, Super Typhoon Yolanda (international name: Haiyan) made landfall on Eastern Samar, Philippines (Santos, 2013). After almost a week, the typhoon left the country with immense destruction, including 6,300 fatalities and 1.14 million damaged houses

in the country (Morella, 2018). Even though various media institutions reported about the typhoon as early as 2 November and the Philippine Atmospheric Geophysical and Astronomical Services Administration (PAGASA) announced a storm warning signal no. 4 on 7 November, a lot of people—especially in the regions of the Visayas—did not know what to expect from the typhoon. Hence, most of them did not prepare accordingly and were left in shock when ravaged by strong winds, high volumes of rain, and storm surges.

In an interview with 15 survivors of Super Typhoon Yolanda from the provinces of Leyte and Samar, De Roque and Esquejo (2015) revealed that people who were most affected by the typhoon did not understand what a “storm surge” was, inhibiting them from preparing and acting for such an occurrence. One of the respondents attributed their response to the media reportage of the typhoon. They said, “[g]iven the normative idea of the storms, the idea of [storm] surge was not anymore included in the reporting. Hence, there was a tendency for people to be complacent about whatever storm was coming” (p. 107). De Roque and Esquejo (2015) wrote that while media institutions continuously reported on the typhoon, which included the mention of storm surges, they could not effectively translate or laymanize technical terms from PAGASA. A survivor even suggested that news reports could have been written not only in English but also in Filipino and, if possible, using the local languages of affected provinces such as Waray (ISO 639-3 [*war*]) and Cebuano/Binisaya [*ceb*].

Meanwhile, in evaluating the communication processes during Super Typhoon Yolanda, Lejano et al. (2016) explored how local government units communicated “the risks of a storm surge to a

population that has never had any experience of such an event” (p. 449). They found that the processes of translation and feedback during the typhoon were inadequate. The flow of information from the national to the local government agencies was “mostly linear and unidirectional” (p. 452). The warnings from PAGASA were merely copied by the National Disaster Risk Reduction Management Council (NDRRMC). Local units would then translate the advisories into their local language with little processing, resulting in advisories that were not “descriptive, contextual, or explanatory [...]” (Lejano et al., 2016, p. 455).

Whether it be on the side of the media, the government, or the people, the key in times of calamity is right and effective communication. It is not only a matter of communicating the information properly, but it also means communicating the right information factually and contextually. Hayakawa et al. (2016) suggested that decisions of individuals are directly affected by the way information is delivered, whether it is written in their native language or a foreign language. If a foreign language is used to craft a message, people would perceive and act on it with less risk in mind. Meanwhile, Hadjichristidis (2015) posited that stimuli or messages written in a foreign language would prompt more positive affect and induce lower judgments of risk and higher judgments of benefit compared with a native language.

Drawing from the suggestion of a typhoon survivor, this study explored the languages used by the media in reporting about the Coronavirus 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic. Specifically, this study investigated the effects of the languages used in media reports on the risk perceptions of consumers of information, particularly Filipino

workers. The languages observed were Filipino [*fil*] and English [*eng*], which are commonly used by media institutions in the Greater Metro Manila area. Primarily, the study asked if people perceive higher risk when reading information written in Filipino or if they perceive higher risk when reading the news in English.

This study was conducted from July to August 2020, four months after the first community quarantine/lockdown was declared in the Philippines. During this time, research on COVID-19 heavily focused on the health and security of the population, while risk perception and language use in the Philippine media had not been examined thoroughly. The researcher deemed the importance of studying the risk perceptions of Filipino workers because they were at high-risk of contracting the virus, especially those who work onsite, and their primary source of reliable information about COVID-19 came from media institutions. Additionally, this study can shed light on the response practices Filipinos employ depending on how they perceive their situation, whether they are at high-risk or low risk.

2 Review of Related Literature

2.1 Risk Perception

According to the *Encyclopedia of Behavioral Medicine* (Gellman & Turner, 2013), risk perceptions are beliefs of people about “potential harm or the possibility of a loss” (p. 1689). Because they are considered beliefs, risk perceptions are subjective. They represent the likelihood and consequences of the harmful effects of a phenomenon resulting from specific behaviors of individuals. Meanwhile, Paek and Hove (2017)

suggested that risk perception refers to “people’s subjective judgments about the likelihood of negative occurrences” (p. 5). It determines which hazards people care about and how they prepare for those hazards.

In essence, risk perception varies on an individual-to-individual basis. A person may perceive a raging storm as a high-risk catastrophe, while some individuals may have a low-risk perception of the same phenomenon. This is due to the idiosyncratic factors, both internal and external, that affect and surround individuals. As stated in the *Encyclopedia of Behavioral Medicine* (Gellman & Turner, 2013), there are three dimensions of perceived risk: (a) perceived likelihood or the probability that a hazard will harm one; (b) perceived susceptibility or an individual’s vulnerability to a hazard; and (c) perceived severity or the extent of harm a hazard would cause.

To further understand the concept of risk perception, three widely used approaches in the fields of risk perception research and risk communication are available: the Psychometric Approach, the Basic Risk Perception Model (BRPM), and the Social Amplification of Risk.

The Psychometric Approach, introduced by Fischhoff et al. (1978), utilizes questionnaires and factor-analytic procedures to determine dimensions of risk perceptions among individuals. The authors hypothesized that risk perceptions are multidimensional and can be measured using scales and numbers that reflect the characteristics of human risks (Af Wahlberg, 2001). An alternative to this approach is the BRPM, popularized by Sjöberg (1992). This approach expands on the psychometric dimensions of risk perceptions by incorporating factors such as attitude, risk sensitivity, specific fear, and, in some cases, trust.

In addition, the BRPM uses individuals as units of analysis, not merely as means of response, as operationalized in the Psychometric Approach.

Meanwhile, the Social Amplification of Risk is a sociological framework used in understanding risk perceptions. Formulated by Kasperson et al. (1988), the framework serves as a social analogy to communication theory, positing that people and organizations can act as “amplifiers” of risk messages that resonate through individuals and societies, thereby producing various effects on the community. It views risk as a “social construct and partly as an objective property of a hazard of an event” (Af Wahlberg, 2001, p. 240).

Among the three approaches discussed above, the Psychometric Approach and the BRPM are more commonly utilized by researchers in the field of risk perception because these frameworks primarily employ questionnaires and surveys as their methodology. Meanwhile, the Social Amplification of Risk approach incorporates experts’ judgments in rating the magnitude of an accident, calamity, or hazard.

The studies on risk perception presented below highlight key themes that illuminate how people perceive risk during a pandemic. These themes include knowledge of the virus, educational attainment of individuals, exposure and proximity to the virus, and the area of concern (e.g., country, locality), as well as the media as the news bearer.

Individuals’ knowledge of a virus is the primary determinant of their risk perception. Yet, various studies present opposing views. Some studies suggest that individuals who are knowledgeable about the virus tend to have a higher risk perception; however, other studies contradict this finding. For instance, Rübsamen et al. (2014) studied the risk perceptions of Germans about the Ebola virus disease (EVD). It was

revealed that while a substantial proportion of the respondents were concerned about EVD, only 29 percent expressed a strong level of worry. This can be attributed to the poor knowledge of Germans about the transmission routes of EVD and its actual risks in a European country that was not directly affected by the outbreak. When the study was conducted in November, Germany had yet to record a case. On the other hand, Rolison and Hanoach (2015) researched risk perception related to the EVD in the United States. They found that individuals who were more knowledgeable about EVD perceived less risk of contracting the virus, but they regarded contracting EVD as a serious sickness.

Related to this is the educational attainment of individuals. Wang (2017) conducted comparative research on risk perception of the Swine Influenza virus (SIV) among at-risk populations in China and the USA. Wang performed face-to-face questionnaire interviews among 67 swine workers in Hubei Province, China, and among 33 swine-related workers in North Carolina, USA. Interestingly, the pig farmers in Hubei Province had relatively low risk perceptions compared to the participants from North Carolina, the majority of whom were medical practitioners. The researcher attributed the low-risk perceptions of swine workers to their lower educational attainment. Consequently, swine workers had little knowledge about SIV.

Meanwhile, the researcher proposed that the moderate risk perceptions of medical practitioners from North Carolina were due to their greater knowledge about SIV infection. However, Lau et al. (2020) noted that while higher levels of education were associated with a greater understanding of COVID-19 transmission routes, appropriate preventive measures were not well identified. Nonetheless, individuals

who identified a greater number of transmission modes tended to adopt more preventive practices.

Exposure to a virus and proximity to a location with a high infection rate are also factors in individuals' risk perceptions, albeit with varying effects. Aside from the abovementioned, Wang (2017) also attributed the moderate risk perceptions of medical practitioners to the fact that they live in communities near pig farms, making the incidence of SIV a common sight to them. On the other hand, survey findings of Dryhurst et al. (2020) among 10 countries revealed that countries with higher confirmed cases of COVID-19 tend to have higher risk perceptions. The United Kingdom and Spain had 148,381 and 219,764 confirmed cases, respectively, when the survey was conducted between mid-March and mid-April of 2020. The researchers attributed this to the concept of "risk as analysis vs risk as feelings" (Weber, 2006, p. 1001), such that people who have had "visceral contact" with the virus strongly engage their affective experiential system, which is known to be activated during the processing of risk information. This finding is supported by the risk perception research of Peres et al. (2020) on COVID-19 among healthcare professionals and the general population in Portugal. The study revealed that healthcare professionals have higher risk perceptions compared to the general population. This is essentially due to their close contact with individuals who have been suspected or confirmed to have COVID-19.

Lastly, the media is a major contributor to the risk perception of individuals who consume information, especially the news. Contrary to the popular belief that income-poor families lack knowledge of the virus, most respondents (86 percent) in the face-to-face interviews

conducted by Lau et al. (2020) in the Philippines reported being aware of COVID-19. The number of individuals who were worried about contracting the virus was 1.31 percent greater for those who have a television. Peres et al. (2020) also noted that media coverage prompted a significant level of fear about COVID-19 in Portugal, while Rübsamen et al. (2014) wrote that those who increased their media consumption were more likely to be worried about EVD in Germany. On the other hand, Wang (2017) found that extensive media coverage of the 2009 H1N1 swine flu pandemic in the USA contributed to a moderate risk perception among medical practitioners.

From the studies presented above, it can be inferred that knowledge of the virus is a significant determinant of individuals' risk perception. Respondents who own a television had higher risk perceptions, and respondents who were more knowledgeable of the transmission routes practiced more preventive measures. It can also be said that close contact with individuals who contracted the virus affects an individual's risk perceptions of pandemics. Other factors that may influence risk perception are levels of education, proximity to an area with many confirmed cases, and people's exposure to media such as television and social media.

The last factor, exposure to media, is the focus of the present research. However, another factor is introduced in this study, the importance of the language used in news reports, which was not tackled in any of the research presented. As stated previously, the Psychometric Approach and the BRPM are more utilized by researchers in the field of risk perception. These frameworks were also used in the literature reviewed.

The present study employed the Psychometric Approach to determine the dimensions of risk perceptions among Filipino workers.

2.2 Language and Risk Perception

Language offers the best medium for communicating, processing, and conveying the abstract. Through the interaction of various arbitrary signs and sounds, language enables us to articulate our thoughts and express our experiences. This connection between language and individuals becomes a cultural reality (Corsen, 2009) and a system of living. Agar (1994, as cited in Ottenheimer & Pine, 2017) suggests that language can be a “prison,” an analogy to absolute linguistic determinism, or what he calls the “Strong Whorf” hypothesis.¹ Your language and culture dictate how you perceive the world; if your language does not have a term for a thing, you will not learn that thing.

On the other hand, language can be likened to a “room,” which provides a chance to leave while offering specific ways of perceiving things. Agar calls this the “Weaker Whorf” hypothesis. Your language and culture provide a framework for understanding the things around you; you can shift from one room to another (from one perspective to another) and return to your original room (perspective).

Gadamer (2004) postulated that “all kinds of human community are kinds of linguistic community” (p. 443). Linguistic community or speech community, as (Gumperz, 1972 as cited in Morgan, 2004) coined in 1968, is “[a]ny human aggregate characterized by regular and

¹Benjamin Lee Whorf (1956) posited that individuals have different ways of observing and evaluating their surroundings because they have different ‘grammars’ or language, the so-called linguistic relativity principle.

frequent interaction by means of a shared body of verbal signs and set off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language use” (p. 8). Meanwhile, Labov (1972 as cited in Morgan, 2004) emphasized that a speech community is not formed by any “marked agreement in the use of language elements” (p. 9), but rather by the continued participation in and utilization of shared norms or linguistic practices. The discussion on linguistic community or speech community is relevant in understanding human perception, as membership in a linguistic community affects the worldview of individuals.

This interconnectedness between language and culture fosters our connection with knowledge, enabling us to interpret the world through our unique cultural lens. For instance, the Yupik Inuit culture in Central Canada has several words associated with snow that are unique to the snow terms found in other Arctic countries. ‘Packed snow’ is known as *anuit*, while ‘snowdrift’ is termed as *natib-vik*, which is different from *mavsa*, a word used to denote ‘snowdrift overhang ready to fall’ (Corsen, 2009). Meanwhile, Philippine culture has various terms associated with the word *rice*. Rice planted in soil is called *palay* in Filipino. When the rice is served on a plate, it is called *kanin*. When the rice is softly cooked, it is called *malata*, but when it is overcooked, it is called *tutong*. This phenomenon illustrates the interconnectedness of language with culture and the cultural realities of a country or a specific speech community. As Corsen (2009) explained, issues or concepts that cultural communities regard as important are incorporated into their language systems, as evidenced by the number of words associated with those issues or concepts, which can be likened to the idea of linguistic relativity.

As a cultural resource, language also enables individuals to express emotions, a manifestation of our worldview. Each speech community has its repertoire of shared and varied cultural beliefs that include “personhood, sociality, emotions, knowledge, and human development” (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2012, p. 9). In his study on emotions and perceptions, Prinz (2002) found that individuals without access to a word (e.g., *happy*, *sad*)—their linguistic communities do not have equivalent words—were slower and less accurate in “perceptually classifying relevant facial expressions” (p. 120). It can be said that emotions are products of cultural intricacies. If a culture lacks a term for an emotion, that emotion has a reduced communicative function within that culture. If that emotion has a lesser function, then individuals from that culture have a limited mental representation of it. As Plebe and De La Cruz (2015) posited, emotions are sensitive to historical changes in a culture’s need to communicate related information to specific subjects.

Other aspects of language as a cultural resource include individuals’ perceptions and beliefs, such as risk perceptions. Hayakawa et al. (2016) suggested that individuals’ decisions are directly influenced by the way information is presented, whether it is written in their native language or a foreign language. If a foreign language is used to craft a message, people would perceive and act on it with less risk in mind. The researchers stated that a foreign language “might not” engage the emotional system of individuals as compared to using their native language. In addition, the disfluency of individuals in a foreign language could also contribute to this phenomenon, as the extra step of making sense of a foreign language could lead to more deliberative thinking.

Thus, overshadows the emotional system and increases the need for more careful consideration.

Meanwhile, Hadjichristidis (2015) posited that stimuli or messages written in a foreign language would prompt more positive affect and induce lower judgments of risk and higher judgments of benefit compared to those in a native language. This hypothesis is supplementary to earlier studies and research on bilingualism, which suggest that a foreign language “activates less affect” or “might not engage the emotional system” of individuals. In addition, the researchers postulated that foreign languages rely on automatic emotional processing. Yet, it could be said that the attenuation of emotions that accompanies foreign languages might promote analytical thinking more than emotional processing. This phenomenon is known as “cross-over interaction” (Hadjichristidis, 2015), whereby hazards are rated as less risky and more beneficial in a foreign language compared to a native language. As such, learning a foreign language reduces framing effects and increases the likelihood of making risky choices.

Hadjichristidis (2015) also revealed that the emotional gap between foreign and native languages is more apparent in negative words than in their positive counterparts. This can be attributed to the effect of a foreign language on the language processes of individuals. Foreign language increases the overall positive affect, which blocks access to distressing content while allowing access to positive content. Consequently, a foreign language “might preferentially” activate positive rather than negative associations (Caldwell-Harris, 2015).

3 Methodology

The primary goal of this research is to investigate the impact of the languages used by media institutions in reporting the COVID-19 outbreak in the Philippines on the risk perceptions of the Filipino working class. The study aimed to determine whether Filipinos perceive a higher risk when consuming information crafted in the Filipino language or when reading in the English language. The researcher opted to have workers as respondents in the study because this class continued to work outside their homes—although some were granted a work-from-home setup—even when the Enhanced Community Quarantine or the Modified Enhanced Community Quarantine² was declared, thus exposing them to a probable contraction of the virus. The languages observed in this research were Filipino and English, as these are the languages predominantly used by Philippine media institutions.

Snowball convenience sampling was employed to recruit 100 respondents, 50 males and 50 females. This sampling technique was used because this study was conducted entirely online, due to the quarantine measures implemented at the time. This sampling technique allowed the researcher to access individuals who are qualified to be respondents of the research, outside his social network, through referrals. Snowball convenience sampling was also used by Peres et al. (2020). Meanwhile, 100 respondents were recruited as the minimum

²The Philippine government introduced various community quarantines during the COVID-19 outbreak to contain the rapid transmission of the virus. The most stringent is the Enhanced Community Quarantine wherein mobility is generally restricted with public transpiration suspended. The less strict version is the Modified Enhanced Community Quarantine wherein some public activities are allowed.

statistically meaningful sample size. To ease the process of looking for respondents, the researcher posted the online survey form on various Viber and Messenger groups. An informed consent note (see Appendix) was provided at the beginning of the survey to emphasize that participation is voluntary and that respondents may withdraw from any part of the survey at any time.

The research employed quantitative methods, primarily online questionnaires, to assess the risk perceptions of Filipino workers. This method was also used in the studies presented in the related literature (e.g., Dryhurst et al., 2020; Peres et al., 2020; Rolison & Hanoch, 2015; Rübsamen et al., 2014; and Wang, 2017). However, instead of simply asking if respondents were worried about contracting COVID-19, the researcher used words, headlines, and news clippings written and delivered in both Filipino and English to assess the respondents' risk perceptions. Words frequently used in the coverage of COVID-19 were utilized as the basic unit of information that can trigger risk perception. Headlines were included because—due to the advent of social media—many Filipino online users now only read headlines on their social media feeds instead of clicking on the link to the full news (Chua, 2021). Lastly, news clippings were used because most Filipinos prefer watching the news to reading it (Chua, 2025; Pulse Asia Research, Inc., 2021).

The respondents assessed their risk perceptions using a five-point Likert scale as shown in Figure 1. The Likert scale was also utilized in the research presented above (e.g., Dryhurst et al., 2020; Peres et al., 2020; Rolison & Hanoch, 2015; Rübsamen et al., 2014; and Wang, 2017). In the survey form, Tagalog translations were provided per point.



Figure 1. Five-point Likert Scale for Assessing Risk Perceptions

The online survey was divided into four sections: (a) demographics (sex, age, educational attainment, and work sector), (b) words (presented as audio), (c) headlines, and (d) news clippings (presented as video). The respondents were asked for the following information: sex, age, educational attainment, and work sector. Educational attainment is not always included in risk perception surveys; however, the researcher included this information because the literature suggests that levels of education affect individuals' risk perceptions (e.g., Lau et al., 2020; Wang, 2017).

The second section of the survey assessed the risk perceptions of the respondents using words commonly used in the reportage of the COVID-19 outbreak in the Philippines (see Appendix). The researcher compiled 20 words, both in Filipino and English, and arranged those in a manner that equivalent words or translations will not be presented one after the other. The words were placed in this manner: Eng-Eng-Fil-Eng-Fil-Fil-Eng-Fil-Eng-Fil (and repeat). The words chosen are the ones used by the World Health Organization (WHO)³, and those can be found in the online COVID-19 dictionary of Google. Instead of reading the words, the respondents were asked to listen to the recorded words and rate their perceptions of risk. The researcher recorded the

³“Impormasyong pampubliko” from WHO: <<https://www.who.int/philippines/emergencies/covid-19-response-in-the-philippines/impormasyong-pampubliko>>.

words to achieve a “real-time” answer from the respondents. This was done to satisfy the multimodal comprehension utilized in receiving the news: reading, listening, and viewing.

The third section comprises headlines from various online media agencies. The researcher compiled 10 headlines, both in Filipino and English, posted from January to June 2020 (see Appendix). To arrive at a selection, the researcher used the “Tools” tab in Google to manipulate the date range of news (January to June 2020). The researcher randomly picked one news article from January and February (a total of two) and two news articles from March, April, May, and June (a total of eight). The researcher ensured that both Filipino and English headlines would include numbers. The headlines were arranged alternately in a manner that Filipino headlines come after English headlines to balance the appearance of the languages. In terms of the month, the headlines were ordered randomly: Jan, Apr, Feb, June, Mar, June, Mar, May, May, Apr. In this section, respondents were asked to read the headlines and rate their perceptions of risk.

Lastly, the fourth section comprises news clippings from various broadcasting agencies. The researcher used five videos, three in Filipino and two in English, which were uploaded to YouTube from January to June 2020 (see Appendix). Similar to the headlines section, the researcher used the “Tools” tab in Google’s search engine. The researcher also randomly picked one news clipping from each month except February, the month before the first lockdown was announced in the Philippines. The researcher avoided news clippings that reported large numbers to minimize the “number effect.” The videos were trimmed to 30 seconds and arranged in the following sequence: Eng-Fil-Fil-Eng-

Fil. The respondents were asked to watch the videos and rate their perceptions of risk. Answers were recorded in an Excel sheet formulated by the researcher.

After data gathering, which transpired from 1 to 4 July 2020, the researcher sorted the data into the following variables: sex, age, educational attainment, and work sector. Descriptive statistics were used in this research to determine the average rate of risk perceptions of the respondents. The statistical measure of mean was used to identify which words, headlines, and news clippings have high-risk perceptions, with the end goal of determining which language poses higher risk: the Filipino or English language.

4 Results and Discussion

This research investigated the relationship between the languages used by media institutions in reporting about COVID-19 and the risk perceptions of Filipino workers. As stated in the previous section, descriptive statistics were used in analyzing the data, primarily the statistical measure of mean, without accounting for the statistical difference and correlation of various data identified in the demographics section of the survey. The primary goal of the study is to identify which language, English or Filipino, elicits a high-risk response from the respondents.

In general, female respondents have higher risk perceptions compared to their male counterparts. The work sector with the consistently low risk perception is the BPO sector among female respondents. In terms of the language used, the risk perceptions of the

Table 1. Demographic Distribution

	Female	Male
Age		
20-24	30	20
25-29	15	18
30-34	1	7
35-39	4	2
40-44	0	2
45-49	0	1
Educational Attainment		
Undergraduate	36	29
Graduate	12	7
Secondary	2	14
Work Sector		
Agriculture	2	1
BPO	5	3
Construction	1	14
Education	23	12
Finance	2	1
Freelance	0	2
Home-based	0	1
IT	9	4
Media	6	5
Musician	0	2
OFW	0	1
Professional	1	0
Retail	1	3
TOTAL	50	50

respondents vary from the words frequently used in headlines to the news clippings.

Table 1 shows the demographic distribution of the individuals who responded to the online survey. The ages of respondents range from 20 to 49 years old. However, no female respondents are aged 40 to 49. In terms of educational attainment, most respondents (65 percent), both female and male, hold undergraduate degrees. Respondents came from 14 work sectors. For females, 46 percent came from the field of education. For males, most of the respondents were from the construction and education sectors.

For data analysis, the data gathered were sorted into four variables: (a) by sex, (b) by sex and age, (c) by sex and educational attainment, and (d) by sex and work sector. The common factor for each variable is sex, as supported by the literature, which indicates that females typically have a higher risk perception than males (e.g., Dryhurst et al., 2020; Wang, 2017).

4.1 Risk Perception for Words

Table 2 presents the commonly used words in the reporting of the COVID-19 outbreak in the Philippines, as well as the risk perceptions of females and males. Table 3 and Table 4 present the risk perceptions of females and males by age and educational attainment, respectively. The risk perceptions of respondents, sorted by work sector, are presented in the Appendix.

Generally, consistent with the literature, females have a higher risk perception across all four variables. However, in contrast to the findings of Wang (2017), the age groups with relatively higher risk perceptions

are 35-39 for females and 30-34 for males, which are age groups in the middle of the age range.

Table 2. Risk Perceptions of Respondents by Sex for Words

	Female	Male
pandemic	4.60	4.22
quarantine	3.40	3.24
namatay	4.52	4.20
isolate	3.08	2.92
positibo	3.92	3.60
pagkalat	4.02	3.84
infectious	4.26	4.04
walang sintomas	3.04	2.96
virus	4.14	3.84
pagdami	3.84	3.50
outbreak	4.58	3.96
asymptomatic	3.72	3.50
mikrobyo	3.44	3.20
spread	3.70	3.50
ihawalay	2.78	2.70
nakahahawa	4.28	4.04
positive	3.90	3.56
kwarantina	3.46	3.30
death	4.00	3.76
pandemya	4.62	4.14
Mean	3.87	3.60

The youngest age group for females has the lowest risk perception, while the youngest age group for males is below the average risk perception of the 30-34 age group, which has the highest risk perception.

Table 3. Risk Perceptions of Respondents by Sex and Age for Words

	20-24		25-29		30-34		35-39		40-44		45-49	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
pandemic	4.51	4.60	4.82	4.00	5.00	4.71	4.67	3.00	0	3.50	0	1.00
quarantine	3.37	3.40	3.82	3.39	3.00	3.00	2.33	1.50	0	4.00	0	1.00
namatay	4.51	4.55	4.36	4.11	5.00	4.57	5.00	1.50	0	4.50	0	1.00
isolate	2.97	3.00	3.36	2.94	3.00	3.43	3.33	1.50	0	2.50	0	1.00
positibo	3.71	3.95	4.36	3.39	3.00	4.00	5.00	1.50	0	3.50	0	2.00
pagkalat	3.91	4.05	4.09	3.83	4.00	4.14	5.00	2.00	0	4.00	0	1.00
infectious	4.34	4.30	3.91	4.00	5.00	4.29	4.33	1.50	0	4.50	0	2.00
walang sintomas	2.91	3.10	3.18	2.83	3.00	3.43	4.00	2.00	0	2.50	0	2.00
virus	4.14	4.15	4.00	3.83	5.00	3.57	4.33	3.00	0	3.00	0	3.00
pagdami	3.74	3.55	3.91	3.50	3.00	3.86	5.00	2.00	0	4.00	0	2.00
outbreak	4.54	4.40	4.55	4.06	5.00	3.86	5.00	2.00	0	2.50	0	1.00
asymptomatic	3.94	3.85	3.09	3.39	2.00	3.71	4.00	2.00	0	2.50	0	2.00
mikrobyo	3.40	3.30	3.09	3.17	5.00	3.00	4.67	3.00	0	3.50	0	3.00
spread	3.69	3.60	3.45	3.50	3.00	3.71	5.00	2.00	0	3.00	0	4.00
ihwalay	2.83	2.50	2.91	2.78	3.00	3.14	1.67	2.00	0	3.50	0	2.00
nakahahawa	4.34	4.40	4.00	3.94	3.00	4.29	5.00	2.00	0	3.50	0	2.00
positive	3.91	3.95	4.00	3.22	3.00	3.86	3.67	2.00	0	4.00	0	2.00
kwarentina	3.40	3.35	3.55	3.11	3.00	4.00	4.00	2.00	0	4.00	0	2.00
death	4.00	3.85	4.27	3.72	3.00	4.29	3.33	2.00	0	4.00	0	2.00
pandemya	4.63	4.55	4.64	4.22	3.00	3.86	5.00	2.00	0	4.00	0	1.00
Mean	3.84	3.82	3.87	3.55	3.60	3.84	4.22	2.03	0	3.53	0	1.85

The findings of Wang (2017) and Lau et al. (2020) on the correlation between educational attainment and risk perception—individuals with lower (higher) educational attainment have low-risk (high-risk) perceptions—are inconsistent with those of this research. The females who finished secondary education recorded the highest risk perception, with a mean response of 4.15, while males with a secondary education diploma ranked second in risk perception, at 3.60.

Table 4. Risk Perceptions of Respondents by Sex and Educational Attainment for Words

	High School		Undergraduate		Graduate	
	F	M	F	M	F	M
pandemic	5.00	3.57	4.56	4.38	4.67	4.86
quarantine	2.00	3.14	3.42	3.24	3.58	3.43
namatay	5.00	3.71	4.50	4.31	4.50	4.71
isolate	3.00	3.21	3.14	2.72	2.92	3.14
positibo	5.00	3.36	3.81	3.48	4.08	4.57
pagkalat	5.00	3.79	3.92	3.69	4.17	4.57
infectious	4.00	3.79	4.22	4.14	4.42	4.14
walang sintomas	5.00	3.43	2.83	2.83	3.33	2.57
virus	4.00	4.00	3.97	3.52	4.67	4.86
pagdami	5.00	3.79	3.69	3.31	4.08	3.71
outbreak	5.00	3.64	4.50	4.03	4.75	4.29
asymptomatic	4.00	3.64	3.64	3.24	3.92	4.29
mikrobyo	5.00	3.57	3.28	2.76	3.67	4.29
spread	5.00	3.71	3.61	3.34	3.75	3.71
ihawalay	1.00	3.36	2.81	2.48	3.00	2.29
nakahahawa	5.00	3.86	4.17	4.03	4.50	4.43
positive	3.00	3.64	3.89	3.38	4.08	4.14
kwarantina	4.00	3.64	3.36	3.21	3.67	3.00
death	3.00	3.50	3.92	3.86	4.42	3.86
pandemya	5.00	3.64	4.58	4.21	4.67	4.86
Mean	4.15	3.60	3.79	3.51	4.04	3.99

The work sector with the highest risk perception for females is the finance sector, with a mean response of 4.30, while males from the retail field recorded the highest risk perception at 4.13. On the other hand, the lowest risk perception is observed from the BPO sector for both female and male respondents. The low-risk perception of BPO workers

can be attributed to the fact that most of them are working from home, unlike workers in the retail sector who need to go out to buy and sell goods. This is consistent with the conclusion of Dryhurst et al. (2020) that individuals with less potential exposure to the virus, in this case, individuals who stay at home, have lower risk perceptions.

Across all variables, female and male respondents perceive the words *pandemic* and *pandemya* as high-risk. Other words which are rated as high-risk are *namatay* and *outbreak*. Interestingly, their counterparts, *death* and *pagkalat*, are rated lower by the respondents. This can be explained by the frequency of use of the words in the media: the former are often heard in the news, while the latter are seldom used. While it was not asked in the online survey, the literature suggests that individuals who are more exposed to the media, in this case, the news, have higher risk perceptions compared to those who have lesser exposure (Lau et al., 2020; Peres et al., 2020; Rübsamen et al., 2014).

4.2 Risk Perception for Headlines

Table 5 shows the risk perceptions of females and males on the headlines they assessed. Table 6 and Table 7 present the risk perceptions of the respondents regarding the headlines by age and educational attainment, respectively. The risk perceptions of respondents sorted by work sector are in the Appendix.

Consistent with earlier findings on the words commonly used in COVID-19 reportage, female respondents reported higher risk perceptions compared to males. The 35-39 age group still recorded the highest risk perception among females. On the other hand, the 20-24

Table 5. Risk Perceptions of Respondents by Sex for Headlines

	Female	Male
Philippines confirms first case...	3.98	3.58
Kaso ng COVID-19 sa bansa...	4.56	4.04
DFA: 49 Filipinos aboard...	4.22	3.66
Ilang Philhealth benefits...	4.28	3.98
Philippines under state of...	4.66	4.12
UP experts: Aabot nang 40,000...	4.76	4.20
Philippines reports second...	4.02	3.76
‘Highest sa isang araw:’ COVID-19 cases...	4.74	4.22
PH coronavirus cases reach...	4.68	4.20
DOH: Sa ‘worst case scenario,’...	4.84	4.46
Mean	4.47	4.02

age group for males has the highest risk perception, which is consistent with Wang’s (2017) findings.

For this variable, the conclusions of Wang (2017) and Lau et al. (2020) are now evident in the data generated from male respondents. The highest risk perception is recorded among those who have finished a graduate degree, with a mean response of 4.17. In contrast, respondents who have completed secondary-level education exhibit the lowest risk perception. On the other hand, females who have completed undergraduate degrees have the lowest risk perception, with a mean response of 4.39, which is consistent with the findings of their cohort earlier.

The work sector with the highest risk perception for females is the finance sector, again, with a mean response of 4.85. However, it cannot be ascertained whether respondents from this sector report to the office

Table 6. Risk Perceptions of Respondents by Sex and Age for Headlines

	20-24		25-29		30-34		35-39		40-44		45-49	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Philippines confirms first case...	4.09	4.05	3.82	3.50	5.00	3.71	3.00	2.00	0	1.50	0	2.00
Kaso ng COVID-19 sa bansa...	4.57	4.45	4.36	3.78	5.00	4.29	5.00	3.00	0	4.00	0	1.00
DFA: 49 Filipinos aboard...	4.23	3.85	3.91	3.33	5.00	4.14	5.00	3.50	0	4.50	0	1.00
Ilang Philhealth benefits...	4.40	4.45	3.91	3.50	5.00	4.14	4.00	3.50	0	4.50	0	2.00
Philippines under state of...	4.63	4.40	4.64	4.00	5.00	4.57	5.00	2.50	0	4.00	0	1.00
UP experts: Aabot nang 40,000...	4.80	4.65	4.73	3.83	5.00	4.43	4.33	3.00	0	4.50	0	2.00
Philippines reports second...	4.03	3.75	3.73	3.78	5.00	4.29	4.67	3.50	0	3.00	0	2.00
'Highest sa isang araw:' COVID-19 cases...	4.80	4.60	4.55	3.89	5.00	4.43	4.67	3.50	0	4.50	0	2.00
PH coronavirus cases reach...	4.71	4.55	4.73	4.00	5.00	4.29	4.00	3.50	0	4.50	0	1.00
DOH: Sa 'worst case scenario,'...	4.89	4.75	4.64	4.17	5.00	4.71	5.00	4.00	0	5.00	0	2.00
Mean	4.51	4.35	4.30	3.78	5.00	4.30	4.47	3.20	0	4.00	0	1.60

every day or have work-from-home arrangements. Meanwhile, the music sector for males recorded the highest risk perception at 5.00. The lowest risk perception is observed again in the BPO sector for females, while the construction sector records the lowest risk perception for males.

With regards to the headlines, two headlines written in Filipino have the highest risk perceptions across variables: “DOH: Sa ‘worst case scenario,’ *aabot nang 2021 ang COVID-19 crisis sa Pilipinas*” and “‘Highest *sa isang araw:*’ COVID-19 cases *sa Pinas sumirit nang 539, umabot sa 15,588.*” While it can be argued that more than the language

Table 7. Risk Perceptions of Respondents by Sex and Educational Attainment for Headlines

	High School		Undergraduate		Graduate	
	F	M	F	M	F	M
Philippines confirms first case...	3.00	3.07	3.92	3.79	4.33	3.71
Kaso ng COVID-19 sa bansa...	5.00	3.50	4.47	4.21	4.75	4.43
DFA: 49 Filipinos aboard...	5.00	3.43	4.14	3.62	4.33	4.29
Ilang Philhealth benefits...	4.00	3.43	4.19	4.31	4.58	3.71
Philippines under state of...	5.00	3.36	4.56	4.38	4.92	4.57
UP experts: Aabot						
UP experts: Aabot	5.00	3.50	4.69	4.45	4.92	4.57
Philippines reports second...	5.00	3.29	3.89	3.79	4.25	4.57
‘Highest sa isang araw:’ COVID-19 cases...	5.00	3.50	4.64	4.41	5.00	4.86
PH coronavirus cases reach...	4.00	3.57	4.61	4.38	5.00	4.71
DOH: Sa ‘worst case scenario,’...	5.00	3.79	4.78	4.69	5.00	4.86
Mean	4.60	3.44	4.39	4.20	4.71	4.43

used, these headlines contain “alarming” phrases (e.g., ‘worst case scenario’ and ‘highest *sa isang araw*’) that trigger high-risk response, other headlines also contain the same “alarming” message and number (e.g., “PH coronavirus cases reach 14,669, with 886 deaths” and “Philippines under state of calamity due to COVID-19”). Actually, the

two English headlines stated are the two headlines with the highest risk perceptions in the English language. Yet, it can be said that the words used in the Filipino headlines are rooted in the everyday lives of Filipinos (*kamalayang Pilipino*). As Hadjichristidis (2015) postulated, messages written in a foreign language elicit a more positive effect compared to messages written in the native language; therefore, the Filipino headlines are rated as high-risk.

4.3 Risk Perception for News Clippings

Table 8 presents the risk perceptions of females and males on the five videos reporting on the COVID-19 situation in the Philippines. Table 9 and Table 10 present the risk perceptions of females and males regarding the video clips, categorized by age and educational attainment, respectively. The risk perception of respondents on the news clippings by work sector is in the Appendix.

Table 8. Risk Perceptions of Respondents by Sex for News Clippings

	Female	Male
Video 1	4.16	3.90
Video 2	4.26	3.96
Video 3	3.40	3.26
Video 4	4.18	3.88
Video 5	4.22	3.84
Mean	4.04	3.77

The observation that females have relatively higher risk perceptions is consistent up to the last variable of this study. Additionally, the age group of 35-39 for females has been recording the highest risk perception,

Table 9. Risk Perceptions of Respondents by Sex and Age for News Clippings

	20-24		25-29		30-34		35-39		40-44		45-49	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Video 1	4.11	4.10	4.09	3.61	5.00	4.57	4.67	3.0	0	4.50	0	1.00
Video 2	4.14	4.20	4.36	3.67	5.00	4.43	5.00	3.0	0	5.00	0	1.00
Video 3	3.51	3.30	2.82	2.83	4.00	4.29	4.00	3.0	0	4.50	0	1.00
Video 4	4.11	4.25	4.18	3.56	5.00	4.29	4.67	3.0	0	4.00	0	1.00
Video 5	4.23	3.95	4.18	3.78	5.00	4.29	4.00	2.5	0	4.50	0	1.00
Mean	4.02	3.96	3.93	3.49	4.80	4.37	4.47	2.9	0	4.50	0	1.00

Table 10. Risk Perceptions of Respondents by Sex and Educational Attainment for News Clippings

	High School		Undergraduate		Graduate	
	F	M	F	M	F	M
Video 1	5.00	3.50	4.06	4.03	4.33	4.14
Video 2	5.00	3.50	4.17	4.07	4.42	4.43
Video 3	4.00	3.29	3.28	3.21	3.67	3.43
Video 4	5.00	3.36	4.03	3.93	4.50	4.71
Video 5	4.00	3.43	4.14	3.97	4.50	4.14
Mean	4.60	3.41	3.93	3.84	4.28	4.17

while for males, the age group of 30-34 has the highest risk perception. A conclusive correlation between age and risk perception is not observed in this research, as female and male respondents exhibit varying results. Additionally, the knowledge factor, which was used in Rolison and Hanoch (2015) and Rübsamen et al. (2014), is not asked in the online survey.

Meanwhile, data from male respondents also present the same trend: those who received graduate degrees have the highest risk perception, with a mean response of 4.17. In contrast, males with secondary degree diplomas had the lowest risk perception, at 3.41. On the other hand, data from females still show contrasting results from the study of Wang (2017) and Lau et al. (2020), as females who finished secondary level recorded the highest risk perception at 4.60 mean response. The inconsistency in the results can be attributed to the missing factor, which was not asked in the survey: the respondents' knowledge about COVID-19. Moreso, Lau et al. (2020) note that even though individuals with higher educational attainment have higher risk perceptions, this does not translate into active preventive measures.

Across all variables, female respondents from the BPO sector recorded the lowest risk perceptions. Meanwhile, females from the agriculture sector exhibited the highest risk perceptions in this variable. For males, construction workers again recorded the lowest risk perceptions, while male respondents from the music sector recorded the highest risk perceptions for the second time. While no work sector consistently evokes a high-risk perception from both female and male respondents, female respondents in the BPO sector consistently exhibit a low-risk perception. As mentioned above, BPO workers at the onset of the pandemic were mostly working from home.

Unlike the earlier findings on the words and headlines used to report on COVID-19, there is no news clipping that consistently elicited a high-risk response. Yet, the news clipping that is perceived as low risk by respondents across all variables is video 3 with the headline, "*Pagse-spray ng alcohol sa katawan, 'di nirerekomenda ng WHO,*" written in

the Filipino language. During the time the survey was conducted, the demand for rubbing alcohol was high as the World Health Organization and the Department of Health of the Philippines advised the public to frequently clean their hands using soap and water or rubbing alcohol. This should trigger a high-risk response, but respondents think otherwise. Clearly, this is not a case of disfluency, as Hayakawa et al. (2016) noted, because “alcohol,” while an English word, has been part of the everyday vocabulary of Filipinos. It can be attributed then to Rolison and Hanoch’s (2015) conclusion that individuals with greater knowledge of the preventive measures against the virus, in this case, the use of rubbing alcohol, tend to have lower risk perceptions.

5 Summary and Conclusion

The findings of this study support the existing literature, which suggests that females tend to have higher risk perceptions than males. In terms of age and educational attainment, the results for female and male respondents differ, making it difficult to formulate generalizations. Meanwhile, although there is no work sector with a consistently high-risk perception, the BPO sector has the lowest risk perception among female respondents across variables, which aligns with the literature.

The words that female and male respondents, across four variables, perceived as high-risk are *pandemya* and *pandemic*. Yet, *pandemic* accumulated a higher risk perception than *pandemya*. The headlines that the respondents perceived as high-risk are all written in the Filipino language. The top three headlines are: “UP experts: *Aabot nang* 40,000

COVID-19 cases *sa Pilipinas ngayong Hunyo*,” “‘Highest *sa isang araw*:’ COVID-19 cases *sa Pinas* sumirit nang 539, *umabot sa* 15,588,” and “DOH: *Sa* ‘worst case scenario,’ *aabot nang* 2021 *ang* COVID-19 crisis *sa Pilipinas*.” On the other hand, there is no apparent video that the respondents perceived as high-risk. However, video 3 received the lowest risk perception across the four variables. This video with the headline, “*Pagse-spray ng alcohol sa katawan, ‘di nirerekomenda ng WHO*,” is delivered in the Filipino language.

The literature suggests that information crafted or delivered using the native language triggers a higher risk compared to information in foreign languages (Hadjichristidis, 2015; Hayakawa et al., 2016). This finding is not completely observed in this research. While the three headlines in the Filipino language elicited high-risk responses, video 3, delivered in the Filipino language, received the lowest risk perception. Additionally, the word *pandemic*, an English term, elicited the highest risk response among the words frequently used in the reporting of COVID-19.

Thus, it can be surmised that both the Filipino and English languages trigger high-risk responses from the Filipino workers surveyed. Several Filipinos are proficient in English, and most of us have English as a second language; thus, we no longer experience “disfluency” in making sense of information written in the English language. Additionally, when the media first reported about the COVID-19 outbreak in the country, the word that was constantly used to refer to the phenomenon was *pandemic* more than *pandemya*. As such, this concept was absorbed into the consciousness (*kamalayan*) of many Filipinos, as the term *pandemic*

has been continuously used in the media, on social media, and in everyday conversations.

Being bilingual, Filipinos have two ways of perceiving the world: one through the Filipino language and culture, and the other through the American language and culture. This is what Agar (1994) proposed, likening language to a room (the Weak Whorf hypothesis). Filipinos reading or watching the news about COVID-19 can shift their perspectives; they can enter a specific “room” depending on which language is used in the media. As Athanasopoulos (2015) posited, bilingual speakers seemed to switch between perspectives based on the language most active in their minds. Moreover, respondents of the survey came from different work sectors and, thus, belong to various linguistic or speech communities. Some of these communities use English as their primary language of communication (e.g., BPO, finance, IT). In contrast, some communities use English and Filipino simultaneously (e.g., education, freelance, media, police, professional, retail).

Unfortunately, language attitudes in the Philippines have placed a premium on learning to speak English fluently—much like native Americans—that the language has carried a higher social status. The notion generated, thus far, is that Filipinos who speak in English are educated, literate, and socialites. However, this is largely observed in urban areas and in the middle to higher social classes. Filipinos living in poverty, who do not have access to education, mostly use the Filipino language (e.g., the language or dialect in their area).

That being said, media institutions should continue to use both languages in reporting. In particular, news stations on free-to-air TV

channels that do not require a cable subscription should continue using Filipino, as this is more accessible to the general public. Meanwhile, government agencies concerned with disaster and public health should assess how they communicate information to the public. Instead of relying on media institutions to deliver information that is comprehensible to all, communication teams within these agencies should formulate ways to make their announcements easily digestible to the public.

Indeed, as Weiler (2015) noted, being bilingual has its advantages. Filipinos, for instance, “may get the best of both worldviews as their thinking can be more flexible” (para. 1). This study has revealed that both the Filipino and English languages may evoke a high-risk perception among Filipinos. However, whether this risk perception translates to action or an appropriate response should be interrogated in future studies.

6 Recommendations

This study explored the risk perceptions of COVID-19 among the Filipino working class. However, instead of simply asking whether Filipinos perceive risk about the current situation, words, headlines, and videos reporting about the outbreak of COVID-19 were used to elicit their risk perception. Due to the pandemic, the data gathering was conducted online using an online survey form.

Having said that, the researcher recommends face-to-face data gathering. Instead of administering the survey form individually, future researchers can conduct a simultaneous answering of the survey

wherein they will read the words and headlines out loud as respondents rate their risk perceptions. Researchers can also have the respondents watch the videos at the same time. This procedure is recommended to achieve a “real-time” response from the respondents. The researcher also recommends a relatively larger sample size. Future researchers can also explore having a concentrated population. For instance, they can limit the respondents to BPO workers or high school graduates to isolate a variable.

As presented in the literature review, some factors that influence the risk perceptions of individuals include their contact with people who contracted the virus and their proximity to an area with many confirmed cases. Having said that, the researcher recommends including in the demographics section of the survey the health declaration information of the respondents and the place they are residing in. Other factors that can be included are the work set-up of the respondents (e.g., work-from-home, onsite, or hybrid), the respondents’ knowledge of the virus (e.g., virus transmission, symptoms, and virus incubation period), and the respondents’ self-reported proficiency in English and Filipino. These factors were mentioned to be lacking in the present research.

Since this study involves the media as the source of information, the researcher recommends including the following factors in the survey: (a) media platforms where respondents get information, (b) the number of hours respondents spend consuming information, and (c) the preferred language of respondents when reading information. Additionally, future researchers may quantify the frequency of COVID-19-related terms as used in news reports. These factors, aside

from bringing another layer of analysis, may prove to be influential in the risk perceptions of the respondents. Lastly, future researchers may consider doing mixed-methods research. They may employ qualitative methods such as conducting interviews or focus group discussions.

Outside of the research, the researcher recommends that local media institutions outside of Greater Metro Manila continue using their local languages. Local media can refer to the projects initiated by the University of the Philippines Diliman Department of Linguistics, the Language Warriors PH, and the Philippine Institute of Volcanology and Seismology, the DANAS project, for materials relating to COVID-19 and disaster preparedness translated into various local languages. While there are English terms that cannot be directly translated, it is still better to explain concepts in their local language, especially if these have something to do with health and disaster. The same goes for government agencies in the provinces. Their communication teams must study well the composition of their locality to know the languages they speak, instead of just echoing information from the central office. Lastly, the researcher recommends that policymakers explore the possibility of empowering barangays in terms of communicating disaster risk response and health management information. Barangay officials are the most familiar with the situation and composition of their barangays, which will be beneficial in knowing how to best communicate information that is of value to individuals' safety and wellness.

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8 Appendix

8.1 Informed consent note before taking the survey



Language and Risk Perception Survey

Good day!

You are about to answer a survey for a study entitled "The Languages Used in Philippine News Agencies and the Risk Perceptions of Filipino Workers During the Outbreak of COVID-19". This research scrutinizes the effect of the languages used in the news to the risk perceptions of the consumers of the information. The survey is composed of three parts namely: words (audio), headlines, and news clippings (video).

Participation in this survey is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time, without prejudice, should you object to the nature of the research. You are entitled to ask questions after your participation.

Your answers will be recorded. All data will be kept in secured files.

Regards,
Mark Kevin P. Reginio, LPT
mpreginio@up.edu.ph

8.2 List of Words

pandemic	outbreak
quarantine	asymptomatic
namatay	mikrobyo
isolate	spread
positibo	ihawalay
pagkalat	nakahahawa
infectious	positive
walang sintomas	kwarentina
virus	death
pagdami	pandemya

8.3 List of headlines

Philippines confirms first case of novel coronavirus
Kaso ng COVID-19 sa bansa lagpas 3,000 na, patay umakyat na sa 136
DFA: 49 Filipinos aboard Diamond Princess test positive for COVID-19
Ilang Philhealth benefits baka suspendihin sa gitna ng COVID-19
Philippines under state of calamity due to COVID-19
UP experts: Aabot nang 40,000 COVID-19 cases sa Pilipinas ngayong Hunyo
Philippines reports second COVID-19 death
‘Highest sa isang araw.’ COVID-19 cases sa Pinas sumirit nang 539, umabot sa 15,588
PH coronavirus cases reach 14,669, with 886 deaths
DOH: Sa ‘worst case scenario,’ aabot nang 2021 ang COVID-19 crisis sa Pilipinas

8.4 List of headlines of news clippings

Authorities monitoring 5-year-old boy with coronavirus
 Kaso ng COVID-19 sa Pinas umakyat sa 6; local transmission kinumpirma
 Pagse-spray ng alcohol sa katawan, 'di nirerekomenda ng WHO
 Roque: PH is still on first wave of infections
 I12 na lugar sa bansa, nasa localized lockdown -DILG

8.5 Risk perceptions of respondents by sex and work sector for Words

	Agri		BPO		Construct		Educ		Finance		Freelance		Home		IT		Media		Music		OFW		Police		Prof		Retail	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Philippines...	3.00	5.00	3.40	4.33	5.00	2.57	4.00	3.50	5.00	5.00	0	3.50	0	3.00	4.22	3.50	4.17	4.80	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	3.00	0	3.00	3.67
Kaso ng...	5.00	5.00	3.80	4.00	4.00	3.29	4.70	4.08	5.00	5.00	0	4.50	0	3.00	4.44	4.25	5.00	4.60	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	3.00	0	4.00	4.67
DFA...	5.00	5.00	3.80	3.33	5.00	3.43	4.22	3.17	5.00	5.00	0	3.50	0	3.00	4.22	4.00	4.17	3.60	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	3.00	0	4.00	4.67
Ilang Phil...	4.00	5.00	4.20	4.67	5.00	3.50	4.09	4.08	5.00	5.00	0	4.00	0	3.00	4.56	4.00	4.67	4.20	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	4.00	0	3.00	3.33
Philippines...	5.00	5.00	4.40	5.00	5.00	3.29	4.61	4.33	5.00	5.00	0	4.50	0	3.00	4.67	4.25	4.67	4.60	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	5.00	0	5.00	4.00
UP...	5.00	5.00	4.40	5.00	5.00	3.71	4.78	4.17	5.00	5.00	0	4.50	0	3.00	4.67	4.00	4.83	4.60	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	5.00	0	5.00	4.33
Philippines...	5.00	5.00	3.20	4.33	4.00	3.36	4.00	3.50	4.50	5.00	0	3.00	0	3.00	4.33	3.75	4.17	3.80	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	3.00	0	3.00	4.67
Highest...	5.00	5.00	4.40	4.67	5.00	3.64	4.74	4.17	5.00	5.00	0	5.00	0	3.00	4.78	4.25	5.00	4.60	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	4.00	0	4.00	4.67
PH corona...	4.00	5.00	4.40	4.33	5.00	3.64	4.74	4.33	4.00	5.00	0	4.50	0	3.00	4.78	4.50	5.00	4.20	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	4.00	0	5.00	4.67
DOH...	5.00	5.00	4.60	5.00	5.00	3.86	4.87	4.67	5.00	5.00	0	5.00	0	3.00	4.67	4.50	5.00	4.60	0	5.00	0	5.00	0	5.00	5.00	0	5.00	4.67
Mean	4.60	5.00	4.06	4.47	4.80	3.43	4.47	4.00	4.85	5.00	0	4.20	0	3.00	4.53	4.10	4.67	4.36	0	5.00	0	4.10	0	5.00	3.90	0	4.10	4.33

8.6 Risk perceptions of respondents by sex and work sector for News Clippings

	Agri		BPO		Construct		Educ		Finance		Freelance		Home		IT		Media		Music		OFW		Police		Prof		Retail	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Video 1	5.00	5.00	3.80	3.33	4.00	3.36	4.35	4.00	4.00	5.00	0	4.00	0	3.00	4.11	3.25	4.00	4.40	0	5.00	0	5.00	0	5.00	3.00	0	3.00	4.67
Video 2	5.00	5.00	3.60	4.67	4.00	3.43	4.52	3.75	4.50	5.00	0	4.50	0	3.00	4.11	4.00	4.17	4.00	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	3.00	0	3.00	4.67
Video 3	4.00	5.00	3.20	2.33	3.00	3.21	3.30	2.75	4.50	3.00	0	3.50	0	3.00	3.78	3.50	3.00	3.40	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	4.00	0	2.00	3.33
Video 4	5.00	5.00	3.60	4.00	5.00	3.29	4.22	3.83	3.50	4.00	0	4.00	0	3.00	4.44	4.50	4.33	3.60	0	5.00	0	5.00	0	5.00	3.00	0	3.00	4.67
Video 5	4.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	5.00	3.50	4.35	3.75	4.50	4.00	0	3.50	0	3.00	4.33	3.75	4.00	4.00	0	5.00	0	4.00	0	5.00	3.00	0	3.00	4.33
Mean	4.60	5.00	3.64	3.67	4.20	3.36	4.15	3.62	4.20	4.20	0	3.90	0	3.00	4.16	3.80	3.90	3.88	0	5.00	0	4.40	0	5.00	3.20	0	2.80	4.33