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第十二回環太平洋応用言語学会予稿集

19-21, December, 2007

Royal Cliff Beach Resort, Pattaya, Thailand

環太平洋応用言語学会

Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics

Proceedings of the 12th Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics
Edited by Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics

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Preface

We are very pleased to host the 12th Conference of PAAL at Royal Cliff Beach Resort, Pattaya, Thailand. This year we have decided to publish our Proceedings prior to the conference. PAAL Korea often requested us in the past to publish Proceedings prior to the conference and PAAL Japan finally managed to do so. This facilitates us to read paper contents, which deepens our understanding of the paper, resulting in the richer interaction in each session. As before, we will upload the Proceeding papers on our Home Page for publicity: <http://paaljapan.org/>

As you know, the proceedings and our journal have been linked to LLBA and ERIC. All our abstracts are read widely in the world for research purposes. This year we have made arrangement with EBISCO so that our journal papers are digitalized to be distributed all over the world.

The members at Japan PAAL take turns in editing the Proceeding papers. I am very grateful to Yusuke Kondo and Yasuo Miyamoto for their efforts in maintaining our Home Page and editing the Proceeding papers. To give thanks and tributes to the members of PAAL Japan who have made the 12th PAAL successful, I am listing the names of PAAL members who have contributed in 2007.

Norifumi Ueda (Ebisco arrangements, jointly with Prof H. Lee, Korea University)

Yusuke Kondo (Home Page and Editor for the Proceedings)

Eiichiro Tsutsui (the previous editor for the proceedings)

Yasuo Miyamoto and Ryo Yoshimoto (Home Page maintenance)

Kota Kodachi (Travel Arrangements)

Junko Negishi (Treasurer)

Special Thanks to the Financial Supports from the following organizations and research funds:

Digital Campus Consortium (Conference Room charges)

Graduate and Undergraduate Exchange Program, Division of International Affairs (Proceedings)

Cross-Cultural Distance Learning Research Center which received the payment of my contributions in editing English Tutorial Textbooks and in supervising all the courses offered by Waseda University International (Travel Expenses for Invited Speakers and their accommodation fee)

Special Research Fund-in-Aid, Waseda University

We all look forward to seeing you in Pattaya.

Michiko Nakano
Co-chairperson, PAAL.

November, 25th 2007

Day 1: 19th of December

	HALL	Room 1	Room 2
09:00-09:30	Registration		
09:30-10:50	Opening Address & Keynote I		
11:00-12:00	Session A	Session B	Session C
	A-1 A-2	B-1 B-2	C-1 C-2
12:00-13:30	Break		Poster Session I: P-1-17 (14:00-16:00)
13:30-15:00	Session D	Session E	
	D-1 D-2 D-3	E-1 E-2 E-3	
	Break		
15:00-15:30	Break		
15:30-17:00	Session F	Session G	
	F-1 F-2 F-3	G-1 G-2 G-3	
	Dinner		

Day 2: 20th of December

	HALL	Room 1	Room 2
09:00-10:30	Session H		Session I
	H-1 H-2 H-3		I-1 I-2 I-3
	Break		
10:30-11:00	Keynote II		
11:00-12:00	Board Meeting		
13:00-15:00			

Day 3: 21st of December

	HALL	Room 1	Room 2
09:00-10:30	Session J		Session K
	J-1		K-1
	J-2 J-3		K-2 K-3
10:30-11:00	Break		
11:00-12:00	Session L	Session M	
	L-1 L-2	M-1 M-2	
12:00-13:30	Break		Poster Session II: Q-1-18 (13:00-15:00)
13:30-15:00	Session N	Session O	
	N-1	O-1	
	N-2 N-3	O-2 O-3	
15:00-15:30	Break		
15:30-17:00	Keynote III & Closing Address		

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Keynote speech I

The 12th International PAAL Conference

PAAL as a Venue for Cross-Cultural Exchange & Trust-building: Past, Present, & Future

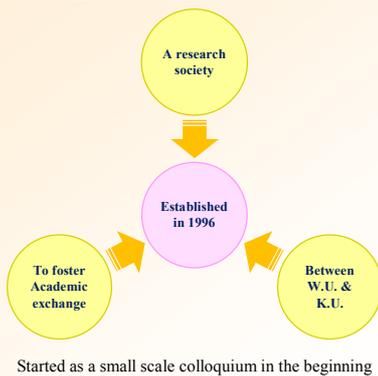
Dec. 19-21, 2007
Kyung-Ja Park
Korea University

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1. Historical Background



Historical Background

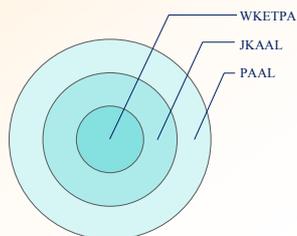
Korea Univ.
Prof. Park
& her students

Waseda Univ.
Prof. Nakano
& her students

Historical Background

▪ Title of the association

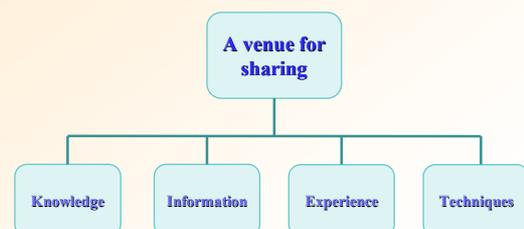
- ▶ The Waseda-Korea University English Teaching & Psycho- linguistics Association (WKETPA, 1996)
- ▶ Japan-Korea Association of Applied Linguistics (JKAAL, 1997)
- ▶ Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics (PAAL, 1999)



2. Goals / Objectives

▪ Goals/Objectives at the initial stage

- ▶ A venue for sharing knowledge, information, experience, techniques on language learning & teaching among students at K.U. & W.U.



Goals / Objectives

- The goal of PAAL was to provide an excellent opportunity to cooperate in disseminating new and current research in the fields of applied linguistics and English education, to provide a venue to be exposed to Global English, and to build mutual trust, mutual prosperity & world peace.



Goals / Objectives

- A new paradigm in Teaching and Learning : Mutual understanding & sharing academic experiences between K.U. & W.U. graduate students & among scholars from different cultural backgrounds
- A vehicle for mutual understanding and collaboration for students and scholars



Goals / Objectives

How to :

1. share information
2. exchange opinions
3. prepare & present academic papers
4. Q & A appropriately
5. learn international etiquette & global English



To recapitulate :

- ➡ To provide an excellent opportunity not only for graduate students but also for undergraduates **for building mutual trust & friendship**

3. Distinctive Features of PALL

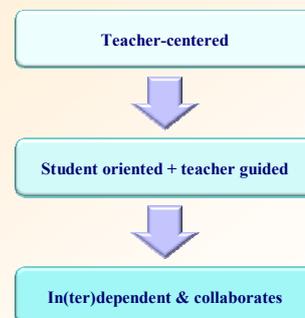


Goals

- ❖ A venue for (under) graduates to be actively involved in global academic exchange with scholars & practitioners from different cultural backgrounds
- ❖ Intercultural exchanges to promote mutual understanding & to build trust among students & scholars from different cultures
- ❖ For mutual friendship & trust-building through in(ter)dependent + collaborate studies

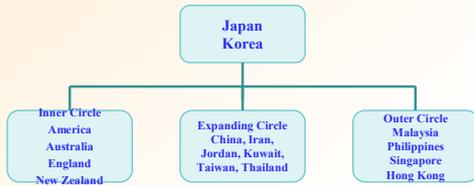


Paradigm Shift



Participants

- ❖ Quantitatively : Small in number (100 ~ 200)
- ❖ Qualitatively : High, creative in-depth research
- ❖ Geographically : Asia and beyond



Conference Venue, the Organizer, & Keynote Speakers

- ❖ Host countries / universities :
- ❖ CCDL participating countries / universities :
- ❖ Keynote speakers

Conference Organizers

Japan side

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Korea side

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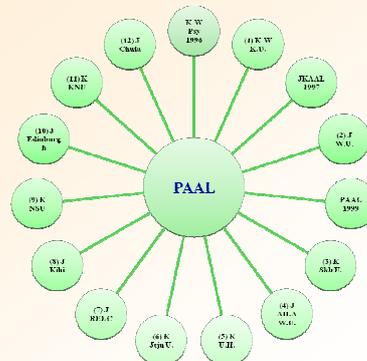
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Membership in PAAL is provided on a calendar-year basis.
Please address questions to the PAAL Korean Office
at 82-2-3290-1984 or email paalkorea@yahoo.co.kr



Conference Venue / Organizer



The PALL Conferences : Keynote speakers

- 96 K.U.
- 97 W.U. **Ho-Min Sohn** (U.H./Principles of performance-based foreign language instruction)
- 98 SKHU. **Yoji Tanabe** (W.U./What English language teachers could do for educational reform in Japan?)
- 99W.U. **Chin-Man Kim** (SKHU./Some thoughts on English Education)

The PALL Conferences

- 00 U.H. **Roderick A. Jacobs** (U.H./ Language, culture, & cognition: Bridging the gap)/ **Yoji Tanabe** (W.U./ A standard pronunciation of English in TEFL)/ **William O'Grady** (U.H./A linguistic approach to the study of language acquisition)

The PALL Conferences

- 02 RELC Singapore. **Benedict Lin** (RELC/ English as an international language)/ **Yoji Tanabe** (W.U./Can we really teach English as a global language?)/ **Yasukata Yano** (W.U./ Communicative competence & English as an international language)
- 03 Kibi International U. Okayama.Japan. **Christopher Long** (Sophia U./Critical thinking & English education)

The PALL Conferences

- 04 Namseoul U. **Soraj Hongladarom** (Chulalongkorn U./The information society & the aims of education: Technology, culture, & philosophy)/ **Krisdawan Hongladarom** (Chulalongkorn U./ Bridging the gap between Micro- and Macro pragmatic research: Some Thai experiences)/**Ellen Skilton-Sylvester** (Temple U./ Culture in English language teaching & research: Complexity meets reality)/ **Teresa Pica** (U.Pennsylvania/ Content, communication & the language classroom: Emperical issues & instructional approaches)/**Shameem Rafik-Galea** (U.of Putra/ Language policy & its impact on bilingual needs & practices)

The PALL Conferences

- 05 U. Edinburgh. **Alan Davies** (U.Edin./ World Englishes, English as a lingua franca & language testing)/ **John E. Joseph** (U.Edin./ The radical agenda of Edinburgh applied linguistics)/ **Hugh Trappes-Lomax** (U.Edin./ How not to give a paper at a conference)

The PALL Conferences

- 06 Kangwon N. U. **William O'Grady** (U.H./ The problem of verbal inflection in second language acquisition)/ **Susan Gass** (MSU/ Learning to talk like a teacher)/ **Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin** (Chulalongkorn U./ Technology assisted language learning – TALL)

The PAAL Conferences

- 01 Jeju N.U. Alan Davies (U. Edinburgh/The native speaker of world Englishes)/ Ho-Min Sohn (U.H./Linguistic politeness in intercultural communication)/ Michael Forman (U.H./The Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics)/ Yongjae Paul Choe (D.U./Culture-loaded expressions in Korean EFL students' composition)/Ikuo Koike (Keio U./English language education in Japan seen in Asian context)

Intercultural Collaborative Activities

- A. KW Cross cultural distance learning (KWCCDL)
- B. CCDL Related Courses & WE Seminar
- C. Research Collaborations & Conference
- D. PAAL Journal & Proceedings



A. The (KW)CCDL

- ▶ Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (Korea-Waseda Cross-cultural Distance Learning Project) : academic collaboration between Korea University & Waseda University (est. 1998)
- ▶ Members of PAAL : involved in an international CCDL project. 15 universities including the Hong Kong Baptist University, National University of Singapore, and the De La Salle University, are participating in CCDL.

This collaboration has resulted in active academic exchanges that have transcended time and place. The conference, journal, and participation in CCDL have brought PAAL international recognition.

A. The (KW)CCDL

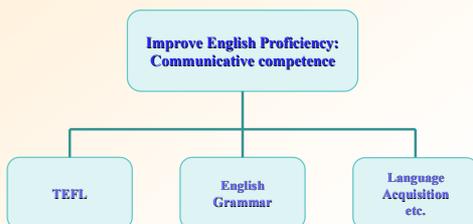
▪ Cross-Cultural distance learning, The KWCCDL

- Goals
 - utilize English as communication means
 - incorporate multimedia & internet technology into classroom environment
 - foster understanding & good will
 - respect differences & build trust

- Learner-centered learning + teacher facilitation
- Integrating English teaching and content courses
- Venue to present research (PAAL)
- Innovating teaching & learning English
- International collaboration

Goals / Objectives

- ▶ To improve English proficiency and to promote communicative competence by establishing means for integrating English teaching and teaching content courses: TEFL, English Grammar, Language Acquisition.



A. The (KW)CCDL

Cross-Cultural Distance Learning <http://www.aki.co.jp/80/waseda/accp.html>

Cross-Cultural Distance Learning
with the aim of mutual understanding and foreign language acquisition

CCDL

In order to create a new style of education corresponding to the world of highly advanced information technology, Waseda University, Japan is actively engaged in trial activities, introducing and applying multimedia and internet technologies in the classroom environment. In response to such movements, we have launched a digitalization project "Cross-Cultural Distance Learning" in collaboration with Korea University and De La Salle University.

The aim of this project is, in the first place, to construct mutual understanding and good ties of friendship between students of Waseda University and those of its overseas (particularly Asian) sister universities. Secondly, it aims to develop an effective method for the acquisition of English as a common language and other foreign languages. For the attainment of these aims, the latest multimedia and internet technologies such as video conferencing, chat and e-mail systems are fully utilized.

In exchange the participating students are provided with many precious opportunities to meet their overseas partners, exchange views and learn more about different cultures, societies, languages, etc.

with the aim of mutual understanding and foreign language acquisition
Korea University / De La Salle / Waseda University

A. The (KW)CCDL

PAAL as a Venue for Cross-Cultural Exchange & Trust-building: Past, Present, & Future

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A. The (KW)CCDL

- Homepage Menu (English, Japanese and Chinese)
- Log in (ID & Password)

1. Select Organization : list of participating universities → select your Univ.
2. your course code and your number

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A. The (KW)CCDL

- CCDL Participating Universities & Programs

- (1) Participating Universities:
 - 99-01:3 (DeLaSalle, K.U., W.U.)
 - 99-02:5 (Univ. of Malaya, Essex)
 - 03-01:15 (RELC, Chulalongkorn Univ., Hong Kong Baptist Univ. etc.)
- (2) Programs: CU-SeeMe (1998)
 - Bizmate (2003)
 - Moodle (2005)
 - Live on (2007)

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A. The (KW)CCDL

- ▶ Starts with supplementary work/requirements for regular courses :
 - Text Chat → Oral chat
 - VC for graduate students (evening class)
- ▶ Program (software) :
 - CU-SeeMe (1998)
 - Bizmate (2003)
 - Moodle (2005)
 - Live On (2007)

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B. CCDL Related Courses

- ▶ Undergraduate courses at K.U.
 - IFLS courses
 - Core general education curriculum
 - Dept. English courses
 - Other Dept. courses
- ▶ Graduate Courses: Dept. of English
 - Psycholinguistics & TEFL I, II
 - World Englishes Seminar

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B. CCDL Related Courses

- Dept. of English, Institute of Foreign Language Studies (IFLS)
 - : students engage in online chat with Japanese counterparts
 - : occasional video conferencing
- Graduate courses in Dept. of English
 - : do not participate in online chat
 - : utilize video conferencing
- Dept. of Chinese, Dept. of Japanese
 - : online chat and video conferencing

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B. CCDL Related Courses

► Undergraduate courses

- IFLS Practical English courses
- Global English through Internet I, II

- ✓ CCDL use : online chatting between K.U. and W.U.
- ✓ Inclusion of online chat as a course requirement.
- ✓ Majority are undergraduate participants.



B. CCDL Related Courses

☞ Undergraduate Courses offered regularly

1. Global English Through Internet I & II (IFLS)

- 2 semester joint course between KU-WU
- KU : Global English (est. 2002)
- WU: Global Literacy (est. 1999)
- video conferencing, online chat, BBS

2. World Englishes and Miscommunication / Englishes in a globalizing Society

- core general education curriculum
- utilizes on-demand lectures
- joint sessions with WU (est. 2006)

Chatting in the Multimedia Education Lab.



Chatting in the Multimedia Education Lab.



Chatting in the Multimedia Education Lab.



B. CCDL Related Courses

► Graduate courses: Dept. of English

- Psycholinguistics & TEFL (started in 1999-01)
- World Englishes Seminar

☞ Graduate Courses offered regularly

Video Conferencing

- real-time joint lectures
- adds face-to-face dimension
- KWCCDL database
- video tapes, chatting logs

B. CCDL Related Courses

► KWCCDLP Graduate Courses

- CCDL use : VC; no online chat
- Instructor : facilitate students in joint discussions during VC sessions
- Students : actively participate in VC and oral presentation of their views on the topics discussed in class



VC session in the Multimedia Education Lab. - Graduate Students



VC session in the Multimedia Education Lab. - Graduate Students



VC session in the Multimedia Education Lab. - Graduate Students



VC session in the Multimedia Education Lab. - Graduate Students



K.U., W.U., & 8 Universities in Hong Kong (2002. 3. 22)



B. CCDL Related Courses

► Undergraduate Courses

☞ Global English thru Internet I, II

- First offered in 2002 at K.U. as an IFLS course.
- Explicit joint collaborative course between K.U. and W.U.
- Counterpart at W.U.: "Global Literacy"
- Goal is to utilize multi-media technologies.
- Oral chat, BBS, VC sessions



Pictures (VC session: Global English through Internet II)



B. CCDL Related Courses

► WE & Miscommunication

- First offered in March 2006.
- Offered in every first semester
- Part of Core General Education Curriculum.
- Especially designed to incorporate CCDL.
- On-line text chatting with Waseda students



B. CCDL Related Courses

► English in a Globalizing World

- First offered in September 2006 affiliated with WE & Miscommunication.
- Offered in every second semester
- Part of Core General Education Curriculum.
- Especially designed to incorporate CCDL.
- On-line text chatting with Waseda students



English in a globalizing society (Freshman Seminar)



Courses engaged in chatting

- Applied Linguistics/TEFL(1999-1)
- English Acquisition Theory (1999-2)
- English Grammar (2000-1)
- English Drama (2001-1)
- English Literary Criticism (2001-1)
- Practical English (2001-1)
- Global English thru Internet I, II (2002 - 2007)
- Studies in English Linguistics(2004-1)
- Reading & Debate (2004-1)
- World Englishes Seminar (2005-1)
- World Englishes & Miscommunication (2006, 2007 -1)
- Englishes in a Globalizing Society (2006-2)



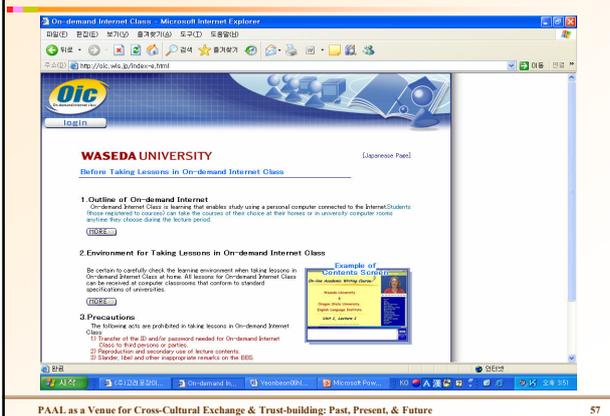
Overall CCDL Use

- ✓ Mainly online chat and video conferencing
- ✓ Online chat = 100-170 students per semester
- ✓ Offline (face-to-face) sessions
 - : workshops (WU: 2005; RELC, Singapore: 2006, 2007)
 - : KU-WU student workshops (e.g., 2006)
 - ⇒ complements online component
 - ⇒ offers personal dimension
- ✓ KWCCDLP makes innovative use of computer-assisted language learning (CALL)
- ✓ New paradigm in EFL
- ✓ Learner-oriented; teacher serves as facilitator
 - : Highlights commonalities and bridges cultural or linguistic divides through the use of English and technology
 - : Ultimate English learning experience

On-demanded lectures

- ✓ The Lecture Series on Korean English, Women's Place in Korea, and Culture
- ✓ Part of WU's On-demand internet class (OIC)

On-demanded lectures



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On-demanded lectures



C. Research Collaborations & Conference

- Research (Papers & Books)
- CCDL Teaching Manuals
- M.A. Ph.D. dissertations
- Suggestions



C. Research Collaborations & Conference

• Research Strands

- KWCCDLP database: Korean EFL, Japanese EFL, non-native speaker-non-native speaker dyad interactions, network-based language learning
- Computer-mediated communication (CMC):
 - Synchronous: online chat (written and oral),
 - Asynchronous: BBS, e-mail
- Offline data: group discussions, oral interviews, oral presentations, written summaries, etc.
- World Englishes & Miscommunication

C. Research Collaborations & Conference

▪ Papers

- Park & Nakano (2001a; b): collaborative papers on writing patterns, features of written chat
- Lee (2006): comparison of CMC with speech and writing
- Park, Lee, & Kim (2006): Korean English ms. Submitted to be published in WE & Miscommunication: DCC. Waseda University
- Etc.

▪ Topics

: EFL acquisition, interaction, CMC, L1 transfer, pragmatic competence, etc.

C. Research Collaborations & Conference

▪ Books

- Park, Nakano, & Lee (2003): compilation of research on the KWCCDLP
- Park (2004): report on the history of the KWCCDLP
- Park, Nakano, Choi, & Lee (2007): Asia Englishes & Miscommunication: Englishes Spoken in Asia.
- Etc.

▪ Topics

: EFL acquisition, interaction, CMC, L1 transfer, pragmatic competence, etc.

C. Research Collaborations & Conference

▪ Master's Thesis (2000 ~ 2007)

CCDL Related: 32.14 %

Ph.D. Dissertation (2000 ~ 2007)

CCDL Related: 20%

C. Research Collaborations & Conference

▪ PAAL Conferences

- 1)1996 Colloquium (K. U.)
- 2)1997 Colloquium (W.U.)
- 3)1998 Conference (SK. U.)
- 4)1999 Conference (W.U.)
- 5)2000 Conference (U.H.)
- 6)2001 Conference (Jeju U.)
- 7)2002 Conference (RELC.)
- 8)2003 Conference (Kibi U.)
- 9)2004 Conference (NamS. U.)
- 10)2005 Conference (Edin. U.)
- 11)2006 Conference (Kangwon)
- 12)2007 Conference (Chula)
- 13)2008 Conference (U.H.)



C. Research Collaborations & Conference

▪ Suggestions

- More in-depth collaboration by joint research & publication
- Learn how to respect and build trust
- Appreciate and respect other cultures and learn global etiquette
- Treasure our own culture and cherish what we are, what we have, and what we can do now. Mutual respect for diversity is important to understand that cultures are interdependent for survival.
- Learn from each other thru student workshop & seminars



D. PAAL Journal & Proceedings

▪ PAAL Journal

- ✓ Published twice a year
- ✓ Indexed in ERIC and LLBA
- ✓ E-Journal published by EBSCO
- ✓ The Editorial Board of the Journal of PAAL Clear communication



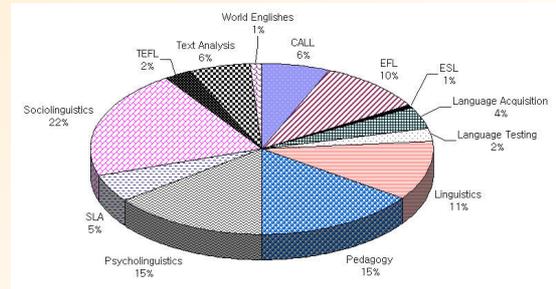
D. PAAL Journal & Proceedings

PAAL Journal

- ❖ Total number of volumes : 10 volumes (From Vol 4 onwards published twice a year)
- ❖ Total number of articles : 170
- ❖ Total number of authors : 213 from 9 countries (Korea, Japan, USA, GB, Iran, Kuwait, Malaysia, Taiwan, Thailand)
- ❖ Total number of participating countries : 9
- ❖ The mean number of articles per volume: 10
- ❖ The mean number of authors per volume: 12.5

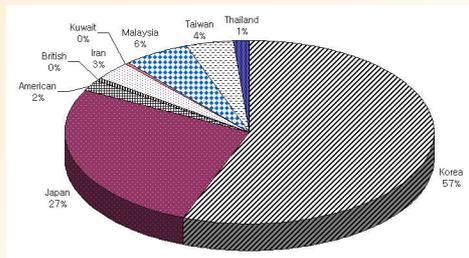
D. PAAL Journal & Proceedings

PAAL Journal – Field



D. PAAL Journal & Proceedings

PAAL Journal – nationality of paper writers



D. PAAL Journal & Proceedings

PAAL Journal

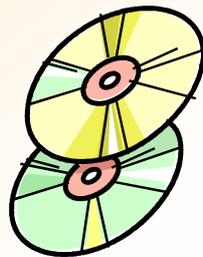


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D. PAAL Journal & Proceedings

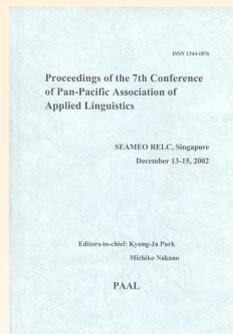
PAAL Proceedings

- ✓ Published once a year
- ✓ First in book form
- ✓ Later in CD Rom



D. PAAL Journal & Proceedings

PAAL Proceedings



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D. PAAL Journal & Proceedings

PAAL Proceedings



4. Conclusion

- Consider: Miscommunication arises mainly due to L1 transfer: linguistic and para-linguistic differences between the native and the target language.
- Mutual intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability can only be realized when mutual understanding and respect between native speakers and non-native speakers are sustained.
- Awareness of these differences, respect and tolerance of these differences can be realized through PAAL.
 - To have positive and sympathetic attitudes
 - toward different varieties of English



Conclusion

- Better position to be able to provide “core features of English”
- Be able to study commonalities of Englishes used in this globe by working closely together : similarities and differences of different varieties of Englishes



Conclusion

- PAAL is a global association for both scholars and students in fields related to English education.
- PAAL is a genuine venue for promoting mutual friendship and trust-building.
- PAAL is a venue for achieving mutual intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability: i.e. for learning Global English.



Conclusion

PAAL : Bright future (Immediate concerns)

- : more effective use of technology
- : more effective way of collaboration
- : new courseware, upgrading of hardware
- : development of exclusive e-learning tasks
- : material developments for Englishes used in this globe

Needs analysis

- : Korean/Japanese/Asian EFL/ESL situation
- : university-level learners
- : commonalities of different varieties of English (esp. Englishes used in Asia...)



Conclusion

- Global educational environments become possible by collaboration in teaching, learning, and developing materials. Solving problems specific to Korean and Japanese learners of English.
- Broadening of horizons by transcending time and space.
 - The horizons of English learning can be expanded
 - limitations of time and space can be eliminated



5. Further Suggestions

More opportunities for Inter-cultural exchanges

: collaborations not only among (under) graduates but also among scholars from different cultural backgrounds

Ex) Providing students with cross-cultural courses that make them be able to grow into global citizens (more inter-cultural collaborations): workshops and seminars for both undergraduates and graduates, contents developments, evaluation measures, material developments, understanding global etiquette, respect and awareness of other cultures etc.

➔ **PAAL can also help students to build trust among themselves through understanding and respecting people from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds**

Further Suggestions

- Joint research and publication
- Learn how to respect and build trust by appreciating and respecting other cultures and learning global etiquette
- Treasure our own culture and cherish what we are, what we have, and what we can do now



Further Suggestions

- Encourage our students to have global minds & perspectives for "intelligibility, comprehensibility, & interpretability." / A deeper understanding of other cultures as well as their own.
- To be aware of the differences & similarities between different varieties of English spoken in this globe: To have positive and sympathetic attitudes toward different varieties of English because mutual respect for diversity is important to understand that cultures are interdependent for their survival.
- To have them think about the importance of the bi-directionality of teaching/learning English as L2
- Not only NS-NNS but also NNS-NNS interaction is beneficial and PAAL can serve for the purpose.



6. Acknowledgements

All the participating PAAL Members



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**Thank you very
much, indeed!**



Keynote speech II

ENGLISH AS A WORLD LANGUAGE: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TEACHING OF PRONUNCIATION

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Abstract

By the beginning of the 21st century, English has finally arrived as a 'world language'. Yet teachers and learners have been slow to adapt to this transition, and continue to teach and learn the language as if nothing had changed in the last 50 years.

Among the implications of English becoming a world language is the fact that English no longer belongs to a small handful of traditional English-speaking countries (like the U.K. and U.S.A.) but to the world, and therefore variety is its essence and no single, monolithic form of English has the right to dominate as the 'standard' which speakers in the 'Outer' and 'Expanding' Circles have to follow. Furthermore, as English is now spoken by more 'non-native' than 'native' speakers, the issues of international intelligibility, acceptability, cultural identity, etc. have to take both groups into account.

The present paper focuses on one particular area, pronunciation, and advocates an approach to the teaching/learning of English pronunciation which fully takes into account the implications of 'World Englishes', and the need to satisfy both the needs of international intelligibility and of ease of acquisition.

Traditionally, teachers have tended to focus heavily on phonetics in teaching English pronunciation, and on imitating the exact phonetic quality of individual sounds according to some chosen 'native' model. The present paper advocates shifting the focus from phonetics to phonology, and outlines an approach to teaching English pronunciation which is based on pragmatic rather than 'purist' considerations.

1 English as a World Language

On the linguistic scene, no development in the last fifty years has had more far-reaching consequences than the rise of English as a 'world language' – the first time that there has ever been such a language in the history of the world. In the process, it has

acquired a rapidly increasing number of second-language speakers, who have by now greatly surpassed its native speakers in number, and the gap between the two will no doubt widen even further in the near future. According to Crystal (2004), there are an estimated 400 million speakers of English as a second language and 600 million speakers of English as a foreign language in the world today, compared with 400 million 'native speakers' – a 5 to 2 ratio, and increasing.

The growth of English as a world language has inevitably led to the development of a number of 'New Englishes' (NE's), or 'Outer Circle' varieties, all over the world – in India, Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Philippines, Sri Lanka, West Indies, Africa, etc. – each with (more or less) systematic and homogeneous linguistic features of its own, not to mention sociolinguistic roles and features. Most of these varieties are by now widely (though by no means universally) accepted, and many have been systematically analysed and described (cf. Kachru 1992 & 2006, Schneider 2004, Jenkins 2000, Crystal 1997, McArthur 2002, Brown et al. 2000, Bolton 2002, Hung 1995 & 2002, Kirkpatrick 2007, etc.)

Along with descriptions of these new varieties of English, the question has sometimes been asked whether they, or one of the 'older' varieties of English (OE for short), like British RP, should serve as the 'model' for our learners. I think there is an underlying misunderstanding here which needs to be cleared up. First of all, we should understand that 'China English', 'Hong Kong English', 'Japanese English' etc. are only labels invented by linguists to describe a general phenomenon. Strictly speaking, there is no such thing as 'China English' (etc.), just as there's no such thing as 'British English' (etc.). There are speakers of English from China, and from Japan, and from Hong Kong and so on, and they each have their own way of speaking, based on various factors such as their first language, their linguistic and cultural environment, the way they were taught, etc. In a word, they speak the way they do because they've lived the lives they

lived – and that is why Professor Higgins tells Colonel Pickering in 'My Fair Lady' that (from the way he speaks) he must have come from Cheltenham, Harrow, Cambridge, and India -- which is practically a summary of his whole life.

Thus, labels like 'China English' etc. are invented by linguists who analyse the linguistic features of English speakers from China and other countries and discover many broad similarities and patterns among each group of speakers, and who then proceed to generalize across these speakers and invent labels like 'China English' etc. to describe them. These labels are convenient and we may continue to use them, but we must understand them properly and not forget that they are just descriptive labels. No speaker is consciously or deliberately speaking 'China English' (or any other English), but as a group, speakers of English from China do sound sufficiently alike to be labeled as 'China English speakers', and likewise speakers from Hong Kong, Singapore, Japan etc. They did not choose to do so, and there is nothing either 'good' or 'bad', 'right' or 'wrong' about it – it's just a simple fact. Of course, they may be either high-proficiency or low-proficiency speakers of English, but that is a totally different matter. There are 'good' and 'bad' speakers of English among both 'native' and 'non-native' speakers, as a visit to any 'native-English-speaking' country will soon make clear.

2 The question of 'models'

But back to the proliferation of new varieties of English around the world. It can potentially accentuate the problem of mutual intelligibility between speakers of different varieties from different parts of the world, and this potential problem has alarmed some linguists and educationists sufficiently to keep the issue of an 'internationally intelligible' standard of English alive for the past two decades, and probably well into the future. One conservative approach (exemplified by John Honey 1989) advocates adopting an OE accent such as British RP as the international model for second-language English speakers all over the world, in order to maintain mutual intelligibility at the international level. Admittedly, there is a certain incontestable logic to this. If people all over the world were to learn to speak RP, I suppose they would understand each other a little better. By the same token, if everybody were to learn Australian or Scottish or Singaporean or any other variety of English, they would understand each other a little better too. Advocates of RP (or any other OE accent) as an international 'model' have missed the most crucial point of all, which is that English in the 21st century

is no longer the language of Britain or the United States or any single country or single group of speakers. It is a *world* language, and as such, variety is its essence. Mimicking the way a small minority of native speakers pronounce English seems more pointless than ever before.

Fortunately, the question of which 'model' to adopt has increasingly become a 'non-issue' in the real world. There are at least three reasons for this:

- i. Most teachers speak the local variety of English anyway, and not the 'model' (whatever that may be), so adopting a particular model (like RP) is really a moot point;
- ii. The learners are exposed to far more language input than the 'model', to many different varieties of English from around the world, through the mass media and internet, interactions with foreigners, etc.;
- iii. The influence of the learners' first language, and of the local English-speaking environment, is pervasive.

From a 21st century 'World Englishes' perspective, the traditional practice of mimicking a native English accent is no longer tenable. It is not only an *unattainable* goal, but both *unnecessary* and *inappropriate* as well. That it is unattainable (for all but the most gifted few), no-one would argue. And because it is unattainable, it leads often to frustration and a sense of failure, not to mention an inferiority complex which undermines the learners' self-confidence. But the funny thing is that all this frustration over the learners' inability to acquire a native English model of pronunciation is not even *necessary* in the first place. In a world where English is a world language, there is no longer any value to sounding 'native-like', for the simple reason that variety is now the norm. There is one and only one valid criterion for judging one's pronunciation today, and it is not how close it is to a native English accent, but how **intelligible** it is to other English speakers from around the world. Not just intelligible to native speakers (which used to be the 'yardstick'), but to both native and non-native speakers worldwide. Furthermore, mimicking a native accent is not only unnecessary, but inappropriate as well, because nothing reflects our identity and culture more than our use of language. For a Chinese speaker to mimic an Englishman's accent would be just as inappropriate – not to say comical – as for an Englishman to mimic a Chinese accent.

This is not to say, however, that international intelligibility is not a problem for learners speaking NE's, or that there is nothing which English

teachers can or need to do about it. Granted that mutual intelligibility is a *mutual* problem, and that the burden is not solely on NE speakers but on OE speakers as well, one may still want to ask what aspects of NE phonology are most likely to hamper international intelligibility, as opposed to those which (other than merely being ‘non-native’ sounding) do not? And what aspects of English phonology not found in NE’s are most likely to enhance international intelligibility, and among these, which ones are relatively amenable to acquisition? The answers to these questions are partly theoretical and partly empirical. Among recent works, Jenkins (2000 and 2007) is the most systematic attempt to answer these (and other) questions from both points of view, and to present a coherent proposal based on the concept of a ‘lingua franca core’, consisting of phonological features which are considered crucial for international intelligibility. Other proposals, including Low, Deterding & Brown (2000), Kirkpatrick (2007) etc., are also motivated by the need to be internationally intelligible.

In the present paper, I shall argue for my own position on this issue, which overlaps in some ways with the above authors’ – which is inevitable, given that all of us have adopted a more or less pragmatic approach to the issue. A *pragmatic* rather than ‘purist’ approach is indeed the key to current discussions on the subject. After all, in the context of English as a world language, where English is no longer the exclusive property of a few traditional English-speaking countries, and where ‘non-native’ speakers increasingly outnumber ‘native’ speakers in the world today, it stands to reason that international intelligibility rather than conformity should be the over-riding concern, and that any such considerations ought to take NE as well as OE speakers into account.

One final word before I proceed to the main body of this paper. Though this paper focuses on pronunciation, we need to be reminded that ‘intelligibility’ is not a matter of pronunciation alone -- an obvious point which seems to have been overlooked by those who advocate adherence to a particular accent as the solution to the perceived problem. Mutual intelligibility is just as much a lexical, grammatical, discursal and cultural matter. But even with respect to pronunciation alone, it is often forgotten that good *articulation* -- clarity, voice projection, etc. -- matter just as much as the accent itself, and that it is perfectly possible to speak an ‘internationally intelligible’ accent (such as RP) in a poorly articulated and therefore unintelligible manner, and to speak a ‘non-international’ accent in a clearly articulated manner which renders it highly intelligible to

everybody. Good articulation is a *universal* quality totally independent of any particular accent, and can be acquired just as easily by anyone speaking any accent. The fact that most people’s image of RP is tacitly based on its being spoken by a highly trained speaker (such as a BBC announcer or speech teacher), and of the local (e.g. Hong Kong or Singapore) accent as it is spoken by anyone in the street, gives a totally biased impression of the ‘superiority’ of the former in terms of clarity, intelligibility and esthetic appeal. In fact, I would say that most learners would have been better off if their teachers had invested as much (or more) time on improving their articulation as on ‘improving’ their accent.

3 Focusing on Phonology

In the past (and even today), teachers used to get the learners to mimic the *phonetic* qualities of -- i.e. the actual sounds produced by -- native English speakers. From the point of view of World Englishes, this is a rather futile exercise, considering how much variation there is even among native varieties of English alone (not to mention all the other varieties). For instance, the vowel in words like *kid* (phonemically represented as /ɪ/), is pronounced in RP as [kɪd], in Australian English as [kid], and in New Zealand English as [kəd]. The vowel in *no* (phonemically some sort of /oʊ/) is pronounced in RP as [nəʊ], in General American as [nou], in Scottish English as [no:], and in Australian English as [nau]. And so on... Which of these should our learners mimic? Whichever it is, the final outcome is none of these anyway. A direct comparison will show that a Hong Kong learner’s pronunciation of an English word like *till* is virtually identical, phonetically speaking, to a Cantonese word like 跳 (‘jump’, [tiu]), and of *sick*, virtually identical to 識 (‘know’, [sik]), etc. L2 speakers of English all over the world do this all the time, which is what makes a person’s accent so easy to identify. From a language acquisition point of view, it is also natural for learners to draw on the repertoire of sounds from their L1 for the closest equivalents to the L2 sounds. Most of the time, these equivalent sounds will serve adequately, and are indeed no more different from the sounds in a particular native variety of English (such as RP) than are sounds from other native varieties (such as Australian or Scottish English).

What really sets a language apart from another is not so much its sounds but its **phonology**. After all, there are only so many different configurations of the vocal apparatus, and one look at the

inventory of sounds in one language (like English) and another (like Mandarin or Cantonese) will show that they share far more sounds in common than sounds which are unique to only one of them. Learning to pronounce a language is basically acquiring the phonology of the language – its phonological contrasts, its distributional properties (including syllable structure), its alternation phenomena, its suprasegmental features, and so on.

According to S. Pit Corder (1983), the learner starts by trying to accommodate L2 data in his L1 phonological system, and ‘restructures’ it wherever necessary, depending on his ability to perceive and realise systematic differences between L1 and L2. The teacher’s task is basically to guide the learners in this restructuring process, by raising their consciousness to features of L2 phonology and giving them adequate practice.

The central question that the teacher has to face is this: what features of the L2 phonology are particularly important for learners to acquire, from the point of view of intelligibility and communicative value? As I said earlier, this is both an empirical question (to be determined by research) and a theoretical question. As empirical research on this issue is far from adequate, I will focus in this paper on what appear to me to be theoretically important phonological features for the purposes of international intelligibility. I would consider the following to be among them:

- Important phonological contrasts at the level of segments (e.g. /i:/ vs. /ɪ/) and features (e.g. [±voice])
- Distribution -- syllable structure and phonotactics
- Lexical word stress
- Use of intonation to structure information

On the other hand, I would consider the following to be less important, and not necessarily to be included in a course on pronunciation:

- Most allophonic variations
- Vowel reduction
- Most supra-segmental features, including rhythm and the emotive use of intonation

3.1 Vowel contrasts

It is a well-known fact that most NE’s have a much simpler vowel system than OE’s, which is not surprising considering that OE’s (especially British RP) have a comparatively complicated vowel system (RP has 12 simple vowel contrasts alone), compared with most East Asian languages (Chinese, Japanese, Malay, etc.) Many of the vowel contrasts which are found in OE’s are neutralized in

NE’s, in particular the contrasts between tense and lax, or long and short, vowels. Thus, in Singapore English, there is no contrast between each of the following pairs of vowels (cf. Hung 1995):

- /i:/ ~ /ɪ/ e.g. beat~bit, peep~pip, deem~dim
- /e/ ~ /æ/ bet~bat, peck~pack, ten~tan
- /ɒ/ ~ /ɔ:/ cot~caught, cock~cork
- /ʌ/ ~ /ɑ:/ cut~cart, luck~lark, hum~harm
- /ʊ/ ~ /u:/ full~fool, foot~food

Likewise, in Hong Kong English very similar neutralizations occur (cf. Hung 2002a):

- /i:/~ /ɪ/ *heat, hit*
- /e/~ /æ/ *bet, bat*
- /u:/~ /ʊ/ *hoot, hood*
- /ɒ/~ /ɔ:/ *cot, caught*
- /ɑ:/ *heart*
- /ʌ/ *hut*

While HKE maintains the /ɑ:/ vs. /ʌ/ contrast, China English shows the same neutralisations as Singapore English (cf. Hung 2002b):

- /i:/ ~ /ɪ/ e.g. *beat~bit*
- /e/ ~ /æ/ *bet~bat*
- /ɒ/ ~ /ɔ:/ *cot~caught*
- /ʌ/ ~ /ɑ:/ *cut~cart*
- /ʊ/ ~ /u:/ *foot~food*

[NB. There are some variations among speakers from different dialect backgrounds, but nthe general picture remains the same; for details, see Hung 2002b.]

The similarities between the vowel systems of the NE’s spoken in East Asia are indeed so remarkable that it is possible to construct a vowel chart like the following (cf. Hung 2006):

TYPICAL ‘ASIAN ENGLISH’ VOWEL CHART

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Mid	e	ɜ	ɔ
Low		ɑ	

Given that all the above-mentioned NE’s have a much simplified vowel system, the practical

<i>income</i>	[ɪŋkaɪ]
<i>some time</i>	[sʌŋ taɪm]
<i>sunspot</i>	[sʌŋ spɒk]

This phenomenon can be captured by the phonological rule:

[+stop] --> [+back] / __ #

Obviously, a NE phonology where syllable-final stops are all neutralized and where (say) *some*, *sun* and *sung* are all pronounced alike, can give rise to frequent ambiguities.

3.4 Suprasegmental features

3.4.1 Word stress

Most suprasegmental features are well known to be difficult to acquire. With respect to word stress, however, this is not entirely true. Even if learners do not internalize the lexical stress rules of English (for whatever they are worth), they do learn the stress placement of individual words holistically, as part of the phonological structure of the word in question. Though opinions differ (cf. Jenkins 2000), I would maintain that word stress is important for intelligibility, especially in the case of shorter words (2- or 3-syllable), as in *'marshal* vs. *mar'shal*, *ap'pear* vs. *'appear*, or *im'portant* vs. *'important*, where the latter (for example) may be misinterpreted as 'impotent' (unless rescued by the context). For longer words, it probably does not matter (a word like *generalisation* can be stressed in any way whatsoever and still be understood), but most words in common use in spoken English tend to be much shorter.

3.4.2 Sentence rhythm

English is generally said to have 'stress-timed rhythm', i.e. the intervals between stressed syllables are more or less equal, regardless of the number of intervening unstressed syllables. For example, in *in'credible expla'nations* vs. *ab'surd 'theories*, the time taken to get from the stressed syllable -'cre- to the next stressed syllable -'na- is about the same as from -'surd to 'the-, even though there are several intervening unstressed syllables in the former and none in the latter. (We are only interested in broad tendencies here, and not in precise time measurements.) This necessitates considerable 'speeding up' and reduction of the unstressed syllables between -'cre- and -'na-, and slowing down between -'surd and 'the-.

In contrast with a stress-timed variety like RP, most (if not all) NE's tend towards 'syllable-timed rhythm', i.e. each syllable occupies more or less equal space. This, incidentally, is also true of most languages in the world, including the Chinese

languages, Malay, French, Spanish, etc. Experience has shown that it is extremely difficult to teach stress-timing to NE speakers. But an even more pertinent question is this: even if it were successful, how would it help intelligibility? Stress-timing involves the reduction of unstressed syllables to the point of neutralizing most of the unstressed vowels, and considerable 'speeding up' between stressed syllables if a number of unstressed syllables fall in between. How does this aid intelligibility for people who were not brought up speaking this type of English, which includes virtually all speakers of NE's? It is probable that most of these speakers would find stress-timed English *less intelligible* than syllable-timed, on account of the massive reduction and neutralization of unstressed syllables. Conversely, while 'syllable-timed' English may sound 'non-native' to native speakers, it is unlikely to cause any intelligibility problems.

3.4.3 Intonation

Like stress-timed rhythm, intonation is also extremely difficult to teach, in the sense of acquiring native-like patterns of intonation. But then, what is the motivation for wanting to acquire native-like intonation in the first place?

We will need to consider this issue not as an 'all or nothing' matter, but with respect to the actual functions of intonation, as they have implications for how much intonation to teach, and in what form. Intonation in English can be said to have three main functions:

- Attitudinal and emotive:** Expresses the speaker's attitude or emotion, e.g. surprise, joy, anger, certainty, uncertainty, sarcasm, etc., through various intonation contours (combined with amplitude, duration, etc.)
- Grammatical:** Marks grammatical functions, e.g. declarative vs. interrogative (as in 'He is here' vs. 'He is here?', with falling vs. rising intonation), restrictive vs. non-restrictive clauses (as in 'The city which hosted the 2000 Olympics...' vs. 'the city/ which hosted the 2000 Olympics,/...').
- Information structure:** The use of intonation boundaries to mark out information units, and the use of focus to highlight prominent or new information. Examples are: /All the students have gone shopping/ vs. /All the students have gone shopping/ vs. /All the students have gone shopping/, etc.

With regard to the use of intonation to indicate the speaker's attitude or emotion, this is a highly culture-specific and subjective matter, and varies

greatly even among native varieties of English and among individual speakers. It is a dubious proposition to teach learners that sort of intonation. If successful, it would sound inappropriate or artificial or affected in the local context, and if unsuccessful, it would merely render the speaker ludicrous.

The grammatical and information-structure functions of intonation are another matter. Intonation can certainly enhance intelligibility in these respects, as it is concerned with elucidating the nature or content of the message through highlighting or contrast. It is also (I think) less difficult to acquire than the attitudinal/emotive function, being less subjective and more transparent. For instance, there is a certain logic in equating the notion of the intonation phrase with the information unit, and the most prominent (tonic) syllable with the information focus.

4 Conclusion

English has come a long way in the last century, from being the language of a few traditionally English-speaking countries to the first truly global language in the history of the world, with 'non-native' speakers outnumbering 'native' speakers, and with an unprecedented amount of communication in English taking place in 'non-native' contexts. Attitudes towards 'acceptable' models of pronunciation should keep pace with these developments, and a 'purist' approach that advocates conformity to a particular 'old variety of English' now seems more outdated than ever. In the present paper, I have argued for a pragmatic approach which looks at 'international intelligibility' not from the native speakers' viewpoint but from a truly international perspective.

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Keynote speech III

Politeness Formulas in L2 Acquisition: An Intercultural Perspective

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1 Introduction

Language is not only a communicative tool but also an interactive tool. That is, it has essentially two interrelated functions—transmission or sharing of information, knowledge, and feelings, on the one hand, and establishment, maintenance, and enhancement of human (social and interpersonal) relationships on the other. This distinction between transactional and affective functions is particularly clear in interpersonal communication where both functions of language are conspicuous and interact delicately. The first function of language can be performed most effectively in terms of economy and clarity, as suggested, for example, by Lakoff's (1973) rule of clarity ("be clear") and Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle (CP) and its four maxims of quality, quantity, relevance, and manner. Thus, this function calls for, among others, linguistic competence including phonetic, phonological, lexical, morph-syntactic, semantic, and sociolinguistic accuracies as well as communicative fluency.

On the other hand, the second function of language can be attained best in terms of pragmatic (pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic) competence including linguistic politeness. For instance, when we meet a colleague in the morning, we utter *annyeng-ha-sey-yo* "How are you?" in Korean, *ohayoo-gozai-masu* "Good morning" in Japanese, and *Good morning* or *Hi* in English. Through such politeness rituals, our intention in these utterances is not to convey such literal meanings as asking about the addressee's well-being or being early or stating the condition of the morning weather, but simply to maintain a smooth and polite human relationship with the addressee. Thus, it is the function of establishing, maintaining, and enhancing human relationships that is relevant to linguistic politeness, among other things.

"Politeness formulas" refers to the formulas of linguistic politeness. Thus, it is necessary at the outset to examine how concepts like linguistic politeness, formulas, and politeness formulas have been defined and dealt with in the literature. Then,

we will take up the roles and functions politeness formulas play in second language acquisition and the issue of how to have learners efficiently acquire them.

2 Linguistic politeness

Linguistic politeness of one way or another exists in all cultures. Let us first dwell on what linguistic politeness is and how it is treated by linguists. There is no doubt that the position of linguistic politeness is an integral part of pragmatics, in that pragmatics is the study of communicative action in its socio-cultural context or the study of the use of language in human communication as determined by the conditions of society (e.g., Mey 2001: 6; Kasper & Rose 2001: 2; Swann, et al. 2004: 248). Although how to precisely define linguistic politeness has been extremely controversial, it may be generally viewed as language use whose purpose is to establish mutual comfort and promote rapport by considering others' feelings (e.g., Hill, et al. 1986) or as forms of friction-reducing behaviour in personal interaction (Lakoff 1973) and thus relates to the linguistic expression of concern for others (e.g., courtesy, deference) (Swann, et al. *ibid.*).

A number of linguists have endeavoured to precisely define linguistic politeness in terms of universal rules, strategies, principles, or maxims. For instance, Lakoff (*ibid.*) proposes three rules of politeness: Don't impose on the addressee; Give the addressee options; and Make the addressee feel good.

Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987; henceforth B&L) rebut the doctrine of cultural relativity in interaction and claim that superficial cross-cultural diversities can emerge from underlying universal pragmatic principles. Building on the notion of face, which refers to a person's public self-image, B&L distinguish two aspects of face: 'positive face', the desire for appreciation and approval by others, and 'negative face', the desire not to be imposed on by others. In their theory, positive or negative politeness operates only when positive or negative face needs are at risk. These strategic options of

handling face-threats are called politeness.

B&L established five levels of linguistic strategies for politeness—Direct strategy; Positive politeness strategies; Negative politeness strategies; Off-record strategies; and No speech act—and provided a number of concrete strategies for each level.¹ Politeness strategies are the resources available to interlocutors to balance their own face needs against those of others. Interlocutors' moment-to-moment choices of strategies are based on their intuitive calculation of the relative closeness or distance of their relations with their interlocutor(s), the relative difference in their status, and how much of an imposition they are making.

Leech's (1983: 81) "politeness principle" model states that people need to minimise the expression of impolite beliefs or, in its positive form, maximise the expression of polite beliefs. Under this principle, he presents six maxims of politeness: Tact; Generosity; Approbation; Modesty; Agreement; and Sympathy. He points out that the most important kind of politeness in English-speaking society is that which is covered by the operation of the Tact Maxim. This maxim reads "Minimize cost to other; Maximize benefit to other" in terms of three scales: the cost-benefit scale that concerns the propositional content of an utterance, the indirectness scale that concerns the illocutionary force of an utterance, and the social distance scale that concerns the vertical (power) and horizontal (solidarity) relationship between the speaker and addressee or a third party.

Fraser (1980, 1990) advances a so-called conversational-contract view. This suggests that politeness operates within the current terms and conditions of the conversational contract entered into by the participants in an interaction in an effort to maintain the interaction conflict-free. Fraser (1980) associates politeness with his notion of mitigation, defining mitigation as a strategy for reducing the force of a speech act whose effects are unwelcome to the addressee.

Of all the politeness theories advanced thus far,

¹ For instance, under the Positive politeness strategies, B&L propose fifteen concrete strategies including "Notice, attend to hearer's wants, needs, interests, goods"; "Exaggerate interest, approval, sympathy with hearer"; "Seek agreement"; "Avoid disagreement"; and "Give reasons". Under the Negative politeness strategies, they propose ten strategies including "Be conventionally indirect"; "Give deference"; "Question, hedge"; "Apologize"; "Go on record as incurring a debt". Under the Off-record strategies, fifteen strategies are listed including "Give hints"; "Give association clues"; "Presuppose"; "Understate"; "Use metaphors"; "Use rhetorical questions"; "Be ambiguous"; "Be incomplete"; and "Use ellipsis".

B&L's (ibid.) is the most elaborate and extensive, attracting the most attention from linguists, especially in regard to their claim that there are culturally universal principles underlying politeness. Many subsequent linguists (e.g., Watts, Ide, & Ehlich 2005; Locher & Watts 2005; Holtgraves 2005a; and several papers in Lakoff & Ide 2005) argue against the universality thesis propounded by B&L. Those anti-universal arguments are based on diverse language-use data from different cultures. For instance, in the introductory chapter of Watts, Ide, & Ehlich (2005), Watts claims that "politeness will always be a slippery, ultimately undefinable quality of interaction which is subject to change through time and across cultural space" and the pursuit of both an a priori predictive theory of politeness and a post-facto descriptive theory of politeness should be abandoned. Instead, he argues that analysts need to "pay closer attention to how participants in social interaction perceive politeness," a move toward discursive approaches to politeness. Several papers in Watts, Ide, & Ehlich (ibid.) and Lakoff & Ide (2005) deal with non-Western languages such as Hebrew, Japanese, and Thai. The key point of these papers is that politeness cannot be defined in the same way across cultural spaces.

Similarly, I argued earlier in Sohn (1988) that all the earlier universality proposals are only partially valid, in that linguistic politeness is viewed only as a feature of strategic language use in social interaction. For instance, Lakoff's and Leech's conversational maxims of politeness, B&L's face-oriented politeness strategies, and Fraser's contractual politeness are all pertinent only to strategic language use, hardly to language structure on the one hand and normative use on the other. The fact of the matter is that linguistic structure also strongly manifests linguistic politeness, as observed more distinctly in honorific languages such as Korean, Japanese, and Javanese, and many politeness expressions are used normatively.

As reflected in extensive misperceptions or misunderstandings in spoken and written intercultural communications (e.g., Moeschler 2004; Watts, Ide, & Ehlich *ibid.*; Lakoff & Ide *ibid.*), there is tremendous cultural (norms and values) variability in terms of what constitutes politeness, how politeness is expressed or conveyed, who is polite to whom, and so on. Besides, each culture has its commonly accepted verbal conventions and usages. In Korean, Chinese, and Japanese cultures, for example, imposing on or not giving options to the addressee is often very natural and generally polite when the speech act is in the interest of the addressee, as when "imposing" upon the addressee to eat more in casual contexts. The concept of

“face” itself, B&L’s central universal notion, is thus considerably culture-bound and is perceived and conceived quite differently from culture to culture. As a result, sensitivity to B&L’s strategies is not equal in all cultures. For example, while the imperative forms are rarely used to issue requests (for speaker’s benefit) in favour of indirect speech acts in English, this is not necessarily the case with many other cultures such as Chinese (Tsuzuki, et al. 2005) and also Japanese and Korean. Kallia (2005) reveals the differences in the uses of imperatives among English, German, and Greek.

Furthermore, linguistic politeness is expressed with a wide variety of linguistic devices such as address/reference terms, honorifics, politeness formulas, indirect speech act forms, various hedging devices, polite auxiliaries, sentence enders with appropriate intonation contours, hesitation, and so forth. Such politeness devices are picked up by interlocutors in accordance with established sociolinguistic rules and culture-bound conventions, norms, and values. Thus, different cultures may choose different devices for the same speech acts. One additional point is that linguistic politeness in any culture is not static but dynamic reflecting socio-cultural dynamism.

In short, linguistic politeness is an essential aspect of human interactive behaviour, an important socio-cultural phenomenon, and a facet of communicative competence and performance. Thus, it has both universals and local culture-bound manifestations, as reflected in linguistic patterns and pragmatic usages of each language. That is, languages share many universal components especially in higher abstract and principled levels, but also differ in unpredictable ways, especially in lower, specific manifestation levels. Both sides are significantly relevant to L2 acquisition.

3 Formulas and Politeness Formulas

Language is basically conventional. Otherwise, the members of the linguistic community would have difficulty in producing, processing, and comprehending sentences and discourses. In the same vein, formulaic expressions, which are highly conventionalized, facilitate communication by providing ready-made expressions.

Formulas, which refer to linguistic formulas, are also variously called *formulaic languages*, *formulaic sequences*, *chunks*, *prefabs* (*prefabricated speech*), (*interactional*) *routines*, *formulaic routines*, *routine formulae*, and *conversational routines*. According to Swann et al. (2004), formulaic language refers to set phrases or expressions such as idioms (e.g., *to all intents and purposes*), metaphorical uses (e.g., *kick the bucket* ‘die’, *piece of cake* ‘easy’, and *get out of here* ‘don’t fool me’),

and greetings formulae (e.g., *pleased to meet you*). Bardovi-Harlig (2006: 4) quotes several definitions as they are used in language acquisition research and sociolinguistic perspective: “Routines are whole utterances that are unusually error-free and show no transitional states of development or systematic order of acquisition. They are learned as unanalyzed wholes, much as one learns a single word” (Dulay et al. 1982: 232–3); “Routine formulae are highly conventionalized prepatterned expressions whose occurrence is tied to more or less standardized communication situations. . . . In embodying social knowledge they are essential in the handling of day-to-day transactions” (Coulmas 1981: 3–4). “A formula is a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other meaning elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated, that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar” (Wray 2000: 465).

In pragmatics, terms like “semantic formulas” and “pragmatic strategies” are employed to refer to conventionalized expressions associated with various speech acts. For instance, in regard to the speech act of apology, the perpetrator uses semantic formulas such as an expression of apology, a statement of responsibility, an offer of repair, and/or a promise of forbearance (Olshtain and Cohen 1991; Bardovi-Harlig *ibid.*). Semantic formulas are usually conventional but need not be formulaic.

I will take all the above definitions into account as appropriate. Although many formulas may be learned as unanalysed wholes, they can be and, in fact, should be analysed for instructional purposes. Needless to say, formulas occupy certain syntactic and discourse positions, and thus they are analysable in relation to other grammatical functions and categories; their morpho-syntactic compositions, semantic, pragmalinguistic, sociopragmatic, and discourse properties, and cross-cultural differences must be studied and revealed. Unlike some arguments to the contrary, I maintain that teaching and learning of formulas contribute to language acquisition to a great extent through developing the pragmatic competence of the learners.

Politeness formulas constitute a subset of linguistic formulas. They are conventionalized polite expressions used in interactive contexts. They are formulaic expressions that maintain, promote, or boost smooth interpersonal relations in various interactive speech acts, written or spoken. Thus, non-interactive idioms and non-polite metaphorical formulas are not politeness formulas. Politeness formulas are culturally and interpersonally so sensitive and context-bound that improper use or

non-use of politeness formulas in given contexts can immediately lead to impoliteness and can be detrimental to carrying on smooth conversation.

Unlike idioms and other non-polite formulas whose meanings are by and large given in dictionaries, the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic meanings of politeness formulas are generally not readily available in dictionaries and grammar books and are hard to grasp and pin down without interactive contexts. This is particularly the case with L2 language learners whose socio-cultural and pragmatic backgrounds are distinct from those of L2. All this justifies the importance of establishing the set of politeness formulas for second language teaching, learning, and research.

Politeness formulas involve two kinds, relatively more ritualized ones (such as “Good Morning”) and relatively more strategic ones (such as “Would you do me a favour?”), although borderline cases are numerous. Both kinds of expressions are politeness devices in that non-use of them immediately leads to impoliteness. These two kinds correspond to Janney and Arndt’s (1992) social politeness and interpersonal politeness (or tact), respectively. Janney and Arndt regard politeness not as a static logical concept but as a dynamic interpersonal activity that can be observed, described, and explained in functional interactional terms. They distinguish between social politeness and interpersonal politeness (or tact), saying that both types of politeness are culturally acquired and are interrelated in speech. The function of social politeness is essentially to coordinate social interaction—to regulate the mechanical exchange of roles and activities—whereas the function of interactional politeness is to preserve face and regulate interpersonal relationships. One main means for social politeness is to follow conventions of social politeness, often termed “conversational routines”, “politeness formulas”, “politeness conventions”, or “formulaic expressions”. One main means for interpersonal politeness is to be tactful, i.e., behaving in an interpersonally supportive way and empathizing with others, and not saying or doing things that threaten or offend them or injure their feelings. While Janney and Arndt limit “politeness formulas” to their social politeness, I will use the term more broadly to cover both their social and interpersonal politeness as long as the linguistic forms are conventionalized.

4 Importance of Politeness Formulas in L2 Acquisition

Early research in second language acquisition included empirical studies of formulas used by

adult learners, but the Universal Grammar (UG) emphasized the rule-governed nature of language production, maintaining that knowledge of formulas did not contribute to syntactic development (Bardovi-Harlig 2006:1–2). There has recently been a renewed interest in formulas in the second language studies literature (e.g., Kasper & Rose 2001; N. Schmitt, 2004). In particular, recent research focus is the function of formulas in language acquisition and language use, whether among native speakers or learners.

Advantages of learners’ knowledge and use of L2 politeness formulas in L2 acquisition may be summarized as follows:

(a) Pragmatic or pragmalinguistic competence is an indispensable component of language learning. Interactive speech acts, such as request, suggestion, invitation, promise, offer, refusal, agreement, introduction, excuse, thanking, apology, complaining, congratulating, complimenting, condoling, and greeting, are required to be conducted in a polite manner. Such speech acts are by and large through exchanges of politeness formulas. Learning of politeness formulas and storing them in the learners’ repertoires are, therefore, an essential requirement for attaining interactive pragmatic competence, as politeness formulas constitute a substantial part of adult native speakers’ pragmatic competence. For example, if a learner of English has acquired and naturally and productively used conventionalized politeness expressions such as those in (1) in interactive situations (data from Holtgraves 2005b: 2029), there is no doubt that he or she has achieved a considerable level of pragmalinguistic competence in English.

(1)

Be careful. There is a cop near.

(Warn: imperative plus assert negative state)

Keep at it. You’ll do fine.

(Encourage: imperative plus optimism)

Please, please, please. I’ve got to see this movie.

(Beg: assert strong desire plus humble mode of achievement)

Do you know the time?

(Ask: indirect request for information)

Would you like to come for dinner tomorrow?

(Invite: request hearer’s presence with low degree of strength)

I swear I will be neater after this weekend.

(Promise: strongly obligate speaker to perform possible future action)

If you need some help then give me a call.

(Offer: conditional promise)

You're right. It is wrong to do that.

(Agree: assert previous proposition and/or correctness of proposition)

I haven't been feeling well.

(Excuse: assert reason for negative situation)

I appreciate your help. I couldn't have done it without you.

(Thanks: express gratitude (for event benefiting speaker))

I'm sorry that I ruined your shirt.

(Apology: express regret for negative act for which speaker irresponsible)

That's awesome. I'm so happy for you.

(Congratulate: express pleasure at hearer's outcome—high degree of strength)

I like your new coat.

(Compliment: express approval of hearer's object/event—low degree of strength)

(b) The knowledge and use of politeness formulas contribute to sociolinguistic or sociopragmatic competence, which involves appropriate language use in social and interactive contexts or situations. In this connection, Coulmas (1981) indicates that language learners need to acquire a sizable repertoire of formulas in order to cope efficiently with recurrent and expanding social situations and discourse requirements. Similarly, House (1996: 227–8) emphasizes the importance of learning formulas at any learning stage because formulas embody the given community's common societal knowledge and thus are essential in the verbal handling of everyday life.

For instance, the English casual acceptance formula *Sure, no problem* is appropriate for request contexts but not for offer contexts. This sociopragmatic knowledge can prevent the overgeneralization observed in Kecskes' (2000) example in (2), where one learner used the same response *Sure, no problem* in requests and offers.

(2)

- a. Can I borrow your pen? — *Sure, no problem.*
- b. Can I talk to you after class? — *Sure, no problem.*
- c. Would you like some candy? — **Sure, no problem.*

Thus, felicitous use of politeness formulas in correct socio-cultural and discourse contexts or situations enhances the learner's sociolinguistic competence.

(c) The knowledge and use of politeness formulas contribute to cross-cultural awareness and thus to

intercultural communicative competence, as users of formulas are communicating across cultures. Intercultural communication is communication between members of different cultural groups, who may bring different language practices or ways of speaking and different expectations, social norms, and cultural values as well as different discourse conventions and usages (e.g., Swann et al. 2004: 149). Encapsulating cultural elements, L2 politeness formulas reflect intercultural differences between L1 and L2 speakers, which are responsible for communication difficulties such as misinterpretations and misconceptions (e.g., Clyne 1996; Moeschler 2004).

For instance, the concept of congratulation applies to birthdays and Christmas in Korea and many societies in the same way as it is used in such achievement situations as promotion and graduation, which is not the case in English (Happy Birthday! Merry Christmas!). Another example is the use of *Excuse me* or *Thank you* for *I'm sorry* by Japanese or Korean learners of English. Reversely, English speakers find it difficult to understand why Japanese and Koreans say "I'm sorry" in situations when the appropriate response is actually "thank you".

In Korean society, asking a senior addressee's age is culturally accepted. There is a politeness formula to do this, as in (3), where NM = nominative; SH = subject honorific; AH = addressee honorific; HQ = honorific question ender.

(3)

Yensey ka etthehkey
toy-si-p-nikka?
age NM how become-SH-AH-HQ
'How old are you? (lit. what does your age become?)

This indirect speech formula is used to ask somebody's name, address, hometown, current time, etc. Examples (4) and (5) are recent email exchanges between two senior faculty members in an American university setting. X is a Japanese female (complainant) and Y is an American male (perpetrator). Notice the different communicative styles. In (4), the main complaint in the first sentence is expressed in the passive construction, nominalised form using *no*, and the polite conjectural question, a typical formula of an indirect speech act. The request for formal apology is another carefully worded indirect speech act, using the hedge "I think", the desiderative "wish", and the humble auxiliary verb "humbly receive". The pronoun "I" does not appear at all. All these represent a typical Japanese indirect communicative style to express negative politeness. Example (5)

expresses a sincere apology, another negative politeness strategy in B&L's terms. All the semantic formulas are assertive, worded straightforwardly and explicitly, with "I" appearing seven times and no indirect speech or hedge appearing. This may be considered a typical American communicative style.

(4) Email to Y (with copies to other members)
ミーティングの部屋をどこにするかというだけのメッセージに、何故 個人情報、身体的情報が公表されたのでしょうか。アメリカという国は個人情報を大切にしている国だと思っておりましたが、このようにコミッティーに全く関係のない人々にまで個人情報をもらすとは、余りにも無神経で、常識ある者のするべきことではないと思います。正式に謝っていただきたいと思えます。 . . . X

(5) Email to X (with copies to other members)
I apologize for the error. I thought I was sending the message to the office staff, but I sent it by mistake to everybody. That certainly was not my intention. At the time, I THOUGHT the correct address for the staff was 000, since I use the same kind of addresses for groups. Once again, I make this apology publicly and hope that you will accept it. Y

(d) Does learning of formulas contribute to grammatical development? A series of studies in L2 acquisition indicate that there is little evidence that the use of formulas resulted in syntactic development (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig 2006:1). For instance, Schmidt's (1983) well-known three-year longitudinal study shows that his subject Wes's grammar did not catch up with the apparent structure of his formulas. Wes's data demonstrated no subject-verb inversion in questions, except in formulaic utterances. Thus, formulaic expressions like *Shall we go*, *Do you have time*, and *Are you busy* were correctly uttered, whereas *Ah, you has keys?* and *When Tim is coming?* were not.

It seems to me, however, that the data do not serve as evidence for the lack of the formulas' contribution to grammatical development, because the structure of the learned formulas could slowly affect Wes's non-formulaic constructions by analogy and generalization. Indeed, the given Wes's data include *Shall we maybe go out coffee now, or you want later?* which gives this developmental hint. As Bardovi-Harlig (2006:7-8) indicates, the acquisition of pragmatics by the lowest level learners has not been well documented in interlanguage pragmatics. She further mentions that R. Ellis (1984) does provide information of the development of grammar.

In view of the nature of language learning through generalization and analogy, it is legitimate to assume that repeated and frequent uses of ample formulas and conventionalized expressions in discourse frames will lead to the learner's lexical, morpho-syntactic, and semantic development, as language ability tends to develop holistically. Indeed, generalization is an essential component of human cognition, especially language. It allows people to use language in new ways they have not been directly exposed to.

(e) The use of politeness formulas allows learners early entry into communication even when there is lack of competence in target language rules. This contributes to improving the learners' discourse and conversational competence. Politeness formulas are relevant not so much to syntax but more to the discourse level in that they appear in interactive situations. Their key roles and functions are the appropriate uses of them in interactive situations in discourse situations. Thus, frequent and fluent use of politeness formulas will necessarily contribute to smooth discourse operations.

(f) Finally, the knowledge and frequent use of formulas allow for fluency in production and faster processing and comprehension, while saving the speaker planning time that can be used where it is needed more urgently. Psychologically, all this will boost the learner's courage, self-confidence, and interest in the learning and use of the target language.

5 Teaching of Polite Formulas

Now, should politeness formulas be explicitly taught? As indicated in Chick (1996: 344), sociolinguists generally agree that sociolinguistic conventions and rules of different social groups can be learnt through awareness raising of one type or another and not through explicit teaching. For instance, Gumperz and Roberts (1980) suggest involving both learners and native speakers in evaluative discussion of their interethnic encounters to raise their awareness of their own contributions to miscommunication. Wolfson (1989) argues that learners' acquisition of sociolinguistic rules can be facilitated by teachers who have the necessary information and knowledge about speech acts, values, and patterns at their command.

While accepting fostering learners' awareness as a useful approach, I nevertheless subscribe to explicit teaching of politeness routines to adult learners. First, learning of politeness formulas through awareness raising alone is insufficient and time-consuming and can be fragmentary. How can we expect a learner who is not in the L2 emersion

situation to internalize the culture-bound usages of all such formulas by him- or herself from scratch within a limited time frame?

Second, politeness formulas are conventionalized in usage and predictable to the native language users. Such conventionalized expressions are “situation-bound utterances” (Kecskes 2000), which constitutes a closed set. The context or situation enables the understanding of the words spoken or written, as in “help yourself”, which is typical of a “hospitality” situation, and “let’s get together some time”, which is a typical parting reply (Mey 2004: 38). In view of their relatively manageable quantity and the definable contexts in which they occur, politeness formulas are amenable to efficient curriculum design, materials development, classroom teaching, and testing. Once they are taught and learned, learners can practice and use them with native speakers in real communicative situations because such formulas are context bound, frequently occur in daily interactions, and are in immediate need. Therefore, they must be taught systematically and intensively in various contexts lest the learners should use the forms inappropriately.

Third, as already indicated, language is and has to be essentially conventional in order for the speakers to mutually understand without much effort. Thus, in second language acquisition, such convention building is important for learners to communicate with native speakers with facility. Otherwise, communication will be greatly hampered, broken down, with misunderstandings resulting. One cannot expect to achieve this competence through fostering of awareness alone. Words and phrases and many grammar points can be self studied. The classroom should be used for more pragmatic training.

Fourth, in learning politeness formulas, a common source of miscommunication is pragmatic transfer, that is, the use of the rules of speaking of one’s native language when interacting with members of another community. While there are ample universality-based positive transfers, there are also a host of negative transfers as well. Without contextualised culture-bound acquisition, formula use can exhibit overgeneralization, undergeneralization, or misuse. Using *mianhayyo* ‘I’m sorry’ even to one’s senior by an American learner of Korean is overgeneralization, because there is a separate form, *coysonghayyo*, for a senior (Sohn 2001). In cases of undergeneralization, learners do not use formulas where they are expected. A formula may be misused as in the case of using *Excuse me* or *Thank you* for *I’m sorry* by Japanese and Korean learners of English. Explicit contextualized teaching will contribute to keeping

learners from falling into such pitfalls. Indeed, learners need the instructor’s explanations of the forms and their felicitous usages but also must receive subsequent reinforcing practice for notice and intake and then take verbal and written post tests to check their learning.

Fifth, there are some experimental studies on successful explicit teaching (Olshtain and Cohen 1990, 1991; Dunham 1992). Techniques for teaching speech acts have been proposed. Olshtain and Cohen (1991) propose the following five steps.

- (6)
- a. Diagnostic assessment
- b. Model dialogue
- c. The evaluation of a situation
- d. Role-play activities
- e. Feedback and discussion

Dunham (1992) describes ten techniques for teaching complimenting behaviour.

- (7)
- a. Reviewing how it is done in the native culture
- b. Reviewing how it is done in the United States
- c. Vocabulary phrase list
- d. Student practice
- e. Role playing in pairs
- f. Teacher role play with students in front of the class
- g. Projects in which learners must compliment native speakers
- h. Students’ oral reports to the class following their field experiences with native speakers
- i. Connecting techniques to lengthen conversation
- j. Paired interaction with complimenting and connecting techniques

Sixth, some recent data-based research results also indicate that explicit instruction of L2 pragmatics is more effective for L2 acquisition than implicit instruction. For example, Kasper & Rose (2001) maintain that, although some universal pragmatic knowledge can be positively transferred from L1 to L2, adult L2 learners do not always use such information. The implication is that learners need instruction—pedagogic intervention for pragmatic development—so that they might be aware of such L1-transferable pragmatic knowledge and use it in L2 contexts (cf. Yanagisawa 2007). The studies on Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL) classroom in this volume offer valuable insights in respect to which components could or should be taught and what kind of instructional approaches are available. Three studies are introduced below.

Tateyama (2001) reports on her investigation on the effects of explicit and implicit instruction in the use of a Japanese routine formula, *sumimasen*, on beginning JFL learners. This commonly used Japanese phrase has three different functions, i.e., getting attention (“Excuse me”), apologizing (“I’m sorry”), and expressing gratitude (“Thank you”). Both explicit and implicit groups were given four treatments over an eight-week period. The explicit group received explanations on the use of *sumimasen* and watched the same video clips, which included this routine. The implicit group received no explanations but only watched the same clips. Multiple-choice test results reveal that the explicit group performed better in items which involved higher formality, indebtedness, and severity of offence. On the other hand, the explicit group became overly polite, which suggests that the explicit instruction resulted in teaching-induced hyper-correction. The author suggests that interactional routines seem to be teachable even to beginners before they develop analysed second language knowledge.

Yoshimi (2001) examines the effects of explicit instruction on JFL learners in the use of Japanese discourse markers in narratives, such as *n desu*, *n desu kedo*, and *ndesu*² which have organizational and interactional functions. The participants were divided into experimental and control groups. The experimental group received explicit instruction which consisted of (a) the explanatory handout, (2) the native speaker (NS) model, (3) the planning session (composing their stories with NSs), (4) communicative practice (perform their planned telling to an NS), and (5) feedback (given by NSs). The experimental group received such explicit instruction three times per week over 16 weeks, which was withheld from the control group except for regular, in-class small group interaction with NSs. The quantitative analysis reveals that in the post-treatment storytelling, the experimental group made significant gains in both frequency and accuracy (i.e., not producing errors), while no discourse markers were produced by the control group, which indicates the beneficial effects of explicit instruction combined with communicative practice and feedback.

Cook (2001) investigates JFL learners’ pragmatic awareness of a Japanese polite speech style. The three conventionalized expressions like those in (8) share the same referential content, but have different linguistic features denoting different levels of politeness or humbleness.

- (8)
- a. *Doozo yoroshiku*
 - b. *Doozo yoroshiku onegai shimasu*
 - c. *Doozo yoroshiku onegai itashimasu*
- ‘Please treat me well.’

Cook reports that 80 percent of the 120 JFL experimental learners, who were asked to listen to three job applicants with expressions like (8), focused only on the referential content and were unable to recognize the polite versus impolite speech styles indexed by linguistic features (e.g., plain verb form or *-masu*). They were unable to recognize polite hedges such as to *omoimasu* ‘I think’ either.

Through interviews with instructors, Cook found that except for the difference between the formal *masu* and informal plain verb forms, the instructors were not aware of the co-occurring features that contributed to the polite versus impolite speech styles. Accordingly, no explicit instruction was given in respect to the pragmatic meaning indexed by these features. Based on the findings, Cook suggests that it is necessary to teach a range of co-occurring linguistic features that constitute a particular speech style and that it is important for these features, especially the relationship between a linguistic form and its social meaning, to be brought to learners’ attention so that they will become more noticeable.

There are two important implications in Cook’s findings. First, instructors should be trained in both the pragmatic awareness of politeness formulas and effective instructional methods so that they may effectively teach formulas to students. Second, extensive pragmatic and pedagogical research should be extensively conducted from a cross-cultural perspective to prepare for such teacher training (see next section).

All the above research results can be applied to learners of Korean, English, and other languages. For instance, rough Korean equivalents of (8) are like (9).

- (9)
- a. *cal pwuthakha-nta*
 - b. *cal pwuthakha-y*
 - c. *ca pwuthakha-ney*
 - d. *cal pwuthakha-yyo*
 - e. *cal puthakha-pnita*
- cal puthak tuli-keyss-sumnita*
 ‘Please treat me well.’ (lit. ‘(I) ask a favour (of you) well.’)

Roughly speaking, the formulas in (9) are typically used when the speaker is introduced to a social equal for the first time or when the speaker

² Korean equivalents would be *ketunyo*, *nunteyyo*, *nun ke yeyeyo*, etc.

sincerely asks a favour of the hearer. In the former case, their function is more or less ritualistic and usually the interactants exchange the same formula. In the latter case, the speech act is somehow not considered imposition on the hearer, but rather tends to enhance the hearer's face by recognizing the hearer's ability or power to handle the requested matter. It is up to the hearer whether to comply with the request or not. Different speech levels are involved from 'plain' in (9a) to 'deferential' in (9e), appropriate use of which is essential. In (9f), features such as *tuli* 'give to a higher person' and *-keyss* '(I) will' are added to *pwuthak* 'asking favor'. Contextualized acquisition of the formulas cannot be expected without elaborate explicit instruction.

Thus, in order for politeness formulas to take meaningful roles and functions in L2 pragmatics and second language acquisition, they must be captured, taught, and learned systematically. It must be emphasized that formulas must be taught with appropriate contexts (or situations) given, not at the syntactic but at the discourse level of speech acts. Well-organized explicit classroom instruction should at least include the following items:

- a. presentation of natural syntactic collocations in which the formula occurs and natural discourse frames in which those sentences occur
- b. succinct explanations of semantic-pragmatic meanings of the formula
- c. explicit account of the contexts where it can and cannot occur
- d. cross-cultural comparison
- e. context-based interactive practices
- f. recognition and production tests (e.g., multiple-choice identification tests, role plays)

In addition, various instructional strategies proposed by many researchers should be taken into account to design the best classroom models possible.

6 Research on Acquisition of L2 Politeness Formulas

In view of the significant roles they play in intercultural pragmatics and second language acquisition, more extensive data-based pragmatic and pedagogical research covering a wide range of politeness formulas is required from a L1/L2 comparative perspective. The role and function of formulas and the learning of formulas and formulaic sequences have only just begun to be described through empirical research for adult learners in the area of second language pragmatics. The fact that Kasper & Rose (2001) is the first

edited volume devoted solely to data-based classroom research on general L2 pragmatics eloquently indicates that the research in the field still in the fledgling stage.

So far, research on politeness formulas appears to have heavily concentrated on requests and apologies.³ Regarding apologies, for example, more than a dozen research papers focus on the Japanese apology act *sumimasen* alone in regard to cross-cultural misunderstanding between Americans and Japanese. These studies include Coulmas (1981), Kimura (1994), R. Ide (1998), Kumatoridani (1999), and Tateyama (2001).

Several studies on apologies in English have been conducted from a cross-cultural perspective, usually employing a discourse completion test as their analytic tool (e.g., Cohen & Olshtain 1981; Trosborg 1987; Blum-Kulka et al. 1989; Olshtain 1989).

Apologies and requests are only two areas of speech acts, a tip of an iceberg. There is a rich vein yet to be explored. Typically, politeness formulas include speech act patterns where strong face-oriented linguistic politeness is called for. Searle's (1969, 1979) classification of speech acts and Holtgraves's (2005b) work based on Searle's show an extensive list of interactive speech acts. These include (a) Directives: request, recommend, suggest, forbid, advise, claim, warn, encourage, beg, demand, ask, invite; (b) Commissives: refuse, consent, accept an offer, accept an apology, reject an offer, threaten, promise, offer, reassure; (c) Assertives: accuse, argue, predict, admit, criticize, agree, blame, remind, guess, deny, correct, introduce, excuse; and (d) Expressives: praise, condole, disapprove, approve, greet, welcome, sympathy, thanks, apology, complain, brag, congratulate, compliment.

Every one of these speech acts deserves exploration from data-based pragmalinguistic, sociopragmatic, discursal, cross-cultural, and/or pedagogical perspectives. In particular, results of research on politeness formulas in these perspectives will be of enormous significance to L2 acquisition.

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Paper presentation

Textualising emotions and poetic effects in advertising language

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Abstract

This paper aims to explore the dialogic relations between form and function in advertising discourse by looking into Chinese print advertisements. They invite an active/imaginative audience to consume the texts and spell out a variety of weak implicatures involving feelings, attitudes, emotions and impressions along the textual lines, fairly invisibly persuade her to recognise the significant inter-/cultural values. Positioning the audience as social elite and shaping the corporate image/brand as a cultural polysemy and landmark of cultural empowerment, they too initiate an emergent text genre with communicative innovation in cultural industry and academic disciplines.

Keywords

Advertising language, emotions, implicature, poetic effects, pragmatic inference, textual consumption

1 Rationale

If the sentence like *Colourless green ideas sleep furiously* is seen as semantic anomaly (Chomsky 1957) or syntactic deviance solely from structural viewpoint, the discussions within the semantics scope would fail to catch the panorama of linguistic facts and shall be unable to engage in multifaceted communication of various contexts. This is not merely inappropriate for the explanatory power concerning form and function in language use, but epistemologically unconvincing for elaborating implicit meaning in discourse. Figurative speech in this regard plays an indispensable role in human cognition and communication, and the ramifications of verbal arts are quite prominent in advertising and media discourse in their own right.

This paper thus examines the audience's comprehension and interpretation concerning emotions and poeticity in media communication under relevance-theoretic account (RT) (Sperber & Wilson 1986/1995, Noveck & Sperber 2006) by looking into contemporary Chinese advertising language. The rhetorical strategies of syntactic

parallelism and repetition of name and metaphor are artfully manipulated through literary styles in the ads to attract the audience's attention, to initiate cognitive poetic effects (Blakemore 1992, Pilkington 1992) and advertising literariness, to perform diverse communicative functions, and to convey dominant ideologies. Placing little emphasis on commodity, they invite/encourage imaginative audience to consume the texts and infer a wide array of weak implicatures involving feelings, attitudes, emotions and impressions along the lines.

2 Research questions

The study investigates ideology and power relations shaped in advertising *by* society and culture, and their possible effects *on* society and culture, rendering plausible interpretations to our research aims. What does the role of audience play in interpretation process in media discourse? How can she process/interpret the communicated information from advertiser? How are diverse linguistic strategies and advertising appeals used to affect and persuade the audience, as the enterprise attempts to build certain corporate image? What cognitive effects could be perceived/inferred by different audience through the rhetorical strategies in institutionalised discourse? What is the social meaning accompanying or behind language use? What competing ideologies and changing cultural values can be seen from advertising discourse, and further to shape social cognition? How will the audience construct their cultural understanding via popular culture, e.g. advertising?

3 Theoretical framework

In Relevance, Sperber & Wilson define *optimal relevance* from the hearer's processing ability in terms of her processing effort and possible effects.¹ It means the audience, as a decision-maker, has to make a decision during her interpretation process.

¹ In this paper I also consider the audience to be female, and the addresser to be male (cf. Tanaka 1994: xv).

RT develops two general claims of ‘principles’ about the role of relevance in cognition and in communication (Noveck & Sperber 2006: 6-7). In *cognitive principle of relevance*, human cognition tends to be geared to the maximisation of relevance. In *communicative principle of relevance*, every act of communication conveys a presumption of its own optimal relevance. This better help understand how we make decisions as we process utterances (and non-verbal message, Forceville 2005) against the dynamic interrelations amongst contexts, shared background knowledge/cognitive environment, and the mind.

According to RT, the presumption of optimal relevance conveyed by every utterance is precise enough to ground a specific comprehension heuristic. That follows a path of least effort in constructing and interpretation of the utterance, particularly in resolving ambiguities and referential indeterminacies, in going beyond linguistic meaning, in computing implicatures, etc, and stops when expectations of relevance are satisfied.

Poetic effects refer to the peculiar effect of an utterance that achieves most of its relevance through a wide array of weak implicatures (Sperber & Wilson 1995: 222, Pilkington 1992: 38, Blakemore 1992: 157).² Since poetic effects suitably illustrate the reasoning and pragmatic inference towards emotions via larger units of text processing and inferred implicit meanings, the current study centres on the audience’s inferential processes over longer texts (Blakemore 1992: 165-6, *macrostructure*, van Dijk 1977: 130) against institutionalised discourse, advertising.

4 Data analysis

We deal with the chosen data respectively in this section. Poetic metaphors typically communicate many weak implicatures. The more novel/creative the metaphor is, the greater the range of implicatures with emotions it communicates (Pilkington 1992: 41). Creative metaphors are widely crafted in advertising to trigger literary effects, evoking cultural awareness, emotional states and social concerns, which themselves encode the properties of elitism and intelligence. Consider (1):

(1)

² Assumptions that are derivable from the proposition expressed by the utterance together with the context are called implicatures (Tanaka 1994: 26-7). Also (p.29), “...there is no clear cut-off point between assumptions strongly backed by the communicator, and the assumptions derived from the utterance on the addressee’s sole responsibility.” But both strong and weak implicatures conform to the principle of relevance.

Measured by Kg. Used books on sale 1995.3.11~3.19

- (a) Expired canned pineapple. Unexpired food desire.
- (b) Expired film. Unexpired creation desire.
- (c) Expired PLAYBOY. Unexpired sex desire.
- (d) Expired used books. Unexpired knowledge desire.

30~50% On sale.

Plenty goods. Low prices. Quick supply.

Knowledge has no expiry date

Old and new friends are welcome to seek and purchase. For a lifelong useful!

Reading and seeing the utterances ‘separately’ will lead to semantic oddness. But if we process the whole text as a single texture (cf. §3), the meanings generated by global coherence, and the inferred weak implicatures and poetic effects are significant. There’re clear syntactic, semantic and phonological parallelisms in this text. These reinforce the audience’s natural tendency to reducing processing effort by looking for matching parallelisms in propositional form and implicatures (Sperber & Wilson: 222-3). On careful examination, however, she’ll find *food desire* and *sex desire* are biological characteristics, while *creation desire/creativity* and *knowledge desire/desire of pursuing knowledge* are linked to something intellectual. The syntactic parallelism is deliberately designed for Eslite’s campaign; it is strong enough to trigger parallel processing in spite of the partial semantic divergence. The problem is then one of finding a context in which all four clauses have parallel contextual effects. This requires an effort of imagination: the audience has to bring together the four encyclopaedic entries and construct non-stereotypical assumptions. The audience’s task is to find a set of assumptions in the context of which the facts that (1a-d) have either identical or directly contrasting implications. The assessment suggests (1a,c) and (1b,d) are different categories. Still, these conclusions could have been derived more cheaply if the addresser had expressed categorically. He might have been trying to convey a wide array of weak implicatures, which an imaginative audience could spell out along a whole variety of lines:

(2)

Creation/knowledge desires are not biologically driven.

Creation/knowledge desires are generally not to be controlled.

Creation/knowledge desires are intellectually motivated.

Creation/knowledge desires are strongly

encouraged.

Creation/knowledge desires are positively built images.

Creation/knowledge desires are the forces to make a better society.

[...]³

The contrasting implications exist also between (1b) and (1d), after considering the first clauses in (1a-c). Food and film have expiry dates, and magazine is published periodically under normal condition, all of them have a better timing for consumption. But the time loadings are not so significant on books as on food, film and magazine. Books are normally without expiration. Metaphorically used here, the addresser purposely elicits contrasting alternatives to convey a variety of fairly weak implicatures:

(3)

Creativity/creation desire requires ideas.

Creativity/creation desire requires knowledge.

Ideas and knowledge originate from many sources and aspects.

Books are an effective and straight way to supply you ideas and knowledge.

Knowledge is time-free.

Old books provide time-free knowledge.

Old books offered at Eslite at low prices.

Knowledge from both new books and old books will bring you competitive edge.

Both new books and old books are available at Eslite.

[...]

The weak implicatures of (2) and (3) might be overlapping and there is no precise stage during which the specific implicatures will appear. Some may not infer the contrasting implications between (1b) and (1d), but still achieves optimal relevance. As long as the audience recognises the metaphorical expressions and the implicatures are falling into this indeterminate range, the communication is successful (Tanaka 1994: 88-9).

The notion of weak communication is important for the indeterminate nature of metaphors and the way in which the hearer processes them. The hearer's comprehension of an utterance, that is the assumptions that she infers from it, may not be limited to those that the speaker specifically intended her to recover. She may recover some implications that she infers on her own responsibility. In the two extremes of metaphors,

³ The words in parentheses represent further optional explanation for implicatures and are relative to 'degree;' whereas a square bracket with dots inside [...] means the indeterminacy of implicatures.

conventional/standardised metaphors encourage the audience to recover a narrow range of strong implicatures. Creative metaphors, however, invite the audience to recover a wide range of weak implicatures, which require audience's imagination on her own responsibility, arousing audience's attention much easier and will be retained longer in her memory due to heavier processing effort. The audience will thus feel closer to the addresser. The more matching for her recovered weak implicatures and the ones the addresser intended to convey, the more intimate with the addresser she is, and more aesthetic pleasure she is getting in solving the metaphor (and other tropes). Next comes another ad artfully manipulating names of artistic/aesthetic eminence that triggers and suffices the audience's literary imagination and tapestry:

(4)

Without knowing (Italo) Calvino. Without knowing love.

Without knowing body meteorology. Without knowing homosexual.

Without knowing women. Without knowing Marguerite Duras.

Without knowing Free Jazz. Without knowing death.

Without knowing millenium astrology. Without knowing Bauhaus.

Without knowing (François) Trauffault. Without knowing political power and struggle.

We therefore read.

Eslite Bookreview

Naming literary celebrities, professional disciplines and appealing topics/concerns over life with lexical repetition is indicated too in (4). The repetition of *without knowing* yields the strong implicature 'we don't know (very/so) much.' *Without knowing* interweaves here with diverse cultural elements of writer, director, music (*free jazz*) and art. *Love, women, death* are compelling issues in human life, *political power and struggle* are increasingly prevailing in modern society, *gay/homosexual* issue is in no way so tabooed than ever before, even in East Asian and Chinese societies. The compound nouns *body meteorology* and *millenium astrology* are neologisms to fulfil the reader's imagination. All these are manipulated to convey a wide array of weak implicatures:

(5)

(It seems that) We should read.

We should read more. We should read a lot.

We should read (a lot) to gain (more) knowledge.

We should read (a lot) to gain (more) knowledge to be like celebrities.

We should read (a lot) to know prominent issues.
Eslite Bookreview could tell us prominent issues.
Eslite Bookreview could help us gain (more) knowledge.
Buy, and try (Eslite Bookreview).
[...]

On closer look, the coherence between *love* and *Italo Calvino, women* and *Marguerite Duras*, and the seemingly opaque one between *body meteorology* and *gay/homosexual*, will drive the reader to infer and derive the implicatures below:

- (6)
If we know something about Calvino, we'll know love more.
If we know something about Marguerite, we'll know women more.
If we know something about gay life, we'll know "body meteorology." (Or vice versa)
We can find and know these names and issues in Eslite Bookreview.
[...]

The addresser intends here to evoke the audience's emotions, the affective dimension to poetic effects, which is associated with weak implicature in the relevance theory account: "What look like non-propositional effects associated with the expression of attitudes, feelings, and states of mind can be approached in terms of the notion of weak implicature..." (Sperber & Wilson 1995: 222, Pilkington 1992: 45). She is guided to process and even entertain the texts after which she would be rewarded by extra contextual effects (wide-ranging implicatures), and feel closer to the addresser.

5 Concluding remarks

From the analyses in this study, we can know the audience is active, rather than passive, in the interpretation process, where 'relevance' is crucial to the text/discourse interpretability. The audience would achieve optimal relevance through the interaction of linguistic form, the shared cognitive environment of communicator and audience, and the 'criterion of consistency with the principle of relevance' (Wilson & Sperber 1992).

People often mean more than they say. Grammar on its own is typically insufficient for determining the full meaning of an utterance, the assumption that the discourse is coherent or 'makes sense' has an important role to play in determining meaning as well (Asher & Lascarides 2005). Just as syntactic surface structures display complexity of underlying structures, we can well appreciate the implicit meanings and emotions conveyed and enriched by lexical items and

syntactic-semantic-pragmatic interplay in advertising discourse and media communication.

Language carries emotions. Figures of speech in this regard play a vital role in human cognition and communication, and the ramifications of verbal arts are quite noticeable in advertising discourse in its own right. This study examined the audience's mental processing and inferential processes over poeticity and emotions in Chinese print ads. The sociocultural aspect of language use is further explored to see the inseparable relationship between language and social meaning. Advertising, lending itself as a symbolic domain of dominant ideologies, incorporates fashion-driven discourse by reflecting social cognition and cultural patterns, it also invites the audience members as potential consumers to recognise the values. It is socioculturally shaped but it also constitute sociocultural cognition, in ways that may be transformative as well as reproductive (Fairclough 1995), thus maintaining the dialectical relationship between social structures and social practice.

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(Un)satisfied Regulation and (In)consistency of Dialogue

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Abstract

The concept of regulation has been a major part of developmental psychology since Piaget and Vygotsky.¹ More recently, Watson (1989) and Fogel (1993)² described the functions of self-regulation and co-regulation, respectively, in caretaker-infant interactions. Regulation is very general concept and a good tool in the analysis of adult interactions, as well.³ In current theory of speech acts such as Kubo and Suzuki (2007), regulation is defined as an innate capacity of maintaining our holistic emotional state in equilibrium⁴ or technically a function from disequilibrium to equilibrium. There, like any illocutionary act, a regulatory act is assumed to have the condition of success and satisfaction: *a regulatory act is satisfied if and only if the actor's emotional state is maintained in equilibrium with respect to the given environment including the speaker and the hearer after his/her performance of the act.* In this paper, it will be demonstrated that an unsatisfied regulatory act in a dialogue derives inconsistency of the dialogue taking the distinction of the function of language, namely, transaction or interaction, into account.

Keywords

regulation, regulatory act, (dis)equilibrium, (un)satisfaction, (in)consistency

Introduction

In the studies of formal theory of conversation such as *Success and Satisfaction Conditional Semantics* (cf. Vanderveken, 1994, 1999), the goal of the study is to construct a well-defined theory through the analysis of intelligent goal-directed conversation such as dialogues of negotiation or quarrel. There, they tend to exclude ordinary conversation including *phatic communion* from their analysis of conversation mainly because, they claim, those dialogues are in general deprived of proper discursive goals and collective intentionality (cf. Vanderveken, 1994, 1999). Kubo and Suzuki (2007: 75-84) proved that not all ordinary conversations are of such characteristics by showing that they are considered to be goal-directed and are performed with collective-intentionality from the perspective of *interaction*. As an illocutionary act is either satisfied or unsatisfied, a dialogue is also either satisfied or unsatisfied. In this paper, it will be argued that an unsatisfied dialogue is the result of an unsatisfied regulation by one of the participants of the dialogue, that brings about dialogical inconsistency between participants' selection of language function, either *transaction* or *interaction*, in the sequence of exchanges. It has to be noted that the unsatisfied regulation leads participants of the dialogue into the mental state of *disequilibrium*.

In the next section, it will be shown two cases of satisfied dialogue where both illocutions and regulations are consistently performed. In the third section, two cases of unsatisfied dialogues are shown to clarify our argument concerning the relation between unsatisfied regulation and inconsistency of dialogue. In the last section, a tentative proposal is given to decrease the possibility of inconsistency of dialogue.

1 Satisfied Dialogues

A dialogue of negotiation or quarrel consists of a sequential process of consecutive *coregulations* (cf. Fogel, 1993) or *bi-directional regulations* (Kubo and Suzuki, 2007) in which participants of the dialogue intentionally attempt to regulate themselves to the other party as well as to themselves to

¹ See Flavell (1963), Piaget (1970), Vygotsky (1986), Watson (1989) and Fogel (1993).

² According to Fogel (op. cit., 19), the concept of co-regulation "will refer to the dynamic balancing act by which a smooth social performance is created out of the continuous mutual adjustments of action between partners."

³ A sociolinguist like Watts(2003) also argues for this trend: "Socioculturally determined behaviour directed towards the goal of establishing and/or maintaining in a state of equilibrium the personal relationships between the individuals of a social group" (Watts, 2003:135).

⁴ For detailed account of Piaget's notion of equilibrium, see Flavell (1963).

realize their goal in the dialogue.

A dialogue of negotiation is satisfied if and only if the participants of the dialogue successfully reach an agreement and both participants feel satisfied with the result. In (1), the discursive goal of the dialogue is to reach an agreement regarding the cost for JACK's service. JOAN is obliged to accumulate her cost for every additional utterance to the maximum cost she can spend, on the one hand. JACK has to reduce his profit each time he utters to the minimum benefit he can get, on the other hand. Both of them are unstable in the mental state on the way till they can see the end. In other words, the dialogue of negotiation is *a process of equilibration* that starts with the context in which both participants are in the mental state of disequilibrium, passes through the intermediate inconstant stages, and ends with the context in which they are in the state of equilibrium. Fortunately, this dialogue is satisfied because its goal is successfully reached and both participants feel satisfied as the last utterance, "Deal," represents.

(1) (Context: Joan was forced to come to Colombia to save her sister, Elaine, who had been kidnapped. She was left in a jungle with an American hunter, Jack. Joan must make contact with the kidnapper to secure her sister's life. So, Joan needs someone who can take her to the nearest telephone. While Jack needs money to make his living since he lost his annual income in the car crash he had with the local bus of which Joan was a passenger.)

- 01 Joan: I'll pay you!
02 Jack: How much?
03 Joan: Fifty dollars. I thought you just lost everything.
04 Jack: Not my sense of humor.
05 Joan: Well, what d'you want? I'll give you a hundred dollars. Two hundred dollars.
06 Jack: I'll do it for five.
07 Joan: That's ridiculous. I'll give you two-fifty.
08 Jack: Lady, my minimum price for taking stranded women to telephones is four hundred dollars.
09 Joan: Will you take three seventy-five in traveler's checks?
10 Jack: American Express?
11 Joan: Sure.
12 Jack: Deal. [Romancing the Stone]

The dialogue of quarrel is satisfied if and only if one of the participants of the dialogue yields to the other party, the winner feels satisfied and the loser feels dissatisfied with the result. In other

words, the winner changes his/her mental state from the state of disequilibrium to that of equilibrium, on the one hand. The loser enhances his/her mental state of disequilibrium. In (2), Grace Farrell succeeds in bluffing Miss Hannigan into believing that her master and Mr. Donatelli are in close relationship and she will lose her job at the orphanage if she does not cooperate with Farrell. Thus, Grace gets the mental state of equilibrium and Miss Hannigan enhances her mental state of disequilibrium. Therefore, the discursive goal of this dialogue is satisfied.

(2) (Context: Grace Farrell visited an orphanage to find an orphan who could stay one night with Mr. Warback who is her boss and a billionaire. She thought a girl as a candidate. However, Miss Hannigan, matron of the orphanage, was reluctant to do so. Grace found something strange in Miss Hannigan's attitude and threatens her.)

- 01 Farrell: I assume your resistance has something to do with Mr. Donatelli and the board of orphans—
She began icily.
02 Hannigan: Don't assume nothing, sweetheart.
Miss Hannigan hissed.
03 Farrell: Mr. Warbucks and Mr. Donatelli are like this.
Farrell continued, holding up her right hand with the two first finger crossed. She's lying, thought Hannigan. She's bluffing. She gave an elaborate yawn of boredom, then buffed her fingernails on her blouse and studied them carefully.
04 Hannigan: Is that a fact.
It was not a question.
05 Farrell: Yes, that's a fact.
Farrell went on and her face betraying nothing.
And it's a further fact that Mr. Donatelli was at the house just last week saying how many people he had lined up for your job.
Farrell, too, studied her hands, as she pulled her gloves on carefully, finger by finger. "She's bluffing," Miss Hannigan told herself again, but with far less conviction. Yet it was far from impossible, very far.
06 Hannigan: Is that a fact?
And this time it was a question.
07 Farrell: Awful time to be unemployed.
Miss Farrell commented. [Annie]

2 Unsatisfied Dialogues and their Inconsistency

In unsatisfied dialogues, their discursive goals are not satisfied. Let us examine (3) and (4) in order.

In (3), the utterance “I will write you” that is a formulaic expression of farewell is meaningless because JOAN does not know where to write.⁵ Technically, her illocutionary act is not successful and defective because it violates the preparatory condition of the illocutionary act of *promising*.

(3)

01 JOAN: I will write you.

02 JACK: Yeah. Where?

Joan thought they sounded like two kids at the end of summer camp, making assurances they would stay friends, knowing they wouldn't.

03 JOAN: “Yeah, right. Where?”

Feigning a casual grin, then clearing the emotional frog from his throat, Jack smiled at her one last time.
[The Jewell of the Nile]

From the perspective of interaction, by that utterance, she attempts to *regulate herself* to JACK. Her utterance is understood as what Goffman (1975: 5) calls “*negatively eventful behaviour*” to extend her affection to JACK. She maintains her mental state in equilibrium and her regulation is satisfied if and only if JACK just accepts her intention by nodding with “Yeah” without committing himself to the propositional content of her utterance. Here, incidentally, his question, “Where?” requires her to perform transactional speech act and offer a concrete reply. In consequence, the interactional function of the preceding reply is cancelled and the participants of the dialogue are drawn into the transactional exchange by the question. Therefore, JOAN’s regulatory act is not satisfied and the dialogue comes to be inconsistent in the sense that *an interactional statement faces a transactional reply*. Put it differently, she has to be in the state of disequilibrium.

Similarly, in (4), WALKER is performing an illocutionary act of *questioning* expecting simply some verbal reply from CLAIRE *to put an end to the uncomfortable silence*. In other words, he was in the state of disequilibrium in the given environment. Here, he has no intention to get a concrete reply from her (*violation of the condition of illocutionary point*).

⁵ Put it differently, to say “I will write you but I don’t know where to write” is *self-defeating*.

(4) (Context: This conversation takes place at a graveyard between Claire who has lost her husband and their friend, Walker. Clare is in a bad mood and is utterly helpless.)

01 WALKER: What suit did you put him in?

Walker said, to be saying something. It was the wrong thing. She gave him a needle glare.

02 CLAIRE: The blue suit.

03 WALKER: I always liked that one.

04 CLAIRE: Well, it’s too late now.

Her voice was brittle. The cigarette smoke hung around her like a mist.

05 WALKER: I didn’t mean I wanted it.
Walker said, desperate. [Lucky Lady]

Thus, from the perspective of transaction, his illocutionary act is *not successful* and defectively performed.⁶ In other words, he performs a regulatory act to promote the relationship between the participants in the discourse. Then, he would feel satisfied and his mental state would be in equilibrium if CLAIRE took his words non-literally and accepted his worry about her. Unfortunately, however, she takes his utterance literally and gives him a concrete reply. What is worse, she misunderstands his words and makes her mental state much more unstable. Incidentally, her reply makes his illocutionary act to be satisfied⁷ but draws him into the transactional exchange. Therefore, WALKER’s regulatory act is not satisfied and the dialogue comes to be inconsistent. In consequence, he is forced to stay in the mental state of disequilibrium.

These cases suggest that in the context of communication, the participants of a dialogue must take into account which language function the other speaker attempts to use, transactional or interactional function and try to conform to the language function of preceding utterance in order to prevent crush of their selection of language functions.

3 A Tentative Conclusion

In this paper, we have demonstrated that an unsatisfied dialogue that leads participants of a

⁶ His utterance can be paraphrased as “*I ask you what suit you put him in, but I do not need to know your answer.*” Thus, this is another case of *self-defeating speech act*.

⁷ An illocutionary act of *questioning* is satisfied if and only if it is *answered*.

dialogue into mental state of disequilibrium is a result of an unsatisfied regulation by one of the participants of the dialogue that brings about dialogical inconsistency between participants' selection of language function, either *transaction* or *interaction*, in the sequence of exchanges. A regulatory maxim of manner such as BE AWARE OF THE LANGUAGE FUNCTION EMPLOYED BY THE OTHER PARTY can be proposed to prevent unintentional and incidental discursive inconsistencies. This maxim, however, shall not be proposed as a special remedy for possible discursive inconsistencies but can be given as an aid with which we can decrease the possibility of the discursive inconsistency and possible disequilibrium. Needless to say, discursive responsibility is mainly on our shoulder.

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Japanese Students' New Perceptions about using English as a Lingua Franca

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Abstract

The present study explores current Japanese students' perceptions about the ownership of English. To see to what extent the students actually use English in their daily lives, they were asked to write a report about where, when and with whom they use English. To examine what their perceptions are about the ownership of English, in-depth interviews were conducted with selected students. Findings include: (1) many students do have opportunities to actually use English as a means of communication in all four skills. (2) students are quite relaxed and realistic about using English. (3) students are not overly interested in the British-American native English model. The author considers the students' seemingly new perceptions about English as a desirable factor which will contribute to raising their awareness of their current status as one of the owners of English in today's global communication.

Keywords

English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), the ownership of English, Internet, Par-time jobs

Introduction

At my university, I come across more students who

say they want to be Japanese teachers. "Japanese teachers" here mean those who teach Japanese to speakers of other languages, I once asked one of such students why he is interested in teaching Japanese instead of English (He was very eager to learn English), and his answer was that he considers that teaching English is beyond his scope because he does not think he can teach cultural aspects of English, being a non-native speaker of English.

Considering that he is exposed in the English studies at the university's English intensive program taught mainly by native speaker teachers mostly from the UK and US, it may be considered as an indication of his American-British centric view. Moreover, Western-orientation of the Japanese society must also be a factor contributing to his view.

Such a view is certainly problematic in today's world where English is widely used as a means of global communication, as Matsuda (2003) sees it (See also Smith, 1983), and that it is suggested that students should have more contact with other cultures at the personal level, especially with cultures other than American and Europeans (Matsuda, 2003).

On the other hand, with the demand for English being as big as ever (Phillipson, 1992), the use of

English for many students is no longer a fashionable touch to their conversation (Stanlaw, 1987), but seems to be almost a bare necessity to survive through life.

The present study attempts to explore Japanese university students' perceptions about the use of English. By presenting data about their actual use of English and their attitudes towards using English, I demonstrate that participating in real communication outside of the school by using English seem to help students understand that English is no more than a tool for communication and help raise their awareness of having an equal status among all users of English. I argue for the importance of this awareness while suggesting a possible drawback of decreased enthusiasm to learn and absorb the English language as a result of their decreased interest in British and American cultures, and suggest alternative ways to enhance their motivation.

1. The Study

1.1 Participants

Participants are 32 university students, aged between 19 to 27, (28 males and 4 females) enrolled at a university in Yokohama. Their majors are either environmental studies or information technology. The admission to the university is not very competitive though it is not among the least competitive. Students' computer literacy is high. They are all enrolled in the English reading course taught by the author. The university does not place a particular importance on the English studies and the English requirement is only one year. The participants are taking the course as an elective.

They are not particularly interested in learning English but seems to see the important role it plays in today's world.

1.2 Data Collection

Data were collected from two sources. One is from written reports to investigate the students' experience of using English outside the school setting. All 32 students submitted reports. They were asked to write about in what situations and with whom they use English in their daily lives. They were also asked to write about their use of English on the internet.

The other source of data collection was interviews. Four students (3 male, 1 female) were selected for in-depth interviews following the submission of written reports.

2. Results and Discussion

Nine students answered that they use it at their jobs., mainly with Chinese and Americans. The jobs here are dominantly the one in the food service business, namely restaurants and bars. The university situated in Yokohama with its Japan's largest harbor, it is no surprise that students are exposed to daily contact with people from other cultures.

The number of international residents in Yokohama is high, and it is also a sight-seeing spot which attract both domestic/international travelers. Moreover, we cannot overlook the existence of an American military base. Also, right next to Yokohama is an American navy base town, Yokosuka.

Five students answered that they had an experience of being asked by no-Japanese people in

English to show them the directions. One student said that a foreign-looking man spoke to him in English on the streets. Three students answered that they have family friends who speak English.

From the students' responses, it may be said that English is no longer a foreign language for these students. It is part of their lives. More than half students have experiences of using English in Japan. Only two students explicitly answered they talked with Americans. Three students answered that they interacted with Chinese, and the rest of the students did not specify the nationality and just said "people from other countries". It was worth noting that no participants expressed feelings of fear or anxiety in interacting with people in English. One interpretation may be that because many interactions occur as a communication between customers (non-Japanese) and service providers (participants). This might have given them a professional identity and their priority may be on conveying necessary message, rather than speaking flawless English and therefore were not very nervous about what kind of English they speak.

Next, I discuss the students' use of English in on-line communication. All 32 students answered that they use English on the internet. Some of the ways to use it were creating their own websites, obtaining information from websites, emailing to non-Japanese friends, chatting with Korean and Chinese people while playing an on-line game and others

It is evident, from these findings, that the students use English on-line out of necessity solely as a means of communication. They search through different websites to obtain

necessary information. The students' interests range from environmental issues to Hawaiian aloha-shirts and body-piercing. It is amazing that websites featuring diverse interests are established by experts in each field and that the students are readily communicate with those website managers via email, on-line chatting, and by bulletin board posts.

Interview data revealed even more. Out of the four students interviewed, there was one female student who seems to have a view that has been considered to be wide-spread among Japanese, which positions native-English model as a superior code which all English users should aim for (Matsuda, 2001). She repeatedly said that she is very unconfident about using English and her TOEIC scores are low and that her problem was that she hardly has a chance to speak English.

The other three male students, all highly competent in computer use, revealed a completely different visage. One of them seem very experienced in using and downloading different kinds of software. He was very happy to share with me some of his vast knowledge about computer and the internet, impressing me by saying that now he feels the need to study some Chinese because the use of Chinese on-line is ever increasing. To him, English is functioning just as a tool for accessing the information he needs and he seems to see no purpose in learning English more than necessary, let alone emulating a native English model.

Another male student interviewed confessed that he is heavily addicted to on-line games, spending hours and hours playing it. He was the

one who said that while playing a game he enjoys chatting with the other players and observers from China and Korea using English. He said that he sometimes uses English at his job, adding that he has no problem communicating using broken English. He is not particularly interested in overseas travel, and that as long as he is in Japan it is okay to speak broken English.

Yet another student, male, is a mature student aged 27. He has an extensive experience of work, traveling and others before starting at the university. He says his best friend is French who speaks decent Japanese. Interestingly, they decided that they would use English when they communicate. They email each other often, and every now and then they engage in conversation using free Skype internet telephone system. He is very interested in body-piercing, and collects information on the internet extensively to keep up-to-date with its advanced techniques. He said that he wants to improve his English more, and his model would be American English. Being asked why, he answered that it seems to be the norm. This view seems realistic and may not be interpreted as an indication of his inclination for American culture. Asked to develop on his views towards different varieties of English, he went on to say that if he decides to go and stay in New Zealand he would like to learn the New Zealand variety. He went to New Zealand as a high school student to participate in a Boy Scouts' Jamboree assembly.

In sum, the students today seem to have developing perceptions about the use of English and more and more students are no longer victims of the American-British centric view. Among such

students are many who have daily contact with English users outside the school whether on-line or off-line. However, caution is needed for those who no longer see important in improving more accuracy in their English. They view English only as a tool for communication and are satisfied as long as they are understood and stop making further efforts for a better command of English. Moreover, because English is part of their everyday life and they do not see it as something exotic or international even to the point that they lose their motivation and enthusiasm. It is definitely the kind of enthusiasm that the older generation Japanese were feeling. It may be considered a development but at the same time it is a new challenge for English teachers in that we now need to identify how else we can motivate students. Indeed it is a challenge, but may be a welcome challenge.

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Analysis of Kenyan English Textbooks

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Abstract

English is learnt throughout the Primary school in Kenya. In Standard one to three (first grade to third grade), it is taught as a subject, while Swahili is used as the medium of instruction. In standard four to eight it is taught as a subject and used as the medium of instruction in other subjects (Primary Education Syllabus, 2002). From Standard 1 through 3 pupils have five English classes (a class of 30 minutes) a week. Standard 4 through 8 pupils have seven English classes (a class of 35 minutes) a week. Due to lack of electrical devices and other facilities in Kenyan classes, textbooks play a crucial role in English education. Teachers and pupils heavily depend on English textbooks for English education. In order to find out facts regarding English education in Kenya, it is essential to analyze English textbooks.

This study examines Kenyan English textbooks (from S 1 through S 8). In Kenyan English syllabus, the emphasis is on the acquisition of communicative competence and not simply on the passing of examinations. And this is reflected in Kenyan English textbooks. Lessons are arranged according to various themes rather than specific grammar points. In this regard, it can be said that Kenyan English textbooks adopt communicative approach. In terms of the four skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening), all four skills are included in English textbooks. However, their proportion is not even. Reading is very much emphasized and, therefore, occupy pages the most. There are some speaking, listening, and writing tasks, but not many. Since English is the medium of instruction in Kenyan English classes, these three areas are practised through various classroom activities.

This paper will analyze Kenyan English textbooks in detail. And it will shed some light on Kenyan English education in general and show some ways to improve it. It will also provide some suggestions for better English education in other countries.

Keywords

Textbook, English education, Kenya

A Detailed Analysis of Teacher Feedback to University-level L2 Writing and Students' Reception and Preferences

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Abstract

This study aims to accomplish two purposes; first, a detailed quantitative and qualitative analyses of the methods and manners by which Japanese university teachers actually give feedback to their students' writing, and secondly, a questionnaire evaluation conducted on how various types of feedback in different textual aspects are received by students and what their true needs and preferences are.

Keywords

Teaching English writing, feedback, Japanese university students

Introduction

In this ICT-driven, globalizing world, English, especially its writing mode, has become a dominant medium of communication in all venues, (Warschauer, 2000), thus greater importance has been placed on English writing education. However, there has not been an established, reliable method of evaluation of or feedback-giving to students' writing which benefits students as well as rewards teachers' time and effort. In our last study (Matsumoto & Kumamoto, 2006), we looked into inter-rater variability in an attempt to seek an evaluation that best fits university students in EFL situations. In the present study, we have tried to elucidate actual students' reception or preferences of different types of feedback based on actual data collected from eight raters of various backgrounds.

1 Methodology

This is a quantitative and qualitative questionnaire survey, using actual feedback samples collected from eight writing teachers of various backgrounds who reviewed three English argumentative essays written by students. The questionnaire asked students their preferred type(s) of feedback retrieved from real feedback samples.

1.1 Subjects

The subjects are 100 students who have taken one

of four writing classes taught at three different universities in Japan; and eight teachers of English: two native English speaker teachers (NESs) in TESOL, two NESs in areas other than TESOL (Non-TESOL), two Japanese teachers (JTs) in TESOL, and two JTs in non-TESOL areas.

1.2 Research Design

In the first phase of the study, feedback samples were collected from the eight teachers and the characteristics of each group (NES-TESOL, NES-non-TESOL, JT-TESOL, and JT-non-TESOL) were analyzed. Looking at these samples, students were instructed to fill in a questionnaire prepared in Japanese, which asked their preferences in teacher feedback. The results of the questionnaire were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

2 Results

1. A great variety was found among the ways the teachers gave feedback. Teachers in TESOL tended to comment on all the five areas (content, organization, language use, grammar, and mechanics), while non-TESOL teachers did not; they rather commented on areas that they think were more important than others. Among the NESs, non-TESOL teachers gave more feedback than TESOL teachers, while among the JTs, TESOL teachers gave more feedback than non-TESOL teachers.

2. The order of students' most wanted feedback areas was first, Language Use, followed by Content, Organization, Grammar, and last, Mechanics. Those who preferred feedback in Content and Organization over the other three areas wanted paragraph-level comments more than summative or sentence-level ones.

3. The students' most preferred way of feedback on Language Use and Grammar was to receive indirect indication or instruction. However, as for Grammar, the number of students who wanted the direct

correction was the largest over other types of feedback.

4. Among the three feedback samples that showed different amounts of feedback, the majority of the students preferred the one with more comments than others. However, when facing the complete samples with different types of feedback, students' responses contradicted with their choices in other sections that asked preferences in respective areas.

3 Discussion

The conspicuous difference of this study from similar inquiries is that students chose their preferred types of feedback with actual samples in front of them. In the past studies of our own and other researchers, students answered the questionnaires, envisaging the types of feedback based on either the description given or on their past experience.

1. The preferences exhibited by students in this study differed from our previous study of similar nature (Kumamoto, et al., 2004), in which most students valued feedback on Language Use or Grammar more highly than that on Content and Organization.

2. However, when facing the complete feedback samples produced by three teachers, an overwhelming number of students preferred the sample with the largest amount of feedback with a lot of direct correction. This turned out to be self-contradictory; when being asked about the types of feedback they wanted, the most preferred one was indirect instruction rather than direct correction. This probably shows the tendency of the students to rely on or seek help from teachers.

3. It seems that the students themselves are in the process of establishing their own learning styles that fit their individual characteristics. Thus, some results showed their tendency to be more autonomous while others rather underscored their tendency to be dependent on teachers.

4 Implications

It seems that more research is needed to cover different types of teachers as well as students. Probably there will not be any prescriptive or canonical way of giving feedback; we have to find the best ways that fit to the learner characteristics of different students. Also, in the future, studies on writing feedback should try to relate the types of feedback to the actual improvement of students' writing. In one of our previous studies (Matsumoto,

et al., 2003), the students showed greater improvements through self-revision than just returning the students' essays with teacher feedback and without revision. It is possible that some types of feedback will readily lead to improvement while others can be dispensed by tapping the students' autonomy.

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Comparing L2 Writers' Degrees of Preference for Writing and L1 Use by Proficiency

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Abstract

In this study, I explore and compare the English writing of Korean university students by their L2 writing proficiency. It focuses on the two aspects in the students' L2 writing by proficiency: the relationship between the students' degree of preference for L1 and L2 writing and their L2 writing proficiency; the use of different L1 use strategy including written and mental translation. Questionnaires and subsequent interviews were administered to 72 students in three different L2 writing proficiency levels. The results revealed that the degree of the students' preference for L1 writing has a strong correlation with the degree of their L2 writing preference. Furthermore, the correlation between the preference for L1 writing was very high with their L2 writing proficiency. As for the students' L1 use behavior, it was found to play a major role during writing in L2 with showing slight differences by L2 writing proficiency. In terms of the translation strategies, as the students' writing ability developed, they employed strategies differently, from using the written L1-to-L2 translation, to mental L1-to-L2 translation, and finally to direct L2 construction.

Keywords

L2 writing process/writing strategies/L1 use in L2 writing/preference for L1 and L2 writing

Introduction

The previous studies on L1 transfer in writing mostly investigated the transfer effects in the cognitive domain and found the positive effects of the transfer. However, students' attitude toward L1 writing in affective domain has not yet been the interests of the researchers, and in this context, it might be meaningful and provocative to include this issue in the discourse regarding L1 transfer. Therefore, one of the aims of this study is to see the L1 transfer effect in the affective domain, by examining the relationship of the degree of preference for L1 and L2 writing and the level of L2 writing proficiency.

In addition, with reference to L1 use in L2 writing, what differences Korean EFL students demonstrate in the writing process of L2 writing by their L2 writing proficiency have not yet been much studied. Little attention has been paid to the behaviors of L1 use in the process of L2 writing by a relatively large number of students in different proficiency levels. In this context, the second aim of the present study is to add to this literature by exploring the characteristics of Korean university students' L2 writing process focusing on their use of L1. Therefore, it is consequential to carry out a quantitative study to get to more generalized consensus on describing the nature of L1 use by Korean EFL writers. The following research questions were formulated and they guided this study:

1. Is there a relationship between the students' degrees of preference for L1 writing and L2 writing? How is the relationship between the degrees of preference for L1 writing and the proficiency of L2 writing? And does the students' self-rating on their writing ability on L1/L2 have a relationship with their actual L2 writing proficiency?
2. Does the writing process of the students vary in accordance with their L2 writing proficiency? How and when do the students use L1 in their L2 writing process? How do they use the translation strategy?

1 Methods

The 72 Korean university students were divided into three groups--high proficiency, medium proficiency, and low proficiency--by their proficiency levels based on the assessment result of their writing samples. The writing samples were read and holistically assessed for their overall proficiency level by the researcher and another English teacher on a 10-point scale. The scores were assigned by considering five features--content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. After the two instructors finished scoring the

subjects' essays individually, the researcher added up each subject's two scores from both instructors and the mean was recorded as a final mark. The inter-rater reliability was .88. The students' scores ranged from 3 to a maximum of 9 out of 10 points. The students who attained a score of 7 points and above were distributed into a group of higher proficiency writers (HP), those who attained 5 or 6 points were distributed into a group of medium proficiency writers (MP), and those who received 3 or 4 points were distributed into a group of low proficiency writers (LP). The means of the scores of HP, MP, and LP were 8.2, 5.4, and 3.8 respectively, and the total mean was 5.6.

All the quantitative items in Part 2 and 3 of the questionnaire were tallied and summed. As a subsequent investigation, responses on all items among the HP, MP, and LP writers were separately tabulated and drew comparisons to explore similarities and differences. Correlation tests and chi-square tests regarding some items were run afterwards using SPSS 12.0 to determine the statistical significance.

Despite some doubts on the validity of this type of retrospective questionnaire, the questionnaire method was adopted for its appropriateness in this kind of study which requires quantitative analysis for a relatively large number of students. Furthermore, to make up for the shortcoming of the written retrospective accounts, the students were asked to fill out the questionnaire immediately after their journal writing, and follow-up interviews with 20 students were conducted as well in case the questionnaire needed a supplementary explanation.

2 Results and Discussion

2.1 Correlations between Writing Preference and Proficiency

To examine the L1 transfer in affective domain, the students were asked to answer the question if they liked writing in L1. In general, those who enjoy their writing have a higher chance of being successful writers acquiring efficient writing strategies. And the efficient composing strategies in L1 are supposed to be transferred to the process of writing in L2, and there are many studies which provided the evidence for the transfer effect of L1 strategies (eg., Carson & Kuehn, 1992; Cumming, 1989, 1990; Kang Mi-Jeong, 2007; Lee & Krashen, 2002; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). According to those related studies, the successful writers in L1 are expected to have a better chance to become successful writers in L2 as well. So the result of correlation between the degrees of preference for L1 writing and L2 writing could allow us to predict the positive strategy transfer of L1 to L2 writing.

Table 1: Degrees of Preference for L1 Writing by L2 Writing Proficiency

"I like writing in Korean."						
L2 Writing Level	never	hardly	so so	a little	very much	Total
LP	2 (8.0%)	14 (56.0%)	4 (16.0%)	4 (16.0%)	1 (4.0%)	25 (100%)
MP	2 (7.1%)	13 (46.4%)	7 (25.0%)	5 (17.9%)	1 (3.6%)	28 (100%)
HP	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (26.3%)	10 (52.6%)	4 (21.1%)	19 (100%)
Total	4 (5.6%)	27 (37.5%)	16 (22.2%)	19 (26.4%)	6 (8.3%)	72 (100%)

$\chi^2=23.897$, degree of freedom=8, $p=.002$

Table 2: Degrees of Preference for L2 Writing by L2 Writing Proficiency

"I like writing in English."						
L2 Writing Level	never	hardly	so so	a little	very much	Total
LP	4 (16.0%)	8 (32.0%)	7 (28.0%)	5 (20.0%)	1 (4.0%)	25 (100%)
MP	4 (14.3%)	13 (46.4%)	6 (21.4%)	5 (17.9%)	0 (0%)	28 (100%)
HP	0 (0%)	3 (15.8%)	5 (26.3%)	11 (57.9%)	0 (0%)	19 (100%)
Total	8 (11.1%)	24 (33.3%)	18 (25.0%)	21 (29.2%)	1 (1.4%)	72 (100%)

$\chi^2=15.561$, degree of freedom=8, $p=.049$

Among the HP group students 73.7 percent (14 out of 19 students) answered they enjoy writing in Korean, while just 20 percent out of the LP group students (5 among 25 students) liked writing in Korean as in Table 1. A similar relation was found between the degrees of L2 writing preference and L2 writing proficiency as in Table 2. However, it was interesting that the students' L2 writing proficiency was a little better predicted by their preference for L1 writing than preference for L2 writing.

To measure the degrees of the correlation between the variables, Pearson's correlation coefficient was used. The students who liked L1 writing mostly answered they liked L2 writing too, and the correlation ($r=.665$) was high with the significance at the .01 level. The degrees of L1 and L2 writing preference of the students were also correlated with their L2 writing proficiency at the .01 ($r=.486$) and .05 level respectively ($r=.269$). That is, the high percentage of the students who expressed their strong preference for L1 writing enjoyed L2 writing as well ($r=.665$), but the correlation between the degrees of students' preference for L2 writing and their L2 writing proficiency was not high ($r=.269$). In sum, we can reason from this evidence that the students' degree of preference for L1 writing has a strong correlation with their L2 writing proficiency and can play an important role of a predictor of the students' L2 writing proficiency level.

2.2 L1 Use in L2 Writing Process

To explore and compare the overall writing process of the students by proficiency, they were asked to record the steps they took when they wrote the journal. On the questionnaire sheet, I gave them an example of four steps when writing with some examples in each step: task examining, idea generation, writing, and checking or revising. They were also informed that the idea generation step might include brainstorming, jotting down ideas, key words writing, outlining, meaning map drawing, or chart drawing. In addition, they were instructed that the checking and revising step could include correcting overall organization, grammar, word choice, the length of the writing, etc.

Most of the students recorded the similar writing process which includes task examination, idea generation and organization, text generation, and text revising regardless their proficiency levels. The students' records showed that they went through various idea generation or organization methods before text generation without regard to their writing proficiency. All of them said they took the final revising step except for one student in MP group and two students in LP group. The amount of time they spent on each step was not asked or measured in this survey.

The students were also requested to record if they used Korean and/or English in each step of their writing process. Most of the students in the HP group stated they used L1 and L2 together and went through frequent code switching in the beginning stages, such as task examining and idea generation (brainstorming, key words or expressions writing, or outlining), while the students in the MP and LP group showed very limited reliance on L2 in the beginning stages as seen in Table 3.

Table 3: The Use of L1 and L2 in Idea Generation Step

In idea generation step	LP (n=18)	MP (n=23)	HP (n=19)	Total (n=60)
"I used Korean"	18 (100%)	23 (100%)	17 (89.5%)	58 (96.7%)
"I used English"	0 (0%)	8 (34.8%)	12 (63.2%)	20 (33.3%)

*. $\chi^2=4.465$, $p=.107$, **. $\chi^2=16.487$, $p=.000$

As for the L1 use in the idea generation step, all of the students in MP and LP group and 17 out of 19 HP group students (89.5%) answered they used Korean as in Table 3. On the other hand, as for the use of L2 in the idea generation step, 12 out of 19 HP group students (63.2%) stated they used English, 8 out of 23 MP group students (34.8%) answered they sometimes used English, too, while no one out of 18 LP group students (0%) said they used English. So, the students' L1 and L2 use behaviors during the idea generation stage can be summarized

that as the students' proficiency level goes up, the ratio of the students who used L1 shows a very slight decrease, while those who used L2 shows a statistically significant increase.

Moving on to the text generation step, the difference among three different proficiency groups was obvious with the behaviors of Korean writing first before English writing. Although most of the HP group students used L1 in their idea generation steps (17 out of 19 students), it is interesting to find that most of them did not enjoy a written translation strategy when they had to write an English text.

Table 4: L1 Writing First before L2 Writing in Text Generation Step

In text generation step	LP (n=18)	MP (n=23)	HP (n=19)	Total (n=60)
"I wrote in L1 first"	17 (94.4%)	21 (91.3%)	4 (21.1%)	42 (66.7%)

$\chi^2=31.769$, $p=.000$

Only 4 out of 19 HP group students answered they had generated the English text after they wrote it in Korean first in the text generation step as in Table 4. And one student said that he used a translation strategy when he had to write rather complicated sentences only, with writing them in Korean first. In case of the 2 students in the HP group, they answered that they generated an English text by switching some of the sentences which at first occurred in their mind in Korean into English. That is, they thought sentences in Korean a lot and frequently switched them while writing in English. Although these students did not go through a step of writing a Korean text before their English text generation, it is speculated that they used a translation strategy in order to conceptualize their ideas in L2 in their mind as a problem-solving strategy just as the students had done in Myung-Hye Huh's (2001, 2002) studies. The students stated in the interview that it was easier for them to conceptualize, express and develop their ideas in L1.

On the contrary to the HP group students (just 4 out of 19 HP group students (16.7%) wrote in Korean first), most of the MP and LP group students used a written translation strategy when they had to write an English text: 21 out of 23 MP group students (91.3%) and 17 out of 18 LP group students (94.4%) answered they had written in Korean first before they wrote an English text. Interestingly, some of the students in the MP and LP group answered that they wrote a text in Korean first and then rewrote it into easy Korean sentences in order to be able to translate them easily into English. They explained about this behavior in the interview that they wanted to translate all the text they generated in Korean into English, but their deficiency of the English ability led them to use this

strategy. They also stated that it was difficult or impossible to write their thoughts in L2 directly which had occurred in their mind in L1. In order to keep the conceptualized ideas until they finish their L2 composition, it was necessary for them to write a Korean text first which is the product of their idea conceptualization. It can be said that they employed the L1 writing and rewriting strategies as compensatory strategies mainly to solve out the problems from their limited L2 linguistic resources. The result indicated that the linguistic gap between the students' cognitive level and their L2 proficiency level for conceptualizing their ideas in L2 led them to write through L1-to-L2 translation strategy.

3 Conclusion and Implication

The present study examined the relationship between the degree of students' preference for writing and students' L2 writing proficiency. It was found that the correlation between the degrees of preference for L1 writing and L2 writing was strong. Moreover, the higher the degree of preference for L1 writing, the more proficient writing ability the students demonstrated.

The current study also investigated the differences of L1 use behaviors in L2 writing of the students in three different L2 proficiency levels. The findings of this study indicate that the students in the lower level tended to more often rely on their L1. In the beginning steps of their writing process, such as task examination and idea organization, L1 was used by most students of the three different proficiency levels. The result verifies the findings of the previous researches on L1 use by L2 proficiency as shown in Wang and Wen (2002) and in Yeon Hee Choi and Jieun Lee (2006). The students' heavy reliance on the L1-to-L2 translation strategy was apparent among lower proficiency groups: Over 90% of the MP and LP group students employed the written translation strategy, which shows large disparity from the HP group students, only 21.5% of whom used the same written translation strategy. The results, therefore, suggest that as the students' L2 composition ability develops, their L2 writing behavior evolves from written L1-to-L2 translation pattern to mental L1-to-L2 translation pattern and finally to direct L2 construction pattern.

The findings of this study imply that the effort to make the writing practice an enjoyable one is important both in L1 and L2. Such an affective domain should not be neglected, since it could directly affect the development of writing skills. In addition, the result of this study suggests that L2 writing of EFL students can be benefited from their L1 writing strategies. That is, students' ability to use

world knowledge, reasoning skills, organization skills, etc. which were acquired from L1 writing practice could be applied to L2 writing process. Moreover, a practical implication can be drawn from this study that L2 writing instructors do not need to inhibit the students' use of L1, especially for those who have limited L2 linguistic knowledge. The L1-to-L2 translation strategy should be understood as a compensatory and problem-solving strategy for those in a lower L2 proficiency level. And efforts should be provided to develop the methods to help the students use this strategy more efficiently.

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An Analysis of Recreational Email Messages

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Abstract

This study focuses on one form of Computer-mediated Communication (CMC) that is, email. As email is a silent mode of communication, a wide range of communicative strategies (CSs) is employed by email users. Therefore, this study explores the various types of CSs employed by male and female teenagers when communicating with their friends in the website – www.friendster.com. The reasons for employing the various CSs and influence of gender on the use of CSs will also be discussed.

A total of 123 email messages form the corpus for this study were contributed by 12 teenage students. Two instruments (interview questions and questionnaire) were developed for the collection of information and data. A modified taxonomy of CSs was drawn based on Segerstad's study on CMC language. A mixed methodology design that combines both quantitative and qualitative approaches is used in study. Simple frequency count on the occurrence of CSs employed by both male and female samples was used to analyse the data. A pilot test was conducted on 2 samples (1 male and 1 female) to test the feasibility of the research questions, research methods and the taxonomy. Then, a detailed discussion on the salient CSs, reasons for employing the various CSs and influence of gender on the used of CSs is presented.

Keywords

E-mail, Communicative Strategies

Introduction

Computer-mediated Communication (CMC) has become a popular medium for communication with the emergence of the Internet and development in computer science. Email, which is one of the ways of CMC, has a new fascinating hybrid of language. "Netspeak" (Crystal's term) is neither spoken nor written language which means it adapts certain features of speech as well as writing to accommodate the new medium. Besides, other features that are neither speech- nor writing-like, non-standardised, playful, highly deviant from the

language rules, tolerant of typographic and spelling errors, and 'new words', are typical in e-mail (Crystal, 2001). Email users have to adapt their language creatively to suit this silent mode of communication. Therefore, CSs are employed consciously or intentionally in the course of communication to convey ideas as effective as possible. It is thus the aim of this study to identify the CSs used to compose emails by male and female teenagers, explain the reasons for using certain CSs and examine the influence of gender on the use of CSs.

This paper is divided into the following sections: a discussion on CSs and taxonomy of CSs for e-mail messages and gender and communication strategies; the research methodology employed in this study; and a description and analysis of the use of CSs and reasons for the employment of various CSs.

1 CSs And A Taxonomy Of CSs For E-Mail Messages

When emailers experience discrepancy between their communicative intentions and their limited communicative resources, they resort to problem-solving devices known as communication strategies (CSs) or known as strategic competence. CSs are conscious or unconscious processes which people make use of in using a language. They are considered important tools for communicators in both FTF and CMC as these strategies can help them get their intended messages across.

As e-mail has few established norms of interaction and there is no specific guide on the common standards or expectations for email users when they join the online culture, therefore, emailers create their styles and language based on their knowledge and experience of related or pre-existing genres (Mulholland, 1999). This "third medium" of online language variety is in its evolving process of having its own systematic rules to suit the new circumstances (Crystal, 2001).

In her study on CMC language, Segerstad (2002) has developed a taxonomy of linguistic features which have been found to be characteristic

of emails. Based on her taxonomy, a modified taxonomy has been reproduced to suit my study on CSs employed by teenagers when composing e-mails. The 5 categories in my modified taxonomy include:

1. Orthography
2. Vocabulary
3. Paralinguistics and Graphics
4. Syntactic Features
5. Discourse and Text

2 Gender Communication and Strategies

Gender differences in speech is an expectation imposed on the society that is, we either behave as a man or woman in accepted forms in communication. Lakoff (1973) reveals that men and women do not speak different languages. Generally, there are some characteristics of both sexes in FTF communication. Men speak in a faster, higher, rougher and direct tone without much hesitation. Whilst, women speak by using tag questions, qualifiers and fillers so as to soften their speech and thus, they avoid direct rough and threatening language. Women also tend to speak more slowly and clearly.

One feature of women's conversational pattern studied by Hirschmann (1973) and Coates (1986a) is minimal responses (cited in Holmes (1986). Hirschmann found that women have a greater tendency of using minimal responses such as "mm-hmm" and "uh-huh" in conversations than men do and attributed this to women's supportiveness in interactions. Beside that, Hirschmann also discovered greater female use of the "fillers" (e.g. uhm, well, you know), "qualifiers" (eg. maybe, sort of, I think) and the "affirmative" responses (eg. yeah) as markers of supportiveness as well. These features are also used by men but they appear less in their conversation.

A noticeable difference in the language used in CMC shows that "men and women have recognizably different styles in posting to the Internet" and that "women and men have different communicative ethics" Herring (1994). She also proposes that such differences are the result of the differences of culturisation and integration into society.

As there have been contrasting styles and features in both FTF and online communication between the two sexes as well as the paucity of work done in the area of gender influence on CSs used in communication, it is hoped that the present study will reveal the influence of gender on the use of CSs especially in email context.

3 Research Method

This study examines a corpus of 123 e-mail messages sent by 12 teenagers to their friends in the website, www.friendster.com for recreational purposes.

Two sets of instruments were used in this study. Interviews 1 and 2 were aimed to garner personal information and seek clarifications on the content email messages as well as the reasons for using the different communicative strategies. The questionnaire was employed to elicit samples' views on the use of various communicative strategies.

The data was manually tabulated by using frequency count based on the linguistic features of email listed in the modified taxonomy.

4 Data Analysis

The analysis is generally divided into 3 parts:

- frequency distribution of the various types of CSs used
- reasons for employing the various CSs, and
- frequency of occurrence of each strategy type for each gender.

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Enhancing EFL Vocabulary Learning via Web-based Concordancing System

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Abstract

With the development of technology in computer-assisted language learning (CALL), students who are learning English as a foreign language (EFL) are allowed to control the pace and the sequencing of instructional events and their components. The integration of technology into curricula has changed the teaching methodology drastically as well as students' learning styles. The authors adapted a web-based concordancing system to examine whether students can improve their knowledge of the confusing English expressions by searching and observing the examples in various contexts from the corpus. Data were collected in the form of pre- and post- test of vocabulary items selected in the study and through questionnaires regarding their perceptions of the system. In general, they responded a positive feedback in using it as a tool in EFL learning if they can get assistance from the teacher.

Keywords

EFL, concordancer, vocabulary learning

Introduction

The language teaching profession has come to realize that in foreign language teaching, a grammar-oriented approach is not, to understate the case, the most efficient way to achieve communicative competence. An integrated approach

combining systematic attention to the acquisition of both grammar and vocabulary is considered much more effective. This fuller appreciation of the importance of vocabulary teaching gives rise to a number of questions concerning the way in which it should be selected and presented for learning. Clearly, activities need to offer learners something more to study than mere words and definitions. Using a concordance program for finding the word in question, learners may be instructed to search in large electronic databases of authentic L2 texts for examples of the words just learned which best illustrate their meaning and usage. An exercise such as this refreshes the learner's awareness of the word, its meaning and how it is used. It is a useful exercise which also enables the teacher to assess whether the learner has retained the words in question. Also, repeated exposure to the recently learned words in short texts, in combination with words that frequently co-occur with them in authentic L2 material will stimulate further consolidation. The advantage for exposure to rich linguistic input at the learning stage was demonstrated in Cobb's (1999) study of computerized activities for vocabulary learning in two formats, one that involved participants in examining multiple sentence examples of a target word in use (a concordance), and another that offered a definition accompanied by a single sentence example. The study showed that learners were more able to transfer newly acquired

knowledge of a word to a novel context if it had been studied in the concordance condition. Rich and varied input is also crucial in providing opportunities for the "expanded rehearsal" mentioned by Sökmen (1997). Rehearsal is recognized as a key factor in explicit vocabulary learning (Ellis, 1994; Hulstijn, 2001), and computerized exercises clearly serve varying individual rehearsal needs well since learners can work on activities independently without taking up valuable class time.

Much of the literature on the use of corpora in language teaching relates to courses for advanced and highly motivated students (e.g., Johns, 1991a, 1991b; Levy, 1992; Stevens, 1991). So, when contemplating the introduction of work with corpora into the lower level EFL learners, teachers should be aware of the need to tailor the experience to quite a different target group, for whom English is usually a subject to struggle with rather than a foreign language to learn and whose intentions for its use are less ambitious.

In this paper, we investigated how low level students could benefit from such searching engine and whether new word knowledge was acquired in the experimental course, especially focusing on their errors on verb collocation patterns and prepositions.

1. Methodology

1.1 Subjects

One hundred and ten Taiwanese technical college students whose first language was Mandarin Chinese participated in this study. They had been learning English as a foreign language for three years in junior high school and three years in vocational high school. According to the education system in Taiwan, vocational high schools emphasize a lot on professional skills with much more time allocated to the skills training. On the contrary, English as a subject receives relatively little attention and the students' proficiency is considered to be very low.

1.2 Instrument and Procedure

An online concordancer was adopted to examine whether students can improve their knowledge of the confusing English expressions by searching and observing the examples in various contexts. The resources included concordance, dictionary, cloze-builder, hypertext, and a database with interactive self-quizzing feature (all freely available at www.lextutor.ca). The present study adopted mainly the concordancer as a learning tool for students to use. Prior to the learning session, a pre-test was administered to check students' knowledge about the words investigated in the study in the first week. Then the online concordancer was introduced to the students, all of them reporting that they did not know of such searching engines before this class. After the introduction and guidance in familiarizing with the above online concordancer, students were asked to choose any two words of interest from a list which did not include the words tested in present study to confirm that they all knew how to use all the functions of the tool. The process familiarized students with a variety of research-based strategies for learning and retaining new vocabulary. They did this both by skimming sequentially and by searching on words they thought might be present. Two exercises regarding the confusing English usage were then designed and students were asked to complete the tasks on the second and third week. However, for students with very low English proficiency, neither in problem-solving nor in treasure-hunting work did we seek to engage them in free exploration without a predetermined aim. On the contrary, there were always defined goals in the designed exercises for them to achieve: to find out how to phrase something specific in a given text. Some tips were even provided to confine the number of examples so students did not feel frustrated in dealing with the numerous sentences and be more confidential to solve the problem and figure out the

answers with the data observed. On the fourth week, the post-test parallel to the pre-test was administered and a post survey with a questionnaire and class discussion was held thereafter.

2. Results and Discussion

Our aim was to provide these students with an online concordancer to use primarily as a reference resource in EFL learning, particularly on vocabulary aspect. The scores from the above two tests were collected as data for statistical analyses, carried out with the SPSS X statistical software package. T-test was conducted to capture the differences of the scores between the pre-test and post-test. Table 1 shows the results of the statistical analyses, in which significant difference was found in t-test, i.e. students improved their vocabulary knowledge after the learning session via the utilization of concordancer searching and observation. We found that the students made many successful investigations, demonstrating a certain ability to work by analogy. In other words, such data-driven corpus research device proved to be an effective learning tool even for low level EFL learners.

Table 1. T test of the means between pre-test and post-test

Pre-test (N=110)	Post-test	T test	<i>p-value</i>
14.84 (3.02)	18.04 (2.65)	-11.184	*.000

(): standard deviation

From our observation, we recognized that during corpus investigations by language learners, there was considerable room for error due to lack of knowledge of the target language. However, we were convinced that the students could develop appropriate research habits such as incorporating observation and techniques in corpus searching as well as logical reasoning in the process of problem-solving.

To investigate the students' perception and attitudes toward the effectiveness of using the online concordancer in learning English vocabulary, a post

survey with a questionnaire and class discussion was held. Responses to the questions were scaled at the following levels: strongly disagree (1 point), disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree (5 point). Table 2 shows the results of the questionnaire.

Table 2. Students' Perception toward Using the Online Concordancer

Questions	Means
1. Concordancer can help me distinguish verbs such as make/do, say/tell.	3.86
2. Concordancer can help me distinguish similar words such as after/behind.	3.65
3. Concordancer can help me improve my vocabulary knowledge.	3.55
4. Concordancer can be a useful tool in English learning.	3.95
5. Using the concordancer with teacher's assistance is an effective learning method.	3.92
6. Working with computer makes my learning process more active.	3.71

In general, students responded to the questions positively, regarding the concordancer as a useful resource in terms of language learning. Nevertheless, most of them reported all at loss with so much data all in English at the first sight. Only after the guidance and instruction from the teacher did they feel more confident in focusing on specific information and figuring out the answers from the abundant examples. In conclusion, they reflected a positive feedback in using it as a tool in EFL learning if they can get assistance from the teacher. Therefore, for low level learners the online concordancer can be a more effective tool with the counseling from the teacher.

3. Conclusion

In sum, the results of our experimentation so far are positive and augur well for the further development of on-line activities that offer rich input

and encourage deeper processing. We can point to a number of findings:

First, the experimental course has proved its feasibility. The computer-based materials were usable and able to handle the volume of vocabulary processing that researchers have long argued was possible, but which we believe is only practical in a networked context where students share their words and not every instance of processing or rehearsal must pass through a teacher.

Furthermore, the learners showed good interest in deeper processing of new words on at least some occasions. Deeper learning is encouraged by providing them with opportunities to meet words in novel contexts through the concordance.

In addition, we took up Sökmen's challenge to consider the "world of the Internet as a source for meaningful vocabulary activities" (p. 257). The Internet is more than a source; it is also a medium through which to learn.

To wrap up, one corpus-based approach to on-line vocabulary acquisition has shown itself viable. And yet, we feel there is at least as much work in front of us as behind us. Sökmen has set ambitious goals for research and activity design; it will take a great deal of energy and dedication to meet them. We expect that an apprenticeship oriented toward the development of "corpus research" skills will not only help students make the most of corpora but will also benefit other areas of their language learning as well, enhancing their capabilities with other reference tools in particular.

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Possibilities and Effectiveness of Collaborative Language Learning in a Multicultural Distance Class over Broadband Networks

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Abstract

The main objectives of this project are to implement high-quality, high-fidelity environments over long-distance broadband networks, and to help students of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) in Asia to have better chances for mutual understanding using a common language. Results were gathered by the analysis of a questionnaire given to the participants who attended this multilateral, synchronous class.

Keywords

CALL, collaborative learning, TEFL, videoconferencing

Introduction

The network technology has enabled us to realize multi-point connections on the Internet using videoconferencing systems that are blended with classroom activities in a TEFL situation. Assessing the effectiveness of CSCL (Computer Support for Collaborative Learning), however, has not been surveyed enough to facilitate multicultural language learning. Our project investigates how a multicultural distance class can be facilitated between China, Korea, Thailand and Japan via a high-quality video conferencing system and interactive communication tools.

1 Literature Review

The development of IP networks made it possible for us to send all phases of voice, images and text data, simultaneously and inexpensively, facilitating language classes in a global setting (Simonson et al., 2005). Much data has been accumulated between educational institutions in two countries, and a number of studies have been conducted in this area (Warschauer & Kern, 2000; Fernandez et al., 2001; Kishida et al., 2003; Yamada et al., 2006). For multilateral institutions, however, it is still a challenge to develop educational software on the Internet. It is also important to accumulate data in order to evaluate what kind of benefits this network enlargement can give to students (Nishihori et al.,

2004 & 2006) and to integrate technologies and learning flow into classroom activities (Barr, 2004), (Roblyer, 2005).

2 Project Description

2.1 Distance Class Overview

This project was implemented in an English writing class at Hokkaido University in Japan from 2000 to 2007 with an emphasis on computer-mediated communication. About 25 participants, who were mainly freshmen at the Faculty of Engineering, took part in the experimental class from 13:30 to 14:30 on the Tuesdays of each year. In the case of a three-point connection, Shanghai Jiao Tong University (12:30 to 13:30) and Ewha Women's University (13:30 to 14:30) participated in the experiment as shown in Fig. 1. The class was conducted with students from Thammasart University in Thailand in addition to the students from China and Korea for the four-point connection in 2006.

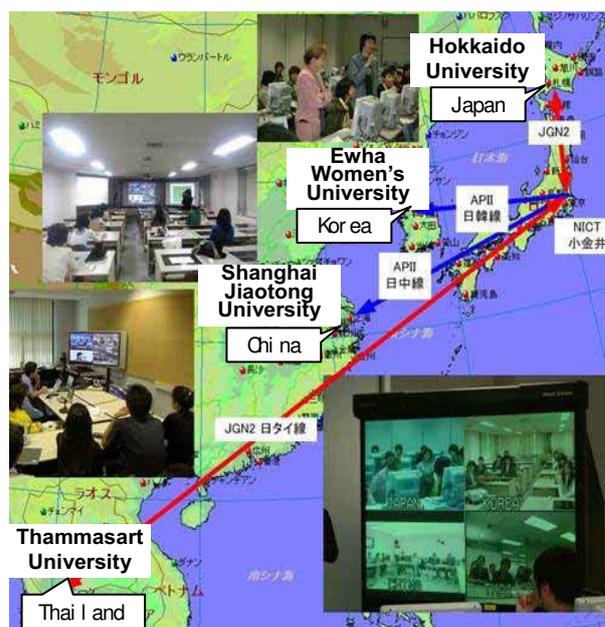


Figure 1: Network Configuration

Three universities were connected using an Internet connection between Korea and China, and between Japan and China, in addition to the high-speed network for academic research between JGN2 in Japan and KOREN in Korea.

2.2 System Configuration

One of the most important features of a video conferencing system for distance learning is the fidelity of its reproduced images and sound, which is instrumental in creating a high-fidelity environment. This made our experimental goals three-fold as listed below:

- a. to enable life-sized communication
- b. to use a wide field angle for the shooting camera without the use of panning
- c. to construct high-quality video-conferencing over the IP transmission system using consumer camcorders, consumer PCs, and software

Along with the main face-to-face activity, two other activities were organized for this class: Chat'n'Debate, which is a chat discussion, and (Multi-)Culture Box, which is an on-the-spot questionnaire with voting and comments. The text data of both activities which was displayed on the large screen in front of the class played a meaningful role, serving as a medium to channel the collected opinions and feelings of other classes. The participants were not just exchanging their opinions, but were connected interactively and this was instrumental in fostering a sense of belonging among them.

3 Research Methodology

This paper discusses different pedagogical effects concerning learners' awareness as to the usefulness of this type of distance class, as well as multicultural understanding.

3.1 Questionnaire 1 (Usefulness in Five Perspectives)

We measured the students' perceived usefulness of this type of multilateral distance class from five perspectives; whether this class was (1) enjoyable, (2) informative, (3) better than ordinary language classes, (4) preferable in terms of its activities and (5) successful in meeting students' expectations. After the experimental class, an anonymous questionnaire in English was distributed to each set of students. They awarded a numerical score from five (strongly agree) to one (strongly disagree) on the five-point Likert scale.

3.2 Questionnaire 2 (Students' Reaction in the Multicultural Class)

For the detailed analysis to be able to capture the tendencies in the students' reactions, specifically for this multicultural class, PCA (principal component analysis) (Jolliffe, 2002) was employed in our study in order to obtain this multi-dimensional data. In order to grasp the correlations within a multilateral context, a number of correlated variables were transformed into a small number of uncorrelated variables.

3.3 Questionnaire 3 (Differences from Two-country to Three-country Projects)

Regarding the data for measuring the difference between 2-country and 3-country projects, an anonymous questionnaire was distributed to the Japanese students who participated in both classes. They awarded a numerical score from five (very much) to one (not at all) on the five-point Likert scale from questions Q1 to Q6.

Q1: Were you aware of being watched (or listened to) by the other class(es)? Q2: Did you learn anything? Q3: Did you make efforts to watch the other class(es)? Q4: Did you make efforts to listen to others? Q5: Did you make efforts to actively participate? Q6: Did you make efforts to watch either of the other classes equally? Q7: How many countries do you think should participate? (1. two 2. three 3. four 4. more than five) Q8: Which format do you prefer? (1. chat only 2. only screen images 3. both of them 4. neither of them)

There were 22 valid answers received in the three-point connection and 23 in the two-point connection.

4 Research Findings

From questionnaire 1, the most important finding is that there was a high degree of unanimity among participants: they were very positive in actively involving themselves in the real-time exchange of opinions.

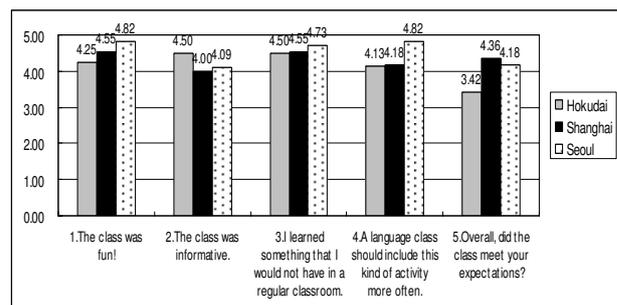


Figure 2: Questionnaire Results

From questionnaire 2, we obtained the following data by applying the PCA analysis using a plot of the new data points.

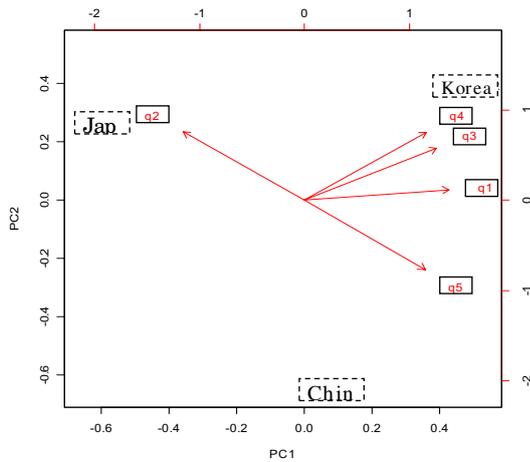


Figure 3: PCA Analysis

According to the above plot and labels of each PC, we can conclude that Japanese students found the multilateral class informative, but not so enjoyable; Chinese students found it not so enjoyable, but meeting their expectations; Korean students found it enjoyable on the whole. In this way, we can grasp an overall picture of the reactions in each country, and these occur simultaneously in a multilateral class. It is quite essential to capture the transient differences in the attitude of students among multilateral classes.

From the data used to measure the differences between two-country and three-country projects, a number of important results were obtained. Figure 4 indicates that there is a significant difference in the efforts made to actively participate in the case of the three-country connection when we compare it to the two-country connection. ($t=2.453$; $df=43$; $p<0.05$) This data indicates that the three-country connection has a more positive impact in the following areas: (a) awareness of being watched (or listened to) by other class(es), (b) efforts to watch other class(es), and (c) efforts to participate actively.

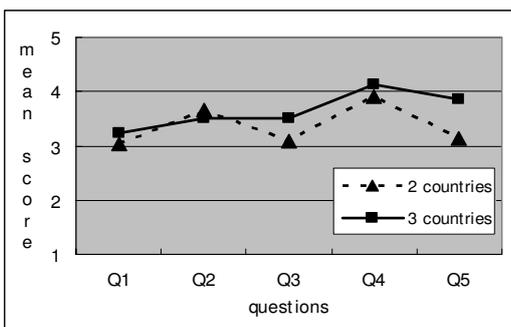


Figure 4: Comparison of the Mean Score from Q1-Q5

It is important to foster student participation in the class, considering the class's purpose of cross-cultural communication. More important is what students actually learn from this environment. There is no significant difference between the two types of connections. However, we can see a difference between the two groups of students in the three-point connection. This will be explained by comparing the attitude of the two groups of students to the class; namely, those who answered that they learned much and those who answered that they learned less based on Question 2. (a) was the positive (high) evaluation group: PE group, and (b) was the negative (low) evaluation group: NE group. Figure 5 shows that the PE group participated in the class more actively than the NE group. In particular, there is a valid significance concerning Question 1. ($t=2.441$; $df=18$; $p<0.05$)

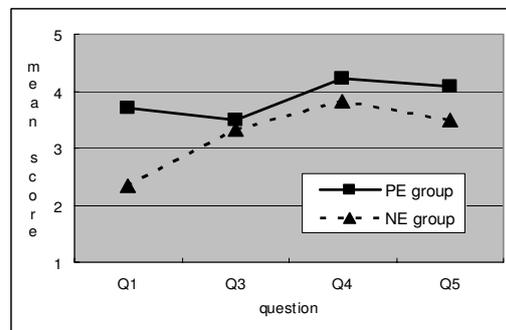


Figure 5: Comparison of Evaluation by the Difference of Awareness to Learning

Figure 5 shows that there are many students in the NE group who chose the answer "chat only", whereas in the PE group many students chose the answer both "chat and visual images". Most of the students backed their answers up with the reason: a. "It gives us information" in the sub-question of Q8.

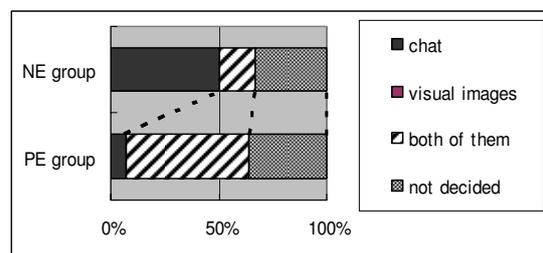


Figure 6: Visual Images vs. Chat

From the above analysis, the characteristics of the NE group are shown as follows: (a) less motivation to meet classes in more countries than at present, (b) less awareness of the difference between two-point and three-point connections, and (c) less awareness of other countries by watching visual images.

Examining the students' reaction to the collaborative space, Multi-Culture box, the Japanese students, faced with the question: "What were you most interested in during the class of four-country project", answered as follows.

Table 1 Interesting Items

image	39% (9 persons)	Screen View
chat	0% (0 person)	
voting	57% (13 persons)	Culture Box (collaboration)
other	0% (0 person)	
no answer	4% (1 person)	
total	100% (23 persons)	

There were 57% students who chose Multi-Culture Box. These students illustrated the reasons in more detail than other students with much consideration to their partners in other countries. This indicates that interactive devices such as this Multi-Culture Box create a collaborative classroom, which fosters a sense of belonging, albeit within a virtual settings.

5 Conclusions and Further Considerations

We described the experimental class and discussed how the use of a high-quality video-conferencing system, a chat system, and a web-based voting system promoted the establishment of effective multilateral environments. Our study has also shown that the three-country connection motivated students to participate in cross-cultural communication more so than with the two-country connection. According to our survey, the classroom setting in the multi-point connection will have a positive impact in cross-cultural communication on those who are highly aware of learning.

It is certain that the utilization of video-conferencing using multi-point connections is of great importance to create global classes on the Internet. The above discussion leads us to the conclusion that interactive online collaborative activities impacted students' understanding of the meaningfulness of multicultural language learning. The results of our study will advance current knowledge and elicit protocols required to support effective multicultural language learning when working as legitimate, peripheral participants (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in a global setting. We plan to further develop a system that supports multicultural language learning in global network environments. Further investigation and evaluation will be necessary in order to develop multi-point connections with a much more detailed survey to learners' awareness corresponding to more expanded network environments.

Acknowledgements

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Analysis of Verbal Processes in Medical Research Articles

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Abstract

Highly empirical and objective state of medical research articles constrains writers of these texts to use limited and certain number of Verbal processes. This study tries to identify Verbal processes quantitatively and interpret them qualitatively in terms of frequency, active versus passive, human Sayers versus human like Sayers and tense.

Keywords

Verbal processes, Human Sayers, Human like Sayers, Active vs. Passive, tense

Introduction

Verbal clauses represent processes of saying, commending, offering and stating. They include different modes of saying and even semiotic processes such as *show* and *indicate*.

Halliday and Mattiessen (2004) discuss that Verbal processes have different uses, for example, they have an important role in academic discourse, making it possible to quote and report from various scholars while at the same time indicating the writer's stance with verbs like *point out*, *suggest*, *claim* and *assert* (p.253).

Interestingly, the "hard facts" in scientific texts are mainly expressed by certain Verbal processes which may have human or human like Sayers. The writers of scientific texts and research articles use limited and specific verbs to fulfill their communicative purposes.

1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to identify the Verbal processes used in research articles in a credible medical journal, New England, which exclusively publishes experimental research studies.

2 Data

Five articles, published between 2005 and 2007, from a medical journal, New England, which is available on Medline, were selected. These five articles provided a corpus of 28020 words which comprised 1260 processes. Of these 1260 processes, about 112 were of Verbal processes.

3 Method

The Verbal processes were identified and analyzed in different parts of the article. The approach to

analysis of texts were explanatory, non experimental, quantitative and interpretive. The processes were interpreted and discussed by three raters who are ESP teachers and agreement of %95.2 was gained.

4 results

The findings of this study are presented in 4 categories; frequency and distribution of verbal processes, human versus human like, active versus passive and tense.

4.1 frequency and distribution

From the corpus of 28020 words, 1286 processes were identified. From this body of processes, 112 (%8.70) were Verbal which makes a relatively low percentage as compared with other processes. The following table shows Verbal processes in comparison with other processes.

Table 1: frequency of Verbal processes as compare with other processes

Material	496	%36.46
Relational	509	%39.58
Mental	175	%13.6
Verbal	112	%8.70
Existential	19	%1.5
Behavioral	2	

There was an attempt to identify the typical Verbal processes used in different parts. As the table shows the range of verbs used in these five articles is limited and seems to be specific to this genre.

If we exclude those Verbal processes occurring once, there will be 12 processes with a relatively frequent occurrence. As table 2 shows, the processes lack empathy and are intentionally used to express the objective state of the work (compare them with for example, *insist*).

Table 2: typical verbs with their frequency

Indicate	20
Assign	14
Suggest	10
Report	9
Show	7
Define	5
Predict	4
Denote	3

Agree	2
Confirm	2
Ask	2
Describe	2

4.2 Human versus human like Sayers

The Verbal processes may have human or human like Sayers. The findings of this study indicate that the number of Verbal processes with human Sayers is comparable with human like Sayers (% 52.67 and %40.17). However, there were certain verbs like *denote*, *show* and *indicate* which are exclusively used with human like Sayers. On the other hand, there are processes that are only used with human Sayers.

These processes are *agree*, *define*, *describe* and *assign*.

4.3 Active versus passive voice

The findings of this study show that active voice (%60.71) was used more than passive (%36.60). Interestingly, active voice processes were often accompanied by human like Sayers. There were 45 active voice verbs with human like Sayers while this figure was only 16 for human Sayers. On the other hand, there were 40 passive verbs with human Sayers.

4.4 Past tense versus present tense

Two types of tense were used in these articles, past and present tense, with a few cases of present perfect.

In abstract part, the background of the study is expressed in present tense while the method is in past tense.

In introduction part, the primary tense is present or present perfect. The method part and results are expressed in past tense. However, the tables or diagrams are explained by present tense. When referring to the method or procedures, past tense is used in discussion.

In results and discussion, whenever the writer refers to a table or figure or view, present tense is used, while discussing the methods requires the use of past tense.

5 Discussion

The low percentage of Verbal processes (%.8) compared with other processes indicate the low potential of research articles for personal interaction. In this genre, people are not the main Sayers but the trials, data, findings and results convey the message. This could be a possible reason for not mentioning the human Sayers explicitly and using passive voice.

Contrary to this, the human like Sayers are used

in active voice and often topicalized. It could be implied that the doer of the action is not as important as the action, the outcome or findings.

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The Effect of Noneuse of EFL Learners' L1 by an Instructor in Classrooms

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Abstract

This study examines the effect of the variation of teacher talk on EFL learners' performance, especially the one related to listening comprehension skills, by chronologically observing a Japanese first language (L1) instructor's classrooms at a university.

Keywords

teacher talk, first language, EFL classrooms, listening comprehension skills, utterances, functions

Introduction

It has always been an interesting question how much effect the variation of teacher talk in EFL classrooms on learners' performance, especially on listening comprehension skills. Of greater interest to EFL classroom researchers is the question whether or not instructors should use their learners' L1 in EFL classrooms, especially in culturally homogeneous environments such as Japan where the majority is monolingual. However, there is little discussion on the issue of whether instructors' use of their learners' L1 in EFL classrooms would be more helpful for the learners' acquisition of English or whether an English-only teaching environment would be more efficient in EFL classrooms.

Therefore, my study examined the effect of the variation of teacher talk on EFL learners' performance, especially the one related to listening comprehension skills, by chronologically observing a Japanese L1 instructor's classrooms at a university. Is it really the case that the more English an instructor uses as teacher talk in classrooms, the more the students' English listening comprehension skills will improve within only a few months, or will there be no effect on the students' listening comprehension skills even after they have been exposed to 90% English in class? In addition, I conducted a survey of student opinions of four English classes, where more than 90% of teacher talk consisted of English. The survey inquired whether or not the students had experienced such an

almost-English-only class before, and how they felt about their current English classes where more than 90% of teacher talk consisted of English.

Hypothesis: An increase in the use of English by the instructor in the classroom will result in the improvement in the learners' listening comprehension skills.

1 Methodology

For the investigation into the students' performance, the same listening comprehension test was administered individually to Group A and Group B, once at the beginning of the quarter, and again at the end of the quarter after fifteen hours' lessons (i.e. seven weeks later); however, the important point was that the degrees of exposure to English were intentionally designed to be different in the two groups: that is, Group A students were exposed to 53% English and 47% Japanese, whereas Group B students were exposed to 93% English and 7% Japanese. The same test was given to both groups and each student's test results were analyzed. As for English and Japanese teacher talk, the instructor was videotaped in a natural setting during two complete one-hour lessons during the quarter; one with Group A and one with Group B. Then, data were collected from observations of the videos and analysis of written transcriptions of the videos.

2 Findings and discussion

2.1 Teacher Talk Results

The results of the observation of the instructors' teacher talk in the one-hour lessons show that the instructor spoke English 93% of the total teacher talk time with Group B, but only 53% with Group A. The data also indicate that the proportions of English Explanations and Directions used for Group B are twice and almost three times as high, respectively, as for Group A. On the other hand, the instructor used about seven times and eight times as much Japanese for both Explanations and Directions, respectively, with Group A as with Group B.

2.2 Students' Score Results

The results indicate that there were eight students in Group B who were able to score their second test over 20% more than their first test, whereas there were only two students in Group A for such improvement. Comparing the mean scores of the first and second tests by both groups, the mean score of the second test performed by Group B is 32% higher than that of the 1st test, while the improvement by Group A is only 10%.

Next, the mean scores of the two tests by part were analyzed for both of the group. From these results, it was found that both groups showed a lot more improvement in their performance for the shorter conversation-style questions in Parts I and II than for the longer statement-type questions in Part III. Group B's performance for Parts I and II was improved by as much as 50% on average, although the improvement for Part III was only 16%. For the Group A's performance, the increase in Parts I and II was 16%, but only 5% for Part III.

2.3 Survey Results

With the English Classes' Survey, the results indicate that most of the students had very few opportunities (42% for "almost never" and 26% for "never") to be exposed to English teacher talk in classrooms in high school. The survey results also show that, even though nearly 70% of the students had not been accustomed to English-only environments like that at the university, 57% of the students now felt comfortable in such a classroom setting, 35% were not sure about it, and only 6% could not enjoy the class. To the question of "How did or do you feel in class?", 55% of the students chose the answer of "In the beginning, I was nervous, but now I am more relaxed". Regarding the question on whether they think English-only classes help them to learn English, 93% of the students thought they were helpful. The comparison between the learners' comprehension ability of teacher talk based upon the survey's self-report and the answers of the question about helpfulness of English was also investigated. The findings demonstrate that the more the students understand teacher talk, the more they believe that English-only classes are helpful.

3 Conclusion

This experimental study investigated how much effect the nonuse of Japanese learners' L1 by an instructor in an EFL classroom had on the students' listening comprehension skills. The findings of this study have led to several conclusions:

First, the less Japanese and the more English an instructor used for teacher talk in EFL classrooms,

the more the learners' listening comprehension skills of English were improved after only two months' lessons.

Second, the effectiveness of the learners' listening comprehension skills was found to improve in short conversation exercises to a greater extent than in long statement-style conversation exercises.

Finally, it seems to be the case that a great number of the students who had never, or almost never had, an opportunity to listen to 90% English teacher talk were able to improve their listening comprehension skills, even in quite a short period, once they had an opportunity to be exposed to plenty of English teacher talk in classrooms at the university. Therefore, my study seems to confirm the hypothesis that increasing the amount of English teacher talk leads to the improvement in students' English listening comprehension skills.

However, since this study did not investigate the effectiveness of a 100% English-only learning environment, we still do not know whether or not it might lead to a greater improvement in learners' English skills than in a learning environment where less English is used. Further research on this will be needed in order to determine the most effective EFL learning environment to enable Japanese students to improve their listening comprehension skills.

Extensive Reading of Authentic Materials and Graded Readers in an EFL context

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Abstract

Extensive reading instruction in an EFL context, especially, at the university level has been neglected in Korea. This study examines extensive reading approach in the university English reading classes. While most Korean high school graduates are mostly accustomed to intensive reading approach, they are unfamiliar with the extensive reading approach. Although, many studies indicate the benefits and advantages of extensive reading, many schools and instructors at the Korean universities still hesitate and refrain from adopting ER approach into their reading curriculum. Therefore, this study investigates extensive reading approach using both authentic materials and graded readers in the English reading and Practical English classes.

Keywords

extensive reading, authentic materials, graded readers, EFL, korean university

Introduction and Literature review

With so many apparent benefits attached to extensive reading, it is quite amazing and disappointing at the same time that such a little attention has been given to ER in Korea. Most Korean students in secondary and even in higher education as well, spend enormous time dwelling and struggling with English grammar, translating, and reading, but only to be disappointed with their slow progress in learning English. In an attempt to reduce their frustration in the pursuit of English

competency, this paper suggests that ER can serve as one of core approaches or play a key supplemental role in realizing more fruitful English reading program.

Simply, extensive reading is a way of learning a new language in which students read a lot of rather easy material that they have chosen. Most of learning takes place out of classroom because they read independently at their own time and place. The reading either authentic(text written for native speaker in its original form) or graded readers(texts simplified for non-native readers) is read at their comfortable pace but rather fast trying to capture the general meaning of the contents with minimal usage of dictionary to look up unknown words.

Moreover, ER is more effective when students are allowed to select their own reading material of interests, and when it is carried out over a sustained period.

Many studies support the claim that ER can develop and improve learners' ability in reading comprehension and vocabulary development, while helping learners to be motivated to read extensively in the new language and build confidence in dealing with longer texts.

1 Research methods

This study has been carried out for four semesters of varying English reading and Practical English reading classes at Korea university, and elsewhere. Several methods were used including pre-test and

post-test, questionnaire, interviews, and student diaries to answer relevant questions: 1) extensive reading improves reading comprehension ability 2) whether ER helps in the vocabulary development 3) benefits gained and difficulties encountered from extensive reading of authentic texts and graded readers 4) and whether ER approach motivates EFL learners to read more materials in the target language and whether they would recommend to other students.

Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Korea University, Seoul, Korea.

2 Results and conclusion

Results indicate that students of extensive reading instruction performed significantly higher in the post-test which measured reading comprehension ability and vocabulary than the students of regular intensive reading classes who were not introduced to the extensive reading program. Similar results were found for the Practical English classes as well. Moreover, students who participated in the extensive reading expressed far more motivation and interests in continuing learning the target language, and especially showed interests to read even after the semester was finished.

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Learning English through social issues: Ways to develop ESL learners' social and cognitive strategies

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Abstract

The use of social issues as a source of teaching material has long been popular among ESL teachers. It is especially compatible with a content-based or theme-based approach. Social issues provide the content which can motivate learners' interest, inspire thinking as well as stimulating interactions. Newspaper articles, in particular, are a rich source of reading texts with updated, authentic information relevant to students' everyday life.

The many advantages of using social issues for second language teaching were recognized by the Hong Kong Education Bureau, as they proposed a New Senior Secondary (NSS) Curriculum to be implemented in 2009. There will be a Compulsory Part and an Elective Part in the new curriculum, and one of the elective modules is "Learning English through Social Issues". As social issues are thought-provoking and often controversial, they are suitable for higher-level learners. With proper scaffolding from teachers, learners are able to develop cognitive and social strategies through social issues.

This paper explores ways to teach English through social issues. The focus is on how materials based on social issues can be designed and adopted to help learners develop cognitive and social strategies effectively.

Keywords

Social issues, issues-based teaching, content-based teaching, language acquisition, cognitive learning, language awareness, metalinguistic knowledge

Introduction

The use of social issues in ESL/EFL is not new to English language teachers. Social issues provide varied and rich contents for teaching materials. Students learn the target language through

exploring social issues, thus developing their other skills simultaneously. Learning English through social issues is common in content-based instruction (CBI). In Hong Kong, English language teachers often use social issues as the teaching content, especially for higher level learners. In 2004, the Hong Kong Education Bureau proposed a New Senior Secondary (NSS) Curriculum to be implemented in 2009, in which one of the elective modules to be taught formally is "Learning English through Social Issues". The inclusion of this elective module in the NSS Curriculum does imply the recognition of social issues as a source of input for effective language learning, in which it helps enhance students' language skills and generic skills.

This paper explores how the use of social issues fits in the social and cognitive approaches to language teaching by examining the relevant theories, and illustrating how social issues can be effectively used in the English language classroom.

1. Social issues as a source of input

Learners benefit from learning through social issues, which are thought-provoking and often controversial. Through exploring and researching into social issues, learners "will learn to define issues/problems, analyse information, understand the arguments and use of language in the texts..., and express their points of view about the issues through speaking and writing" (Curriculum Development Council and Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority, 2007, p.44). From the social and cognitive perspectives of language learning, social issues stimulate both individual thoughts and group interaction. Through analyzing texts on social issues, such as newspaper articles, students' language awareness is raised. Interaction takes place when students have to clarify, justify, argue or refute points of view. All these can help enhance learners' social and cognitive skills.

2. Natural language acquisition through social issues

Like other materials used in CBI, social issues are often used to help focus learners' attention to meaning, while they are acquiring and developing their language skills subconsciously through the content. They provide the context and purpose of learning, thus facilitating acquisition. The rich variety and source of social issues can engage learners deeply in the meaning, as they are often relevant to everyday life. When well-chosen, social issues are interesting and thought-provoking. Language acquisition takes place through comprehensible input and negotiation of meaning. (Krashen, 1985, Lightbrown & Spada, 1993). For higher-level learners, social issues enhance their Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1981), which is essential for academic language use.

3. Cognitive learning through social issues

Learning English through social issues does not only foster natural language acquisition. It also enhances cognitive learning. The rich sources of texts on social issues found in the media such as newspapers, both spoken and written, are useful materials for raising learners' language awareness as well as metalinguistic knowledge. Teachers can select varied genres and consciously focus learners' attention on the linguistic features of different modes of writing and text types. Through noticing, the input provided by the varied texts can eventually be internalized if appropriate teaching strategies are used (Schmidt, 1993; Ellis 1994). Apart from linguistic awareness, learning English through social issues also enables learners to acquire generic skills, in particular critical thinking, communication, collaboration, problem-solving and study skills.

4. Selection of materials and teaching strategies

To make teaching and learning effective, teachers should select the kinds of issues which suit their learners. Some criteria of selection of social issues can be adopted to ensure that the issues chosen are current, interesting and relevant to learners, The information of the issues has to be easily available through accessible channels. For learners of different levels, teachers can select materials of varied complexity. Many activities based on social issues can be designed, such as identifying social issues and their impacts, language awareness

activities like identifying structural and linguistic features/modes of writing in different genres, thematic vocabulary building, primary and secondary research, defining and explaining social issues, reflecting on and expressing viewpoints from different perspectives, discussion and debating, role play, writing different genres, oral presentation, and so on. The list is not exhaustive.

5. Conclusion

Learning English through social issues is an effective way to foster natural language acquisition, as it provides the content for learning, which focuses on meaning. At the same time, learners are also able to deepen their language awareness when learning from a variety of texts. To make the best use of social issues to teach English, teachers should carefully select interesting materials and pitch them at the right levels of the target learners. Learning activities should be designed appropriately to enable natural acquisition and cognitive learning to take place.

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Current Perceptions and Beliefs Among Incoming College Students towards Learning English— A Case Study in National United University

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Abstract

Beliefs and attitudes toward English and its culture influence student's intention, motivation and success. The purpose of the present study is to investigate the perceptions and attitudes of recent incoming college students (freshmen) concerning English as a required course and a measure for graduation. Two hundred and eighty-seven freshmen enrolled in National United University in Taiwan participated in this study. The participants were classified into two major groups of learners according to their educational background: The first group consisted of regular high school graduates, and the second was composed of technical and vocational high school graduates. A survey with five-Likert scale was conducted to collect data. The results illustrated that career-driven and instrumental clusters were found to have a significantly positive motivational effect. Students change their attitude from unfavorable to favorable toward English learning because they can perceive the incoming value and the positive outcome. It is hoped that the exploration of students' evolving beliefs and concerns will provide teachers with sufficient information to improve the teaching-learning process through the development of timely, meaningful, and responsive English learning environments.

Keywords

perceptions, motivation, attitude, measure for graduation

Introduction

An increasing number of universities in Taiwan have already implemented a policy of using English proficiency as the measure for graduation; therefore, it is necessary to learn the student's perceptions and attitudes toward such kind of requirement. According to Fishbein (1963), human beings are usually quite rational and make systematic use of the information available to them. They consider

the implications of their actions before they decide to engage or not engage in a given behavior. In terms of English learning, a person who believes that learning English will lead to mostly positive outcomes will hold a favorable attitude, while a person who believes that learning English will lead to mostly negative outcomes will hold an unfavorable attitude. There is no doubt that students' attitudes toward English learning are closely related to their beliefs and perceptions, motivation and intention, and above all, their effectiveness and success in the classroom (Horwitz, 1988). There will not always be perfect correspondence between intention, motivation, and behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Barring unforeseen events, a person will usually act in accordance with his or her intention. Strong intention and favorable attitudes resulting from motivational domain, indisputably, can lead to the immediate determinant of the action.

Although knowledge of a person's perceptions and attitudes can tell us little as to whether he/she will perform some particular behavior, it can tell us something about her overall pattern of behavior. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate students' perceptions and beliefs concerning English learning, with which teachers can design language curricula and materials meeting students' needs in terms of course offerings, classroom instruction, maintaining students' motivation and retention (Tse, 2000).

Roberts (1992) conducted a study on students' perception of the importance of foreign language study and found that culture and business were ranked as the most important reasons to study foreign languages. Relatively similar findings were revealed in Ely's survey of freshmen university students of Spanish. Ely (1986) classified his findings into three motivational clusters: an integrative culture-driven cluster, an instrumental or career-driven, and a third requirement cluster. The culture and career clusters were found to have a significant positive motivational effect, whereas the

requirement cluster possessed a weak negative relationship to motivation. Price & Gascoigne (2006) reviewed 155 essay answers to the question on why students should and why students should not be required to study a foreign language. They classified the statements given by the 155 first-year college students from University of Nebraska into pro and con categories. The top three pro responses are cultural understanding, individual job/career success, and broadening of personal perspective. Among the con categories, the most commonly cited reasons for not studying a foreign language was that the students simply did not find it necessary, or "no need". Eight percent of the anti-foreign language study statements lamented the fact the language requirements are imposed against one's will. The findings of Ely's (1986) are substantially consistent with those of Price and Gascoigne's (2006).

This study attempts to investigate what motivational clusters motivate Chinese college students to learn English. The research question posed in this study is: What perceptions and attitudes do incoming college students in Taiwan possess concerning English learning and English requirement? In general, what, if anything, motivates them most to study English? The goal of this study is to understand students' perceptions of and attitudes toward English learning and English requirement so as to help English teachers develop approaches and create an educational environment that is conducive to success (Roberts, 1992; Tse, 2000).

1 Method

1.1 Participants

Two hundred and eighty-nine freshmen participated in this study. Half of them, graduates of senior high schools, had English classes six hours a week in the past three years. However, the rest, graduates of vocational and industrial high schools, had English classes only two hours a week in the past three years. Though they have studied English in school for more than seven years, the total amount of time they have been exposed to English varies greatly. Therefore, their English proficiency ranges from elementary to advanced level. They are majoring in both Management and Technology and Science. Their average age is 18.1 years old.

1.2 Instrument

The instrument used in this study is a 40-question survey with 5-Likert scale. The survey questions were developed by the researcher and revised by the other two English teachers, based on the findings of Roberts (1992), Ely(1986), and Price & Gascoigne

(2006). The questions were pilot-studied by a group of 50 students of the same English proficiency level and major as the participants. The first manuscript contained 50 survey questions; after the pilot study ten questions of ambiguity and irrelevance were deleted.

1.3 Procedure

All the participants filled out the questionnaire in the first class hour, without interpretation or explanation. The collected data were analyzed and classified employing SPSS package.

2 Result and Discussion

The results showed that career-driven and instrumental incentives significantly influence students' desire to learn English. Among this group of participants, integrative motivation, such as interest in foreign languages, culture, society, did not seem to play such an important role as instrumental one.

Future career is of the first and foremost concern to the participants. Of the forty survey questions, questions ranked as top 1 through 15 are closely related to career-driven clusters. More than 82% of the participants believed that a mastery of English would make them an ideal candidate for a variety of interesting and profitable jobs, more competitive in their future career, and most important of all, lead a more colorful and valuable life. They could perceive the value of mastering English, which in turn, would motivate them to a great extent.

Apart from career-driven factors, instrumental motivation ranked as the second factor affecting students' English learning. Eighty-five percent of the participants thought that giving awards would force them to study English harder, whereas 81% thought that the implementation of English proficiency as a measure for graduation together with social pressure and value motivate them to spend more time on English learning.

Less than 60% of the participants said they learn English because they are interested in the foreign culture, history or society. In other words, most learners are not internally motivated, so their persistence in learning is worth doubting. More than 70% of the participants took English classes because it is a required course. However, when asked whether or not they will take other English elective courses in the next three years, 78% of them said that they had intention to take more English classes.

When asked what they thought of the implementation of English proficiency as a measure for graduation, 76% of the participants thought it is

necessary and it will enable them to get a better job or scholarship. Even though 71% of them thought they would feel pressurized, 81% of them stated that they would study harder to attain the designated goal and 75% of them thought taking the English proficiency test is a meaningful challenge. To conclude, participants hold a favorable attitude toward the requirement of English proficiency for graduation.

This study also found that external variables, such as social pressure, awards, students' prior experiences and sense of success influence their motivation to learn English to a great extent. About 85% of the participants thought offering an award to those whose English proficiency reaches the Intermediate level or above will encourage more students to take the proficiency test. More than 80% of them believed that the mastery of English has become a consensus among people in Taiwan. About 70% of the participants thought that they had bad experiences in learning English and had experienced a sense of loss. More than 70% of the participants revealed that they might completely lose interest in learning if they dislike the teacher. When asked if they are interested in learning foreign languages, 59% of the participants said yes. More than 71% of them said that they learn English because they want to communicate with foreigners, acquire new knowledge and broaden their horizon. Only 54% of them said that they learn English because they want to understand foreign culture, history, society, literature and so on. Under such circumstances, more than 89% of them said that they had an intention to take more elective English courses in college; however, how many of them will take actual action is worth investigating.

3 Suggestion and Pedagogical Implication

Mastering a foreign language needs a lot of time, effort, attention and persistence (Tremblay and Gardner, 1995). In this study, more than 75% of the participants thought it is necessary to implement a measure for graduation based on students' English proficiency, which will undoubtedly enhance their global competitiveness and communication. However, they felt pressurized to reach the required proficiency level for graduation. It will be fascinating to study what students do to balance the pressure and the requirement and, most important of all, what role persistence and effort play in the course of learning. Drawing on the findings, EFL teachers can do the following to improve the teaching-learning process.

First, encourage students to be an automatic self-motivated learner. To upgrade their English, they have to keep on learning. Second, give rewards to those who progress quickly.

4 Limitation

Only a small group of Chinese college students participated in this study. The findings can not be generalized. It would be interesting to replicate the study and also enlarge it by extending learner variables. The results might be different from the study done or at the very least, more informative.

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Appendix

Appendix A. Result of Survey Questions in the Order of Importance

No	Question	Mean	SD
1	20. I think offering an award of NT\$1,000 to those whose English proficiency reaches the Intermediate level or above will encourage more	4.25	2.44

	students to take the proficiency test.		
2	13. I think achieving intermediate level of English proficiency will enhance my competitive abilities in my future career.	4.24	0.83
3	47. If I can speak English fluently, I will be an ideal candidate for a great variety of jobs.	4.16	0.77
4	37. I am taking English courses just because I feel I will be able to have more opportunities to find a better job with a good command of English.	4.12	0.82
5	34. I am taking English courses just because I feel English is helpful for my future career.	4.10	0.82
6	45. I feel that the mastery of English has become a consensus among people in Taiwan.	4.10	2.55
7	48. If I can speak English fluently, I will have more opportunities to travel abroad on business.	4.09	0.77
8	49. If I can speak English fluently, I will have more opportunities to increase my own financial profits.	4.05	0.80
9	50. I feel as long as I can get my meaning across, it doesn't matter if I make a few mistakes when speaking English.	4.05	0.75
10	39. I am taking English courses because I feel I will be more competitive with a good command of English.	4.05	0.87
11	12. I think imposing the intermediate level of English proficiency as the measure for graduation will force me to spend more time on English learning.	4.04	0.88
12	46. I think that the	3.92	0.85

	mastery of English will make me lead a valuable and colorful life in the future.		
13	14. I think it is necessary to provide a series of preparatory courses for English certificate in addition to freshman English.	3.89	0.91
14	18. I think an English certificate of intermediate level is indispensable for getting a scholarship or getting a higher pay.	3.84	0.90
15	24. I think it is necessary to incorporate a definite goal, obtaining a certificate of English proficiency, into English instruction in college.	3.83	0.84
16	36. I take English courses mainly because I want to learn about the current intellectual trends of the world and thus broaden my worldview.	3.7	0.92
17	38. I am taking English courses because I believe learning English should be part of a well-rounded education.	3.68	0.93
18	35. I am taking English courses because I would like to communicate or talk with foreigners.	3.55	1.01
19	33. The major reason for taking English courses for me is to improve my grades in other academic subjects.	3.39	1.01
20	28. I take English courses mainly because I am interested in learning foreign languages.	2.96	1.04

Communication Apprehension and Willingness to Communicate

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Abstract

The main purposes of this study are (a) to identify the constructs that may generate communication apprehension and to investigate how they influence communication apprehension and reduce the level of willingness to communicate, and (b) to explore the basic mentality underlying these constructs. The data was obtained from semi-structured interviews with 10 Japanese female college students and one Vietnamese male student who provided a contrast for the data from the Japanese students. The study suggests that constructs such as perfectionism, competitiveness, Japanese mores, and face-protecting orientation may generate communication apprehension and the basic mentality underlying them may be other-directedness.

Keywords

Communication apprehension, willingness to communicate, other-directedness, perfectionism, competitiveness, face-protecting orientation, Japanese mores, Japanese sense of self.

1. Introduction

In a globalised society, English has gained the status of international 'lingua franca' and has become a necessary skill for being a member of the international community. In such a milieu, it is necessary for Japanese learners of English to have a sufficiently high level of willingness to communicate in English. The focal point of this study is the sample of serious learners of English who have a sufficient level of English proficiency and an eagerness to communicate in English but who have not always had successful communication experiences. It should help us, as language teaching professionals, to identify the factors that may impede their communication behaviour.

Communication apprehension, the mental construct defined as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (McCroskey, 1977, p. 78), has been identified as the strongest factor in reducing the level of willingness to communicate among Japanese college students

(Matsuoka, 2006). Communication apprehension is also identified as a psychological phenomenon called social anxiety. People experience this social anxiety whilst speaking before others, as Young (1991) has also observed. Accordingly, communication apprehension is likely to be a primary reason for the avoidance or disruption of communication.

The notion of willingness to communicate was originally developed in the field of first language communication study by McCroskey and Richmond (1987), and is defined as the intention to initiate and to engage in communication when the opportunity is given (McCroskey, 1997). This concept may be useful in elucidating why even serious learners with a high competence in English and high motivation have failed to communicate comfortably in English.

Other-directedness is the other key term in the present study because it may generate or affect communication apprehension, as was suggested in the previous quantitative study (Matsuoka, 2006). The concept of other-directedness is mainly derived from two sources; Kuwayama (1994), who maintains that the Japanese sense of self is embedded in 'reference other orientation', and Lebra (2004), who postulates that Japanese people sense their self as 'subject I' – the unique individual self – and as 'object me' – the social self, which is affected by others. Other-directedness refers to the mental sensitivity towards the outside world or towards others.

In the Japanese socio-cultural context, certain cultural norms, valuing reticence in particular, may hinder some English learners from actively verbalizing their thoughts and feelings, even when they desire to communicate and their proficiency level is sufficient. Exploring the workings and the factors of communication apprehension will be necessary for serious learners of English to raise their level of WTC and to feel comfortable in expressing themselves in English.

Two research questions for this study were posited. (a) What constructs may generate communication apprehension, and how do they affect communication apprehension and reduce the level of willingness to communicate? Also, (b) what is the core mentality underlying these constructs

and how is it formed?

2. Methods

2.1 Participants

Ten female Japanese undergraduate students majoring in nursing at a national university and one male Vietnamese college student participated.

2.2 Procedures

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants, who had voluntarily agreed to participate after a complete description and explanation of the present study were given.

Interviews with each participant lasted from 30 minutes to one hour, and were not audio or video taped. All the information gained from the participants was written in note form immediately after each interview session was completed.

3. Findings and Discussion

In order to answer the research question (a), firstly the data was scrutinized and categorized in an inductive manner. As a result, four constructs, which are a) competitiveness, b) perfectionism, c) face-protecting orientation and d) valuing reticence (one of the Japanese socio-cultural mores) were detected and identified for discussion in this study.

The data from the Japanese female undergraduate students illustrate the so-called 'good student mentality', manifested as competitiveness and / or perfectionism; in contrast with the data from the Vietnamese boy, who seemingly cannot afford to be either competitive or perfect. This interpretation seems to contradict the previous study (Young, 1991), suggesting that students who believe their language skills are not strong enough are likely to have higher language anxiety. However, in the Japanese context, among strong, diligent students with an adequate language proficiency there is a tendency to have competitiveness and / or perfectionism. In addition, the Japanese more of valuing reticence was projected and seemed to produce a reluctance to communicate or an avoidance of communication and to raise communication apprehension, which consequently reduced the second-language willingness to communicate. The effort to maintain face or face-protected orientation was also revealed.

Regarding the research question (b), other-directedness, which was found to be an indicator of communication apprehension in the previous study (Matsuoka, 2006), will be examined as a candidate for the core mentality underlying the aforementioned constructs. This is based on the belief that other-directedness generates

communication apprehension and also affects the level or strength of communication apprehension.

The essence of other-directedness is too much 'concern' or worry about how other people around them or the 'public' (*seken* in Japanese) may perceive the individuals. Consequently, the mentality of other-directedness may form group-oriented and shame-oriented or face-oriented cultures, manifested as competitiveness and perfectionism, which were indicated by the Japanese participants in the present study. The Japanese more of valuing reticence may also be formed by other-directedness in the form of the group-oriented mentality because it is believed that less verbalization or even silence should be valued in creating harmony and in avoiding direct conflict in Japan. It is generally believed in Japan that saying nothing is better than causing misunderstandings or trouble by saying something. Another factor of valuing reticence is found in the notion of the high-context society (Hall, 1976), where very little is coded in verbal messages because most of the information is already known, which may also have been generated by a group-oriented, sharing culture.

4. Concluding remarks

This study indicated that communication apprehension derived from other-directedness is manifested as competitiveness, perfectionism, maintaining face and valuing reticence, which in practice have reduced the level of L2 WTC among serious learners of English. In exploring the factors affecting the level of communication apprehension, the causes or factors generating other-directedness, which was found to be an indicator of communication apprehension in the previous study (Matsuoka, 2006), were discussed; and the Japanese sense of self related to socio-cultural factors, such as social preoccupation and relationality in communication, was considered as the basic mentality producing other-directedness.

With the results of the present study in mind, some pedagogical implications from previous research can be provided as possible methods for reducing the level of communication apprehension and for raising the level of willingness to communicate in English.

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An Inquiry into Strategies for Elementary English Teachers' Professional Development

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Abstract

This study attempted to explore about the strategies that English teachers have experienced in their professional life. A survey method was used to gather the data. A follow-up focus interview was conducted. The interview data were gathered to supplement the survey data and to assist in examining teachers' experiences of participating in the activities for their professional development. This study finds that the major types of teachers' participated professional learning activities were held by the bureau of education in their county, the most frequently participated topics were on English teaching techniques, and their motivations for participating in activities were mostly for their individual interests. The top priorities for their future professional learning activities are on topics of increasing individual English competency, improving English teaching techniques, and finding solutions to help students to increase their weak English. This study then offers pedagogical suggestions and implications for teacher educators, researchers, and policy makers in elementary education.

Keywords

elementary English teachers, elementary English teaching, teachers' professional development

1. Introduction

Recently elementary teachers' professional development has been a focus in teacher education and teacher training in Asia. However, few studies have focused on English teachers' professional development in rural elementary schools. Teachers in rural areas need more efforts, resources, and assistance to pursue their professional knowledge in learning to teach English. There are a lot of obstacles in elementary English instruction. A lot of teachers indicate that teaching English takes a lot of efforts. Besides, a lot of teaching pressure comes from children's parents, students' variation of language proficiency and classroom management. Teachers in rural areas face more difficulties as they

cannot have good living environments and sufficient educational resources. This study attempted to explore about the strategies and activities that teachers have experienced in their professional life. It aims to go to the next step to set up a model that can help teachers develop their professional knowledge in teaching English, particularly in remote elementary schools.

English language teachers in Taiwan have always been expected to keep up to date with the knowledge in the field, to take on the change in the educational system and to meet the needs of the school policy. Guided by *the Nine-year Integrated Curriculum*, to maintain higher professional standards, many elementary school teachers participate in a variety of training programs, including summer and weekend workshops. Most of the teachers have pressure in updating their knowledge and theory in English teaching, theory-into-practice, assessment, and increasing individual language proficiency. To cope with the pressure, they participate in activities and workshops to seek for comfort and achievement in their life-long professional development. This phenomenon of teachers' pressure and learning is not just found in Taiwan. As Richards and Farrell (2005) indicate, in recent years, language teachers in many parts of the world have also expressed a great interest in their own professional development. Thus, a growing interest has been in action research for practitioners to solve their own problems. However, there are also other activities that can be implemented in assisting teachers' professional development. This study set out to explore about strategies and activities to assist in-service English teachers in elementary schools for their professional development.

2. Literature review

Professional development is the motive for learning more about teaching and for seeking greater fulfillment as a practitioner. Teachers need to develop attitudes, skills, and confidence to frame their own agendas and to fulfill their professional

goals. Richards and Farrell (2005) indicate, many things can be learned from self-observation and critical reflection, while many cannot such as subject matter knowledge, pedagogical expertise, and understanding of curriculum and materials. Therefore, professional development should go beyond personal and individual reflection. It can include exploring new trends and theories in language teaching.

On discussing language teachers' professional development towards teacher's own personal goals, Richards and Farrell (2005) state that many language teachers are generally interested in keeping up to date with theory and practice in the field, in improving their teaching skills so that they feel more confident about what they teach and achieve better results with their students. They may also be interested in clarifying and understanding their principles, beliefs, and values. From this point of view, a number of areas for second language teachers' professional knowledge development may be identified as follows: (a) subject-matter knowledge such as English grammar, TESOL methodology, and other areas that are relevant to language teaching, (b) pedagogical expertise, namely the mastery of teaching language skills, (c) self-awareness including knowledge of oneself as a teacher, knowledge of ones' principles, and values, strength, and weakness, (d) understanding of learners such as learning styles, learners' problems and difficulties and ways of making content more accessible to learners, (e) understanding of materials and curriculum, (f) career advancement such as acquisition of the knowledge and expertise necessary for personal advancement and promotion (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

3. Methodology

The study first used a survey method to gather the information from the English teachers in remote elementary schools in the researchers' county and then it approached seven English teachers from the sample to have a focus-group interview. The survey was distributed by mail to 25 schools, 42 teachers. Thirty-two questionnaires were returned from individuals. A response rate of 78.6% was achieved. The questionnaire asked about teachers' background information, their years of teaching English, their experiences of and motivations for participating in professional learning activities, and their future needs of types of professional learning activities. There are also two open-ended questions for them to write about their experiences of participating in any activities of teacher study groups.

4. Findings and discussion

There are eight male teachers and twenty-three female teachers in this study. More than half of the teachers (56.25%) have less than five years of teaching experience. Most of the teachers (81.3%) have less than five years of English teaching at elementary schools. The result of the English teachers in these remote elementary schools indicates that only half of the teachers are certified teachers and these teachers might have long-term teaching commitment in the schools while almost half of the teachers might be teaching at these schools based on a short-term contract. Teachers' most frequently participated activity design was held and offered by the bureau of education in their county (59.4%). Next, activities held by elementary schools were ranked second (46.9%). Then workshops and training programs held by publishers was ranked third (43.8%). As to the activities or programs held by universities, teachers' participation rate was low. It might be that participation in credited-programs takes a long period of time to finish the courses and teachers might not have the commitment to finish them. Fourth, these teachers' transportation time to the neighboring universities was long so they might not have the willingness to participate in credit-courses, certificate programs, or relevant activities that takes longer time.

When teachers were asked about their past experiences of participating in English teaching and teacher training activities, the most frequently cited five types are ranked as follows: teaching Phonics (62.5), using games in English instruction (59.4%), using storytelling in English instruction (53.2%), using drama in English instruction (50%), and using English picture storybooks in instruction (43.8%). This result has some interesting findings. It echoes the results of open-ended questions and the results of the interview data, which indicates teachers' needs for survival teaching strategies and interesting teaching techniques to motivate students to learn English. First, teaching Phonics is the basic component in elementary English instruction so it is not surprising that teachers cited this topic as the most frequently participated topics, which is part of their basic survival skills. Second, incorporating games in English lessons is usually one component in the lesson plan as the wrap-up of a lesson during teacher's training courses. And the purpose of games is to create motivating learning atmosphere and to guide the students to learn with fun so it was ranked second on the topic list. Third, topics of using storytelling, picture storybooks, and drama in English instruction are popular for teachers, which indicate that these types of materials can create interesting and fun learning atmosphere too. In

addition, these types of texts might include authentic materials. Still, in current elementary English education, the objectives and purpose of English learning are vague for students as well as teachers so teachers need to prepare different types of learning activities to guide the students to learn pleasantly. Therefore, these training activities were ranked on the top choices.

When the teachers were asked what type of learning activity they are interested to participate in the future, the most frequently cited topic for teachers' future professional development activities is on the item of improving English teaching techniques (75%). The second frequently cited topic is on the item of preparing for GEPT high-intermediate course (62.5%) and improving teachers' individual English oral proficiency (62.5%). Teachers also indicate that they would like to attend short-term programs abroad to improve their English proficiency and to attend workshops on how to improve students' weak language proficiency and to narrow their competence gaps. These results first show that teachers still feel the need to learn more about English teaching techniques and they want to seek for resources to strengthen their teaching abilities. Second, as nearly half of the teachers in the sample were not identified as qualified English teachers. Thus, they hoped to take courses such as preparing for passing GEPT (General English proficiency Test in Taiwan) high-intermediate test so that they could be promoted to be as qualified English teachers. Third, most teachers wanted to improve their speaking proficiency. This result shows the positive aspect as to English teachers' learning. EFL teachers around the world always feel the need to improve their spoken ability. The teachers in this sample also showed this phenomenon. In addition, elementary English education mainly focuses on teaching students speaking and listening abilities so these teachers need to use the language naturally in the classroom. They don't want to see their own English ability rusted. Therefore, in the future when offering English training courses or activities, the institutes and governments can consider this type of programs or courses as the top priority. The top five choices indicate that professional knowledge development courses and programs for elementary English teachers should first support teachers' specific teaching needs for their day-to-day classroom activities.

Respondents were given some room in the questionnaire to write some additional comments regarding their experiences of participating in teacher study groups or programs during the past few years and their experiences of learning to be an English teacher. Important issues from comments

along with the interview data are selected for report here. First, no teachers in the sample had the experience of working with educators or researchers in their projects. Only a few teachers wrote about their experiences of participating in a teacher discussion group arranged by the bureau of education in the county, which was partly required during the year before the stud. The program required each school to send one representative teacher to attend one subject area every month on a Wednesday afternoon as scheduled. The teachers were not clear about the purpose of why the training program was initiated. Some of the participants in this study were assigned as the English representative teacher for their school. Three participants in this study had good discussion experience because their group had a well-organized leader to assign topics for leading the discussion. One teacher wrote that she gained a lot from the discussion group and she increased her teaching techniques and learned some tips from other teachers. Also, they could share teaching resources and exchange materials with one another. A couple of teachers indicated that their groups did not have a well-organized schedule and topic. Therefore, they thought this discussion group program was dismissed without a good ending and beneficial support for some teachers. Second, some teachers stated that they felt insufficient in their subject matter knowledge. This phenomenon was not just indicated in these teachers. Each summer, there are teachers participating in our university's summer courses for their in-service teacher training and learning. In Taiwan, in order to follow *the Nine-Year-Integrated Curriculum*, teachers in elementary schools need to keep up to date with the subject knowledge. English teachers might need to pursue more knowledge because English courses still have a lot of room for improvement as part of language arts in elementary education. Moreover, English teachers also need to develop individual good language skills not just subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge.

5. Conclusion

This study has conducted a whole-scale survey and thorough examination on this group of elementary teachers' professional knowledge development. These teachers' past experiences of and future needs for professional development provide researchers, educators, and policy makers a more focused analysis of the complex issues associated with professional development. It was this type of issue that is relevant to teachers' choices of their professional development activities and their needs for their every-day classroom activities that formed the basis of this study. Hence, this study finds that

the key to English teachers' professional development is the attention to their individual learning requirements. Guskey (1995) states professional development may be viewed as an integral part of a teacher's career cycle. It is "a self-directed journey to find meaning and appreciation in one's work, or a structured effort to keep professions abreast of advances in their field" (Guskey, 1995, p.126). The result of the study coincides with the literature that teachers' motive for learning is more about teaching and for seeking greater fulfillment as a practitioner.

This study finds that the activities for English teachers' professional development should be designed to enhance their general professional knowledge, to increase their English proficiency, to improve their pedagogical knowledge and skills, and to validate their attitudes towards teaching and learning, which in turn can contribute to students' learning. The following conclusions are made: First, professional learning activities should be designed to help teachers develop attitudes, skills, and confidence to frame their own identifies and to fulfill their professional goals. Activities to help teachers reflect on their beliefs and attitudes and to clear their thoughts should be arranged for discussion and idea exchange. Second, English teachers' professional learning activities should help teachers pursue more about their subject matter knowledge and pedagogical expertise. Teachers' most concerned achievement in English teaching is that they can have great fulfillment in English teaching. Thus, they need great teaching techniques to execute their learned knowledge. Activities for teachers to exchange experiences and ideas and share resources should be provided. Third, if possible, the bureau of education or ministry of education can provide opportunities for teachers to take short-term English programs in English-speaking countries in summer or winter vacations. Or the government can provide grants for teachers with great commitment to English teaching to study abroad. Teachers need to update their knowledge and keep increasing their English proficiency. Fourth, teachers all need to keep up with changes and explore trends and theories in language teaching. As Richards and Farrell (2005) state, many language teachers are generally interested in keeping up to date with theory and practice in the field, in improving their teaching skills so that they feel more confident about what they teach and achieve better results with their students. At the same time, some knowledge such as subject matter knowledge, pedagogical expertise, and understanding of curriculum and materials can be gained through workshops and programs from higher-level institutes. Therefore, teachers should

be guided to know that some professional development should go beyond personal and individual reflection. Fifth, the delivery designs of English teachers' professional development should emphasize the development of learning experiences that are efficient and effective in producing teacher learning. Surveying the needs for practitioners can result in better teacher participation and training effectiveness. In addition, for teachers in remote elementary schools, the physical location of the in-service training programs and courses should be convenient for them. As the participants from the interview suggested, selecting a convenient convention center for this group of teachers can be a better solution to increase participation rate. Also, elementary schools in neighboring communities can form an ally and propose the needs for their learning; schools can take turns holding the training programs.

Last, there is no best method of teaching and teachers just need to keep up with the knowledge and theory and to achieve their professional goal. Thus, teachers need to develop attitudes, skills, and confidence to frame their own agendas and to fulfill their professional goals. Owston (1998) defines professional development as a continuous, sustained process centered around the problems teachers face in the classroom. It must build upon teachers' knowledge and understanding of their students, and dynamics of their classrooms. Owston further enhances the definition by emphasizing the need to move away from a one-size-fits-all approach and move toward a tailored professional development program. Such a program would address the teacher's background, experiences, aspirations, and needs. Therefore, this study hopes to offer some insights for researchers, educators, and policy makers when designing professional development activities for English teachers in remote elementary schools as well as elementary schools nationally and internationally.

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English Acquisition through NNS-NNS Interaction in EFL Context

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Abstract

This study is to investigate the concept and the goals of Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (henceforth, CCDL) project, and especially to analyze the data from the Namseoul-Waseda CCDL Project (henceforth, NWCCDLP). The main purposes of this study are: the first is to identify the concept of CCDL, the second is to analyze the data from NWCCDLP, and the third is to suggest ways to utilize CCDLP as a tool for cultivating English competence for non-native speakers.

Keywords

Cross-Cultural Distance Learning, Non-Native Speakers, Communicative Competence, English Acquisition, Interaction
EFL Context

1 Introduction

This work aimed to identify the necessity of the notion of “World English” and apply this notion to English education situations. Also this work concentrated on the NWCCDLP and collected data thorough the questionnaires from the students who participated in NWCCDLP from the second semester, 2005 to the second semester, 2007. From the data analysis, it can be inferred that we need to set up a notion of World English in order to help the young students adjust to the globalized world. NWCCDLP can play a very essential role in identifying the world English notion and acquiring English through NNS-NNS interaction in EFL contexts.

2 World English Acquisition

These days, we are using English as a communicative tool in every aspects of life. Jenkins(2003) found that in the period between the end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth I in 1603 and the later years of the reign of Queen Elizabeth II at the start of the twenty-first century, the number of speakers of English increased from a mere five to seven million to somewhere between one-and-a half

and two billion. The English language was spoken in the mid-sixteenth century only by a relatively small group of mother-tongue speakers born and bred within the shores of the British Isles, it is now spoken in almost every country of the world, with its majority speakers being those for whom it is not a first language.

Crystal (1997) found that currently, there are approximately seventy-five territories where English is spoken either as a first language (L1), or as an official (i.e. institutionalized) second language (L2) in fields such as government, law and education. From these data, we can infer that English plays not only a role as an agent of transcending the cultural values of England or America, but also a role as a communicative tool for every aspect of life; economics, politics, culture, finance, travel, scientific research, military, etc.

Considering these factors in technological and cultural innovation, it is necessary to set up a new model of English as an international language. Until recent times, English was used as a communicative tool among native English speakers, but recently English was used as a tool among native English speakers (henceforth;NS) and nonnative English speakers (henceforth;NNS). Even more the communication between NNSs and NNSs is delivered through English, so it is urgent to set up a new model of English as an “International Language” or a “World English.”

3 NNS-NNS Interaction through CCDL

From the start of the second semester, 2005, Namseoul University participated in Namseoul – Waseda Universities Cross-Cultural Distance Learning Project (NWCCDLP). This project consists of two parts, one is the video chatting activities, and the other is a video conferencing lecture. For the video chatting activities, Namseoul University students made partners with students from Waseda University and made an appointment

to meet in cyber space through the “Live On” program. During this activity, most students from both universities met for one hour a week, and they had to record all their interactions through text chat and submit them as a report for the course.

The video conferencing lecture was based on the theme of “World Englishes and Miscommunications,” in which Namseoul Univ.(Korea), Waseda Univ.(Japan), Hudan Univ.(China), and Hannam Univ.(Korea) participated every Thursday from 14:40 to 16:10. Every student must study the lecture in advance through an on-demand lecture series on the Web. During the lecture, every student must participate in the course by listening and speaking only in English,

Through these two parts of NWCCDLP(the video chatting activities and the video conferencing lecture), the students can practice their English proficiency and experience the cultural difference and understanding by staying in touch and discussing World English with NNS in EFL contexts. So this project can be judged as a very useful tool for practicing English, understanding cultural differences between foreign countries, and establishing the norm for Asian English as one part of World English. Based on the results of the questionnaires, it can be concluded that the following are the most important findings from this research. The first thing is that most students were very impressed with the possibility of being able to get in touch with students and cultures in foreign countries. The second is that they could develop their English proficiency through NWCCDLP. The third is that they wish to participate in NWCCDLP again if possible, and they think this project activated the interests in cultural understanding and world English.

4 Conclusions

- 1) The first thing is that most students were very impressed with the possibility of being able to get in touch with students and cultures in foreign countries through CCDL program.
- 2) The second is that they could develop their English proficiency through CCDL.
- 3) The third is that they wish to participate in CCDL program again if possible, and they think this project activated the interests in cultural understanding and world English.
- 4) The results of the questionnaire for the participants in NWCCDLP make the point clear that Korean learners to realize it is more important to participate in the discussion and express their ideas and opinions than being silent until your English becomes perfect, which never comes after all.

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From Corpus to L2 Vocabulary Curriculum: Some Limitations of a Data-driven Approach

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Abstract

This paper examines the usefulness of frequency data about English words when designing a vocabulary curriculum for schools. It provides the rationale, methodology and initial outcomes of a collaborative project conducted with the Hong Kong Education Bureau (EDB). The project aims to develop an English vocabulary curriculum for the twelve years of free education in Hong Kong, with a view to bringing about expansion in students' vocabulary knowledge. The first part of the project aims to identify the English words which students might be expected to know by the end of each of the four Key Stages (Years 3, 6, 9 and 12). Potential vocabulary items were selected according to their frequency of occurrence in the *British National Corpus* (BNC) and the *General Service List of English Words* (GSL), then subjected to scrutiny by teacher representatives of the four Key Stages. Each Key Stage was represented by a sample of 70 teachers, all of whom took part in a simple decision-making task. The teachers rejected far more of the potential items than was anticipated, which prompted this re-examination of frequency as a starting point in vocabulary curriculum design.

Keywords

Vocabulary; corpus; curriculum

1. Introduction

In order to promote higher English vocabulary targets for Hong Kong school leavers, the Education Bureau has undertaken a study of the vocabulary needs of Hong Kong primary and secondary students, with a view to developing an English vocabulary curriculum for primary and secondary education. It was agreed at the outset that the four wordlists that would form the basis of the new curriculum would be compiled with reference to the following sources: (a) frequency data about English words, (b) teachers' views about the most suitable vocabulary for their students, and (c) the themes and topics recommended in the official Curriculum Guides (CGs). It was assumed that the

frequency of occurrence of English words would be a reasonably good guide as to the order in which they might be introduced within the new curriculum, with the most frequent words being taught first. However, although the various multi-million-word corpora of English provide valuable insights into vocabulary use by native speakers, for the purpose of compiling wordlists for L2 learners, frequency information needs to be reconciled with considerations such as the age, interests and needs of learners, as well as the usefulness of words within the learner's own situation.

2. Targets and Principles

The immediate aim of the project was to produce an English wordlist for each of the four Key Stages. The wordlists would consist of the vocabulary items which students might be expected to know by the time they reach the end of the respective Key Stage (i.e., Primary 3, Primary 6, Secondary 3 and Secondary 6).

2.1 Targets

The 5,000 word threshold identified by Laufer (1992) was taken as the minimum target to be reached by Hong Kong students by the end of secondary school. While higher targets are desirable and were considered, it was recognized that 5,000 words represented a substantial increase in vocabulary size for the majority of students. Since most school leavers currently know fewer than 3,000 English words (Chui 2005), raising the vocabulary target to 5,000 represents a genuine challenge for both students and teachers.

Recent studies of the vocabulary size of educated native English speakers (e.g. Goulden, Nation and Read, 1990) suggest that they know about 17,000 word families. Estimates of vocabulary size are generally based on the frequency of occurrence of individual words in the language. *The Vocabulary Levels Test* (Laufer and Nation, 1999), is widely used to measure the size of learners' English vocabulary and was the main instrument used in

Chui's (2005) study of Hong Kong students. The test is arranged in sections according to frequency.

It is proposed that the target 5,000 words should be learned over a period of twelve years. The first 2,000 words are to be covered by the end of the six years of primary education, with a further 3,000 words reserved for secondary school. The targets for the four Key Stages are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Proposed vocabulary targets by Key Stage

	Key Stage Target (no. of words)	Cumulative Target (no. of words)
KS1	1000	1000
KS2	1000	2000
KS3	1500	3500
KS4	1500	5000

2.2 Principles

2.2.1 "Knowing" a word

As with all vocabulary studies, the notion "knowing" a word needed to be clarified at the outset. For the purposes of the present wordlists, students are expected to recognize the words when they meet them in written and spoken texts and to know their meanings. They are not expected to have a full productive command of all of the items.

Traditionally, second language (L2) vocabulary knowledge has been regarded as consisting of two types: (a) receptive (or 'passive') knowledge, where learners recognize and understand words when they come across them, and (b) productive (or 'active') knowledge, where learners are able to use words in speaking and writing, with correct control of collocation, register and word-grammar. It is assumed that, for most learners, receptive vocabulary is considerably larger than productive vocabulary. The key considerations within most approaches to specifying vocabulary knowledge are form and meaning (e.g. Meara 1990). For the purposes of the present project, it is proposed that knowledge of form and meaning should be assumed for all words included in the lists, as described in Table 2.

Table 2: Word knowledge assumed for each item

Type of knowledge	Details
Form	written and spoken; the most frequent morphological variations
Meaning	one meaning introduced at a time; additional meanings = 'new' items

2.2.2 General, academic and technical vocabulary

Selecting the vocabulary for a mainstream English curriculum required careful consideration of a number of factors regarding the most appropriate type of lexis. It was agreed that the target vocabulary should consist of both general and academic English words. Since the word lists were intended to guide only the English curriculum, i.e. English as a school subject, technical vocabulary was not included. Students studying at English medium (EMI) schools have the opportunity to acquire some technical English lexis in their content courses. However, it is assumed that English as a school subject will address students' English language needs in general and academic contexts.

3. Frequency as a guiding principle

It can be useful, both for teaching and assessment purposes, to group English words according to their level of frequency within the language. Such frequency data are now readily available from the various English language corpora and word lists. Reference points when selecting items for the Hong Kong word lists were the *British National Corpus (BNC)* and *A General Service List of English Words (GSL)* (West 1953). The latter contains around 2,000 word families and is regarded as the classic list of the 2,000 most useful words for second language learners. The *BNC* is a 100 million word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of current British English, both spoken and written. For details of the corpus and how it may be used in language education, see Burnard (1995) and Aston & Burnard (1998). The 4000 most frequent words from *BNC* were considered for inclusion in the Hong Kong lists.

It was also decided to include all 570 items of *The Academic Wordlist (AWL)* (Coxhead 2000). This list consists of non-technical words which occur frequently across disciplines in academic texts and are considered fundamental to the study of an English-medium undergraduate degree.

4. Methodology

4.1 Teacher input

An important element in identifying suitable vocabulary was the input of teachers. It was recognized that teachers who are very familiar with a particular Key Stage are possibly the most valuable source of expertise concerning the vocabulary needs of their students. While data from *BNC* and *GSL* provided helpful indications about the usefulness of words from a frequency

perspective, teachers were believed to be in a better position to judge the suitability of vocabulary items in terms of their relevance and accessibility to students at different stages of their personal and cognitive development.

A sample of at least 70 teachers from each of the four Key Stages took part in a decision-making task which required them to scrutinize potential vocabulary items, selected on the basis of frequency, and to say whether they recommended their inclusion in a word list for the Key Stage they represented. The teacher decision-making task took place at the beginning of the compilation of a wordlist and provided the base of the list. The KS1 teachers were asked to consider the 2000 words of *GSL*. Their decisions were then reviewed by members of the project team. Items which were generally welcomed by the teachers were accepted for the list, while those which were overwhelmingly rejected were kept for the decision-making task for teachers from the next Key Stage. A schematic representation of the vocabulary selection procedure is shown in Figure 1.

When the project team reviewed the selections made by the teachers, they referred to the topics and themes recommended in the Curriculum Guides and supplemented the selections, where appropriate, with relevant items. Four corpora were also compiled, one for each Key Stage, based on the language of the most popular approved English textbooks. When selecting words for a Key Stage, the project team also referred to the textbook corpus to check on the vocabulary content of the existing teaching materials.

4.2 Data gathering

The teacher decision-making tasks took the form of a checklist. Each teacher was given an alphabetically arranged list of words and asked to indicate, using the “YES/NO” principle, which of the words they believed students should know by the end of the respective Key Stage. For Key Stages 1 and 2, teachers were given the option of completing the task on-line or marking their decisions on a hard copy of the checklist. For Key Stages 3 and 4, the teachers attended a vocabulary seminar at the University, after which they undertook the decision-making task in a computer laboratory. Some focus group discussions were also held with the teachers, where they had an opportunity to explain their selections and raise issues related to the wordlist compilation.

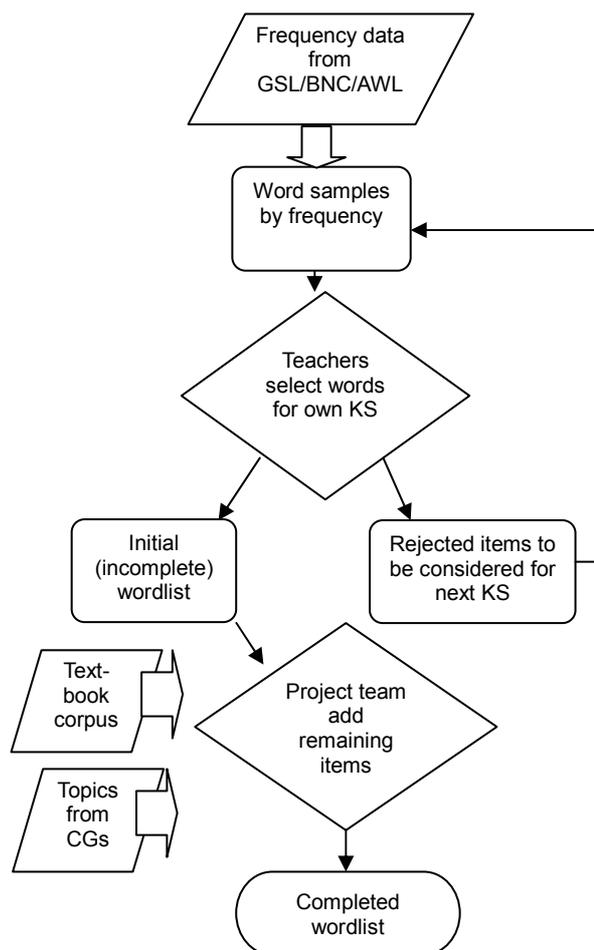


Figure 1: Design of the selection procedure

5. Data Analysis

The teachers’ decisions were analyzed as follows. For each of the words on the checklist, a score was calculated based on the number of teachers who recommended the word for inclusion. The words from each task were then rank ordered in descending order according to their scores.

The project team then considered the pattern of selections made by the teachers and looked, in particular, at the degree of commonality. In the light of the pattern of decisions, a cut-off point was determined for accepting words for inclusion in the word list. As a general rule, when an item was recommended by 40% and above of the participants, it was admitted to the word list. The team examined the teachers’ decisions carefully and made a collective decision about the levels of consensus and their significance.

Once the words selected by the teachers had been confirmed for inclusion, the project team set about the task of supplementing the list, in keeping with the principles elaborated above, to bring it up to the target level set for the Key Stage.

6. Discussion

Not surprisingly, there was little resistance on the part of the teachers to accepting *GSL* words. There appears to be little controversy about the usefulness of the first 2000 English words. However, many of the items were considered unsuitable for younger learners and were introduced at higher levels. By contrast, there was much less enthusiasm for many of the items which appear at the 3000 and 4000 frequency levels of *BNC*.

Teachers were often surprised to find so many prefixes and abbreviations in the corpus. Abbreviations such as *semi*, *mini*, *multi*, *micro*, *arch*, *Euro*, *poly*, and *mega* are now used as independent words in modern English. Abbreviations such as *MP*, *ID*, *PM*, *UN* and *WHO* also appear frequently. Opinions were divided about whether such items should be part of a Hong Kong wordlist.

The teachers were also struck by the colloquial character of many of the *BNC* items. Some examples are reproduced in Table 3.

Table 3: *BNC* words judged to be too colloquial

baffle; boo; blob; buck; clobber; fiddle; eve; grumble; grotty; hassle; fuss; tumble; wobble; potter; dodgy; swap; poke; cop; buzz; whack

Another set of words was widely rejected because their use was believed to be restricted to UK (see Table 4).

Table 4: *BNC* words judged to be “too British”

bobby; dodgy; dole; heck; lass; plonk; posh; innit; shilling; tuppence; kiddy; owt

7. Conclusion

The use of the *BNC* corpus was, at first sight, attractive because of its spoken component. The word lists need to contain vocabulary which is used in spoken as well as written English. However, because the language is representative of contemporary usage in UK, a large number of the words were considered inappropriate in the S.E. Asian context because they are possibly restricted to users of colloquial British English. Consequently, some editing of the *BNC* frequency lists was required before presenting the vocabulary to the teachers. The teachers' subsequent rejection of so many of the *BNC* items was disappointing. However, the exercise impressed upon us the extent to which the English lexicon is changing and how

different varieties of English represent an interesting challenge where the compilation of “local” wordlists is concerned.

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An Effectively Teaching Reading Using Literary Works in the EFL Context

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine certain possibility of teaching English reading comprehension using literary or narrative texts for young learners of EFL settings with special reference to story grammar. Story grammar means that all the literary texts have certain patterns as literary rules such as character, setting, problem, event, conflict, action, resolution, and theme. In this sense, story grammar is a pedagogical approach to teaching foreign language using literary texts. By training story grammar to young beginning readers we can expect that they can get good appetites for literary works as reading material. That is because literary text has much interesting sensibility in human mind. At last they can be good readers of literary works for their lives

Keywords

story grammar, literary works, teaching reading, young learners

Introduction

Not only elementary and secondary school students but even university students lack contact or exposure to literary works until their English proficiency reaches an advanced level. However, literary writings not only provide food for the soul and stimulate the human sensitivity, but use a language each with its own unique style and artistic sense, and are thus being recognized as very good linguistic materials in learning a foreign language. Therefore, foreign language teachers should encourage their students to come into contact with and read as many literary writings as possible from the early stage of language learning, in order to set the framework for a more refined language use as well as to help foster their personal character.

The reason that literary texts, despite their superiority as foreign language learning materials, are not being widely used is that teaching methods and activities using literary works have not been sufficiently introduced, not to mention the lack of

systematic study in this area. Recently, however, there has been active research and practice in other countries including the United States regarding the teaching of foreign languages based on literary writings. An example is the reader-response theory, which is an approach used to understand the psychological characteristics of the reader as a language learner when encountered with a literary work, stressing the psychological process involved. Also gaining awareness is the story grammar, which provides a strategy for cognitive literacy by allowing the reader to go beyond the passive meaning of the text whereby they are simply converting the meanings of sentences and paragraphs of a literary text into their mother tongue, to give vitality to the text as if it were moving dynamically as an organic structure (Ripley & Blair, 1989).

Most literary stories follow a regular pattern based on certain literary rules. Therefore, the use of literary works, when accompanied by an understanding and training on story grammar, will enable a more in-depth learning of language. The purpose of this paper is to seek an effective teaching-learning method using the story grammar in the education of English as a foreign language, especially with regard to reading and writing activities. This paper will therefore focus on understanding the story grammar and how it is used.

1. Literature and ELT

There have been broad consideration about appropriate instructional materials with the development of the theory of reading comprehension in English education. Also, in teaching ESL authenticity in texts and activities. As a result, a large number of ESL programs are using authentic literary works from the beginning stage of the study as well as to adult learning programs. Literary works provides benefits to learners such as creative thinking skills, lots of vocabulary, performing risk taking using target language (McKay, 1982; Preston, 1982; Povey, 1972; Spack,

1985; McConochie, 1985).

Literary texts make learners opportunity to be exposed to authentic language materials through the chance to use it in contextualized situations. So, it plays a dynamic role in understanding and functioning the language to the learners. Students can develop their linguistic ability associating more abstract area through reading literary texts (Brumfit & Carter, 1991).

Moreover, reading, literature enables learners to develop reading proficiency both in intensive reading and reading for fun (Constantino, 1994; Krashen, 1989; McKay, 1982). Once Grammar translation method was popular with approaching to great literary works of the target culture as a goal of language learning. After then, theoretical base to the literary text in reading bound for functional approach. Literary texts should be taught with different approach to change instructional goals in reading literature (Harper, 1988).

Akyel and Yalcin (1990) insists that EFL teachers make their students exposed to literature to achieve their linguistic and cultural goals and to develop their literary ability. However, there are many teachers who have much anxiety in dealing with literary text in oral and written competency in terms of methods and techniques. Moreover some teachers would think that literary text is not good to develop students' language proficiency. Still many students show their attitude in believing that literary text can be a good connection to their foreign language proficiency. Some students who have great English proficiency regard using literary works as a positive way. On the other hand, many students think of literary works as too long to read and difficult to understand (Liaw, 2001).

According to Martin and Lauri (1993), some EFL students feel that reading literature isn't helpful to achieve their fundamental goals. When they approach reading literary works they use for their special purposes such as vocabulary items, grammatical functions, and useful idioms, or reading aloud to practice pronunciation. This tendency was applied in the approach for rote memory in linguistic device (Harper, 1988; Ryder, 1986).

Therefore even good literary works can be just linguistic data to the non literary learners. Because language and culture could be waned in the process of creating literature (Cook, 1991). Main conflict in the use of literary work can be raised when they don't have clear reason to use that material or didn't use appropriate methodology. Nevertheless, using literary works in modern language education provide authentic, meaningful contexts and creative thinking skills. As a result, it will be helpful to imagination and emotional development as well as

good linguistic experience.

2. Story Grammar and Reading Comprehension

Story grammar is a study on the interactive conceptualization of reading. It is based on the conceptualization whereby the reader becomes consciously aware of the text structure. According to this conceptualization, reading comprehension is a process of mutual interactions or mutual exchange of transactions or thoughts between the reader and the text (Harris & Hodges, 1995).

A literary text not only acts on the human cognitive function but also appeals to the affective aspect so that it has a lasting effect on the reader's mind. When the reader learns to enjoy reading a foreign language engraving the text in his or her mind, its effect will also last through his or her life. When using a text with such affective value in linguistic learning, a strategic study is needed in order to understand the characteristics and unique structure of the text.

Study results show that teaching learners a strategy that focuses on the text structure not only strengthens their understanding of the text but also improves their ability to remember the information provided by the text (Taylor & Beach, 1984; Berkowitz, 1986). Therefore, learners need to learn how to read different texts. Also, they should learn different strategies depending on the type of the text (Beach & Appleman, 1984).

Cooper (1986) presents a concise concept of story grammar. According to his model, a story consists of several different episodes, each of which includes a setting, characters, events, actions, and a conclusion of the events.

The instruction of story grammar starts with explicitly providing the concept of story grammar including the setting, characters, events, actions, conclusion, and theme. A strategy that can be used by the teacher is to distinguish the story into meaningful episodes, develop questions to promote understanding, and guide the silent reading and discussions. These questions can help students focus on the relevant elements of the story. The results of the study indicate that questions focused on the story flow help learners to improve their understanding of the story (Beck, 1984; Leu & Kinzer, 1995).

Amer (1992) studied the effects of story grammar with 6th grade EFL students in understanding a descriptive text. The results of the study showed that having direct guidance on story grammar helped the EFL students identify the flow of the episodes in the story as well as understand the meta-structure of the story. The students developed a mental representation of the story, or

the story schema, which helped them concentrate on the central theme and remove any unnecessary details.

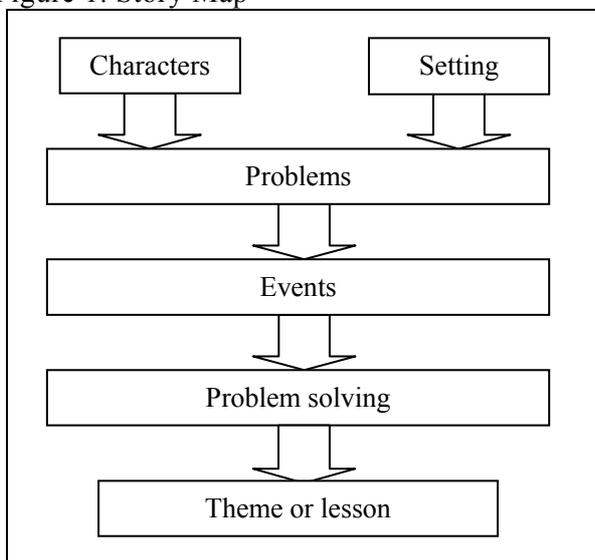
3. Reading Instruction Using Story Grammar

The problem one runs into when trying to use literary works with beginner-level English learners is that such learners tend to feel that literary writings are difficult, mainly due to their sentences, sentence structures, vocabulary, and cultural differences (Bernhardt, 1991).

To try to overcome such grammatical, lexical and cultural difficulties simply by superficial understanding of the text is bound to have limitations. Given such unique characteristics of literary works, the use of story grammar can be effective as a top-down approach to learning of reading.

In order to effectively explain story grammar, the teacher may use a visual or graphic representation. The visual or graphic representation of a text structure helps the learners understand and remember important information about the text. Furthermore, when they learn how to build and use a visual or graphic representation, they will know which parts of the text are important and how the ideal and concept are interrelated, thereby learning the strategy of reading (Vacca & Vacca, 1999).

Figure 1. Story Map



The representative tools of story grammar are the character map (Fig.2) and the story map (Fig. 1), which comprise the two representative formats used for visual representation of a story's key ingredients (Willis, 2002).

Figure 2. Character Map

Trait of Character:	_____
Trait of the character1:	_____
Trait of the character2:	_____
Trait of the character3:	_____

A variant of the story map is the story frame, which can be used as a post-reading activity to test whether the students understand the story grammar. The story frame focuses on the story structure rather than on the specific contents Cudd & Roberts, 1987), and adopts the process of filling the gaps. Rather than just taking out one word from a sentence, it picks out a key phrase or clause from a paragraph to emphasize the important aspects of the story or to summarize the story. Fig. 3 is an example of a story frame (Fowler, 1982).

Figure 3. Story Frame (Fowler, 1982)

In this story, the problem starts when _____.
After that _____.
Next, _____.
Then, _____.
The problem ends with _____.

The use of visual tools such as an OHP or beam projector is very helpful in story mapping. These tools can help with metacognitive recognition of the story elements within a text.

The following shows a typical set of story mapping procedures that may be used in an EFL class:

- 1) Select the text that includes the essential elements for a story map.
- 2) For beginners, the teacher should read the text aloud. While the students are filling in appropriate information in the story map, stop at key points to discuss the information.
- 3) The teacher may ask questions relevant to the story map to emphasize the key elements of the story.
- 4) Specific questions on the story map elements may lead to specific questions on the contents.
- 5) As the students' level of understanding increases, a less structured story may be introduced to enhance their critical thinking capability.
- 6) The students may be advised to use the story mapping format for writing their own stories.

4. Conclusion

Story grammar is a suitable learning method for beginner-level language learners such as elementary school students. It is originally a strategy for cognitive literacy used in the learning of reading in the native language, and is generally known to be useful when applied to beginner-level foreign

language learners. As discussed above, story grammar aims to improve the reading comprehension by providing the learners with the story framework when they are reading the story.

Although the use of story grammar is likely to have many limitations in situations like ours where English is learned as a foreign language, if we develop teaching-learning models and pursue teaching methods more proactively, it will surely help improve the reading ability as well as provide learners with a rich cultural experience from the early stage of learning a foreign language.

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The Interlanguage of Thai Undergraduate Students Majoring in English: The Use of Verb Phrase

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Abstract

This study investigates the use of verb phrases in the interlanguage of Thai undergraduate students majoring in English. This study is a combination of cross-sectional and longitudinal interlanguage study. The data was collected from ten writing assignments of 2 groups of students with different proficiency levels, the high and the low over a period of one academic year. The results show that the high and low proficiency groups use verb phrases with noun complements (V+NP) more than verb phrases with verb complements (V+VP). This may be due to the similarity of the syntactic patterns in Thai and English in the use of the former type of verb phrase. There are more deviant forms in the use of verb phrases with verb complements in both groups. This may be due to the differences in the use of verb phrases with verb complements in the two languages. The study also investigates the developmental aspect of the interlanguage of the students in the two groups. The interlanguage feature that is commonly found in the two groups is the unstable or the spiral feature. It can be divided into two types. The first spiral feature is the unstable feature where the problem exists at the beginning but the learners acquire the problematic syntactic feature in the target language towards the end. The second spiral feature is the unstable feature where the problematic feature exists throughout the processes of learning. This spiral feature exhibits the transitional stage of the learners' linguistic competence in their L2 acquisition.

Keywords

interlanguage, verb phrase, spiral feature, developmental aspect

1. Introduction

In language learning, learners create an approximative language system between their L1 and L2, known as an interlanguage. Learners' interlanguage provides important insights into the process of second language acquisition. It indicates that learning activity is taking place in the learners, and also shows us that the learner is developing on his or her way toward the target language. Learners form their own linguistic system. This is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the

target language but instead this language system falls between the two; it is a system based upon the best attempt of each learner to produce the target language based on their own state of development. The system that a learner constructs on his way to the mastery of a target language have been variously referred to as 'idiosyncratic dialect' (Corder, 1971), 'approximative system' (Nemser, 1971), and 'interlanguage' (Selinker, 1972). Selinker proposed the term 'interlanguage' or IL to refer to the systematic knowledge of an L2, which is independent of both the learner's L1 and the target language. Selinker (1988:29-32) also argues that there are five principal processes involved in learners' interlanguage, i.e., language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of second language communication, and overgeneralization of the target language. Moreover, the learners' interlanguage may be fossilized. Fossilization is a phenomenon in which language learners may 'tend to keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language no matter what the age of the learners are how much explanation and instruction they receive in the target language' (Selinker, 1988:28). In Thailand, there are studies about Thai learners' language. Most of the studies focus on learners' errors (Pongpaiboj 2002; Suwattananand, Engchuan, and Soranastaporn 2005). This study attempts to explore the learners' problems within the IL theoretical framework. The 3 main objectives are (a) to examine the use of verb phrases of Thai undergraduate students majoring in English with two different proficiency levels, (b) to find out the strategies influencing their interlanguage, and (c) to investigate their developmental aspect in the use of verb phrases in English.

2. Methodology

2.1 Subjects

The subjects in this study are 30 students selected from 120 first year students of the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Huachiew Chalermprakiet University. All of them were asked to take the HCU entrance examination. Based on their HCU scores, the 30 highest scored students and 30 lowest scored students were selected in the first round. These 60 students were asked to take CU TEP

(Chulalongkorn University Test of English Proficiency). Out of these 60 students, 30 students were selected according to CU TEP scores. Fifteen students with highest English proficiency score are selected as the high group, and 15 students with lowest English proficiency score are selected as the low group. The students in the high proficiency group obtained an average score of 463 (497-434) in the CU TEP equaling to TOEFL scores, and the students in the low proficiency group obtained an average score of 413 (428-380). The interlanguage corpus was built from the ten writing assignments given to these two groups of students during one academic year. The total number of the written assignments with ten different topics is 300 pieces of essay: 150 for the high group and 150 for the low group.

2.2 Data Analysis

In analyzing the data, the papers were read. Mistakes and errors or deviant forms of each subject were identified. Both the target-like forms and deviant forms in the use of verb phrase found in each subject from assignment 1 to 10 were recorded in order to investigate the developmental aspect of the interlanguage of the students in the two groups. The causes of each deviant form were also explained.

3. Results

3.1 The use of verb phrases

There are totally 1,645 verb phrase usages found in the written work of the high and low proficiency groups: 972 found in the high proficiency group and 673 found in the low proficiency group. This paper will discuss only the problems in terms of the syntactic structure of the verb phrases. Others problem in terms of tenses, subject verb agreement, and others will not be discussed here.

The use of verb phrases found in the data is of 2 types (1) the use of verb with noun phrase complement (V+NP) and the use of verb with verb phrase complement (V+VP) (Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968: 193-198). The high and low proficiency groups produced both target-like forms (TL) and deviant forms (DV) in both types of verb phrase. Table 1 exhibits the number of verb phrases with noun phrase complements and the number of verb phrases with verb complements in the high and low proficiency groups. The total numbers of verb phrase usages of the two groups are also given.

Table 1: Number of verb phrase usages in the high and low proficiency groups

	V+ NP		V+ VP complements		Total VP
High (TL)	807 (95%)	Total 851 (88%)	110 (91%)	Total 121 (12%)	972 (100%)
(DV)	44 (11%)		11 (9%)		
Low (TL)	537 (94%)	Total 569 (85%)	83 (80%)	Total 104 (15%)	673 (100%)
(DV)	32 (6%)		21 (20%)		

Table 1 above shows that both groups of subjects use verb phrases with noun phrase complements (V+NP) more than verb phrases with verb phrase complements (V+VP). The students in the high proficiency group account for 851 (88 %) V+NP and 121 (12%) V+VP in their writings, while the students in the low proficiency group account for 569 (85%) V+NP and 104 (15%) V+VP in their writings. This may due to the similarity of the syntactic patterns in Thai and English in the use of the V+NP verb phrase that facilitates the student use of their verb phrase constructions. In terms of deviant forms it is interesting to find that the high group makes more DV in V+NP than the low group, but the low group makes more DV in V+VP than the high group. This will be discussed below.

3.1.1 The use of verbs with noun phrases

The high and low proficiency groups use V+NP more than V+VP may due to the similar syntactic patterns in the use of verbs with noun phrases in Thai and English. For example, in Thai, we say /khawR-he kinM-eat khawF-rice/ 'He eats rice' as in English. However, it was found that deviant forms of V+NP both in the high and low proficient students are the same. There is an insertion of V to be in front the verb, e.g., 'Some people *are like* Thai food' or 'She *is want* some money'. The insertion of *verb to be* shows that Thai students have hypothesized false concepts regarding certain rules for forming the simple present tense because all the deviant forms found in the corpus are in the simple present tense. These DVs are also higher in the high group than the low group.

3.1.2 The use of verbs with verb phrase complements

Verb phrases with verb complements in Thai are mostly 'v+v' or serial verb constructions whereas in English the verb phrase constructions are

complicating especially the use of verbs with verb phrase complements. In English, verb phrase complements are determined by each lexical verb. Some verbs like 'enjoy' and 'practice' are followed by 'ing' complements. Some verbs like 'want' and 'decide' are followed by 'infinitive with to' complements whereas the verb 'help' is always followed by 'infinitive without to' complement. So, the verb phrase complements can be divided into three types: 'ing' complements, 'to' infinitive complements, and infinitive without 'to' complements.

From the data, it is found that the students in the high and low proficiency groups have problems in the use of verbs with 'ing' complements, and 'to' complements. The DV of verb with infinitive without 'to' complement is not found in the data. In the use of verbs with 'ing' complements, the high proficiency group also has no DVs whereas the low group produces both target-like and deviant forms. For the deviant form, the low proficiency group uses 'to' infinitive after the verb 'enjoy' which takes only 'ing' complement like * I enjoy to learn. The deviant form shows that the verbal complement in English is quite complex to Thai learners because some lexical verbs take only 'ing' complements whereas some take 'to' infinitive complements. So, the low group tries to over-generalize the usage of 'to' infinitive complements as a default form even with the verbs taking only the 'ing' complements.

In the use of verbs with 'to' infinitive complement, there are also some deviations. The deviant forms found in the data of both groups are (1) the use of 'to' infinitive in past tense such as *When I was 13 years old, I *applied to studied* at Sakonrajwittayanukul., (2) the use of 'v+v' construction such as *I *like make* juice, and the use of 'ing' complement after 'to' such as like * I love the sea, I *like to swimming*.

The use of 'to' infinitive in past tense was found only in the high group. This should be the effect from over-generalization. Thai does not express time and tense in the verb forms. There is only one verb form for each verb (Luksaneeyanawin, 2005). So, most Thai students attempting to be target like will mark past tense to every verb even though some are in non-finite complements.

The use of 'v+v' is found in both the high and the low group. This deviant form can be explained in terms of the first language transfer because the verb phrase constructions in Thai are mostly 'v+v' constructions.

The use of 'ing' complement after 'to' is also found in both groups. This deviant pattern shows that Thai students are confused verb complements in English so they produce a form which combine both

'to' infinitive and 'ing' complement to form the construction.

3.2 The developmental aspect in the use of verb phrases

This study also investigates the developmental aspect of the interlanguage in the use of verb phrase constructions in both groups of students. The interlanguage features found in both groups are the unstable or the spiral features. The spiral features are divided into two types. The first spiral feature is the unstable feature where the problem exists at the beginning but finally the learners acquire the problematic syntactic feature in the target language. The second spiral feature is the unstable feature where the problematic feature exists throughout one year of learning. The first spiral feature is found in both groups but more in the high group showing the effect of their development to overcome their problematic syntactic features in the target language. The second spiral feature is found only in the low group showing that the problems may be fossilized. More supplementary exercises may help them to overcome their problems and it is recommended for further research.

4. Discussion and conclusion

It can be concluded that language learners' problems are idiosyncratic hindering their language development. The English verb phrase is quite complex to Thai learners. The results show that the high and low proficiency students use verbs with noun phrases in their writing more than verb phrase complements, 88/12% in the high group and 85/15% in the low group. This may due to the similarity of V+NP construction in the two languages. It seems the use of V+VP in English is problematic to Thai students as exhibited by a small number of uses in their writings and the persisting of problems over the whole year of this research. This may due to the fact that verb phrase complements in English are determined by each lexical verb and it is not rule governed. The problems found in this study can be explained in terms of L1 transfer, overgeneralization and false concept hypothesis. L1 transfer is one of the important factors shaping learners' interlanguage. Lado (1957:1-2) posited that '*individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and respectively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives*'. Another factor involving in learners' interlanguage is overgeneralization, i.e., 'when learners over-generalize some grammatical rules, they tend to

extend the rule beyond what is accepted in the target language' (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:380 cited in Samana, 2005). False concepts hypotheses also occur during language learning processes. It is found that Thai students also hypothesize false concepts in using the simple present tense. They always insert 'be' before the base form of the verbs to form the simple present tense.

The developmental aspect of interlanguage features in this study exhibits the unstable or the spiral features which are divided into two types. The first spiral feature is the unstable feature where the problem exists at the beginning but finally the learners acquire the problematic syntactic feature in the target language. This is found in both groups but more in the high group. The second spiral feature is the unstable feature where the problematic feature exists throughout the one year period of this study. This fossilized feature is found only in the low group. The analyses of the target like (TL) and deviant (DV) forms in the learners' interlanguage give us a much more complete picture of the learner's grammar. It helps the teachers to focus on the real problems of each student so that they can make their students aware of the problems and assist them with supplementary exercises and other remedies. It is suggested that the study can also use the analyses as the feedback to help the students to monitor their own language development.

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The Gap between Commercial Textbooks and Children's Cognitive Development

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Abstract

Although teaching English to children is still controversy in Japan, many primary students are learning English in various classes. It means that various materials are being used based on different syllabi. In this paper we focus on writing to examine what an appropriate goal of writing for young learners.

Keywords

children, writing, cognitive development

Introduction

Now English is not a compulsory subject in public primary schools, those who are exposed to English in primary schools do not use any authorized textbooks of English. However, various textbooks for young learners of English are available in ordinary bookstores because English has been taught not only in some private primary schools but in various after school classes for a long time. Generally those textbooks are large-sized, colorful and picture-oriented to attract children's help students practice more. One of the problems may be that publishers and /or textbook writers try to exercise children in writing based on the content of what students learn orally. The question is whether or not children can write sentences soon after they can say.

1 Review of Literature

T. Piaget (1970) examines the experimental facts and claims that there exists laws of development and that development follows a sequential order such that each of its stages is necessary to the construction of the next. Necessary factors are maturation, experience of the physical environment, the action of the social environment and equilibration. (p.719).

As far as learning, Nakagaki (1982) describes that learning is one of seven cognition forms (maturation, perception,

spontaneous understanding, learning, induction, equilibration and deduction) based on Piaget's theory. Thus, teachers are supposed to know that students do not always learn what teachers teach.

According to Okumura (1991), writing is classified into three steps: (1) copying (2) controlled writing (3) free composition. The first step of copying starts from the alphabet to words, sentences and passages. When students copy sentences, they are supposed to pay attention to some rules of sentences such as beginning with a capital letter, putting a period and so forth. These claims bring a question how EFL young learners can write English.

2 Workbooks

We try to look at the two different textbooks. They are the first ones of the series. Initial sentences of them are similar. They are "Hello! How are you? I'm..." and "Hello, I'm..." With those textbooks, students are supposed to use Workbook A (hereafter A) and Activity sheet B (hereafter B) to practice more.

Table 1: Excerpt from the materials

A(Unit 4 TEST)	B (Final Test)
• Look and write 1. (pen) 2.(ruler) 3.(book)	• Listen and write. [f j o p w] 1 m(..)p 2 (..)ig
• Look and write 1. (Yes, it is.) 2. (Is it a ruler?) (No, it isn't.) It's (an eraser.) (Is it a pencil?) (Yes, it is.)	3 (..) an 4 (..) am 5 (..) en

Table 1 is an excerpt from the parts that students are required to write letters. A letter, a word or a sentence should be written in parentheses. While A requires that students spell the target words and write sentences, B's goal of the textbook seems to be much easier than A. Why do they differ? How can we interpret them?

3 Writing

We try to examine the results of three different age groups.

3.1 Subjects

Three groups of primary students responded A (Unit 4 TEST). The 6th group has five students who are 6th graders. They voluntarily participated. The 4,5th group has five students who are one 5th grader and four 4th graders. They tried to respond in class.

3.2 Scores

When students could write an initial letter, a middle letter or an ending letter of “pen” and “ruler”, they earn one point. A perfect score is three. (Figure 1 and Figure 2) In writing a sentence, right word is worth one point and half point is given to each comma and period. (Figure 3).

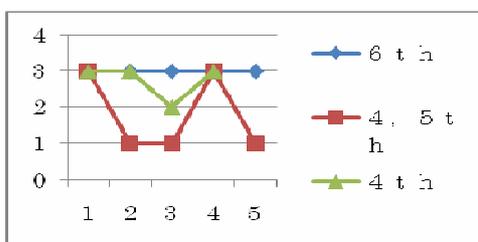


Figure 1. pen

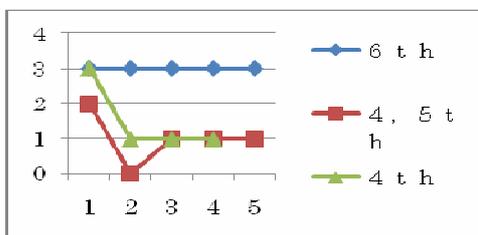


Figure 2. ruler

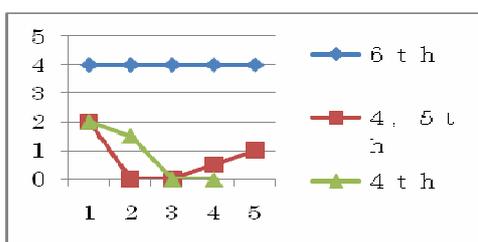


Figure 3. Yes it is

4 Discussion

Cameron (2001) discusses how young learners learn languages and argues that the level of the language that pupils write will lag slightly behind the level that they are comfortable with in speaking and listening. Figure 1,2 and 3 indicate that younger students cannot spell even familiar words

correctly. All 4th and 5th graders can is to match a sound with a letter. Above all, 4th graders tried the test before, however, they don't seem to recognize some rules of sentences even though they can respond the same questions orally. In this respect, copying seems to be an appropriate activity for them.

Despite this, 6th graders do not seem to be difficult to write a word and a sentence. Two possible factors to interpret it are length of learning and age. All of the 6th group members are exposed to English for some years and took specific lessons to write. They said they had not practiced writing specifically before the lessons. In this respect, the argument of Lightbown & Spada(2001) that older children (for example, 10-year olds) are able to catch up very quickly on those who began earlier (for example, at 6 or 7 years old) in programs offering only a few hours a week of instruction seems to be plausible.

In addition, age factor is closely related with human's cognitive development. Around 11, 12 years old are crucial ages. According to Piaget's theory, children can gradually make a deduction from that time. Therefore, they may apply some rules of sentences and write correctly. Therefore, we have to pay more attention to what children can do and what children can not.

5 Implication

We do not intend to emphasize the importance of cognitive development. too much. In spending so long on writing patterns and bits of letter shapes, they were missing out on the more holistic experiences that also help children understand the purpose of writing as communication. (Cameron, 2001, p.4) Teachers may not always choose the best materials. If so, teachers are possible to add and/or except something. To observe students carefully and to know some theories on children's development may lead to appropriate instruction on writing in English.

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Malaysian English: What Makes It So?

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Abstract

Since the 1980s, research and discussion on the existence of a Malaysian variety of English has been recorded. The idea that a Malaysian variety of English now exists is increasingly being accepted by all concerned with the issue of language and linguistics, especially in South-east Asia. It was with the aim of understanding this phenomenon better that the Malaysian Corpus of Learner English (MACLE) project was launched at the University of Malaya. To date, about 800,000 words have been accumulated on the data-base, comprising essays of more than 500 words written by undergraduates from several faculties at the University. In this paper, I analyse a selection of this corpus to discover the extent to which the language used by the learners is different from Standard English in terms of structure and meaning. The selection comprises about 50,000 words written by undergraduates reading for law at the University of Malaya. A discourse analysis approach is used to analyze the texts, and variables such as ethnicity and gender are taken into consideration. We attempt to discover if there are any patterns of use that identify features of Malaysian English.

Keywords

Malaysian English; Varieties of English

Introduction

The scene with regard to the English language in Malaysia is one that is highly ambiguous and vacillating, a situation that proves to be extremely challenging for anyone attempting to describe its position or identify its form and function.

Nonetheless, it is advisable to pause at times to view the issue of whether the language as it is used in this country now can be hailed as a Malaysian variety (I do not think we can claim that it is 'standard English!'); we should at least stop to take stock of the language as it used here in terms of seeing whether there are any identifiable patterns of use that are distinctly Malaysian. This is not merely for purposes of nomenclature, but because of the need to establish whether there is sufficient

'permanence' or 'homogeneity' (Ferguson, 1971: 30) in the language / dialect / variety in order to permit its being accepted with no inhibitions by the teaching and academic community in the country (these being the unofficial gatekeepers of whether the code used by a person is recommended or at least permissible!). It is thus the aim of this study to investigate the use of English in this country to see if there are patterns of use that can be identified, and if there exists enough support to declare that there is a Malaysian variety of English.

The paper is divided into the following sections: a discussion of the concept of variety, and the existing notions on there being a variety of Malaysian English; the research methodology (including the corpus) employed in this study; and a description and analysis of the use of English.

1 Varieties of English

There have been numerous definitions of varieties: Ferguson (1971:30) in Wardough (1992:23) defines variety as 'any body of *human speech patterns* which is *sufficiently homogeneous* to be analysed by available techniques of synchronic description and which has a *sufficiently large repertory of elements* and *their arrangements or processes* with *broad enough semantic scope* to function in *all formal contexts of communication*' (italics mine). In this context, 'human speech patterns' can comprise phonetic, phonological, grammatical, syntactic and semantic features.

Hymes (1974:123) adds to this definition by bringing to attention that language boundaries between communities are based on much more than linguistic elements: attitudes and social relationships also have a strong bearing on these (boundaries).

...Any enduring social relationship or group may come to define itself by selection and/or creation of linguistic features, and a difference of accent may be as important at one boundary as a difference of grammar at another. Part of the creativity of users of a language lies in the freedom to determine what and how much linguistic difference matters...

In summary, and simply, when a code of communication exhibits sufficient homogeneity in its patterns of use and is socially accepted in formal contexts of communication, it can be classified as a language variety.

2 Malaysian Variety of English

According to The Encyclopedia of Malaysia: Languages & Literature (2004:61), English in Malaysia has been categorized into three levels: the acrolect, mesolect and basilect. The acrolect is near-native, and not many Malaysians fall into this category - only those educated in core English-speaking countries from early schooling up to university may be found to speak the acrolect variety, so only tiny percentage of Malaysians are proficient in it. As with other similar situations, a continuum exists between these three varieties and speakers may code-switch between them depending on context. Most academicians, professionals and other English-educated Malaysians, speak mesolect English. Malaysian English belongs to mesolect, and it is Malaysian English that is used in daily interaction.

Malaysian English should not be confused with Malaysian Colloquial English which is famously known as Manglish or Street English, a portmanteau of the word Malay and English although mostly spoken by the non-Malays.

As has been stated earlier in the definition, there are linguistic features that are peculiar to Malaysian English in terms of spelling, vocabulary, phonology and syntax, some of which have been identified in related research. Basically, some of the features of Malaysian English that have been identified are:

- It has components of American English, Malay, Chinese, Indian, and other languages: vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar.
- The /t/ phoneme in words like butter is usually not flapped (as in most forms of American English) or realised as a glottal stop (as in some other forms of British English, including Cockney).

Malaysian English has also created its own vocabulary just like any other former British colonies such as Australia and New Zealand and these words come from a variety of influences. Typically, for words or phrases that are based on other English words, the Malaysian English speaker may be unaware that the word or phrase is not present in British or American English.

Most Malaysians are adept at switching from Manglish and Malaysian English, but are sometimes unclear as to the differences between

Malaysian English and **SABE** (Standard American-British English).

As can be seen, most of the work has been done in the area of pronunciation, spelling and vocabulary, there is a paucity of work done in the area of syntax and analysis at the level of discourse. This is one of the shortcomings that the present study hopes to alleviate.

3 Research Method

This study examines a corpus of about 50,000 words that form part of a larger corpus on learner English in Malaysia. The words have been produced by undergraduates at the Faculty of Law, and comprise about 100 essays of more than 500 words each written on ten topics (see Appendix A).

N-Vivo software will be used to code and analyse the data according to the linguistic features that appear in these essays. Language errors will not be taken into consideration: these are considered to be irrelevant to the patterns of use that are exhibited.

The data will be categorised according to the type of linguistic features. A Malaysian variety will be determined by whether or not a particular instance of language use conforms to the 'standard'. The 'standard' in this case will be the language (English) as found in the major current dictionaries and language teaching materials produced by established international publishers.

4 Data Analysis

Some examples of Malaysian English:

- In my opinion, I think...
- Let us think together
- Most university degrees are theoretical...
- Whether you agree or not with the issue above...
- There are further explanations about it...
- Study skills are the most important things when you are in the learning process...
- In the courses they take...

These will eventually be categorised according to the aspect of language they fall into.

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Lexicalization by Malaysian Learners of English as a Second Language

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Abstract

Word-formation contributes a large number of lexical items to a language and it is a manifestation of a very essential aspect of language, that of productivity. In the early stages of language learning, learners are likely to adhere to norms of word-formation, producing familiar and regular lexical items of the language. In due course, having internalized the processes, learners extend their application in the formation of words.

This study investigates the phenomenon of lexicalization among university undergraduates in their English essays. A sample of 50,000-100,000 words is analyzed to study the processes of inflection and derivation of nouns and verbs in essays written by learners of English at the tertiary level. The various methods employed by the learners for the noun and verb forms in the essays are classified. In addition, nonce formations (as opposed to institutionalized forms), i.e. word forms coined by learners “on the spur of the moment to cover some immediate use” (Bauer, 1987: 45) applying English affixation rules will be analyzed. The findings from the study will contribute to a better understanding of the challenges faced by learners of English as a second language.

Keywords

Lexicalization, derivation, inflection

Introduction

In its simplest sense lexicalization is a kind of word-formation, where “something or some meaning” becomes a lexical item. Traditionally, studies on word-formation have focused on existing lexemes found in dictionaries, on productive patterns and regularities of word-formation. *Ad hoc* or nonce-formations of lexis were not given any attention (Lipka 1992:94). Early studies on “new” lexemes are those by Downing (1977) and Clark and Clark (1979). Both studies represented the existence of productive processes of word-formation resulting in new lexemes and new usages of existing lexical items. In any theoretical

discussions of word-formation processes, the phenomenon where new lexemes are coined must be taken into account. Lipka named this process lexicalization (1992:95).

1 Lexicalization

As lexicalization is viewed as a “notational term”, “there is no single, correct definition of the term.” (Lipka 1992:95). One dictionary definition (Mirriam-Webster 2006-2007) of lexicalization reads:

- “1 : the realization of a meaning in a single word or morpheme rather than in a grammatical construction
- 2 : the treatment of a formerly free compound, grammatically regular, and semantically transparent phrase or inflected form as a formally or semantically idiomatic expression”.

An analysis of both definitions presents at least two aspects of lexicalization. First, lexicalization results in the creation of new words or morphemes previously not found in the language. Secondly, lexicalization results in semantic changes to existing lexemes in the language.

Lipka defines lexicalization “as the phenomenon that a complex lexeme once coined tends to become a single complete lexical unit, a simple lexeme” (1992:97). The process of lexicalization is a diachronic one, and an essential condition is that the particular complex lexeme must be used frequently (Lipka, 1992:95). One outcome of lexicalization is the irregularity it introduces into the lexicon (Ibid, 1992:97). For Kastovsky (1982 cited in Lipka 1992:95), lexicalization results in the integration of the new form into the lexicon of the language. The new form has semantic and/or formal properties which are different from the original constituents or word-formation patterns. Bauer (1983) and Quirk (1985) present other definitions of lexicalization,

further emphasizing it as a “notational term”.

2 Learners of English

The Malaysian society is a multi-cultural and multi-lingual mix of some major and minor ethnic groups that together contribute to its complex language situation. Amidst these languages the English language has its place. English in Malaysia is officially accorded the status of being the second most important language, after the national language, bahasa Malaysia (Malay). In the education system English is taught in all schools throughout the country as a subject and as of 2003, as a medium of instruction for mathematics and science.

For all intents and purposes, the English language has been made available to Malaysian learners from the day they begin school right up to the tertiary level. In reality the learners of English are a varied lot ranging from those who use English as a dominant language to those for whom it is a foreign language. The same complexities of proficiency and command of English are seen in students at universities.

3 The Study

The aim of this study is to identify instances of lexicalization in essays by learners of English from the Faculty of Law, University of Malaya. The data consists of a portion of a corpus of about 900,000 words from the MACLE project (Malaysian Corpus of Learner English) which was started in 2004 at the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya. A minimum of 50,000 words are organized and analyzed using NVivo 7 software.

Lexicalization by learners will be measured against standard English usage as presented in English monolingual dictionaries and grammar books. Any form that is different from the standard English forms will be considered instances of lexicalization. This includes the creation of new words or morphemes previously not found in the language and semantic changes to existing lexemes in the language. Lexicalizations will not be considered errors if they differ from standard English usage, but examined for the value they provide in understanding language learners' process of learning. Frequency of occurrence of a specific lexical item will not be a criterion.

4 Data Analysis

At this stage of data analysis no conclusive findings about lexicalization can be presented. What can be drawn from the preliminary analysis is that language learners do present instances of lexicalization based on the knowledge they have of,

for example, affixation in English. The suffix ‘er’ to form the item “sentencer”, for example is a case in point. More comprehensive discussion of the findings and conclusions will be presented at the conference.

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The Posit Text Profiling Toolset

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Abstract

The present paper describes a software toolset developed to assist in making textual analyses and comparisons between and within corpora. This system (Posit) aims to make the textual analysis process as simple as possible by requiring only a single command from the user. The adopted approach seeks to accommodate arbitrarily large corpora. This contrasts with many current tools that are limited in their ability to handle very large file sizes. In the following, we detail the current part-of-speech focus of this toolset and describe developments in progress that will extend its functionality to embrace vocabulary and readability profiling.

Keywords

Text analysis, software, corpora comparisons.

Introduction

With a growing interest in the analysis of text collections, often in order to support language teaching (e.g., Tomlinson, 1998; Granger, et.al, 2002; Aston et al, 2004), has come a desirable increase in available software tools. Tools such as Wordsmith (Scott, 1998) and AntConc (Anthony, 2005), offer approachable means whereby non-computer specialists may analyse their own data collections. More ambitious facilities are freely available in systems such as Nooj (Silberstein, 2005), and GATE (Bontcheva, 2004), which are both under constant development. In addition, NLTK (Bird, 2006) provides a set of programming modules aimed mainly at teaching natural language processing.

When faced with the task of analysing a newspaper text corpus, with a file size exceeding 92Mb (Weir & Anagnostou, 2007), many of the existing tools designed to run under MS-Windows experienced problems in handling a single data file on this scale. In consequence, we sought an approach to analysis that would satisfactorily manage large input files. This led us to adopt a Unix-based scripting approach in which the input text is processed without need for large data

structures in memory (the principal obstacle facing the MS-Windows' tools). A convenient advantage of the script approach is that intermediate processing results are held in temporary files, and this further reduces memory overheads. This approach proved both powerful and highly extensible and, as a result, the prospect of a highly functional set of analysis tools became apparent. The Posit Text Profiling Toolset is the term applied to this set of analysis tools, some of which are complete, while others are under development.

1 The Posit Toolset Overview

In its current form, the Posit toolset targets three related aspects of textual analysis, comprising individual software modules whose operation may be combined. The first of these modules concentrates upon parts-of-speech (POS) and performs an analysis of a given text corpus in order to derive statistics on the POS characteristics of that text. This component is known as the POS Profiler.

The second module of the toolset is the Vocabulary Profiler. Based upon the statistical data output by the POS Profiler, the Vocabulary Profiler can determine the relative frequency of occurrence for vocabulary items in the selected corpus. This frequency data may be compared to a reference set of frequency data (derived from the British National Corpus) in order to pinpoint unusual word occurrences or individual terms whose use is likely to prove unfamiliar to English readers.

A third toolset module (presently under development) is the Readability Profiler. This software component will focus on text readability, based upon the statistical analyses from the POS profiler and the frequency data from the vocabulary profiler. In keeping with our research in this area, this module will go beyond current 'simplistic' readability metrics, and apply more sophisticated analyses that include factors such as word commonality (Weir & Ritchie, 2007) and average collocation frequency (Anagnostou & Weir, 2007).

In the following sections, we focus attention on the nature and operation of the POS Profiler component and further outline our plans for the

Vocabulary Profiler and the Readability Profiler components within the Posit Text Profiling Toolset.

2 POS Profiler

The POS profiler supports part-of-speech profiling on any specified text. This command-line facility¹ outputs a detailed account of word occurrences for the selected text corpus. The word occurrence information is provided by raw frequency and by part-of-speech frequency. Totals are given for word tokens, word types, part-of-speech types and part-of-speech tokens. The set of parts-of-speech that can be recorded is a function of the POS tagger used within the POS Profile Tool. While the modular toolset can easily accommodate alternative taggers, we currently use the `Lingua::EN::Tagger`, which is available as a Perl module from CPAN (<http://www.cpan.org>). This tagger uses the Penn Treebank tag set (Marcus et al, 1994) so our scripts are currently equipped to collate the occurrence of the constituent tags from the marked-up version of the input corpus. In later versions of the Posit Toolset, users will be able to specify both the requisite tag set and also which range of constituent tags should be recorded when the system is creating the output frequency data.

Table 1: Example summary POS Profile output

Input filename	emma.txt
Total words (tokens)	159826
Total unique words (types)	7364
Type/Token Ratio (TTR)	21.7037
Number of sentences	8585
Average sentence length (ASL)	18.6169
Number of characters	914519
Average word length (AWL)	5.72197
NUMBER OF TOKEN TYPES	
noun_types	4268
verb_types	2603
adjective_types	1346
adverb_types	487
preposition_types	65
personal_pronoun_types	23
determiner_types	18
possessive_pronoun_types	7
interjection_types	5
particle_types	0
NUMBER OF POS TYPES	
nouns	69060
verbs	67678
prepositions	38600
personal pronouns	31192
determiners	26178
adverbs	25432
adjectives	25086
possessive pronouns	9582
interjections	516
particles	0

¹ A version of the Posit Toolset with graphical user interface is also under development.

Table 1, above, shows an example of output from the POS Profiler. This illustrates the summary output for the text of the novel ‘Emma’ by Jane Austen. In addition to such aggregated summary data, the POS Profiler also details frequency data for specific parts of speech. The module’s default POS settings are listed in Table 2, below.

Table 2: POS Profiler default list of parts of speech

adjective_comparatives
adjective_or_numeral_ordinals
adjective_superlatives
adverb_comparative_form
adverb_form
adverb_superlative_form
common_nouns
determiners
interjections
modal_aux
nouns_common_plurals
nouns_proper_plural
particles
prepositions
pronouns_personal
pronouns_possessive
proper_nouns
verbs_base_form
verbs_gerund_form
verbs_past_form
verbs_past_participle_form
verbs_present_3rd_form
verbs_present_not3rd_form
wh_adverbs

A separate output file is created for each of these parts-of-speech and such files list the recorded words of this type. The listed words are ordered by frequency of occurrence and their frequency is included within the data. Table 3 illustrates the most frequently occurring common nouns from ‘Emma’. This is extracted from the *common_nouns* output file.

Table 3: Example most frequent common nouns

Frequency	Common noun
397	thing
272	time
254	nothing
220	man
206	father
193	body
180	day
177	friend
154	way
132	cannot

In addition to deriving totals for tokens, types, number of sentences and number of characters, the POS Profiler also determines average sentence length and total number of characters. These factors facilitate the calculation of the Flesch Reading Ease

and Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level. An additional function is available for this calculation.

2.1 Process

The POS profiling facility is invoked at the command line on a specified text corpus. The input corpus is processed by the software module in accordance with the following sequence:

1. Create word count and token frequency list
2. Tag the input file using a POS tagger
3. Tokenize the POS tagged file
4. Extract POS counts
5. Analyse results
6. Output results
7. Create results summary

An extensive set of results files is generated by each single analysis run of the POS Profiler. The results summary, also saved as a separate file, is output to the screen as a conclusion to the analysis. As an aid to further comparison across results, files in comma separated value (CSV) format are also produced. Currently, the system converts all input text to lower case, thereby treating all data as case insensitive. (This fact will be apparent from the illustrations of example output.) Of course, this feature is customisable since, for some purposes, the capitalisation within a corpus may be considered significant. In this case, capitalisation can be retained and word counts, as well as other outputs, will recognise distinctive case differences.

3 Vocabulary Profiler

The Posit Vocabulary Profiler uses the analyses produced by the POS Profiler to establish the least common words in any text (with reference to the BNC reference list). This will shortly support the determination of keywords for the specified text, based upon a statistical significance measure of frequency of words in a specified text against frequency of words in a reference frequency list (by applying the log-likelihood measure). In addition, to the analytical value of such insights, this information may provide support or advice to authors wishing feedback on their vocabulary usage.

Vocabulary analysis extends to consider n-gram frequencies within the analysed text. N-gram frequency analysis allows a choice of value for n in the n-gram. By default, the system determines frequency lists for bigrams, trigrams and quadgrams. In due course, these may also be compared with reference n-gram frequencies derived from the British National Corpus. The result of quadgram frequency analysis on the text of the novel 'Emma' (by Jane Austen) gives the 'top ten' results shown in Table 4,

below.

Table 4: Example quadgram frequency data

<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Quadgram</i>
50	i do not know
26	a great deal of
20	i am sure i
19	it would have been
18	mr and mrs weston
18	it would be a
18	i do not think
16	i have no doubt
16	i am sure you
15	and i am sure

Using the n-gram facility of the Vocabulary Profiler, we can readily contrast the quadgram result with the 'top ten' bigram result from the same text (Table 5).

Table 5: Example bigram frequency data

<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Bigram</i>
608	to be
566	of the
449	it was
446	in the
395	i am
334	she had
331	she was
308	had been
301	it is
299	mr knightley

4 Readability Profiler

The Readability Profiler component of the Posit Toolset is under development and builds upon the POS Profiler output and output from the Vocabulary Profiler. In turn, this readability module uses collocation analysis in order to establish the contribution made to the readability of the specified text by collocation usage. This analysis relies upon a collocation reference frequency list and applies our Average Collocation Frequency measure as a factor in determining the readability of the complete text. A future extension of this facility will support readability comparisons across texts.

5 Conclusion

The Posit Text Profiling Toolset comprises three software modules that work together to provide a comprehensive textual analysis facility. Built as a set of Unix scripts and Perl programs, the system provides a convenient interface to existing POS taggers and is able to accommodate large text corpora with ease.

In their current form, the POS Profiler and Vocabulary Profiler are being used in a variety of corpus analysis projects. We anticipate that future enhancements will include support for automated corpora comparisons. This will afford POS profile

comparisons, vocabulary comparisons and readability comparisons across sets of texts, in which multiple corpus files may be loaded, analysed and compared with a single user action. Currently, such corpus comparison requires individual processing of each corpus with manual comparison of the resulting data (as in Weir & Ozasa, 2007).

Beyond the future addition of further functional features to the Posit Toolset, a prototype version is under development that includes a graphical user interface. This will provide a more broadly usable system and will seek to simplify the selection of system options. This will greatly enhance the customisability of the toolset and should ensure that it becomes more accessible to a broader base of potential users.

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The Effect of Portfolio Assessment on Metacognitive Reading Strategy Awareness of EFL Students

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of portfolio assessment on metacognitive reading strategy awareness and attitudes of Iranian EFL senior high school students. Participants comprised 60 female senior high school students. The portfolio assessment was integrated into the experimental group's English course to explore whether and to what extent their metacognitive reading strategy awareness may enhance. Data were obtained through 1) a Likert scale questionnaire of Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARS), 2) a Likert scale Attitude and Motivation questionnaire, 3) an open-ended question eliciting the students' perceptions of the advantages and disadvantages of portfolio assessment of reading, and 4) students' portfolios assessed by three trained raters. The results of data analysis indicated that portfolio procedures boosted students' awareness of metacognitive reading strategies and enhanced their motivation for reading comprehension as well. Students commented on portfolio as a powerful tool for assessing reading ability. Along with these advantages, the length of time required for the learners to assemble the portfolios, work overload from assignments, and excessive effort for assigned tasks worried some students especially those deeply accustomed to traditional testing methods of evaluating reading ability typical of the Iranian ELT system.

Keywords

Alternative assessment, portfolio assessment, metacognitive awareness, EFL reading comprehension

Introduction

Parallel with the recent paradigm shifts in English language learning and teaching and developments in educational measurement, the EFL profession has witnessed a significant rise in the instructional and assessment practices that are "holistic, student

centered, performance based, process oriented, integrated, and multidimensional" (Gottlieb, 1995, p.12). This is accounted for by the concerns over traditional assessments which typically fail to assess higher order skills and other skills essential for functioning in school or work settings (Haney & Madaus, 1989). Portfolios as one of the most effective types of alternative assessments have proved effective in upgrading learners' authority, positive attitudes, and responsibility towards learning (Yang, 2003).

Portfolio Assessment and Metacognitive Strategy Awareness

The bulk of research on strategy-based instruction has focused on reading strategies as a language skill of utmost importance (Carrell, 1998), and on cognitive strategies as one of the main categories of language learning strategies. The Research findings indicate that learners who are skilled in metacognitive self-assessment and, therefore, aware of their abilities are more strategic and perform better than those who lack that awareness (Rivers 2001; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). Metacognitive strategies are found to increase awareness of the learners' mental processes of learning (William & Burden, 1997). Accordingly, metacognitive strategy training has proved to be effective in enhancing second language reading comprehension (Schoonen et al., 1998; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Dhieb-Henia, 2003; Guterman, 2003)

It is argued that portfolios have the "capability to raise students' awareness and self-directed learning along with facilitating the learning process" (Yang, 2003, p. 296). They may promote the use of metacognitive strategies and motivate and enhance active, multi-dimensional learning as well (ibid). Further, the flexibility of portfolios makes them ideal tools for encouraging learner autonomy (Banfi, 2003).

This study draws upon the current research

avenues highlighting the importance of metacognitive learning strategy use and their effect on reading comprehension improvement as well as the use of portfolios, which may focus learners' attention on learning process (Yang, 2003 ; Johnston, 2004). To this end, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Does portfolio assessment improve metacognitive strategy awareness of reading of Iranian pre-university students?
2. Does portfolio assessment influence students' motivation for reading?
3. Does portfolio assessment have any impact on students' perceptions of assessment of reading ability?

Participants

The subjects included two intact groups of female senior high school students majoring in mathematics at Samaneh Pre-university Center in Kashan, Iran. Their age ranged from 17 to 18. One of the groups was randomly chosen as the experimental group and the other one as the control group. Both groups were homogeneous in terms of their level of language proficiency.

Instrumentation and materials

The instrumentation used to collect data included:

- 1) A general proficiency test, Nelson 200 A with the reliability index of .73.
- 2) An adapted and translated version of Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Inventory (MARSII), originally developed by Mokhtari & Reichard (2002), which included 10 Likert-type items of metacognitive reading strategies with a three-point rating scale ; always, sometimes, never.
- 3) Portfolio assessment and checklists: The portfolio contents comprised eight sequenced reading passages of various genres, a Reading Strategy Log for each passage as a metacognition reflection and self-assessment tool for monitoring the reading comprehension and strategy use, and Students' Task Marking Sheet for the purpose of scoring the portfolio pieces. One Teacher's Task Evaluation Sheet was also used by the teachers to assess students' final portfolios.
- 4) A questionnaire on subjects' attitudes and motivation towards portfolio tasks.

Results and Discussion

To probe the corresponding null hypothesis of the first research question, the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized to compare the mean ranks of both the experimental and control group responses to MARSII. As Table 1 depicts, portfolio assessment did improve metacognitive strategy awareness of

reading among Iranian pre-university students.

Table 1: Mann Whitney U test for students' responses to MARSII

Test	Groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U test	Wilcoxon W	Sign.
MARSII	Experimental posttest	30	39.52	1185.0	179.500	644.500	.000
	Control posttest	30	21.48	644.50			

To compare the mean ranks of the experimental group's responses to MARSII at the pre and post test stages, a Wilcoxon Matched-pairs Signed-rank test was applied to the data. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the mean ranks the students obtained for the pre- and post-test at the level of $p < .05$ (see Table 2) suggesting that portfolio assessment had a significantly positive effect on metacognitive reading strategy awareness of students receiving the treatment.

Table 2: Wilcoxon Signed-rank test for experimental group's performance on MARSII at the pre and posttest stages

Test	Group	N=30		Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Wilcoxon	Sign.
		Negative Ranks	0				
MARSII	pretest	Positive Ranks	18	11.25	112.50	2.07	.03
	posttest	ties	2	16.31	293.50		

In order to probe the second research question concerning the effect of portfolio assessment on students' motivation for reading and their reading experience, a chi-square test was employed. It is shown that the experimental group expressed significantly higher levels of motivation for doing more reading ($\chi^2=7.35 > \chi^2_{critical}=5.991, df=2$).

Further, in order to compare the degree of positive attitudes towards reading through portfolios between the two groups, we ran a chi-square on the number of binary responses (strongly agree or disagree) to the corresponding items in the questionnaire. The results showed that the experimental group preferred portfolio assessment to the traditional kinds of assessment. Also, they expressed their strong tendency towards

monitoring and awareness of their progress ($\chi^2=135.921 > \chi^2_{critical}=5.991, df=2$).

To check the impact of portfolio assessment on students' perceptions of assessment of reading ability, we asked students to express their perceptions through rating the questionnaire items. They were also asked to cite their impressions freely about advantages and disadvantages of the portfolio-based reading instruction and assessment. Many students found the new alternative as advantageous to them and as a positive and new experience. Over 85% of the students noted that compiling portfolios helped them immensely in self-assessment so that they could manage to examine their improvement and become aware of their strengths and weaknesses. More interestingly, some students believed that through constant practice and feedback their confidence grew tremendously. Finally, the students unanimously appreciated the portfolio experience very much and about eighty percent (80%) of the students were confident enough to suggest portfolio as a helpful assessment tool to others.

However, some negative attitudes towards portfolio system were observed among the students' free responses. Sixty two percent of the students complained against work overload- i.e., the time pressure they felt during the completion of a constant flow of tasks. A few students voiced their dissatisfaction with the treatment due to the insufficient time they had to prepare for final exams when the given tasks were not directly related to those final achievement tests. In addition, a handful of students, trapped in the myth of tests, despite being aware of their attitudinal improvements, as tapped through the biweekly reflections, uttered that portfolio had limited effect on their test performance.

Overall, the findings of this very study demonstrated the effectiveness and positive value of portfolio use in enhancing learning and instruction. The results of some studies including Barnhardt et al. (1998) approved the superiority of portfolio assessment over traditional forms of assessment since it linked assessment to instruction and consequently, true learning experience occurred. Yang (2003) also explored portfolios as tools that facilitate learning and develop learner autonomy. Promoting the use of metacognitive strategies (e.g. managing and organizing learning, monitoring and observing one's learning, reflecting on one's learning); motivating and enhancing active, multi-dimensional learning; being helpful to future independent learning; facilitating interaction among the instructor and students; showing learning process and progress; presenting learning results; providing a sense of achievement; and practicing

presentation skills were among the benefits of portfolio use expressed by Yang (2003).

To make up for its shortcomings, Moya & O'Malley (1994) suggest that portfolio assessment should be validated through multiple judges, careful planning, proper training of raters, and triangulation of objective and subjective sources of information. The final outcome of portfolios will be affected unless frustration, stress, resentment towards portfolio construction on the part of portfolio developers, evaluator biases, and the degree of agreement among teachers and evaluators are taken into account seriously (Breault, 2004). Owing to the fact that portfolio assessment is fundamentally a qualitative approach to student assessment, it should be implemented with caution since certain problems such as politics, logistics, interpretation, reliability, and validity could arise, especially if portfolios are used as an assessment on a large scale (Padilla et al. 1996; Barnhardt et al., 1998; Johnson, 1999).

Conclusion

This study attempted to investigate whether portfolio assessment contributes to Iranian pre-university students' metacognitive reading strategy awareness and their motivation for reading as well as their attitudes and perceptions of portfolio assessment. Portfolio assessment, as the results of this study revealed, helped students to practice autonomy and learners had the opportunity to develop their metacognitive abilities. Accordingly, portfolio assessment improved metacognitive strategy awareness and did affect positively learners' attitudes towards their reading experience. It is worth mentioning that the current research was carried out in an educationally marked system in which traditional view of reading dominates EFL classes. For students, meaning resides in the words on the page and understanding occurs as a result of getting the words directly through teacher's intervention. They do not usually think strategically about how to read something or solve a problem and don't take the responsibility for constructing meaning.

Portfolio assessment can be appended to various EFL reading contexts. To cast more light on the efficiency and effectiveness of portfolio assessment on metacognitive awareness of the students, research can be conducted on other skills. Also, investigations of the effect of portfolio assessment on metacognitive strategy use can be implemented. Finally, further research may address the effect of metacognitive strategy awareness as a result of portfolio implementation on teachers and students across diverse educational, cultural, and socioeconomic contexts.

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Analysis of Requests

Produced by Native and Non-Native Speakers of English

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Abstract

The study explored pragmatic features in the speech acts of advanced-level Japanese non-native speakers of English (JNNSs) living in Australia by comparing the request patterns of JNNSs and Australian native speakers of English (ANSs). The request form was collected by a discourse completion task (DCT). Metapragmatic data obtained from subsequent interviews complemented the DCT data.

The findings revealed some similarities and differences between the request patterns of JNNSs and ANSs. A macro-level analysis demonstrated the similarity in politeness between the two groups in their use of conventionally indirect strategies. By contrast, the micro-level analysis revealed differences in their selection of request forms, with the JNNSs appearing less polite. An implication for future research is discussed.

Keywords

Pragmatics, Speech act, Politeness, Request

1 Background

Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) reported that even highly proficient NNSs of English often have difficulties using the conventions of forms and meaning which are commonly used by NSs when making a request, and opt to depend on their L1 strategies or conventions. Nonetheless, English requests often differ from the NNSs' L1 requests (Ellis, 1992).

In their Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP), Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989a) conducted an investigation into requests and apologies collected by a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) by advanced NNSs from seven countries. The project revealed that their requests were more verbose than NSs' because they employed more supportive devices such as lengthy explanations and justifications. The CCSARP also reported that advanced NNSs preferred indirect request forms in various situations. These results

contradict Fukushima's (1996) findings in that Japanese university students used more direct forms and less supportive moves. The contradictory result might be derived from the difference in proficiency of the subjects of this study, whose ability may have been different from that of the CCSARP subjects. Whether collecting request data from advanced JNNSs support the results of CCSARP or confirm those of Fukushima are investigated in the present study.

2 Research Question

The study addressed the following research question: What are the similarities and differences in request patterns between advanced-level Japanese speakers of English and Australian native speakers of English?

3 Study Method

3.1 Participants

The Japanese informants in this study were 32 adult non-native speakers of English living in Australia, most of whom were postgraduate students. The proficiency level of these JNNSs was advanced as they all had cleared the English proficiency requirement prior to their enrolment at the university. The Australian informants were 31 adult Australian native speakers of English, comprising postgraduate students, university staff and others who had workforce experience.

3.2 Data Collection Methods

Questionnaires

Compared to oral interactive discourse, questionnaires face limitations in terms of their lack of dynamic features. In spite of the restrictions, questionnaires are the most frequently employed data collection method (Kasper and Rose, 2002). For this study, after an information questionnaire was distributed, a discourse completion task (DCT) was given to all informants for the purpose of eliciting the informants' pragmatic knowledge.

There were six situations in the DCT for this

study, with each situation requiring informants to express their request patterns according to the given situation as if they were really speaking to the person indicated. Table 1 shows the six situations designed by the interlocutors' role relationship with respect to dimensions of dominance and social distance and imposition according to Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989a).

Table 1 Summary of Situations in the DCT

Situation	Social Distance	Dominance	Imposition	Request
A Money	-SD	Speaker=Hearer	High	The informant asks his/her friend to lend him/her some money
B Menu	+SD	Speaker>Hearer	Low	The informant asks a waiter to bring a menu at a restaurant.
C Seat	+SD	Spaker=Hearer	High	The informant asks a stranger to keep an eye on his/her seat.
D Document	+SD	Speaker<Hearer	Low	The informant asks an officer how to fill in a form.
E Recommendation	-SD	Speaker<Hearer	High	The informant asks his/her supervisor to write a letter of recommendation
F Help	-SD	Speaker>Hearer	Low	The informant asks his/her junior partner to help him/her.

Interviews

While questionnaires are effective for well-defined research objects and issues, oral and written self-reports are more appropriate for exploratory research (Kasper and Rose, 2002). In this study, an interview was employed to compensate for the inevitable lack of contextual information and to elicit informants' metapragmatic data.

3.3 Data Analysis Method

For the data analysis, the coding manual used in Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper's (1989b) CCSARP project and used by Hill (1997) was adapted for the study. The coding schema adapted in the study had four categories: (1) Alerters, (2) Head Acts categorised by directness level, (3) Internal modification, (4) External modification.

The following is an example of how a request sequence was coded:

Excuse me. I'm sorry to bother you but could you possibly mind my seat. I promise I won't be long.

Dimension	Category	Element
Alerter	Attention getter	<i>Excuse me</i>
External modification	Disarmer	<i>I'm sorry to bother you.</i>
Head Act	Indirect: preparatory	<i>could you mind my seat</i>
Internal modification	Downgrader	<i>possibly</i>
External modification	Cost minimiser	<i>I promise I won't be long</i>

4 Results

4.1 Analysis of Category 1: Alerters

An alerter functions to alert the hearer's attention before making a request. An alerter has two

components: an attention getter such as *excuse me* or *hi*, and an address term, such as *Steve* or *Dr. Wilkinson*.

Table 2 shows the percentage use of attention getters and address terms employed by JNNSs and ANSs. More than 50% of both groups employed attention getters in Situations B, C and D, inviting the addressee's attention (mostly by using *excuse me*), when they talked to a stranger whose social distance from them was large. In terms of the average percentage use of attention getters, there was no considerable difference between the two groups.

Table 2 Percentage Use of Attention Getters and Address Terms (JNNSs: n=32, ANSs: n=31)

		Situation A	Situation B	Situation C	Situation D	Situation E	Situation F	Average
Attention Getters	JNNSs	40.6	60.9	68.8	59.4	18.8	21.9	45.1
	ANSs	41.9	51.6	58.1	54.8	29.0	29.0	44.1
Address Terms	JNNSs	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.3	40.6	53.1	16.7
	ANSs	16.1	3.2	0.0	3.2	67.7	80.6	28.5

With respect to address terms, ANSs used the interlocutor's name when their social distance was small. In Situation E, 67.7% of ANSs utilised the supervisor's title/name, which was more than 1.5 times the usage demonstrated by JNNSs. Similarly, in Situation F, 80.6% of ANSs used the colleague's name before making their request, compared to 53.1% of the Japanese respondents.

4.2 Analysis of Category 2: Head Acts Categorised by Directness Level

Head Acts, or actual requests, were analysed according to the coding outline categorized by directness level. As shown in the first two lines of Table 3, the JNSs in this study did not use direct request strategies except one imperative expression. This single example, *Please keep my seat*, was considered to be impolite by the ANSs. Some ANSs commented that the imperative expression was demanding and that *please* did nothing to mitigate the request.

Table 3 Percentage Use of Direct Request and Conventionally Indirect Request

		Situation A	Situation B	Situation C	Situation D	Situation E	Situation F	Average
Direct Request	JNNSs	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5
	ANSs	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.0	3.2	1.1
Indirect Request	JNNSs	96.9	100.0	96.9	90.6	100.0	96.9	96.9
	ANSs	90.3	100.0	100.0	87.1	100.0	93.5	95.2

The last two lines of Table 3 demonstrate the percentage use of conventionally indirect requests. Most of the strategies employed here were consolidated into the conventionally indirect requests. All of the conventionally indirect requests, with the exception of a small number of hints and want statements, were preparatory. There was no considerable difference between the JNNSs and ANSs in terms of their average percentage use of

indirect requests, registering 96.9% and 95.2% respectively. Since nonconventionally indirect requests (hints) were rarely seen in the study, no explanation is provided here.

4.3 Analysis of Category 3 and 4: Internal and External Modification

The illocutionary force can be modified by internal and external modification. One method of internal modification, downgraders, mitigates the illocutionary force, while the other, upgraders, intensifies it. The number of downgraders and upgraders employed per request by the JNNSs and ANSs was counted and compared.

As shown in the first two lines in Table 4, the average number of downgraders adopted by the ANSs was nearly twice that used by the JNNSs. This discrepancy was primarily attributable to the ANSs' use of *please*. Some prototypical examples are listed below:

- (1) (JNNS: Situation D): Could you tell me how to answer these questions?
 (ANS: Situation D) *Excuse me*, sorry to bother you. Could you *please* help me with this form?

These examples demonstrate not only the use of a politeness marker but also the use of an attention getter. The examples employed an identical type of conventionally indirect request, that is, *could you*, but an analysis of politeness markers and attention getters reveals the difference between the JNNSs and ANSs. Consequently, the ANSs' requests appear more polite. Fewer upgraders were observed, as the two middle lines of Table 4 shows.

Table 4 Number of Downgraders/Upgraders and External Modifications Used per Request

		Situation A	Situation B	Situation C	Situation D	Situation E	Situation F	Average
Down-graders	JNNSs	0.41	0.31	0.97	0.09	0.41	0.16	0.39
	ANSs	0.58	0.77	1.10	0.45	0.77	0.68	0.73
Up-graders	JNNSs	0.22	0.00	0.99	0.00	0.03	0.19	0.24
	ANSs	0.39	0.00	0.29	0.00	0.03	0.39	0.18
External Modifications	JNNSs	2.00	0.59	1.47	1.09	0.94	0.84	1.16
	ANSs	1.58	0.58	1.87	1.26	1.10	1.26	1.28

The last two lines show the number of external modifications employed per request. It refers to supportive moves with which a speaker intends to mitigate or aggravate the illocutionary force. Compared with internal modifications, more external modifications were utilised by both the JNNSs and ANSs. The most employed external modification was a grounder explaining the reason for the request, such as: *I left my wallet at home*. Some of the ANS informants commented that the JNNSs should have explained the reason.

4.4 χ^2 Test

Table 5 χ^2 test of Address Terms and Downgraders

Situation	Address Terms			Downgraders				
	A	E	F	B	C	D	E	F
χ^2	5.606	4.661	5.366	11.642	10.350	6.552	5.871	12.235
df	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
<i>p</i>	0.018	0.031	0.021	0.001	0.006	0.001	0.015	0.000
	*	*	*	**	**	*	*	**

Table 5 demonstrates the result of χ^2 test in which there were significant difference between the JNNSs and ANSs in the use of Address Terms (Situation A/E/F) and Downgraders (all the situations except Situation A). No significant difference was observed in other categories/dimensions.

4.5 Number of Words per Request

Table 6 demonstrates the number of words used per request. The JNNSs used more words than the ANSs. Nevertheless, χ^2 test shows no considerable difference between the two groups. The greater the imposition they perceived, the more words the informants used.

Table 6 Number of Words per Request

	Situation A	Situation B	Situation C	Situation D	Situation E	Situation F	Average
JNNSs	19.9	8.3	16.5	14.2	18.9	13.3	15.2
ANSs	14.1	7.4	14.3	11.5	15.0	11.1	12.2

4.6 Conventionally indirect request: preparatory

It was revealed that most of the Head Acts performed were conventionally indirect requests. Table 7 shows the top three indirect request patterns and the percentage of their use in each situation.

Table 7 Top Three Indirect Requests and Percentage Use in Each Situation

Situation	JNNSs			ANSs		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
A	can I 34.4	could you 21.9	can you 15.6	could you 35.5	could I 16.1	would mind 12.9
B	could you 34.4	can I 31.3	could I 15.6	could I 45.2	can I 22.6	could you 22.6
C	would mind 34.4	could you 28.1	can you 12.5	could you 41.9	would mind 29.0	would you 16.1
D	could you 53.1	can you 9.4	would you 9.4	could you 51.6	can you 19.4	be possible 9.7
E	could you 25.0	would you 18.8	would mind 15.6	be wondering 32.3	could you 29.0	be possible 12.9
F	can you 43.8	could you 31.3	will/would yo 6.3	could you 54.8	would mind 9.7	can/would/wonder 6.5

5 Discussion

5.1 Conventionally indirect requests

Fukushima (1990) reported that expressions used by Japanese subjects were very direct in most situations and attributed this result to the relationship between in-group members, especially between equals. In a similar situation—Situation A of the present study—84.4% of JNNSs employed bald-on-record strategy when they were asked at an interview what they would say in Japanese; however, no JNNSs actually used direct strategies

in their English requests. In other words, the JNNS informants in the present study employed in-group distinction in their L1 usage but did not transfer this practice to their L2 usage.

Hill (1997) reported that 12.9% of the advanced NNS learners in his research employed direct strategies, a much higher percentage than that found amongst British native speakers (1.9%). By contrast, the informants in the present study did not use direct request strategies except in one case, as Table 3 illustrated. The possible reason for the discrepancy between their results and the findings of this study may be attributable to differences in the respective subjects' proficiency.

ANSs have a noticeable inclination to avoid making requests by employing imperatives (Wierzbicka, 1991). In this respect, the JNNSs can be regarded as "native-like", which demonstrates their difference to the subjects in Fukushima and Hill. These findings were confirmed, with the JNNSs in the present study preferring to utilise preparatory strategies. Accordingly, they showed similarities to the ANNs with regard to their use of indirect request strategies. To date, no advanced level JNNSs' pragmatic knowledge has been discussed, so these findings may be valuable.

The study indicated that the JNNS informants were target-like in terms of their preparatory strategies; nevertheless, more detailed analysis revealed that there were some differences in their selection of sentence types, for example, in Situations A, B, F. Specifically, they were apt to use more casual expressions such as *can I/you*, rather than *could you/I*, which were dominantly employed by the ANNs.

5.2 Implication for Future Research

The current study has revealed some characteristics of pragmatic knowledge possessed by advanced JNNSs. The research could be expanded to explore the relationship between the NNSs' pragmatic performance and their amount of English use and length of residence in the target language community. By so doing, the gap in pragmatic development concerning NNSs' pragmatic competence could be bridged, since prior research has been focused on beginners and intermediate Japanese students in classrooms.

6 Conclusion

The present study recorded some similarities and differences between the JNNSs and ANNs in response to the research question. In terms of alerters, the less use of address terms by the JNNSs became apparent. The analysis of Head Acts by directness level revealed that the JNNSs were

target-like in their selection of conventionally indirect request forms. This finding contradicted other studies administered to lower proficiency informants. With respect to internal modification, the use of downgraders by the JNNSs was about half that of the ANNs. In contrast, there was little difference between the two groups in the use of external modification. The number of words per request supported the CCSARP (1989) result that advanced NNSs were verbose.

Detailed analysis of the sentence patterns used in preparatory strategies highlighted some differences between the two, namely that the request forms the ANNs' employed were fundamentally more polite than those used by the JNNSs. These findings concerned the might have contributed to bridging the gap between Japanese intermediate and advanced speakers of English.

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Comparing Expressions in Bilingual Japanese-English “Manga”

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Abstract

“Manga” in Japan has become established as one Japanese sub-culture, which has become distributed into the world now. The term “Manga” here is used for the comics that are translated from Japanese into English. The English version of “Manga” has been getting a lot of attention from learners of English in Japan because it is colloquial in style, it includes many expressions from daily life, and it gives chances to have simulating experiences.

So, the present study analyzed expressions in Japanese and English in “Manga” quantitatively and qualitatively and gave some pedagogical suggestions for teaching conversational English to learners of English in Japan at the end. Hopefully, parts of the results of this study will also help learners of Japanese in other countries acquire conversational Japanese through “Manga”.

Keywords

“Manga”, transfer, expressions, comparison, Japanese, English

Introduction

“Manga” has penetrated into the world as one sub-culture from Japan now (Costa, 2007; Ogino, 2007; Perez, 2006). They are, therefore, translated from Japanese into many other languages, such as Chinese, Korean, Portuguese, Italian, Spanish, French, German, and English (Costa, 2007). They have given motivation to learn Japanese (Costa, 2007; Ogino, 2007; Perez, 2006) in those countries. But even in Japan, English versions of “Manga” have also attracted interest from learners of English, because expressions in “Manga” are colloquial, have vividness and reality, and are used in daily life. Under these situations, the researchers in this study find value in analyzing “Manga” to find its potential as materials for learning or teaching

conversational English. Especially they are interested in bilingual versions of “Manga” in which lines in Japanese and English are written on the same page. It is easy for them to compare expressions in each language at the same time.

The purpose of this study, therefore, is three-fold: 1) comparing Japanese and English by using quantitative analysis to find what kind of Japanese and English are used in “Manga,” 2) finding transferring categories and features by using qualitative analysis, and 3) exploring the possibility of a language learning material and giving some pedagogical suggestions.

1 Analyzed materials

There are mainly two broad categories in “Manga” depending on the content of the stories, real life and fantasy (Okada, 1997). They are further categorized “according to the target audience which roughly corresponds to different age groups” (Allen & Ingulsrud, 2005: 267). Considering them as the materials for teaching English, real life and less cultural depictions, and the audience of young adults are preferable when choosing. As a result, “Kindaichi File” (Kaneshiro, 2003) was chosen for analysis in this study. It depicts school life with many colloquial expressions used by young adults. It develops its plot with vivacity and would attract students in universities. “Manga” with many cultural depictions are excluded from this study, because they might distract learners from the expressions themselves, although they are good for learning Japanese culture.

Five hundred correspondent sentences are extracted from each language, Japanese and English. And they are changed into electronic files for analyzing.

2 Quantitative analysis

Five hundred thirty-five sentences in Japanese, five hundred thirty-three in English in “Kindaichi File” are analyzed quantitatively

with WordSmith (ver.4) for English and Wincha¹ for Japanese.

2.1 Complete sentences vs. incomplete sentences

Table 1: Quantitative comparison between Japanese and English

	<i>Japanese</i>	<i>English</i>
Total Number of Words	3,460	2,711
The Number of Types	948	884
Rate of Type/Token (TTR)	0.27	0.33
The Number of Sentences	535	533
Mean of Length of Utterance (MLU)	6.5	5.1
The Number of Complete S.	449	416
The Number of Incomplete S.	86	117

The proportion of complete and incomplete sentences in English is 3.6:1. According to Mizutani (1985), the ratio of complete and incomplete sentences in formal conversation is 20:1 and 1.4:1 in informal conversation, like at a party. It is reported that the ratio in average conversation is 3:1. Judging by this report, English used in “Manga” could be said to use quite average colloquial English.

The ratio of complete and incomplete sentences in Japanese is 5.2:1, which unexpectedly shows that English has more incomplete sentences than Japanese.

2.2 TTR and MLU

It is said that the TTR in the average English utterance is 0.4. The closer the numeric of TTR comes to 1.0, the less repeated words are used in English. In other words, the lower the numeric of the TTR is, the plainer or simpler the English is. So, English in “Manga” could be said to be written in relatively simple style. As for Japanese, the TTR is 0.27. This means that repeated words are used very often in the Japanese text. This could result from the different usage of pronouns in each language.

¹ WinCha is a free morphological analysis system distributed by Graduate School of Information Science of Nara Institute of Science and Technology (NAIST)
<http://chasen-legacy.sourceforge.jp/>

MLU in English was 5.1 words and 6.5 words in Japanese. An English sentence is a little shorter than a Japanese one. Expressions in a simple or direct way are seen more in English.

2.3 Sentence patterns and sentence classes

In this section, only English is analyzed. The number of analyzed sentences is 382 out of 533. One hundred fifty-one sentences were removed because they are interjections or one word sentences.

Table 2: Sentence patterns

Sentence Patterns		No. of sentences
1	SV	127
2	SVC	123
3	SVO	116
4	SVOO	7
5	SVOC	9
Total		382

Table 3: Sentence classes

Sent. Classes	No.
Complex Sent.	47
Compound Sent.	19
Simple Sent.	316
Total	382

As Table 2 shows, the sentences of SV, SVC, and SVO patterns have the overwhelming majority. Besides, most English sentence classes in “Manga” are simple sentences (See Table 3).

2.4 Word levels

The words of English in “Manga” are checked by JACET8000, which is a word list with 8 levels made by the committee of the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET). “JACET8000 was made based on the BNC (British National Corpus), language material reflecting the Japanese educational situation, and American English” (JACET, 2003: 1). Words in Levels 1 and 2 are basic words and words over Level 3 include “words seen mainly in newspapers and magazines in a certain number. The higher the levels go up, the higher the number of words in newspapers and magazines goes up” (p.3).

Table 4: Word levels

WL	1	2	3	4	5
No.	2,157	141	68	28	26
WL	6	7	8	0	Total
No.	39	6	21	225	2,711

Level 0 includes words not found in JACET8000 and/or compound words such as jack-in-the-box. According to Table 4, most of the words in “Manga” consist of words in Levels 1 and 2. This means that Manga consist mostly of basic words.

3 Qualitative analysis

3.1 Transferring categories

As for the classification of features in transferring Japanese into English, two points of view are referred to: comparative syntactics and comparative semantics. The categories from 1) to 6) are categorized from the comparative syntactic point of view and from 7) to 12) are from the semantic point of view.

- 1) Adding subjects: Subjects in English are added.
- 2) Omit subjects: Subjects in English are omitted.
- 3) Simplification: Expressions in Japanese are simplified in English.
- 4) Meaning supplementation: Meanings omitted in Japanese are supplemented in English.
- 5) Adding objects: Objects are added in English.
- 6) Omit verbs: Verbs in Japanese are omitted in English.
- 7) Changed subjects: Subjects in Japanese are changed in English.
- 8) Usage of pronouns: Pronouns are used in English instead of names in Japanese.
- 9) Vocabulary changes: Words in Japanese are changed into different words in English.
- 10) Changing negative into affirmative: Negative expressions in Japanese are changed into affirmative expressions.
- 11) Specific expressions: Ambiguous expressions in Japanese are changed into specific expressions.
- 12) Idioms: Idioms or clichés are used in English.

Table 5: Number of transfers

Rank	category	No.
1	Voc. chan.	241
2	Add sub.	110
3	Idioms	82

4	Simplification	77
5	Specific	64
6	S. change	61
7	Omit sub.	57
8	Add obj.	50
9	Pronoun	40
10	Supplement.	40
11	Omit vb.	38
12	Affirmative	18
Total		878

The total number of transfers is 878 in 424 sentences out of 535 Japanese sentences. One hundred eleven sentences are not changed. The categories which are the two most in number are “Vocabulary changes” and “Adding subjects”. They occupied 40% over all.

3.2 The number of transfers in a sentence

Table 6 shows the number of sentences and the number of categories at each level. Level 1 includes one transfer in a sentence. In the same way, Level 2 includes two transfers in a sentence. According to Table 6, the sentence which has the most transfers in one sentence is Level 1, followed by Level 2 and Level 3, which occupied about 82% of transfers of the total.

Table 6: Number of sentences and categories in each level and its rate

Level	Number of sentences	Number of categories	Rate (%)
1	155	155	17.7
2	126	252	28.7
3	105	315	35.9
4	34	136	15.5
5	4	20	2.3
Total	424	878	100.1

3.3 Correlation analysis

Pearson correlation coefficient significance among categories is tested. The result was shown in Table 7. The four combinations of categories were significant because their r (correlation coefficient) is larger than p values (observed significance level of the test).

That is, in many cases where verbs are omitted, subjects are also omitted. Likewise, when ambiguous expressions are expressed specifically, it is often to add subjects, when subjects are changed, other words are also changed, or objects are added.

Table 7: Correlation coefficient among categories

Categories	Pearson correlation coefficient	p values
Omit vb./Omit sub.	0.591**	0.000
Specific exp./Add sub.	0.132**	0.007
Change sub./Voc. change	0.128**	0.008
Change sub./Add obj.	0.125**	0.010

** means it is significant at a significance level of 1%

Table 8 shows the number of transfer in each category and level. Idiomatic transfers occur in many cases in level 1, which includes one transfer in one sentence. And transfers from negative expressions to affirmative expressions and adding objects often occur in level 3 or level 4. Most other transfers often occur in level 2 or level 3. This means that most transfers except these 3 transfers co-occur in 2 or 3 other transfers in some relationships.

Table 8: Number of transfer in each category and level

	Level					Total
	1	2	3	4	5	
Add sub.	11	40	35	21	3	110
Omit sub.	4	15	28	8	2	57
Simpl.	12	19	32	12	2	77
Supple.	7	13	10	9	1	40
Add obj.	5	12	15	15	3	50
Omit vb.	2	11	20	3	2	38
Chan. sub.	4	23	22	9	3	61
Pron.	7	12	15	6	0	40
Voc.change	58	66	85	29	3	241
Neg. Affir.	1	3	8	6	0	18
Specific	9	16	26	13	0	64
Idioms	35	22	19	5	1	82
Total	155	252	315	136	20	878

4 Conclusion and some pedagogical suggestions

It is often said that basic words are enough to speak in conversations. In fact, the findings from the quantitative analysis reveal that English in “Manga” uses simple sentence patterns, simple classes, and simple words. However, they also reveal that a lot of idioms are used in “Manga”. This means that even if the words are simple, the

meanings of idioms are not as simple as the words. Students should be aware of the importance of idioms for memorization.

From the qualitative analysis, it is found that the vocabulary changes occur the most frequently in number. This confirmed that abundant vocabularies are necessary to transfer from Japanese to natural English. And some transferring categories were found to exist in a correlation with other transfers. The important thing for learners of English is to try transfers in as short a time as possible. Doing so, they can gradually produce them without transferring.

Finally, it can be concluded from these findings that “Manga” has great potential as good language material for learners of English in acquiring conversational English, attracting their interests and giving chances for simulating experiences.

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Measuring Readability for Japanese Learners of English

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Abstract

This paper describes the relative effectiveness of seven variables of three categories in predicting the readability of the EFL texts used in the Japanese context.

The factors examined in our research were (1) word difficulty and (2) idiom difficulty, in addition to the commonly used variables, sentence length (SL) and word length (WL). In the analysis of word difficulty three measures were considered: (1) *JACET 8000* (JACET), (2) the *British National Corpus* (BNC), and (3) Textbook-based Word Difficulty (TWD). As measures of idiom difficulty two factors were considered: (1) Akao-based Idiom Difficulty (AID) and (2) Textbook-based Idiom Difficulty (TID). The textbook-based word difficulty and textbook-based idiom difficulty are original measures being developed in the present project.

Six multiple regression analyses computed using six combinations of four kinds of variables, revealed the following points. First, the combination of variables, SL + WL + TWD + TID, proved to be the most efficient predictor of readability for the EFL sample textbook materials. Second, the regression equation that best explains the total textbook corpus was: Year level = $0.0995 * \text{Words/S} + 0.4302 * \text{Syllab/W} + 0.9799 * \text{WordDiff/W} + 0.0633 * \text{IdiomDiff/S} + 0.2815$.

Keywords

Measuring Readability, Japanese learners, EFL, Regression analysis

1 Introduction

Existing readability measures, which are conventionally targeted at native readers of English, are theoretically based on the variables, sentence length and word length. For example, the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level formula, perhaps the most widely employed readability measure, uses

average number of words per sentence and average number of syllables per word as its variables.

Although such indices may be valid and meaningful in measuring the readability of English texts from the native speakers' viewpoint, they may not be appropriate in measuring readability for texts used in teaching EFL. From the EFL learners' and teachers' points of view, the crucial factors directly related to text readability are linguistic factors such as semantic, grammatical, phonological, lexical and pragmatic factors, the difficulty level of which in differing ways, always contribute to the difficulty of EFL texts. In this sense it is an urgent goal in the circle of TEFL to develop a readability index that accommodates appropriate linguistic factors as variables.

In an effort to develop a new readability index, Weir & Ritchie (2006) focused on word frequency as a key factor. Anagnostou & Weir (2006) introduced corpus-based collocation frequency as a measure for computing readability and enlarged the possibility of developing a new, more powerful readability measure. In this context, Anagnostou & Weir (2007) also probed the nature of average collocation frequency, and proposed this as a practical measure for estimating the complexity of English texts.

Fukui and his research team, on the other hand, have long been engaged in developing a computer program entitled *College Analysis*, an integrated software facility for social system analysis using statistics (Fukui & Hosokawa, 2004). A number of techniques used during the development process for this software, and parts of the program itself, proved relevant and applicable to the goal of the present readability index development.

Ozasa, et al (2007) proposed two new measures, (1) textbook-based word difficulty and (2) textbook-based idiom difficulty as factors for estimating the readability of texts from the EFL textbooks presently used in Japanese formal education.

The present work is one attempt to integrate the ideas and techniques of these previous studies with currently available indices, in order to develop a new readability index that will be best suited to Japanese EFL learners.

2 Aim

The present study aims (1) to empirically evaluate the relative effectiveness of possible variables in predicting EFL text readability, and to ascertain the optimal combination of the variables that best explains readability for Japanese EFL learners, and (2) to ascertain an optimal readability formula. Specifically, our study aims to assess the validity of five new linguistic variables across two categories, in addition to the commonly used variables, sentence length (SL) and word length (WL).

3 Method

3.1 Developing a Computation Formula

The first stage in developing a formula for a readability index is to work out an operational hypothesis which can be used for improving and finalizing the index. The formula used as a working hypothesis in the present study was as follows:

$$\text{EFL readability} = aw + bx + cy + dz + e$$

- Where: w : number of words / sentence
 x : number of syllables / word
 y : mean of the difficulty values of words used in the textbooks
 z : mean of the difficulty values of idioms used in the textbooks
 a, b, c, d, e : coefficients

Here the basic assumption underlying the working hypothesis is that readability is a function of the four variables, sentence length (w), word length (x), textbook-based word difficulty (y) and textbook-based idiom difficulty (z).

The application of word and idiom difficulty measures have each been explored and elaborated by researchers at the University of Strathclyde (op. cit.). These concepts have been introduced with slight modification into the present version of the readability index. Although the word / idiom difficulty is closely related to frequency, we employ an independent measure based on the intuitive evaluation of Japanese teachers of English who are well acquainted with Japanese EFL learners and the Japanese EFL situation.

The a, b, c, d and e are coefficients that can be adjusted and finalized depending upon the results of the empirical verification process.

In order to decide the rational numbers for a, b, c, d and e , multiple regression analyses were computed with the year level of EFL textbooks as a dependent variable and sentence length, word length, word difficulty and idiom difficulty as independent variables.

The new independent variables examined in the research were (1) word difficulty and (2) idiom difficulty. As measures of word difficulty, three factors were considered: (1) *JACET 8000* (JACET), (2) the *British National Corpus* (BNC), and (3) Textbook-based Word Difficulty (TWD). As measures of idiom difficulty, two factors were considered: (1) Akao-based Idiom Difficulty (AID) and (2) Textbook-based Idiom Difficulty (TID). The textbook-based word difficulty and textbook-based idiom difficulty are original measures being developed in the present project.

To examine the predictive power of the seven variables and to ascertain the optimal solution for predicting readability in a sample text, six multiple regression analyses were computed using six combinations of four kinds of variables as independent variables and year level of EFL texts as a dependent variable. The combinations of the four kinds of independent variables were: (1) SL + WL + JACET + AID, (2) SL + WL + JACET + TID, (3) SL + WL + BNC + AID, (4) SL + WL + BNC + TID, (5) SL + WL + TWD + AID, and (6) SL + WL + TWD + TID. The results of the 6 multiple regression analyses were compared in terms of the effectiveness of readability prediction. The materials used for the dependent variable were sample passages taken from a set of textbooks, i.e., books 1 - 5, which is different from the sets used for building the word and idiom difficulty measures.

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Evaluating variables' effectiveness

The six multiple regression analyses computed, using the six combinations of measures as independent variables, gave the following data.

(1) SL + WL + JACET + AID,

The multiple regression analysis computed using the combination of the four kinds of variables, SL + WL + JACET + AID, gave the data shown in Table 1.

Table 1: SL + WL + JACET + AID regression data

	PRC	SPC	t	df	p	PCC
SL	0.1160	0.4555	5.9915	142	0.0000	0.4492
WL	0.6395	0.1065	1.3863	142	0.1678	0.1156
JWD	0.0013	0.1907	2.5651	142	0.0114	0.2104
AID	0.0035	0.0221	0.3096	142	0.7573	0.0260
Intercept	0.7561	0.0000	1.2851	142	0.2009	

$r^2 = .34932$

The multiple regression equation proved to be valid

($F = 19.05841$, $fd = 4,142$, $p = .00000$) although the r^2 proved to be .34932, which is not very satisfactory. As for the predictive power of the variables, the standard partial coefficients were .4555 for sentence length, .1065 for word length, .1907 for JACET word difficulty, and .0221 for Akao-based idiom difficulty, respectively.

The results obtained indicate that sentence length and JACET word difficulty were powerful in predicting the readability of the Japanese EFL texts, while the other three variables proved to be weak in their predictive power.

(2) SL + WL + JACET + TID,

The multiple regression analysis computed using the combination of the four kinds of variables, SL + WL + JACET + TID, yielded the data shown in Table 2.

Table 2: SL + WL + JACET + TID Regression Data

	PRC	SPC	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	PCC
SL	0.1091	0.4285	5.4936	142	0.0000	0.4187
WL	0.6584	0.1097	1.4389	142	0.1524	0.1199
JWD	0.0012	0.1899	2.5682	142	0.0113	0.2107
TID	0.0546	0.0832	1.1332	142	0.2591	0.0947
Intercept	0.7466	0.0000	1.2847	142	0.2010	

$r^2 = .35472$

The multiple regression equation proved to be valid ($F = 19.51463$, $fd = 4,142$, $p = .00000$). The r^2 proved to be .35472, which is not very satisfactory, either. As for the predictive power of the variables, the standard partial coefficients were .4285 for sentence length, .1097 for word length, .1899 for JACET word difficulty, and .0832 for textbook-based idiom difficulty, respectively.

The results indicate that sentence length and JACET word difficulty were powerful in predicting the readability of the Japanese EFL texts, and that the predictive power of the other variables were weak.

(3) SL + WL + BNC + AID,

The multiple regression analysis computed using the combination of the four kinds of variables, SL + WL + BNC + AID, yielded the data shown in Table 3.

Table 3: SL + WL + BNC + AID regression data

	PRC	SPC	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	PCC
SL	0.1193	0.4686	6.1077	142	0.0000	0.4561
WL	0.8128	0.1354	1.7645	142	0.0798	0.1465
BNC	0.0085	0.1219	1.6567	142	0.0998	0.1377
AID	0.0037	0.0232	0.3205	142	0.7491	0.0269
Intercept	0.6127	0.0000	1.0358	142	0.3020	

$r^2 = .33208$

The multiple regression equation proved to be valid ($F = 17.65024$, $fd = 4,142$, $p = .00000$). The r^2 proved to be .33208, which is not very satisfactory,

either. As for the predictive power of the variables, the standard partial coefficients were .4686 for sentence length, .1354 for word length, .1219 for BNC word frequency, and .0232 for Akao-based idiom difficulty, respectively.

The results obtained indicate that only sentence length was powerful in predicting the readability of the Japanese EFL texts, while the other three variables proved to be weak in predictive power.

(4) SL + WL + BNC + TID,

The multiple regression analysis computed using the combination of the four kinds of variables, SL + WL + BNC + TID, yielded the data shown in Table 4.

Table 4: SL + WL + BNC + TID regression data

	PRC	SPC	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	PCC
SL	0.1118	0.4392	5.5751	142	0.0000	0.4238
WL	0.8266	0.1377	1.8098	142	0.0724	0.1502
BNC	0.0086	0.1245	1.7044	142	0.0905	0.1416
TID	0.0585	0.0891	1.1973	142	0.2332	0.1000
Intercept	0.6053	0.0000	1.0370	142	0.3015	

$r^2 = .33828$

The multiple regression equation proved to be valid ($F = 18.14797$, $fd = 4,142$, $p = .00000$). The r^2 proved to be .33828, which is not very satisfactory, either. As for the predictive power of the variables, the standard partial coefficients were .4392 for sentence length, .1377 for word length, .1245 for JACET word difficulty, and .0891 for Akao-based idiom difficulty, respectively.

The results obtained indicate that only sentence length was powerful in predicting the readability of the Japanese EFL texts, while the other three variables proved to be weak in predictive power.

(5) SL + WL + TWD + AID,

The multiple regression analysis computed using the combination of the four kinds of variables, SL + WL + TWD + AID, yielded the data shown in Table 5.

Table 5: SL + WL + TWD + AID regression data

	PRC	SPC	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	PCC
SL	0.1033	0.4057	5.3623	142	0.0000	0.4104
WL	0.5685	0.0947	1.2974	142	0.1966	0.1082
TWD	1.1271	0.2894	3.9405	142	0.0001	0.3140
AID	-0.0007	-0.0044	-0.0638	142	0.9492	-0.0054
Intercept	-0.3583	0.0000	-0.5907	142	0.5556	

$r^2 = .38628$

The multiple regression equation proved to be valid ($F = 22.34404$, $fd = 4,142$, $p = .00000$). The r^2 proved to be .38628, which is more satisfactory, compared to the previous ones. As for the predictive power of the variables, the standard partial coefficients were .4053 for sentence length, .0947 for word length, .2894 for

textbook-based word difficulty, and -.0044 for Akao-based idiom difficulty, respectively.

The results indicate that sentence length was the primary predictor and textbook-based word difficulty the secondary predictor of the readability of the Japanese EFL texts, and that the predictive power of the other two variables was weak.

(6) SL + WL + TWD + TID.

The multiple regression analysis computed using the combination of the four kinds of variables, SL + WL + TWD + TID, yielded the data shown in Table 6.

Table 6: + WL + TWD + TID regression data

	PRC	SPC	t	df	p	PCC
SL	0.0996	0.3911	5.0694	142	0.0000	0.3915
WL	0.5978	0.0996	1.3713	142	0.1724	0.1143
TWD	1.1019	0.2829	3.8088	142	0.0002	0.3045
TID	0.0237	0.0362	0.4987	142	0.6188	0.0418
Intercept	-0.3590	0.0000	-0.5963	142	0.5519	

r² = .38734

The multiple regression equation proved to be valid ($F = 22.44363$, $fd = 4,142$, $p = .00000$). The r² proved to be .38734, which is the highest among the six combinations. As for the predictive power of the variables, the standard partial coefficients were .3911 for sentence length, .0996 for word length, .2829 for textbook-based word difficulty, and .0362 for textbook-based-based idiom difficulty, respectively.

The results indicate that sentence length was the primary predictor and the textbook-based word difficulty the secondary predictor of the readability of the Japanese EFL texts, and that the predictive power of the other two variables was minimal.

4.2 Ascertaining an optimal readability formula

In an attempt to ascertain the best readability formula, a final multiple regression analysis was computed using the best combination of the independent variables, SL + WL + TWD + TID, and as the dependent variable, the corpus of all of the textbooks used in building the textbook-based word and idiom difficulty measures. This gave the following readability formula:

$$\text{Year} = 0.0995 * \text{Words/S} + 0.4302 * \text{Syllab/W} + 0.9799 * \text{WordDiff/W} + 0.0633 * \text{IdiomDiff/S} + 0.2815$$

($F = 505.11970$, $df = 4, 2874$, $p = .00000$)
 ($r^2 = 0.41281$)

5 Conclusion

The multiple regression analyses produced two findings. First, the combination of variables, SL + WL + TWD + TID, proved to be the most effective predictor of the readability of the EFL sample

textbook materials. Second, the regression equation that best explains the total textbook corpus proved to be as follows:

$$\text{Year} = 0.0995 * \text{Words/S} + 0.4302 * \text{Syllab/W} + 0.9799 * \text{WordDiff/W} + 0.0633 * \text{IdiomDiff/S} + 0.2815$$

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Diachronic and Synchronic Analyses of English Textbooks: With a Focus on the Gender Awareness

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Abstract

This paper aims to analyze two corpus databases from the dual standpoint of the historical context and current relevance: one database contains fourteen English textbook series, used in Japan across a span of 135 years, and the other five present-day English textbook series from Asian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) countries, in terms of gender awareness. These data were statistically analyzed to determine the frequencies of the appearance of the pronouns, “she” and “he” on the assumption that language disparity reflects social inequity in the position of women (Lakoff 2004). The results of a diachronic analysis contribute to proving that the authors of English textbooks in Japan, except for those aiming at women’s education, seem to have lacked gender awareness. From the results of synchronic analysis of present-day English textbooks in Asian countries, we conjecture that these textbooks may not yet meet the global standard.

Keywords

English textbooks in Asian EFL countries, quantitative and qualitative analyses, gender-fair

Introduction

We assume that textbooks are a reflection of the days and the society in which they are written and used. In society, women have been invisible during a long male-centered history. From the historical context of English education in Japan, we examine how gender awareness has developed. For current relevance, we determine whether or not present-day English textbooks in Asian countries satisfy the global standard advocated by the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPFA), issued on the occasion of the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing, China in 1995. The declaration says that the ultimate goal of education is to create a gender-sensitive educational system. Furthermore, in Paragraph 72, it advocates that we

should pursue non-stereotyped images of women and men, and the elimination of the causes of discrimination against women and inequalities between women and men. This is the background to the present study.

1 A diachronic analysis of English textbooks in Japan

The aim of a diachronic analysis of English textbooks in Japan is to substantiate whether or not textbooks used in Japan across a period of more than 100 years, reflect language equity between men and women from the historical context. The hypothesis is that if the frequencies of appearance of “she” and “he” are equal, the textbook is considered to be gender fair.

1.1 Method for a quantitative analysis

The corpus data used in this study was drawn from fourteen English textbook series, representing a total of 70 books published between 1861 and 1996 (Ozasa 2004).

The textbooks used for the diachronic analysis are listed chronologically below:

- (1) Sanders, C.W. (1861-7). *Sanders’ Union Readers*. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. (*Union*) Originally an English textbook used in the U.S.A.
- (2) Barnes, A.S. (1883-4). *New National Readers*. A.S. Barnes & Co. (1883), American Book Co. (1884). (*National*). Originally an English textbook used in the U.S.A.
- (3) Ministry of Education (Denning, W.) (1887-8). *English Readers: The High School Series*. Ministry of Education. (*Denning*)
- (4) Ministry of Education (Toyama, M.) (1889-90). *Seisoku Mombusyo Dokuhon*. Ministry of Education. (*Seisoku*)
- (5) Shobido (1902). *Standard Choice Readers*. Shobido. (*Choice*)
- (6) Kanda, N. (1903). *Kanda’s New Series of*

- English Readers (Revised Edition). Sanseido. (Kanda)
- (7) Okakura, Y. (1907). *The Globe Readers*. . Dainihontoshō. (*Globe*)
- (8) Kumamoto, K (1907). *New English Drill Books*. Kaiseikan. (*Drill*)
- (9) Tsuda, U. & Kumamoto, K. (1916). *Girls' New Taisho Readers*. Tokyo Kaiseikan. (*Taisho*) Textbooks for girls' middle grade schools.
- (10) Palmer, H.E. (1926). *The Standard English Readers*. Kaitakusha. (*Standard(P)*)
- (11) Takehara, T. (1932). *The Standard English Readers*. Taishukan. (*Standard(T)*)
- (12) Sawamura, Torajiro (1939). *Girls' Pacific Readers*. Tokyo Kairyudo (*Pacific*)
- (13) Hagiwara, K. *et al.* (1940). *New Jack and Betty: English Step by Step* (1,2,3). Kairyudo. (*Jack and Betty*). Hagiwara, K. *et al.* (1951). *New High School English* (1,2). Kairyudo. (*High School*)
- (14) Shimaoka, T. *et al.* (1986). *Sunshine English Course* (Junior High, 1,2,3). Kairyudo. (*Sunshine*) Tsuchiya, S. *et al.* (1987). *Sunshine English Course* (Senior High, 1, 2). Kairyudo. (*Sunshine*)

We analyzed the data according to the following procedure:

- (1) English textbook series listed above were digitized and the data file was created.
- (2) AntConc (Anthony 2003) was used as concordance software, and the frequencies of appearance of “she” and “he” in each textbook were investigated.
- (3) In order to test the relationship between two variables, “she” and “he,” we applied the Chi-squared test.

1.2 Results and discussion

The results of the Chi-squared test on the data determine that there is a significant difference between the frequencies of appearance of “she” and “he” in textbooks (1) to (7) ($df = 6$, $\chi^2 = 721.53$, $p < 2.2e-16$), and textbooks (8) to (14) ($df = 6$, $\chi^2 = 1185.863$, $p < 2.2e-16$). This means that the pronoun, “he”, as a whole has appeared more often than “she” in the English textbooks in Japan. The average ratio of frequencies of “she” to “he” was 34.46%.

Furthermore, we find that 14 textbooks can be categorized into three groups: one group which is the closest to the ideal value, the ratio of “she” to “he” is 100%; another has the lowest frequencies of “she” compared to “he”; the other lies between the other two groups. Two textbooks out of three, which belong to the first group, were written for women’s education before WW II. The ratios were 92.29% and 70.6%. These results contribute to proving the role played by women’s schools during

the period of modernization of Japanese society. The average ratio of the other ten textbook series published before the war was 22.1%. There seems to be a lack of awareness of gender issues in old textbooks. However, we must consider that this may simply be a reflection of the immature society at the time. What we would rather notice is the ratio of frequencies of “she” to “he” in present-day English textbook series in Japan, which is 60.56%. The value has improved compared with that before the war. This ratio, however, does not seem to meet the standard suggested by BPFA. This result inclined us to undertake further research on present-day English textbooks in Asian countries.

2 A synchronic analysis of English textbooks in five Asian countries

We aim to examine whether or not present-day English textbooks of other Asian countries in EFL contexts share the same problem as their counterpart in Japan. This leads to the following research questions of a synchronic analysis of English textbooks in Asian countries: “Are the textbooks, used in Asian EFL countries, gender sensitive?” and “How are women and men described in those textbooks?” We conducted a quantitative analysis for the first question and a qualitative analysis for the second.

2.1 Method for a quantitative analysis

We used the corpus database of five English textbook series, representing a total of 25 books, from five Asian EFL countries. We went through the same procedure as we did for the diachronic analysis; i.e., to determine the frequencies of the appearance of the pronouns “she” and “he” in each textbook.

The textbooks used for the synchronic analysis are listed below:

Thai textbook:

- (1) Santos, dos Manuel (2003). *Super Goal*, Thai Watana Panich / McGraw-Hill. Book 1-5. (Hereafter *ThailSG*)

Mongolian textbooks¹:

- (1) Ulzijjargal, S., Erdenetsetseg, G., Mira, N. & Batjargal, D. (2000). English.¹ Approved by the Ministry of Science, Technology, Education and Culture. Unpublished. (JH2)
- (2) Hongorzul, S., Erdenetsetseg, Ts., Gunpilmaa, Ch., Ulzijjargal, S., Mira, N., Erdenetsetseg, G. & Tsolmon, G. (2000). English 3. Approved by the Ministry of Science, Technology, Education and

¹ Book 1 of the Mongolian textbook series has not been available so far; therefore, we analyzed Books 2 to 6.

- Culture. Unpublished. (JH3)
- (3) Mira, N., & Erdenetsetseg, G. (1999). English 4. Approved by the Ministry of Science, Technology, Education and Culture. Unpublished.
- (4) Ulziijargal, S., Burmaa, Ts., Tsolmon, G. & Batjargal, D. (2000). English 5. Approved by the Ministry of Science, Technology, Education and Culture. Interpress.
- (5) Hongorzul, S., Bayarmaa, J., Erdenetsetseg, Ts. & Gumpilmaa, Ch. (2000). English 6. Approved by the Ministry of Science, Technology, Education and Culture. Unpublished.
- Chinese textbook:
- (1) People's Education Press & Longman (ed.) (2001). *Junior English for China*. Book 1-5. (Hereafter *ChinaJ&S*)
- Korean textbook:
- (1) Chang, Young-hee *et al.* (2001). *Middle School English*. Book 1-5, Tusan, (Hereafter *KoreaJ&S*)
- Japanese textbook:
- (1) Shimaoka, T. *et al.* (1986). *Sunshine English Course*. Book 1-5. Kairyudo. (Hereafter *Sunshine*)

2.2 Results of a quantitative analysis

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the Frequencies of Appearance of “she” and “he”

	<i>ThailSG</i>	JH	<i>ChinaJ&S</i>	<i>KoreaJ&S</i>	<i>Sunshine</i>
she	572	435	857	465	390
he	936	686	1602	865	644
Σ	1508	1121	2459	1330	1034

According to a Chi-squared test on the data, the significance of the difference of frequencies is marginal ($df = 4$, $\chi^2 = 8.8031$, $p = 0.06621$).

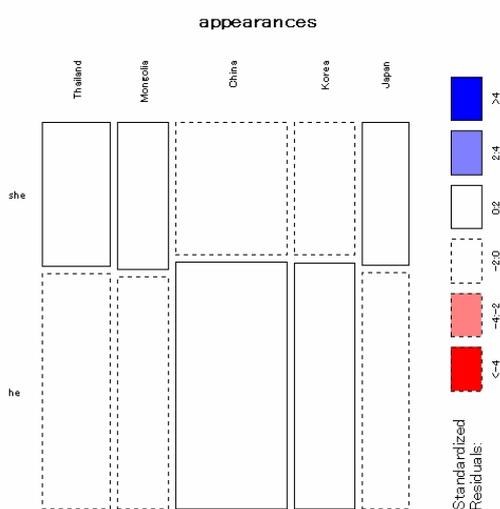


Figure 1: Mosaic Plot of frequencies of “she” and “he” in Asian textbooks

We could not find any outstanding characteristics in the results of the quantitative analysis. At first sight of this figure, the problem of language inequity, which old textbooks in Japan used to have, seems to have dissolved. Still, the average ratio of frequencies of “she” to “he” of five present-day English textbook series is 58.46%. We, therefore, went further into the qualitative analysis.

2.3 Method for a qualitative analysis

Using book 1 to book 3 of each textbook series, we explored the context of every “she” and “he” pronoun in order to investigate how the person, whom each pronoun indicates, was described. To do this, we used the File View tool of AntConc.

Next, we classified two pronouns into four categories based on the criterion of whether the person has his/her name and/or an occupation, and whether the person is described only with a family name, or with others such as a girl, a boy, a student, a friend, a woman, a man, a baby and the like.

2.4 Results and discussion

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for the Frequency of Each Category

	<i>Names</i>	<i>Occupations</i>	<i>Family Names</i>	<i>Others</i>
she	518	152	92	98
he	1056	472	91	62
Σ	1574	624	183	160

The results of a Chi-squared test on this data determine that there is a significant difference between “she” and “he” as a whole ($df = 3$, $\chi^2 = 101.4204$, $p\text{-value} < 2.2e-16$).

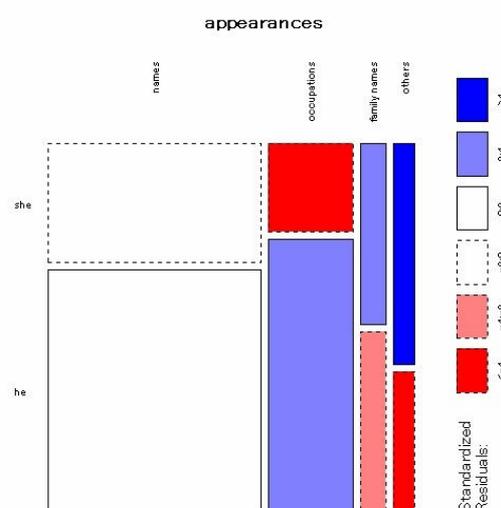


Figure 2: Mosaic Plot of frequencies of each category

From the statistical analysis, we obtained three findings:

- (1) As a whole, “he” tends to indicate a name more frequently than “she”.
- (2) Persons with occupations are referred to as “he” more often than “she”.
- (3) Women are described as family members such as grandmothers, mothers, sisters, or girls and students without any occupations more frequently than men.

From our findings, we can derive images of women who are invisible in society but visible in the family setting. In particular, the results prove that working women do not appear as often as working men in Asian English textbooks. The results of qualitative analysis show that in Asian English textbooks, descriptions of women still tend to be based on the traditional ideas on the role each sex has been expected to play in society.

3 Conclusion

It requires a long period of time for the improvement of the society. Looking back at English textbooks in Japan, Harold Palmer’s textbook, published and used 80 years ago, has the lowest ratio of frequencies of “she” to “he,” 5.5%. The results of quantitative analysis of present-day English textbooks from five Asian countries prove that the ratio has improved; the average is 58.46%. This may be partly because of the influence of current public opinion in the world.

Still, the value is far below the ideal ratio, which should be 100% if we take into consideration that women account for half of the whole population on our planet. We conjecture that the average ratio we obtained in the present study may yet not meet the global standard proposed by some guidelines, including BPF. Also, the results of lexical disparity found from qualitative analysis in this research may reflect a social inequity in the position of women, which persists in Asian countries.

4 Limitations and foreseeable extensions of this research

For the synchronic analysis, we selected only one textbook from each country. For better reliability and validity of the results, we need to have a larger database. After that, hopefully we might go on to an even more detailed examination concerning how men and women are described. It is necessary for us to spend more time on hand labor for the enlarged data.

Lastly, foreseeable extension of this research includes comparisons with English textbooks of European EFL countries. This is because some researchers on women’s history, including Mizuta

(1979), find the origin of gender awareness in Western Europe during the period between the latter half of eighteenth and the beginning of nineteenth century.

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Estimating Naturalness in Japanese English Textbooks

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Abstract

This paper describes work in progress to determine the degree to which English language textbooks used in Japan portray 'natural' English. We begin by elucidating this concept of 'naturalness' and proceed to compare three example textbook series drawn from different decades in Japanese ESL history. Our approach compares the extent to which the content of each textbook series reflects the characteristics of 'reference' language materials, on the grounds that these materials afford a plausible standard for natural English. The primary materials used for reference are the Brown corpus of American English and the British National Corpus of British English.

The characteristics considered are the proportions of grammatical parts-of-speech (POS) represented in the textbooks. The calculation is achieved using analytical tools that we have developed for this purpose. By measuring the distribution of part-of-speech features in each textbook series and in the reference materials, we can make a direct comparison of the extent to which each textbook series mirrors the 'reference pattern' of grammatical constituents. Thereby, we can shed light on the degree to which this measure of 'naturalness' is reflected in each textbook series; and the degree of naturalness across textbook series.

Keywords

Natural English, textual analysis, POS Tagging.

Introduction

Japan has a long tradition in teaching English as a second language (ESL) and over the years has adopted a variety of different styles of textbook and teaching strategy. In this context, our present study aims to contrast the content of three ESL textbook series used at different historical periods in Japan. This forms part of an on-going programme of diachronic analyses conducted by Japanese researchers (e.g., Ozasa & Erikawa, 2004).

In our study, we considered three textbook series. The first series, Barnes' New National Readers, was published in 1883-84 and is taken to represent the 'early' period of ESL teaching in Japan. The second textbook series that we consider, Okakura, Yoshisaburo, The Globe Readers, was published in 1907 and is taken to represent the 'middle' period of ESL teaching in Japan. The third textbook series, Jack and Betty: English Step by Step, was published in 1948 and represents 'recent' ESL teaching in Japan.

1 Naturalness in English

There are varying possible objectives for those engaged in second language learning. In Palmer's words, 'The student may limit his requirements to a very superficial knowledge of some pidgin form of the language, and will be perfectly happy if he just succeeds in making himself understood by using some atrocious caricature of the language which he is supposed to be learning. Or he may be more ambitious and set out in earnest to become master of the living language just as it is spoken and written by the natives themselves' (Palmer, 1964, p.24).

This breadth of linguistic competence spans many dimensions of naturalness. That is to say, the second language user may exhibit a close proximity to native patterns of speech, or to native idiomatic expression, or, indeed, to a native accent. Beyond these, lie other facets of native language use to which any learner's performance may also approximate. In each instance, the yardstick for naturalness seems to lie in proximity to native language performance. Of course, this is simplistic, given the fact there is no single 'received' standard for native language performance. Yet, the principle still applies if we assume that there are characteristics of native language performance against which we can gauge the learner's degree of success.

The availability of reference corpora such as the British National Corpus (BNC), provides us with an independent standard for native language usage

against which we may compare learner performance or any other source of English usage. Although such bodies of English are strictly descriptive accounts of language usage, they still serve as a measure against which the ‘plausibility’ of sample English may be assessed. For our present study, we treat the BNC and the Brown corpus as reasonable indicators of natural English. In the former case, the BNC represents British English usage while the Brown corpus represents American English usage.

Within these representatives of English, there are many facets of language use that we might select as our points of focus. At present, we consider only the distribution of parts-of-speech as our gauge for naturalness.

Our assumption in adopting parts-of-speech as a dimension of naturalness is simply that natural use of English will tend to similar distributions of part-of-speech usage as we find in large representations of the target language. Consequently, the degree of similarity in part-of-speech distribution found when comparing English samples with one of our reference corpora indicates their degree of naturalness.

For clarity, let us elaborate what we mean by part-of-speech (POS) profile (see also, Weir & Anagnostou, 2007). For any given text, we calculate the proportion of nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions and determiners. The percentage contribution of each of these parts-of-speech gives the POS profile. Of that text .

1.1 Methodology

In order to apply part-of-speech distribution as a comparative measure we require a means of profiling parts-of-speech in sample texts and in our representative corpora. This profiling is achieved by using the part-of-speech (POS) profiling tool, from the Posit Text Profiling Toolset (Weir, 2007). The POS profiler supports part-of-speech profiling on any specified text and outputs a detailed account of word occurrences for the input text corpus. Totals are given for word tokens, word types, part-of-speech types and part-of-speech tokens.

The quantified parts-of-speech are a major subset of the tag set applied by the POS tagger used within the POS profiler. This tagger (the Lingua::EN::Tagger) is available as a Perl module from CPAN (<http://www.cpan.org>) and applies the Penn Treebank tag set (Marcus et al, 1994). The POS profiling facility is invoked at the command line on a specified text corpus. The input corpus is processed by the software module in accordance with the following sequence:

1. Create word count and token frequency list
2. Tag the input file using a POS tagger

3. Tokenize the POS tagged file
4. Extract POS counts
5. Analyse results
6. Output results
7. Create results summary

This process is applied in turn to the sample textbooks and to the Brown corpus. We do not analyse the BNC in this fashion, since the distributed version already contains POS mark up. Each individual textbook series is treated as a single corpus and the text of all books in the series is amalgamated to create a single data file version in plain text format. General statistics for the three textbook series are shown in Table 1, below.

Table 1: General Statistics for Textbook Corpora

<i>Textbook Series</i>	<i>National</i>	<i>Globe</i>	<i>JandB</i>
<i>Total tokens</i>	190470	67231	51557
<i>Total types</i>	12154	6869	4923
<i>Type/Token Ratio</i>	15.67	9.78	10.47
<i>No. of sentences</i>	10572	4484	5392
<i>Ave. sent. length</i>	18	15	10
<i>Ave. word length</i>	5.5	5.5	5.4

2 Textbook POS Profiles

By applying the Posit POS Profiler to each of the textbook corpora in turn, we derive totals for the main parts-of-speech. This data is shown in Table 2, below.

Table 2: POS Totals for Textbook Corpora

	<i>National</i>	<i>Globe</i>	<i>JandB</i>
<i>nouns</i>	48188	17489	14301
<i>verbs</i>	34024	11712	9926
<i>prepositions</i>	25180	8974	5725
<i>determiners</i>	22269	8226	5399
<i>adjectives</i>	13747	4865	4546
<i>adverbs</i>	12979	4289	3144
<i>personal pronouns</i>	10067	3364	2694
<i>possessive pronouns</i>	4959	1502	1140
<i>interjections</i>	36	49	142
<i>others</i>	19021	6761	4540
<i>total</i>	190470	67231	51557

Since each textbook series differs in size, these values for parts-of-speech are more revealing when converted to proportions. Percentage values for the contribution of each part-of-speech are shown in Table 3, below. Both Table 2 and Table 3 rank the parts-of-speech in descending order. The exception to this is the value for ‘other’ parts-of-speech, which is listed last in each case.

Table 3: POS Percentages for Textbook Corpora

	<i>National</i>	<i>Globe</i>	<i>JandB</i>
<i>nouns</i>	25.3	26.0	27.7
<i>verbs</i>	17.9	17.4	19.3
<i>prepositions</i>	13.2	13.3	11.1
<i>determiners</i>	11.7	12.2	10.5
<i>adjectives</i>	7.2	7.2	8.8
<i>adverbs</i>	6.8	6.4	6.1
<i>personal pronouns</i>	5.3	5.0	5.2
<i>possessive pronouns</i>	2.6	2.2	2.2
<i>interjections</i>	0.0	0.1	0.3
<i>others</i>	10.0	10.1	8.8
<i>total</i>	100	100.0	100.0

Already, we can note that each of the three textbook series has the same ranking for part-of-speech distribution. This is an interesting result that could not have been readily predicted.

Using the data from Table 3, we can contrast the distribution for parts-of-speech by graphing each set of percentages. The result, shown in Figure 1, below, indicates a strong similarity in profile across the three textbook corpora.

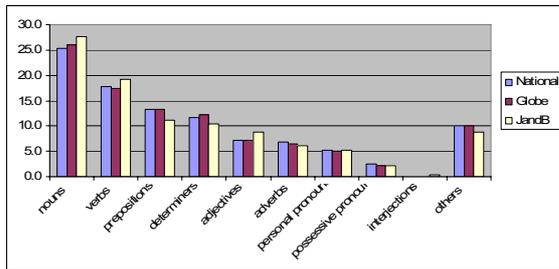


Figure 1: POS Profiles for Textbook Corpora

3 Reference Corpora

Since our purpose is to compare POS profiles as a dimension of English naturalness, we employ two non-textbook corpora as reference points. The reason for choosing two such references is the wish, on the one hand, to accommodate the likely influence of American English in the composition of Japanese textbooks and, on the other hand, to provide an alternative contrast in British English. For these reasons, the Brown corpus has been included as a source of American English and the British National Corpus is included as representative of British English.

In order to produce a POS profile for the Brown corpus, we input the Brown corpus to the Posit POS Profiling tool. This produced the POS profile shown in Table 4, below.

Table 4: POS Percentages for the Brown Corpus

nouns	29.5
verbs	16.4
prepositions	14.0
determiners	11.4
adjectives	7.9
adverbs	4.7
personal pronouns	4.5
possessive pronouns	1.7
interjections	0.0
others	9.9
total	100.0

Deriving a comparable POS profile for the British National Corpus was less straightforward since this corpus is already tagged with a different set of part-of-speech tags. For this reason, we employ tag equivalence information (Manning & Scheutze, 1999, p.141-142) in order to map from the BNC CLAWS (Rayson & Garside, 1998) mark up to the Penn Treebank standard. Analysis of the POS profile for the full BNC produced the data shown in Table 5, below.

Table 5: POS Percentages for the BNC

nouns	9.6
verbs	15.0
prepositions	5.5
determiners	6.0
adjectives	4.7
adverbs	3.9
personal pronouns	2.8
possessive pronouns	1.1
interjections	0.3
others	50.9
total	100.0

The percentage distribution for the BNC shows clear differences in the ranking of the parts-of-speech. In addition, around half of the corpus is not accounted for by the specified parts-of-speech.

4 Textbook and Reference Profiles

Equipped with the part-of-speech profiles for all three textbook corpora and both reference corpora, we were able to compare the profiles of all five sets of texts. This full profile comparison is shown in Figure 2, below.

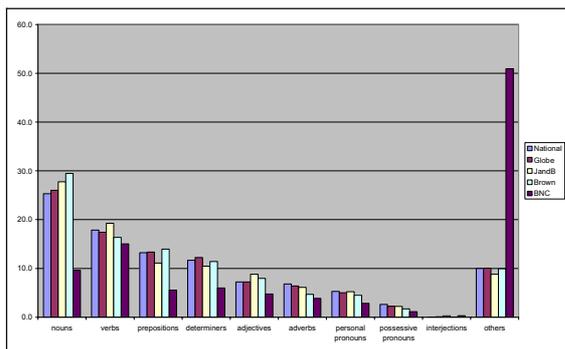


Figure 2: POS Profiles for all Considered Corpora

From this comparison, three conclusions seem appropriate. Firstly, as indicated earlier, each of the textbook corpora have remarkably similar POS profiles. Secondly, the textbook POS profile is also markedly similar to that of the Brown corpus. Thirdly, the POS profile for the BNC appears to be considerably divergent from the other four corpora.

What inferences may be drawn from these observations? Perhaps the textbooks share an underlying similarity in their choice of language forms. This may not be unreasonable, given their similar pedagogical objectives. Beyond this, their resemblance in POS profile to the Brown corpus suggests that they may also have attained a degree of English naturalness. Certainly, their profiles appear consonant with American English characteristics as represented by the Brown corpus.

The apparent discrepancy between the BNC POS profile and the other corpora may arise from the transatlantic divide in English. In addition, there may be some skewing of BNC results from the presence of transcribed spoken content in the corpus (accounting for ~10% of its total).

5 Conclusion

We have presented an analysis of three series of English language textbooks used in Japan for ESL teaching across three periods of Japanese history. Sets of POS profile data were generated using the Posit POS Profiling tool for these textbook corpora and separate analysis was performed for the Brown corpus and the BNC.

Comparison of the POS profiles shows a notable similarity between the textbook series. Furthermore, the textbook's profiles are markedly similar to the profile of the Brown corpus. The BNC appears exceptional in its POS profile.

We are led to suggest that all three textbook series may be regarded as attaining a dimension of English naturalness, as denoted by their approximation to the POS profile represented by the American English Brown corpus.

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Variation in the Acquisition of Unaccusative Verbs by Japanese EFL Learners

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Abstract

The present study will focus on variation in the acquisition of unaccusative verbs by Japanese EFL learners. In the literature, unaccusative verbs have been regarded as a single category, and they actually seem to behave as such because unaccusative verbs consistently exhibit greater difficulty than unergative verbs. On the other hand, different unaccusative verbs have also displayed different degrees of difficulty, which might pose a question to the plausibility of considering the verbs as a category. Three grammatical judgment tests were administered to 655 Japanese EFL learners. The test data were analyzed with the use of Item Response Theory, which yielded *b*-parameter (difficulty parameter) values of all the test items. The comparison of *b*-parameter values of all the relevant test items was made. We will report the varying degrees of difficulty of the 13 unaccusative verbs, and examine whether the Unaccusative Hierarchy (Sorace, 1993, 1997) will provide a possible account for the differences.

Keywords

Unaccusative verbs, Japanese EFL learner, Item Response Theory, the Unaccusative Hierarchy

1 Acquisition of unaccusative verbs

1.1 Two kinds of intransitive verbs: Unaccusative and unergative verbs

The Unaccusative Hypothesis (Perlmutter, 1978) claims that there are two distinct classes of intransitive verbs known as unergatives and unaccusatives, which exhibit different argument structures:

(1) a. Unergatives: [NP1 [VP V]]

(e.g., [Mary [VP danced]])

b. Unaccusatives: [empty [VP V NP2]]
(e.g., [empty [VP happen the accident]])

c. The accident happened 15 years ago.

The unergatives (e.g., *cry*, *dance*, *laugh*) originally have a logical subject (NP1) as an external argument (i.e., an argument outside the VP), which bears the participant role AGENT (the instigator of an event) (1a). The unaccusatives (e.g., *die*, *fall*, *happen*), on the other hand, originally lack a logical subject (i.e., "empty"), and only have a logical object (NP2) as an internal argument, which assumes the participant role THEME (a participant affected by an event) (1b). The internal argument (NP2), then, is moved to the surface subject position in order to satisfy the English syntactic requirement which stipulates that the subject position must be filled with a lexical item (1c). As a result, the grammatical subject of the unaccusative verb originates as the logical object. At first sight it becomes difficult to make the unergative/unaccusative distinction on the surface level because both have the same surface structure (i.e., NP + V).

1.2 Errors in unaccusative verbs made by EFL learners

Many researchers have noted that L2 learners of English often extend passive formation rules to unaccusatives and produce the following types of ungrammatical sentence (Zobl, 1989: 204):

- (2) a. *Most of people are fallen in love and marry with somebody. (Japanese L1)
b. *My mother was died when I was just a baby. (Thai L1)

Unlike unaccusatives, unergatives rarely undergo this inappropriate passivization process. In addition, these nontarget sentences are observed in L2

English with various L1 backgrounds, and are particularly noticeable among intermediate/advanced learners.

1.3 Two major accounts of passivized unaccusative verbs

Two major accounts of the nontarget phenomena have been advanced so far: the NP movement account and the lexical causativization account. The former account points out that the argument structures of an unaccusative (1b) and a passive construction (3a) are almost identical in that both lack an external argument (logical subject) and that an internal argument (logical object) is moved to the surface subject position. One difference is that only the passive construction can take the *be + p.p.* marker to signal the NP movement (cf., 1c and 3b):

- (3) a. [empty [VP V NP2]]
 (e.g., [empty [VP be spoken English]])
 b. English is spoken in many countries.

However, some learners notice the similarity of the two and also apply the passive formation rules to unaccusatives in order to signal NP movement, which results in inappropriate passives as in (2).

According to the lexical causativization account, on the other hand, L2 learners treat an unaccusative verb as transitive and temporarily create a causer of the event (4a). Then the verb is passivized with the suppression of the nonce causer (4b):

- (4) a. *The driver happened the accident 15 years ago.
 b. *The accident was happened 15 years ago.

2 Variation in the acquisition of unaccusative verbs

There is amounting evidence in the literature that the Unaccusative Hypothesis can be validated because L2 learners experience greater difficulty with unaccusatives than with unergatives (e.g., Hirakawa, 2003; Oshita, 1997; Shomura, 1996; Yamakawa et al. 2003). Oshita (2001) goes further to propose the three-stage acquisition model of unaccusative verbs by L2 learners. Thus, in the relevant literature, unaccusative verbs are treated differently from unergative verbs, and are regarded as a subclass of intransitive verbs, forming a single category. From this view, members belonging to the category (i.e., each unaccusative verb) should display the same grammatical characteristics to some extent as they are in the same category.

However, it is also observed that L2 learners experience varying degrees of difficulty with unaccusative verbs, which could question the notion of unaccusative verbs as a single linguistic (and psychological) category.

Unaccusative verbs can be divided into two

subcategories: alternating and non-alternating verbs. The former have transitive counterparts (e.g., *break*, *open*) whereas the latter lack such corresponding transitives (e.g., *appear*, *die*).

Literature reviews present contradictory results with regard to relative difficulty of the two subcategories. Some studies report that L2 learners found alternating unaccusative verbs more difficult (e.g., Hirakawa, 2003; Kwak, 2003) whereas Shomura (1996), using a multiple-choice type test, reports the opposite. Furthermore, Ju (2000) argues his Chinese subjects showed no difference in difficulty level; on the other hand, Kondo (2005) claims that different degrees of difficulty depend on the learner's native language.

Findings in the differences among individual unaccusative verbs have also been reported. L2 learners avoid intransitive counterparts of such alternating verbs as *break* and *dry* (Hirakawa, 2003), *break*, *hang* and *open* (Shomura, 1996), *break*, *close* and *freeze* (Ju, 2000), and *close*, *dry* and *freeze* (Kondo, 2005). In addition, L2 learners also regard as transitives such non-alternating verbs as *emerge*, *fall* and *occur* (Shomura, 1996) and *(dis)appear*, *die*, *emerge* and *vanish* (Kondo, 2005).

Discrepancy observed in the previous studies may be attributed to differences in the number of unaccusative verbs used by the researchers, and in the participants' levels of proficiency and their native languages, but it is plausible to say that there are various degrees of difficulty among different unaccusative verbs.

3 The Unaccusative Hierarchy

Sorace (1993, 1997) notes different unaccusative verbs display different syntactic behavior cross-linguistically and intra-linguistically and proposes the Unaccusative Hierarchy (Table 1), where lexical-semantic components (e.g., "change of location," etc.) which verbs signify are graded according to the type of event affecting the subject (the role of THEME), in terms of such dimensions as dynamic/static, telic/atelic, and concrete/abstract. Lexical-semantic components higher in rank are "core," or more prototypical, and share such dimensions as *dynamic*, *telic* and *concrete*.

Table 1: The Unaccusative Hierarchy (Adapted from Sorace, 1997: 159)

Unpaired (monadic) verbs

Change of location (e.g., *arrive*, *fall*, *go*)

Change of condition (e.g., *appear*, *die*, *happen*)

Continuation of a pre-existing condition (e.g., *last*)

Existence of a condition (e.g., *exist*)

Paired (dyadic) verbs

With a transitive alternant (e.g., *break*, *close*)

Sorace (1997) argues that different languages manifest different lexical-semantic components as a minimal trigger in order to determine if the single argument of a verb is linked to the internal argument position, which shows unaccusativity syntax. For example, Italian manifests “existence of a condition” as a trigger; otherwise, the single argument of a verb is linked to the external argument position, displaying unergative syntax. On the other hand, in French, it is “change of location” that leads to the mapping of the argument onto the internal position. Thus, the class of French verbs exhibiting unaccusative syntax is narrower than the corresponding Italian class. It is also stated that the equivalent factor in the case of English is “change of condition.”

Sorace (1997) hypothesizes that learners’ knowledge is sensitive to the relative hierarchical position of a verb, and that acquisition takes place in an order consistent with the hierarchy with core verbs first, and peripheral verbs at the later stage.

4 The study

4.1 Purpose

The present study aims to investigate aspects of variation in the acquisition of unaccusative verbs by Japanese EFL learners; particularly, does learners’ acquisition show any sensitivity to the Unaccusative Hierarchy? To this end, the test data obtained in Yamakawa et al. (2006) is utilized.

4.2 Materials and procedures

Yamakawa et al. (2006) prepared three grammatical judgment tests called Units Y, K and M, where 48, 36 and 36 items each were designed to examine the plausibility of the Unaccusative Hypothesis, the two accounts of nontarget unaccusative verbs (see 1.3), and the acquisition order of unaccusatives (see Yamakawa et al., 2006, for details). Units K and M are a duplicate of Unit Y with most of the test items identical with those in Unit Y, and will be treated as one unit, Units KM, henceforth.

The present study only considers the data of the items with seven alternating unaccusative verbs (*break, burn, close, dry, grow, melt, boil*) and six non-alternating unaccusative verbs (*appear, arrive, die, exist, fall, happen*). Each verb was placed in sentence patterns such as NP+V, NP+V+NP and NP+be+p.p. (Table 2), and 655 participants, out of whom 369 took Unit Y, 133 Unit K, and 153 Unit M, judged the grammaticality of the test items on a five-point scale.

Table 2: Sample sentences used in Units Y and KM

(Non-alternating unaccusative verbs: e.g., <i>arrive</i>)	
NP+V:	Your letter arrived yesterday.
*NP+V+NP:	*Finally the waitress arrived the salad to us.
*NP+be+p.p.:	*Because of the rain, the train was arrived late.
(Alternating unaccusative verbs: e.g., <i>break</i>)	
NP+V:	The refrigerator broke because it was so old.
NP+V+NP:	I broke a glass in the kitchen.
NP+be+p.p.:	The door was broken by the police.

4.3 Data analysis

The original aim of Yamakawa et al. (2006) was to explore interrelationships among different grammatical items in the development of grammatical competence of Japanese EFL learners. In addition to Units Y and KM, five more test units were prepared, and about 1,200 participants in total took different numbers of test units.

In order to equate scores on a single scale with the objective of comparing the data obtained on these tests, Item Response Theory was utilized, and the equating process was conducted with the two-parameter logistic model, yielding *a*-parameter (discrimination parameter) and *b*-parameter (difficulty parameter). For the purpose of this study, we will only focus on the *b*-parameter values of the test items with alternating and non-alternating unaccusative verbs in Units Y and KM.

4.4 Results

Tables 3 and 4 show *b*-parameter values of each unaccusative verb used in three different sentence constructions (see 4.2) as well as the averages of the three *b*-parameter values.

Table 3: *b*-parameter values of unaccusative verbs in Unit Y

	NP+V	NP+V+NP	NP+be+p.p.	Average
break	-	-1.74	-1.30	-1.52
burn	-	-1.45	-2.13	-1.79
close	-	-1.58	-0.88	-1.23
dry	-	0.18	-1.38	-0.60
grow	-	-1.60	-1.31	-1.46
melt	-	0.46	-2.09	-0.82
appear	-0.83	-0.47	0.22	-0.36
arrive	-1.19	-1.11	-0.35	-0.88
die	-1.64	-0.93	0.37	-0.73
exist	-0.71	-0.12	-0.44	-0.42
fall	-1.24	0.35	0.88	0.00
happen	-1.09	-0.67	0.86	-0.30

Note: Unit Y does not contain sentences with alternating unaccusative verbs used in the NP+V construction. The range of *b*-parameter values is typically from about -2 to 2. Items with values near -2 can be considered very easy.

Table 4: *b*-parameter values of unaccusative verbs in Units KM

	NP+V	NP+V+NP	NP+be+p.p.	Average
boil	*	-0.59	-1.64	-1.12
break	-0.25	-1.37	-1.83	-1.15
close	-0.08	-1.50	-0.84	-0.81
dry	0.14	0.17	-0.92	-0.20
grow	-0.97	-1.17	-0.99	-1.04
melt	-0.64	0.27	-0.96	-0.44
appear	-0.44	-0.34	0.36	-0.14
arrive	-0.56	-0.53	-0.38	-0.49
die	-0.91	-0.32	-0.07	-0.43
exist	-0.48	-0.27	-0.49	-0.41
fall	-0.33	0.40	0.26	0.11
happen	-0.67	-0.77	-0.13	-0.52

Note: Units KM contain *boil* instead of *burn* in Unit Y. *Boil* in the NP+V pattern was too difficult to be assigned *b*-parameter value to.

As Tables 3 and 4 depict, the averaged *b*-parameter values of unaccusative verbs manifest such a wide-range distribution that it is safe to say that learners experience different degrees of difficulty with unaccusatives. In addition, the averaged *b*-parameter values of non-alternating verbs are higher than those of alternating verbs, which means the former are more difficult. Moreover, alternating verbs, which form a single layer in the hierarchy, also exhibit varying degrees of difficulty

The order of difficulty of individual alternating verbs is stable with *break* the easiest and *melt* the most difficult, whereas with regard to non-alternating, no particular order is observed except *fall*, which is the most difficult in all cases. In fact, the order of difficulty of unaccusative verbs varies according to the sentence patterns where each verb is placed. Moreover, the difficulty order of unaccusative verbs does not correspond to the order the Unaccusative Hypothesis predicts.

5 Discussion and conclusion

The comparison of *b*-parameter values of all the unaccusative verbs in Units Y and KM leads us to conclude that it is difficult to maintain that unaccusative verbs form a single category in terms of difficulty. The Unaccusative Hierarchy did not provide an explanation for varying difficulty of unaccusatives. The findings obtained showed the opposite tendency, where prototypical non-alternating verbs displayed more difficulty, and alternating verbs, which are regarded as peripheral and thus more difficult, turned out to be easier.

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English Secondary Predicates and Their Equivalent Expressions in Thai

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Abstract

Although the secondary predicate constructions, namely resultative and depictive constructions, are often seemingly identical since both types bear the configurations of NP-V-NP-XP in English, the Thai equivalents to those involve several different types of constructions. This paper investigates Thai expressions which are parallel to English resultative and depictive constructions with a view to explicitly stipulating what might be referred to as the resultative and depictive constructions in Thai. English resultatives can be classified into five types of constructions among their equivalent expressions in Thai, whereas two types of Thai constructions seem to parallel to English depictives. This linguistic analysis can contribute to English language pedagogy in terms of providing detailed grammatical explanations of the target language.

Keywords

secondary predicate, resultative, depictive, Thai serial verb construction

Introduction

A large number of studies concerning the English secondary predicate construction [SPC], which includes resultative and depictive constructions, have focused on comparing their equivalent expressions in other languages, most of which are European and East Asian languages¹. Although a detailed investigation of Thai resultatives has been carried out by Thepkanjana & Uehara [henceforth T&U] (to appear), studies of the English SPC and their equivalent expressions in Southeast Asian languages such as Thai are still, as far as I know, quite limited. As Matsumoto (2006) mentions, linguistic analysis can provide practical benefits in foreign language pedagogy. To this end, I will examine Thai with a view to identifying its

constructions which are equivalent to the English SPC, and to clarifying the difference between these constructions and other similar constructions.

1 Resultative construction in English

The resultative construction is a simplex sentence that describes an event consisting of a causing subevent denoted by the verb phrase and a result subevent denoted by the resultative predicate [RP].

- (1) a. Stephanie painted the table *red*.
- b. Minna broke the fancy plate *into pieces*.
- c. Carlos beat John *unconscious*.
- d. Matt shot the robber *to death*.

The italicized phrases in (1) are RPs which describe the result state. The result state is described mostly with either an adjectival phrase or a prepositional phrase in English.

English resultatives syntactically fall into two classes, *transitive resultative* and *intransitive resultative* (Carrier & Randall, 1992). The former is illustrated in (1) and the latter in (2), respectively.

- (2) a. Heidi shouted herself *hoarse*.
- b. David drank himself *to sleep*.

The NPs which appear in the object slot are referred to as the “fake reflexive” object (Simpson, 1983). Intransitive resultatives will be unacceptable without these fake reflexive objects.

Resultative constructions also show different semantic properties with regard to the resultative state. According to the syntactic frames, the sentences in (1) fall into the same type, namely transitive resultatives. The overt difference between (1a, 1b) and (1c, 1d) is the aspectual class of the causing subevent denoted by the verb (cf. Kageyama, 1996). The sentences without the RP in (1a) and (1b), such as *Stephanie painted the table*, depict accomplishment events, whereas those in (1c) and (1d), such as *Carlos beat John*, do not. According to this semantic difference, Kageyama (1996) divides the resultative construction into two classes: *inherent resultatives* (e.g. (1a, b)) and *derived resultatives* (e.g. (1c, d)). The former type includes a verb which inherently contains the result state, and the latter type, on the other hand, involves

¹ The English SPC also contains causative construction and perception verb construction (Rapoport, 1993), along with above two constructions. This paper, however, focus only resultative and depictive constructions as the SPC.

a verb which only designates an activity event.

Inherent resultatives may merely express the further specification of the result state caused by the action. In contrast, derived resultatives express the state which is caused by the action denoted by the verb, and which is not the further specification of the result state whose meaning includes the meaning of the verb.

2 Resultatives in Thai

In this section I would like to consider the use of resultatives in Thai. Note that although Thai resultatives involve a wide range of cause-effect relation (cf. Takahashi, 2004; T&U, to appear), my focus will be only on sentences which are equivalent to English resultative constructions.²

2.1 Serial verb construction

According to the previous studies (e.g. Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom [hereafter I&I], 2005; T&U, to appear), Thai employs the serial verb construction [SVC] to represent what corresponds to English resultatives as shown below.

- (3) a. *sǒmchaay sák sǔa saʔaat*
Somchaay wash shirt clean
'Somchaay washed his shirt clean.'
b. *sǒmchaay rǐit sǔa rǐap*
Somchaay iron shirt smooth
'Somchaay ironed his shirt smooth.'

(T & U, to appear)

The SVC involves "a sequence of verbs which act together as a single predicate, without any overt markers of coordination, subordination, or syntactic dependency of any other sort" (Aikhenvald, 2006: 1). The SVC frequently appears in isolating languages like Thai in which "no verbal morphology distinguishes finite and nonfinite verb forms" (I&I, 2005: 231). T & U (to appear) further point out that the SVC is typically used to describe events which occur sequentially without a discernible interval.

Considering the properties of the SVC, Matsui (2007) raises a question as to whether the sentences in (3a) and (3b) are "true" SVCs. The above sentences are distinguishable in terms of the acceptability of the sentence according to my informants. Most of them did not accept (3b) unless the cause marker *hây* appears as *rǐit* (iron) *sǔa* (shirt) *hây* (CAUSE) *rǐap* (smooth), whereas (3a) was mostly thought to be acceptable. Matsui (2007a) distinguishes the sentences in (3) from the "true" SVC which consists of two verbs without any marker of subordination. The true resultative

SVC is exemplified in (4), while (5) illustrates what Matsui refers to as the Verb Adjective Construction (VAC), which may be realized without the cause marker *hây*.

- (4) a. *fâay yǐŋ sǔa taay*
Faay shoot tiger die
'Faay shot the tiger dead'
b. *naronŋ phlák pratuu pèət*
Narong push door open
'Narong pushed the door open.'
(5) a. *dɛɛŋ sák phâa (hây) saʔaat*
Deng wash clothes CAUSE clean
'Deng washed the clothes clean.'
b. *sǎnti tii loohâ (hây) bæen*
Santi pound metal CAUSE flat
'Santi pounded the metal flat.'

There is a difference in acceptability among the resultative VACs. For instance, (5a) is fairly acceptable without *hây* compared with (5b) without *hây*. The cause marker *hây* is required more strictly as the cause-effect relation becomes less inferable.

- (6) *??câw-chaay cùup thəə tǔtun*
prince kiss her awake
'The prince kissed her awake.'

The insertion of *hây* in the resultative SVC affects the semantics of the sentence in terms of the entailment of the attainment of the result state.

- (7) a. *fâay yǐŋ sǔa hây taay*
Faay shoot tiger CAUSE die
'Faay shot the tiger to make it dead (but the tiger may not be dead).'

The difference between these two types may be related to the controllability of the caused subevent. The adjectival RPs indicate that the occurrence of the state-change depends completely on external force. On the other hand, the state-change described by the second verb of the SVC suggests that the change is also associated with the internal factor of the object entity (Matsui, 2007a).

2.2 Other types of resultatives in Thai

We have observed that Thai resultatives include the SVC and VAC. Now let us consider other types of resultatives in Thai

The resultative SVC and VAC are parallel to English derived resultatives with adjectival RPs. The event denoted by resultatives with adjectival RPs and prepositional RPs differs in English.

- (8) a. Carlos beat John *unconscious*. (=1c)
b. Carlos beat John *into unconsciousness*.

The prepositional RPs suggest that the action denoted by the verb are repeated. As Kessakul & Methapisit (2000) argue (cf. Takahashi 2004), in Thai the preposition *con* (until) also provides the iterative reading to the first verb phrase as in (9).

² Abbreviation: COP=copula; PFX=prefix; NOM=nominal; RDP=reduplication

- (9) a. mǔu chók ben taay
 Muu hit Ben die
 ‘Muu beat Ben dead.’
 b. mǔu chók ben con taay
 Muu hit Ben until die
 ‘Muu beat Ben to death.’

Another type that we have not dealt with yet is the inherent resultative as in (1a) and (1b). Thai employs the copula *pen* to describe the event denoted by English inherent resultatives as follows.

- (10) a. fāay thaa- sǐi tó pen
 Faay paint table COP
 sǐi-dεεŋ
 color-red
 ‘Faay painted the table red.’
 b. dεεŋ bi chǎkkoolêet
 Deng break chocolate
 pen chín-chín
 COP piece-piece
 ‘Deng broke the chocolate into pieces.’

Resultatives with copula *pen* describe the superficial qualities of object entities such as color and size. Both Thai resultatives with *pen* and English inherent resultatives specify the further result state which is brought about by the accomplishment event denoted by the main verb.

Lastly, in English, fake (reflexive) objects can be employed to express an event in which causal and result subevents are not closely related.

- (11) The dog barked the baby awake.
 This type of event cannot be expressed with resultatives in Thai. Thai utilizes “*tham-hây* causative” to express an event with “indirect causation” (I&I, 2005).

- (12) sunák hâw tham-hây thaarók
 dog bark make (CAUSE) baby
 hây tũũũũ
 CAUSE awake
 ‘The dog barked and made the baby awake.’

2.3 Thai types of Thai resultatives

Previous studies have not pointed out that there were syntactically distinguished types of Thai resultatives other than the SVC. Thai expressions which are equivalent to English resultatives can be classified into five types: (i) SVC, (ii) VAC, (iii) V+*con* RP, (iv) V+*pen* RP, and (v) *tham-hây* causative. The types in (i)-(iv) might be referred as Thai “resultative constructions” according to the definition of the resultative construction. Thai resultatives are syntactically characterized according to their semantic properties. When English resultatives are introduced in a pedagogical environment, it should be noted that various types of Thai sentences can be described with a syntactically identical sequence in English.

3 Depictive construction

English depictive constructions also involve a simplex sentence that describes two subevents, which bears the configuration of NP-V-NP-XP. The construction is often seemingly identical with the resultative construction, although the semantics of these constructions are significantly distinctive (cf. Rothstein, 2004). I will take up depictives to examine Thai expressions which are parallel to English depictives.

3.1 Properties of depictives

The depictive predicate (DP) denotes the state of the subject of the predicate when the action denoted by the verb takes place (Rapoport, 1993). The temporal structure of the depictive construction differs from that of the resultative construction.

- (13) a. Stephanie_i drove the car *drunk*_i.
 b. Carlos ate the meat_j *raw*_j.

DPs can be divided into two types according to the syntactic type of NP of which they predicate. For instance, *drunk* in (13a) predicates the subject NP, but on the other hand, *raw* in (13b) predicates the object NP. The former is called the subject-oriented depictive, and the latter, the object-oriented depictive. Both types of DPs are adjunct, which do not semantically affect the verb phrase.

DPs and attributive adjectives are similar in meaning, but not identical (Arts, 1995). The two sentences in (14) can be paraphrased as those in (15), respectively.

- (14) a. Minna cut the bread *hot*.
 b. Minna cut the *hot* bread.
 (15) a. Minna cut the bread while it was hot.
 b. Minna cut the bread which was hot.

Though this may sound like a subtle difference, it should be explained to learners in order to understand the construction.

Another well-known semantic property of depictives is that only “stage-level” predicates (Carlson, 1977) can enter the depictive construction as the DP. Unlike individual-level predicates, stage-level predicates involve an event or episode associated with some specific time and space.

- (16) Heidi read a book *naked*/**intelligent*.
 DPs must report a temporal distinctiveness of the state of the host NP.

3.2 Depictives and manner adverbs in Thai

English depictive predicates may give an impression that they are similar to manner adverbs.

- (17) Dave drove the car *drunk*/*drunkenly*.
 Rothstein (2004, p. 63) argues that the difference can be indicated by “entailment.” The sentence with the DP *drunk* entails that Dave was drunk, whereas the sentence with the manner adverb *drunkenly*

does not. Adverbs such as *drunkenly* signify the manner of the actor when the action was performed.

The semantics of the Thai *yàaŋ* adverbials is similar to English manner adverbs, while *dûay khwaam* adverbials is equivalent to English subject oriented-depictives.

- (18) naroŋ khàp rôt {yàaŋ maw /
Narong drive car PFX drunk
dûay khwaam-maw}
with NOM.PFX drunk
'Narong drove a car {drunkenly/ with
drunkness}.'

Whereas manner adverbs denote the speaker's subjective judgment, DPs represent the actual state of the host NP. When the actuality of the state is required to be expressed, the *dûay khwaam* adverbials are employed in Thai.

Now consider the following sentences.

- (19) a. fâay tham-ŋaan nûay
Faay work tired
'Faay worked and got tired.'
b. fâay tham-ŋaan nûay- nûay
Faay work tired-RDP
'Faay worked and got very tired.'
'Faay worked tired.'

The change-of-state verb *nûay* in (19a) constitutes the SVC with the former verb and cannot have a manner adverb or a depictive interpretation. In contrast, the interpretation of the duplication of *nûay* is ambiguous between the SVC and depictive readings. Duplication may induce the stative reading of change-of-state verbs such as *nûay*. The adverbs formed by reduplicated adjectives and change-of-state verbs are equivalent to English depictives (Matsui, 2007b).

- (20) a. mûu kin plaa đip
Muu eat fish raw
'Muu ate the raw fish.'
b. mûu kin plaa đip-đip
Muu eat fish raw-RDP
'Muu ate the raw fish.'

Object-oriented depictives can also be described by a reduplicated form.

Thai employs *dûay khwaam* adverbials and reduplicated adjective or verbs to describe what is parallel to English depictive construction. The *yàaŋ* adverbials seem to be similar to depictives, but they are slightly different in semantics in terms of the entailment of the state denoted by the adverbials.

4 Conclusion

The English SPC involves a syntactically identical configuration, namely NP-V(-NP)-XP, even though the semantics of the construction may differ. I have clarified that there are six patterns of Thai constructions which are equivalent to English resultatives, five of which are considered to be the Thai resultative construction. The depictive

construction, on the other hand, can be described by two types of adverbials in Thai.

The semantics of the English SPC can be confusing because of its syntax. I have made a detailed investigation to single out the most fitting Thai construction for semantically various types of English SPCs with a view to explicitly stipulating what might be referred to as the SPC in Thai.

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The Effects of Peer Response on EFL College Composition Instruction

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Abstract

According to Lockhart & Ng (1995), the use of peer response is largely due to two developments in writing pedagogy. The first is a greater emphasis on the composing process which encourages students to take risks and to discover meaning by themselves. The second development is recognition that social interaction is a prerequisite for learning to write. Social constructionist theory claims that negotiation and collaboration aid the internalization of cognitive and linguistic skills, thus leading to improved writing abilities. Perry and Collins (1998) concluded that peer response to writing was definitely beneficial to the participating students. To students, the peer evaluation of rough drafts is an excellent technique for allowing the writers to develop evaluation skills through objective and constructive critiquing of papers of other members of the team. Based on the potential benefits of peer response in composition writing stated above, this study sought to investigate the effects of peer response on EFL composition instruction. The findings of this study confirmed that the use of peer feedback in writing classrooms has been generally supported as a potentially valuable aid for its social, cognitive, affective, and methodological benefits.

Keywords

Peer Response, College EFL Composition Instruction

Introduction

Peer response as part of the process approach to teaching writing has gained increasing attention in the English as Second Language (ESL) field since the late 1980s (Berg, 1999). Chaudron (1983) claimed that peer feedback should be considered because of its potential benefits in saving teacher editorial time. Perry and Collins (1998) concluded that peer response to writing was definitely beneficial to the participating students. To students, the peer evaluation of rough drafts is an excellent technique for allowing the writers to develop evaluation skills through objective and constructive

critiquing of papers of other members of the team.

Based on the potential benefits of peer response, this classroom-based action research intended to investigate the effects of peer response on EFL composition instruction.

1 Literature Review

Peer and self-assessment is becoming increasingly common as a pedagogical tool to facilitate the development of learner autonomy and independence. Much has been discussed about the advantages of engaging students in peer and/or self assessment procedures that are deemed as beneficial to students' learning in cognitive, meta-cognitive, and affective aspects. In the following section the benefits and drawbacks of peer response will be explored.

1.1 Peer Response

1.1.1 Benefits of Peer Response

Based on the positive findings of Tso's (2002) study, she suggested that EFL high school English teachers incorporate peer evaluation activity into English writing classes, accompanied with carefully-designed teaching procedures and a specific evaluation sheet. She also recommended that teachers devote more of their time to the instruction at the content level than to grammar correction, so that both the teacher and the students will find English writing classes more fruitful and interesting.

Liao (2005) found that the peer-response activities had positive effects on EFL senior high school students. First, most students held positive attitudes toward peer-response activities before and after the implementation of the activities. Additionally, the majority of the students reported that they benefited from the peer-response activities linguistically, cognitively, and socially. Moreover, most students reported that they did not encounter problems throughout the peer-response activities. Only a limited number of the students indicated that they had difficulties providing specific comments

on their peers' writing and felt nervous when participating in the peer-response activities.

Hu (2005) divided the benefits of peer review into two broad groups: those that facilitate effective (language) learning and those that enhance all acquisition of L2 writing competence. The first group extends beyond L2 writing and concerns learner development and language acquisition in general. The potential benefits of peer review for writing development can be classified into two subcategories, depending on whether they contribute to students' general, longitudinal development as L2 writers or improve the quality of a student text.

In short, despite evidence that peer response activities consist of many benefits and that peer reviews are a valuable form of feedback in L2 writing instruction, peer response should be seen as an important complementary source of feedback (Villamil and de Guerrero 1998) in the classroom.

1.1.2 Drawbacks and Limitations of Peer Response

Despite the potential benefits in improving the quality of writing instruction, there are also some problems encountered when using peer response activities in different contexts. For example, Villamil and de Guerrero (1998) stated that there are two drawbacks of peer response. First, L2 students are not knowledgeable enough to detect and correct errors in the target language. A second problem that has been pointed out both in L1 and L2 peer revision is that students tend to concentrate more on surface revisions rather than on changes that affect meaning. (p492).

For Hu's research in 2005, there are also a number of problems associated with the use of peer review. The first group of problems concerns L2 students' limited knowledge of the target language and its rhetorical conventions. The second group of problems concerns the very nature of the comments offered by peers. The third group of problems arises from various inappropriate attitudes many L2 students writers may hold towards peer review. The last group of problems is cross-cultural by nature. L2 students from different cultures often have varied sociolinguistic rules of peer communication and divergent notions of good writing.

2 Methodology

According to Chisaka (2002), interviews are considered important in collecting research data for two reasons: 1) to provide important background information on respondents, which is useful in terms of reliability of source of data; and 2) to provide information that cannot be accessed

through observation and document analysis, such as feelings and intentions. Participants were 26 English major freshmen who took an English Composition class as their requirement for one school year in an EFL setting in Taiwan. Data were collected from interviews and all the data of response were divided into categories. 26 students were interviewed and recorded after taking their course.

3 Findings and Discussions

The findings and discussions are based on the following three research questions.

Q1. What are the benefits or weaknesses of peer response in grammar & composition instruction? (i.e. Cooperative learning, the answers can have more than one)

Table1: Strengths and weaknesses of peer response

Strengths of peer response	Weaknesses of peer response
1. Students can learn from each other (73%)	1. Limited knowledge and wrong corrections (58%)
2. Corrections of grammar (i.e. verb tense, word usage) in compositions (58%)	2. Surface-level corrections on grammar (27%)
3. Helping students know their classmates better (31%)	3. Not taking peer response too seriously (19%)
	4. Time consuming (15%)
	5. Different interpretations (8%)
	6. Uncertainty of the answers (8%)
	Being afraid of letting out personal privacy (4%)

For the first question regarding the benefits and weaknesses of peer response, 19 students among 26 (73%) claimed that the biggest benefit of using peer response is that students can learn from each other and know more about others' perspectives. The second biggest benefit of peer response comes from the correction of grammar in their composition. There are 15 (58%) students who confirmed the effect of peer response on error correction in grammar (11 students), also four other students argued that peer response helped improve their writing in verb tenses and word usage. The final benefit relates the social relationship, 8 (31%) students claimed that reading peers' composition helped them know their classmates better and better their friendship.

The findings of this study confirmed that the use of peer feedback in writing classrooms has been generally supported as a potentially valuable aid for its social, cognitive, affective, and methodological benefits (see Table 1), which is consistent with

Rollinson's 2005 study. Min (2005) also confirmed that peer review provides opportunities for literacy learning in that reviewers and writers vary in their strengths, preferred modes of expression, and levels of competence so they can learn from each other.

For the weaknesses of peer response, 58% of the students claimed that due to the limited knowledge, classmates sometimes gave wrong answers to their error correction, 27% of the students complained most of their peers only gave surface suggestions on grammar rather than the whole composition, 19% said some students did not take peer response too seriously and 15% argued that it is too time consuming to do peer response. Other weaknesses include different interpretations (8%), uncertainty of the answers (8%) and being afraid of letting out personal privacy (4%). Table 1 showed the comparison of strengths and weaknesses of peer response.

In Min's 2005 study, she argued that vague feedback and misinterpretation of writers' intentions on the reviewers' part have been found to be two major reasons why most of their comments are disregarded. Villamil and de Guerrero (1998) also pointed out that there are two drawbacks of peer response. First, L2 students are not knowledgeable enough to detect and correct errors in the target language. Second, students tend to concentrate more on surface revisions rather than on changes that affect meaning (p492). From the findings, it is found that students did have their limitations in their knowledge so that they couldn't provide more content-level feedback and just gave some surface-level feedback.

Q2. When doing peer response, what is your focus? Fluency, coherence, or others? (can have more than one focus)

From the interviews, most of the students (81%) claimed when doing peer response, grammar would be their top priority. The second priority is on the content (58%) and the third priority is on fluency (35%), coherence (35%) and word usage (35%). And organization (23%) is their last priority.

Min (2005) divided the comments into two categories global issues (idea development and organization) and local problems (word usage, grammar, spelling, and punctuations). Whereas Patthey-Chavez, Matsumura, & Valdes, 2004 divided the type of feedback students received on each draft into "surface level" or "content level." According to them, surface-level feedback included all edits and comments that pertained to grammar, punctuation, spelling, or format (e.g. teacher reminding a students to center and underline the title). Content feedback included comments to

delete, recognize, or add information, as well as questions intended to challenge students' thinking. From the findings, it is found that most of the students tended to comment on the local problems on grammar, word usage and less comment on global idea development and organization in peer response activities (see Table 2).

Table 2: Comparison of what students focused and expected in peer response

What students focused in peer response	What students expected in peer response
1. Grammar (81%)	1. Ideas and logical thinking (50%)
2. Content (58%)	2. Error corrections in grammar (46%)
3. Fluency (35%)	3. Learn from good compositions and avoid making similar errors (19%)
4. Coherence (35%)	4. Organization (15%)
5. Word usage (35%)	5. Content (15%)
6. Organization (23%)	6. Word usage (15%)
	7. Fluency (12%)

Q3. What do you expect to get from peer response? (can have more than one expectation)

As to the students' expectation toward peer response, half of the students (50%) hope to get some suggestions on exchanging ideas and logical thinking. 12 students among 26 (46%) expect to receive error corrections in grammar. Some students (19%) want to learn from other's good compositions and avoid making similar errors. Other expectations include suggestions on organization (15%), content (15%), word usage (15%) and fluency (12%).

The findings of this study are consistent with Mangelsdorf's 1992 study that said students pinpointed content and organization as the main areas that peer reviews improved. In particular, they emphasized that peer reviews led them to consider different ideas about their topics and helped them to develop and clarify these ideas. However, from the findings of the study, it seems that some gaps existed between what students did and what students expected from peer response. Student focused more on surface-level (grammar correction) feedback and expected to receive more content-level feedback.

4 Implications and Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it is suggested that in the future if college writing instructors would like to use peer response to complement teacher response, it is important for them to set up groups and conduct training for enhancing the quality of students' writings. Though peer response in the writing classroom is a

time-consuming activity, it may not be time wasted in that peers can provide useful feedback at various levels. Encouraging students to be more vocal members of the response sequence can assist teachers in writing stronger comments on students texts because they can provide teachers with the knowledge needed to become better responders. Therefore, it is important to involve students more in the process. Also, training students in peer response leads to better revisions and overall improvements in writing quality. In short, collaborative peer group response is a potentially rewarding option; therefore, teacher and peer feedback is best seen as complementary (Edgington, 2004; Rollinson, 2005).

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Learner Perceptions & Involvement in Remedial Writing Classes

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Abstract

This paper, through qualitative data collected from 18 students enrolled in a mandatory remedial writing program in a northern California State University, studies how such learners perceive themselves and relate themselves to the classroom environment. The importance of this study is evident in light of research claims made in educational psychology (Paris & Turner 1994) that cognitive perceptions largely determine how learners behave and relate to a classroom. Conclusion of the study: that motivation and learning were situated, and it was very difficult to determine when it came to certain class activities whether tasks were un motivating because the students were unmotivated or vice versa.

Keywords

motivation, learner perception, learner involvement

Introduction

Learners' emotional appraisals of the classroom environment are all the more important in remedial writing classes for three reasons: one, the mandatory nature of the classes; two, the stigma associated with the remedial classrooms; and three, students' negative attitudes towards the course. The goals of this study are threefold: to explore the attitudes with which these learners come to these classes; to study whether their attitudes remain the same across all class activities; and to explore whether their attitudes undergo any change during the progress of the course.

1 Literature review

Motivation studies have been done by applied linguists (Gardner 1985), cognitive psychologists (Dornyei & Otto 1998), and educational psychologists (Schunk 1991, Pajares & Miller 1994). This literature on interest and involvement in the classroom was summarized by Krapp, Hidi, and Renninger (1992) with three points of view: 1) interest as a characteristic of a person; 2) interest as a characteristic of the learning environment; and 3) interest as a psychological state. Paris and Turner

(1994) took the field a step further by claiming that interest in a classroom environment is not only a dynamic variable but is also situated; in other words, there is no such thing as an objective situation. Situated motivation rather depends on one's cognitive and emotional appraisals of the various phases of the classroom situation in terms of certain emotional variables (Markus & Nurius 1987, Garcia & Pintrich 1994, Ng 1998, Paris & Turner 1994). This situated model fits nicely with the neurobiological model developed by Schumann (2001, 2004) where stimulus appraisal involves five appraisal dimensions: novelty, pleasantness, goal or need significance, coping ability, and compatibility with self and social image. Therefore, how well students learn is determined by how they appraise the classroom environment; this paper investigates the question of what kinds of classroom activities might bolster their appraisal the most.

2 The research study

2.1 SJSU's writing requirements

San Jose State University is the oldest member of the 22-campus California State University system; due to nearby Silicon Valley companies informing the university that they expect excellent writing skills from their employees, SJSU has also imposed the most rigorous writing standards on its students.

All students, undergraduate and graduate, must pass the Writing Skills Test (hereafter referred to as the WST), which consists of two parts: the first a series of multiple-choice questions that test their writing abilities in spelling, punctuation, grammar, cohesion, coherence, paragraph organization, logicity, analogy, and vocabulary; the second part is a personal essay in which they react to a current event. 50% of all students who take the exam fail the first time. The university has an extremely diverse population; a sizeable 10% of its population are foreign students. Of these, most fail the WST more than two times (80% of native speakers manage to pass in their first two attempts). All students who fail the WST are required to take mandatory LLD 98/99 courses to develop their writing proficiency, with a cap of 20 students per

class. The course is credit/noncredit and will not add to their GPA. The exams given at the end of the course are essays with no multiple-choice section and therefore, in students' minds, the passing of the LLD 98/99 does not guarantee the passage of the WST. The fact that only 50 to 60% of the students enrolled in these classes pass the WST after instruction corroborates student opinion. As a result, students are quite frustrated and somewhat skeptical about their LLD 98/99 courses.

2.2 Social / language profile of subjects

The data were collected from 18 students enrolled in a 6-week intensive program in summer 2006 through observations/field notes, an instructor/researcher journal, individual student journals, written assignments, questionnaires, and short interviews. Student ethnic composition was as follows: 4 Koreans, 2 Japanese, 5 Vietnamese, 5 Hispanic, 1 Indonesian, and 1 subcontinent Indian. 12 were permanent residents or naturalized citizens while 6 were foreign students (3 Koreans, 1 Japanese, the Indonesian, and the subcontinent Indian). All were undergraduates. In terms of discipline, 10 were from Engineering, 4 from Business, 2 from Nursing, and 2 from Social Sciences. The average age at which they started learning English was 11.7. However, all of them said they had excellent proficiency in English and that they were using English all the time outside their homes.

Of the 12 immigrant students, 3 started their primary education in the U.S., and all 12 had partial or complete secondary school education in the U.S. All of the foreign students had their first language as their medium of instruction until the high school level. Their attitudes varied: the Japanese and Korean students were willing to pay for external help; the Vietnamese and the Indian students seemed to consider seeking help from outside to be a face issue.

2.3 Data collection procedures

2.3.1 Observations/field notes/instructor journal

Every two weeks, at the beginning of Monday classes, for 5-10 minutes, the students were asked to freely express their opinions about their learning process, class activities, and their confidence and motivation levels. The instructor noted student opinions in a journal. Aside from this, the instructor reflected on his own observations of class activities.

2.3.2 Student journals

Students were required to maintain journals turned in every other Monday. They were required to write their feelings about the course, the instructor, class

activities, fellow students, test preparations, suggestions, confidence and motivation levels, attitudes toward the university writing requirement, and the obstacles they faced. While the instructor was afraid students would complain, most ended up writing more than the requisite one page a week.

2.3.3 Written assignments

Students were given two written one-page essays to be turned in, one at the three-week mark and the other after six weeks, in addition to regular take-home assignments. The essays could be turned in anonymously (other than to note that the task had been fulfilled), and students were told to be frank. The first essay topic was: "Understanding the English language learner in me: What are my strengths and weaknesses?" The second was: "What class activities kept me focused and involved in my learning process?"

2.3.4 Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were also administered, one on the first day of class and the other on the last (the second slightly modified from the first). Each had 7 questions. The first attempted to discover student expectations and confidence levels before the class, and the second to find out whether the class succeeded in reducing their anxiety and increasing their confidence levels.

2.3.5 Short interviews

Short interviews were conducted with each of the 18 students. Each were asked 14 set questions, followed by an open-ended question where they could say anything they wanted.

3 Findings of the study

3.1 General student attitudes

3.1.1 Towards higher education

Students coming from Korean, Japanese, and Indian backgrounds stated that education was the way to succeed in life, and their undergraduate education was only a stepping stone towards a graduate degree. (The Japanese went so far as to say that an undergraduate degree was general knowledge while a graduate degree was specialist knowledge. Gaining knowledge meant becoming a higher human being.) The Vietnamese and Hispanic students considered undergraduate education to be their highest goal. The Indonesian was considering a graduate degree if he could not get a job.

3.1.2 Towards academic writing

Student attitudes toward academic writing were highly negative. Engineering and Nursing students claimed they would not be required to do academic

writing in their jobs. The Business students said they might have to do some writing if they ended up in marketing or analyzing market trends; however, most of their jobs, they felt, would only require oral communication. The foreign students felt that since they had taken the TOEFL prior to admission, why should they have to take the WST? They also asked how writing personal essays would help them in their careers.

3.1.3 Towards the English language

Of the 18 students, 12 felt that English was somewhat difficult to learn mainly due to the "differences between my language and the English language." Some other comments included "this language is weird," "the pronunciation is the most difficult part for me to understand," and "I make grammar mistakes and spelling mistakes because I think and write in my first language." The remaining 6 students felt English was neither easy nor difficult. And while the foreign students felt anxiety while using English, one student claimed that her English was perfect and she was baffled that she had failed the exam twice.

3.2 Specific student attitudes

3.2.1 Towards the WST

The general feeling among the subjects was that the exam was a gate-keeping mechanism to decelerate their graduation process. They also believed it to be favorably skewed toward native speakers. Of the 18, 12 said they did not like the WST at all, calling it a "waste of time" or saying they should have gone to some other school. They also claimed that since they got As in all their courses, the WST was pointless as a graduation requirement.

3.2.2 Towards the nonnative instructor

When asked at the beginning of the course whether any of the students were worried that the instructor happened to be a nonnative speaker, 10 strongly disagreed, 6 moderately disagreed, and 2 took a neutral stand. By the end of the six-week session, many students stated that the instructor being a nonnative speaker was a great motivating factor for them. In their perception, the instructor was someone who had "beaten the system" and was a "good role model." They also stated that the instructor had developed a positive attitude in them about themselves and this had a remarkable effect on their success.

3.2.3 Towards fellow students

Students felt that all of them were on the same level and showed a lot of disdain toward peer-editing. They felt that their peers were not skilled enough to

provide them with useful feedback, and that the teacher should therefore perform all the corrections. However, they were in favor of group work in brainstorming and information organization activities.

3.2.4 Towards the LLD 98/99 class

To the statement, "The LLD 98/99 class will significantly improve my ability to write academic essays," at the beginning of the course, 4 students strongly agreed, 4 moderately agreed, and 10 remained neutral; by the end of the course, 5 strongly agreed, 6 moderately agreed, and 7 remained neutral. This was only a marginal improvement.

To the statement, "The LLD 98/99 class will significantly improve my knowledge of grammar," at the beginning of the course, 8 strongly agreed and 8 moderately agreed. By the end, 15 strongly agreed and 1 moderately agreed. This was a more significant improvement.

Finally, to the statement, "The LLD 98/99 class will enable me to pass the WST," at the beginning of the course, 10 strongly agreed and 8 moderately agreed, while at the end, 12 strongly agreed and 6 moderately agreed. Again, a minor improvement. The reasoning seemed to be that they felt the LLD 98/99 final should have a multiple-choice section to more fully simulate the WST, rather than serving only as a training course for general academic writing.

3.2.5 Towards teaching activities

Of the 22 instructional days (excluding the first and final exam day), the instructor spent 9 days teaching grammar, 9 days teaching writing, and 4 on in-class essays (with 2 additional take-home essays and journal-writing). They were asked to write a lot more than they were used to writing and to make comparisons between their first and English languages.

The students felt like they learned a lot with regard to grammar and felt that the in-class essays on previous final exam topics were "the most useful class activity." There were no absences on the days of the practice tests.

Feelings were mixed about learning English with comparisons to their first language. Of the 18, 9 did not like this activity at all, feeling they should learn without any recourse to their native tongues. 7 on the other hand found this technique very useful while 2 remained neutral.

On the days writing was taught, student attendance was lowest, averaging 2 days absent per student. This could be due to the fact that many students felt their writing proficiency was fine, and it was grammar where they needed the most help.

Many felt their success on the final would more be due to whether the prompt was easy or difficult rather than their own skill level. Therefore, the absences could be attributed to their confidence levels rather than the writing activities, as students had perfect attendance for the practice tests.

3.2.6 Towards the practice grammar tests

Students took practice grammar tests every week and the papers were corrected during the weekend with statistics computed for each grammar item. The items most missed were word processed and, through a PowerPoint presentation, the number of wrong answers for each of the distractors were shown to the students. It was explained why the distractors were wrong and a brainstorming session followed as to why the students had picked the wrong answer. All students found the activity useful and to be a novel method to learning grammar.

3.3 Conclusions

The class could be divided into two groups: those that felt they were there because they had been wronged by the system and those that felt their writing actually did need improvement. Of the 18 students, while 11 claimed that they were "learning a lot" and "gaining confidence," 7 others felt the University had been decelerating their graduation process. One student even claimed the exam to be "racism" since it most heavily penalized nonnative speakers.

The students were motivated for the following activities: group brainstorming, grammar practice and tests (in-class and take-home), and in-class writing tests. They were not motivated for peer editing or take-home writing activities. While all 18 strongly agreed that "I must pass the WST before the end of summer," it must be noted that these students were highly motivated in general; they simply did not believe all activities were equal.

Student attitudes toward the WST and the University remedial requirements were negative in general. It can be said that the WST and the LLD 98/99 class did not satisfy three out of five of Schumann's (2001, 2004) five appraisal dimensions: novelty, pleasantness, and compatibility with self and social image. It did to some extent satisfy goal or need significance and coping ability. In my opinion, the lack of general motivation was due to the students' strong faith in their writing ability. They felt the test was unfair and culture-specific.

3.4 Limitations

This is a pilot and preliminary study carried out on a very small scale. Some of the limitations could be the small number of subjects and a limited number

of survey questions.

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University Students' Needs towards the General English Instruction for the Curriculum Development

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Abstract

This study aims to provide an alternative curriculum of General English instruction for college level on the basis of the needs analysis of students. The previous research on the current General English instruction of Korean universities showed that students were not satisfied with General English instruction along with the problem that they barely gained their English competence after completing courses. And they have taken extra English programs to practice TOEIC or TOEFL preparation courses for their vocational trainings outside the campus (Park, 1998; Cho, 1998; Jung, 2000). For the purposes of the study, 845 students taking General English courses in the university were asked to respond to questions about the general English instructions which they were taking now. The research questions were an ultimate goal of general English instruction in terms of students' view and what is the preference of English instruction on the basis of students' majors in college. The data were analyzed by two groups, students in the health-related departments and the others. Thus, their need to General English is diagnosed.

Keywords

General English instruction, Goal of instruction, Need Analysis

Introduction

The experience of conducting General English (GE) instructions reported that most universities in Korea are struggled with the effectiveness of GE instructions (Park et al, 1998; Cho, 1998; Chung, 2000; Lee & Im, 2005). According to Lee & Im (2005), students expected more qualified English instruction to assist their career preparation, and communicative competence to learn more practical English. The high dissatisfactions, however, between students' expectation and the current GE instructions are recognized. Students also have

shown their difficulty of the uniformed and united English curriculum since their elementary level, because the GE instructions do not consider the requirements and demands of students regarding students' target situation (Park, 1997). Therefore lots of university students had to register in the private institution to get extra credits upon their purpose of English learning. Even though there existed mandatory English courses in University curriculum as a core credit, the administrators, students and teachers were squandering their time and budget in the GE classroom. It was because the university didn't regard the demands from the students and neglect the review of curriculum (ibid). Beyond the outspreaded dissatisfaction and ineffectiveness of GE instruction, universities have elaborated to design the innovative GE curriculum on the basis of opinions by a curriculum designer, English professors, instructors and administrators as well as students (Jung & Chueh, 2002).

This study has focused on one university, which is organized by two distinctive departments; Department of Health and non Health. Two different majors of students are regarded as an integral consideration of this study, because the difference of specialized study affect on the purpose of English learning whether English for General Purposes (EGP) or English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Particularly, the department of Health, which expects more specialized English competence for students to complete the core courses, would expect ESP based GE instruction related to students' focused study. On the basis of specified purposes to learning English, the research on the students' needs to GE is conducted and indented to design the curriculum of GE for Department of Health and Department of Non-Health students respectively. Beyond the concerns of Needs to GE, this study also includes the review of the current GE curriculum in most universities, the analysis of GE curriculum in the

subjected university, as well as the basic considerations to develop the educational curriculum.

1. Literature Review

1.1 The Problems and suggestions for General English instructions

The alteration of goal of GE instructions includes the suggestions of proficiency-based curriculum and ESP based instructions regarding Need Analysis (NA) of university students, educators and experts of workplaces (Kim, 1995; Cho, et al, 1997). Cho (et al, 1997) mentioned the necessity of individualized syllabus design for students to solve the problem of overvaluation of English competence among students. In an aspect to support the importance of proficiency-based curriculum for GE, Cho (2000) proposed the multiple choices of textbooks and individualized assessments for each student. Kim (1999) also appended the information of independent study to support the proficiency-based curriculum for GE instructions. The proficiency-based instruction is also illustrated the way to reduce the size of class. Mostly GE instructions are conducted with 70 to 80 students that students are over or less valued and shown less interaction with instructors (Lee & Lim, 2005). So this packed sized class leads students perceive low motivation and dissatisfaction to GE and more customized instructions like proficiency-based one is demanded by students.

The suggestion of ESP based instruction also emerges to solve the current problem of GE instructions. Along with an interest in ESP by most English instructors and learners, the goal of GE instruction is modified from the pure curiosity of target language to the practical usage of language. EGP is defined as Teaching English for Non-obvious Reasons (TENOR) (Tongue, 1994; Kim & Seong, 2006) and it is hardly attracting students to the English instruction rather than ESP, which provides the specified goal of instructions related with their career preparation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The terminal goal of GE instruction is posed in highly expected linguistic competence by students in spite of limited college year. So, more intensive English program is required as like ESP based one that allows learners to achieve the accurately specified goal of instruction.

The necessity of ESP and proficiency-based instruction for GE is related with the goal of GE curriculum. According to Kim and Seong (2006), ESP provides the practical purpose of learning English as well as foundation of curriculum.

Therefore, the modification of goal of instruction from EGP to ESP based instruction is required to facilitate the learner-centered and customized instructions on the basis of learner's proficiency.

1.2 Curriculum Design for GE instructions

This study is proposed by ultimate goal to design GE curriculum. And the NA by learners is centered in this study. However, the review of overall process to design the educational curriculum is requested in order to identify the importance of NA, because the curriculum is defined as design to conduct the specific language program (Brown, 2001). In 2.1, the curriculum design for GE instructions is requested to increase the effectiveness of GE instructions on the basis of problems and suggestions of GE. The current GE instructions are illustrated with the ineffectiveness and high dissatisfaction by learners and the suggestions to overcome the problems are introduced, providing proficiency-based instructions as well as ESP centered ones. To design the curriculum, six stages are given by Grave (2000). The first stage is to research on the NA of learners, regarding their motivation and background knowledge to English. The second stage is for integrating the result of NA with contents of lesson. Next, the third stage includes the knowledge of intercultural communicative competence, and then the function of English communicative competence is regarded. Finally, the stage of making a lesson plan in terms of the specific techniques and activities is illustrated. Based on 5 stages of curriculum design, teaching materials are appended to complete the process of curriculum design.

As for the first stage, the NA of learners is important among the process of curriculum design. Unless the reflection of learners to English instructions is not carefully respected, the rest of process are edited and corrected on the basis of unstable data. The background information of learners is also critical factors to be reviewed, so students' focused study in university is analyzed as well (Kim, 2006) in order to supplement the NA of students.

1.3. The curriculum of GE instructions in E university

E university used to conduct the GE courses on the basis of reading comprehension regarding the need of each department. Since 1990s, the university has recognized the demands of students and provided TOEIC and practical English courses on the basis of the use of language. From this year, when E university has commenced with 4-year-of academic curriculum, the GE courses respect more the

aspects of professors of each department and provide the courses of college English I & II for four basic skills of English and English conversation I & II for the communicative competence. Table 1 illustrates the comparison of GE courses between Health College and E University.

Table 1: Comparison of GE courses in Health College and E University

Courses	Course descriptions
Health College	
English I	Practical English courses centered on listening, and speaking in order to increase the communicative competence with an approach of situational learning
English II	As a series of English I, more advanced practical English courses and appended by writing and reading confidence to complete four Basic English skills. Practical tests for TOEIC, TOEFL, TEPS are also attainable.
TOEIC	Preparation course for TOEIC test in order to promote the TOEIC score as well as practical listening, reading and conversation skills
English Grammar	Fundamental course to master grammatical competence of English
E University	
College English I	Integration of four English skills. Particularly focused on speaking and listening skills. Students are expected to express themselves with oral English after completion of course. Basic grammar practice and pronunciation drill are appended.
College English II	Integration of four English skills. Particularly focused on reading and writing skills. Students are expected to express themselves with written English after completion of course. English discussion and presentation skills are appended.
English Conversation I	Beginning level of English communicative competence in the various situations. Practice authentic listening and speaking to communicate with native speakers.
English Conversation II	Intermediate and advanced level of English

communicative competence. Practice practical English focused on the accurate and fluent conversation skills.

2. Research Methods

2.1 Subjects

The 845 students who were currently enrolled in GE instructions as for their first year of study were surveyed and analyzed in this study to complete the first stage of curriculum design for GE. The study focused on the NA in the aspects of learners, who are enrolled in GE courses in their 1st year. 845 students were classified with two groups; 630 students majored in Health study, and 215 students majored in non-Health study. The goal of this study was to identify the demand to GE instruction on the view of learners and analyze the demand on the basis of learner's interest area like majors.

2.2 Methods and Process

According to Suh (et al, 2006), the research, "An Improvement Plan for Effective English Education in Provincial Universities" focused on the demand from experts in English education, and suggested 'Proficiency-based curriculum', 'ESP-centered instructions', which equivalence to the goal of this study, so the comparison and contrast of the needs respectively from the experts and students were identified in this chapter. For the research method like Kim (ibid), the questionnaires were asked to students on the basis of two research questions; students' need to the GE instructions and the different responses based on students' study in college. The survey was conducted at the beginning of the semester because the research was focused on the needs rather than reactions to the instructions. All responded questionnaires were collected during the class hour, and analyzed by statistic data to examine the ratio and portion of preferences and interest on GE instruction.

3. Results and findings

The process to develop the curriculum of GE requires the NA of students, who plays the integral role in the instruction. In this study, college students' need to GE instructions was characterized by proficiency and ESP based curriculum. Students have showed their great interest on practical English contents and communicative competence beyond the grammar and reading based instruction. And they also represented their interest in TOEIC courses, and English presentation, and discussion courses, which are defined by ESP. In addition, for the need of proficiency based instruction, students agreed to be involved in more customized and individualized English instruction. These results

have shown somewhat equivalence to Suh (et al, 2006)'s reports that analyze the aspects of experts in English education. Suh's devotion to develop the effective curriculum for GE has represented the ESP and Proficiency based curriculum in terms of experts' aspects. In this study, students' NA also reflects the ESP and proficiency based curriculum for GE instruction on the basis of the aspects of overall university students.

The results were also analyzed by students' majors, Health and Non-Health majors. Health majored students showed the shorter time frame than non-Health majored students. This demand could be affected by several circumstances like students' potential of English, interest, and requirement from their major studies. For the satisfaction to the available credits of GE, students were satisfied with their current credits, whereas slightly low rate of students also took extra credits from their language center. For another question as a type of suggestion to alter the GE instruction, students showed their preference to proficiency-based instruction, but for non-Health major students, their disagreement to the proficiency-based instruction was also regarded as comparatively high percentage. For the qualification test for graduation, English proficiency based qualification was highly adopted by Health major students than non-Health students. The responses from the students of health department are also explained in other consideration like high pressure of major studies. While they have shown strong interest on the GE instructions, they also represent the shorter time frame of GE instruction. And it implies the students' circumstance, which the designer of curriculum has to consider. In the result of comparison and contrast between the Health major students and non-Health major students, their need to GE instructions are somewhat differentiated by the questions about the teaching method to develop the communicative competence, the time frame to take GE instructions, and the English proficiency based qualification test for graduation. Therefore the integrated demands of students could propose the alternative GE curriculum to increase its effective role in GE instructions

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The Effect of the Lexical-Based EFL Learning Approach on Learners' General Language Proficiencies and Lexical Abilities

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Abstract

This study investigates the effect of the lexical-based EFL learning approach on learners' general language proficiencies and lexical abilities. The third-year students in Food and Nutrition at Rajamangala University of Technology Pranakhorn Thailand participated in the study. An experimental group learned with the lexical-based learning approach while the control group learned with the conventional grammar-based approach. The instruments used in this study consisted of Technical English 1 textbook, the lexical-based approach learning model (CD-ROM), CU-TEP Test and lexical ability test. The results demonstrated that there was a significant difference between the pre-test and the posttest mean scores of general language proficiencies and lexical abilities of the experimental group. Further, the results revealed that the lexical ability post-test scores of the experimental group were significantly higher than those of the control group. The general language proficiency post-test scores; however, were not significantly different. The general language proficiencies of the experimental group tended to improve more than those of the control group, especially as for reading ability. The reading ability scores of the experimental group were significantly higher than those of the control group.

Keywords

lexical-based approach, EFL, applied linguistics

1 Introduction

Vocabulary is central to language learning. Many distinguished linguists have pointed out that vocabulary carries more meaning than grammar. Wilkins (1972: 111) memorably wrote: "*Without grammar little can be conveyed: without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed*". The role of lexical knowledge in language learning is increasingly recognized. Thus, researches into vocabulary learning are vital to language education. Also relevant to vocabulary teaching is a knowledge of the linguistic organization of

vocabulary.

At present, it is widely accepted that vocabulary learning should be part of the syllabus, and taught in a well-planned and regular basis (Willis and Willis, 1996). Lewis (1993, 1997a, 1997b) argues that vocabulary should be at the centre of language learning. He (1993: 89) stated that '*language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalized grammar*'. Thus, the last decade witnessed a growing interest in the 'Lexical Approach' to English as a foreign language learning.

This research focused on *lexical-based learning approach*, i.e. *lexis* plays the dominant role in the ELT classroom, or at least a more dominant role than it has traditionally, which has largely been one of subservience to 'grammar' (Sinclair & Renouf, 1988). The approach stresses the combination of the concept of the lexical approach of Lewis (1993, 1997a, 2000) and the mental lexicon (Miller, 1978 & Taft, 1991). The social constructivism approach (Vygotsky, 1985) which has become prominent in recent foreign language pedagogy and computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is adopted. The lexical-based approach used in this research is not the same as Willis and Lewis aforementioned although the principles underlying this research shared their views.

This paper presents how *the Lexical-Based EFL learning Approach* affects on Thai learners' lexical abilities and general language proficiencies.

2 Research Design and Methodology

2.1 Subjects

The target population for this research is the EFL third-year undergraduate students from Food and Nutrition program, Rajamangala University of Technology Pranakhorn during the second semester of the academic year 2005. The subjects are the two sample classes, randomly selected from the 5 classes of students enrolling Technical English I. Chulalongkorn University Test of English Proficiency (CU-TEP) and Lexical Ability Test were used to measure the students' general language proficiencies and lexical abilities before taking the

course. There were no significant differences at the 0.05 level.

2.2 Research Instruments

2.2.1 The lexical-based approach learning models for the experimental group

The learning models were constructed by the researcher, based on the lexical items and the content of the university textbook as well as the lexical abilities. Lexical abilities in this study are defined as a knowledge of the linguistic description of lexis including spelling (orthography), pronunciation (phonology), morphological and syntactic contexts (morphology and syntax), meaning (semantics) and functions in the context of communication (pragmatics) as shown in figure 1.

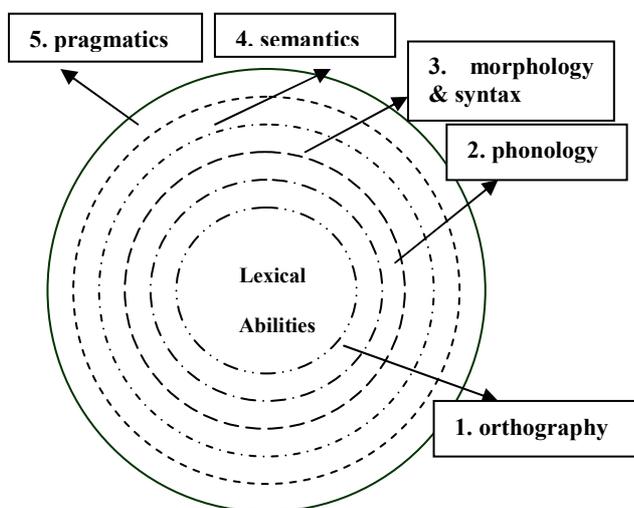


Figure 1: Lexical Abilities

The selection of words and content in the learning models was based on the Technical English I textbook and high frequency of words appearing in the corpus created by the researcher. The content of the models was created by Hot Potatoes, Half-baked software Version 5 & 6 and Microsoft Word and saved on CD-ROM. The content validity was evaluated by an Index of Congruence (IOC). The Index of Congruence Value is 0.68.

2.2.2 The conventional grammar-based textbook for the control group

The instructional content was constructed according to the course objectives and the content outlined in the Technical English I university textbook.

2.2.3 The Lexical Ability Test

The selection of words and content was based on the textbook and learning models. This test was constructed by the researcher and used for pre-test and post-test. The test was developed to find the accepted level of difficulty ($P=0.515$),

discrimination power ($r=0.422$) and the reliability value using KR 21 formula ($KR 21 = 0.875$).

2.2.4 The Chulalongkorn University Test of English Proficiency (CU-TEP)

The test, one of the standardized tests in Thailand, was constructed by Chulalongkorn University Language Institute to measure the English Proficiency. Scores from CU-TEP were correlated to the standardized Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL).

2.3. The Experiment

2.3.1 The experimental group

22 students of the experimental group were instructed through the lexical-based approach learning models and the lecture in the classroom for 15 weeks. They were equipped with 22 pieces of CD-ROM and multimedia computers. The group was trained to be sufficiently computer literate to complete all the language tasks in the CD-ROM. They were not allowed to take CD-ROM home, but just their worksheets and vocabulary notebooks. The models are a combination of programmed lessons and computer technology, making language class more spectacular and interesting as well as helping students learn according to their own interests and abilities. This can be controlled by learners and also give more advantages for students of low achievement. They can learn their lessons repeatedly until they are satisfied with the results or understand the concepts. They can do as many times as they want and check out the right answers immediately. The instructional process is based on student-centered and autonomy of learning.

2.3.2 The control group

26 students of the control group were instructed with the Technical English I textbook and lecture in the classroom for 15 weeks. Apart from the main tasks in reading, listening and writing instruction with a variety of content questions and answers, the limited time given to vocabulary activities in the class has been traditionally devoted only to the incidental word-learning through reading and reading strategies. The instructional process is based on teacher-centered. The learning activities in the control group are different from those in the experimental group but the instructional contents are the same.

3. Research Results

3.1 The lexical ability

3.1.1 The pre-test and the post-test mean scores of the experimental group and the control group

Table 1: The pre-test and the post-test mean scores of the experimental group and the control group

Group	Lexical ability (60 pts.)	N	M	S.D	T	P (*p < 0.05)
Exp. group	Pre-test	22	26.77	6.17	-12.145 *	0.000*
	Post-test	22	37.36	6.38		
Cont. group	Pre-test	26	26.26	6.77	-1.705	0.101
	Post-test	26	27.46	7.11		

The result from table 1 indicated that the experimental group's pre-test scores were significantly higher than the post-test scores (*p<0.05). The pre-test scores of the control group were higher than the post-test scores. But this difference was not statistically significant.

3.1.2 The post-test mean scores of the experimental group and the control group

Table 2: The post-test mean scores of the experimental group and the control group

Lexical ability	group	N	M	S.D	T	p
Total (60 points)	Exp. group	22	37.36	6.38	5.031*	0.000*
	Cont. group	26	27.46	7.11		

As table 2 showed for both groups' lexical ability scores, the post-test scores of the experimental group were higher than those of the control group. This difference was statistically significant (*p<0.05).

3.2 The general language proficiency

3.2.1 The pre-test and the post-test mean scores of the experimental group and the control group

Table 3: The pre-test and the post-test mean scores of the experimental group and the control group

Group	language proficiency (120 points)	N	M	S.D	T	p
Exp. group	Pre-test	22	32.77	7.21	-2.463 *	0.023 *
	Post-test	22	36.18	6.20		
Cont. group	Pre-test	26	31.57	6.19	-1.025	0.315
	Post-test	26	32.84	6.42		

The data shown in Table 3 indicated that the experimental group's pre-test scores were higher than the post-test scores. This difference was

statistically significant (*p<0.05). The results also revealed that the pre-test scores of the control group were higher than the post-test scores. But this difference was not statistically significant.

3.2.2 The post-test mean scores of the experimental group and the control group

Table 4: The post-test mean scores of the experimental group and the control group

language proficiency	group	N	M	S.D	t	P
Listening (30 points)	Exp. group	22	9.22	2.59	0.043	0.966
	Cont. group	26	9.26	3.87		
Reading (60 points)	Exp. group	22	18.59	3.54	2.640*	0.011*
	Cont. group	26	16.03	3.15		
Writing (30 points)	Exp. group	22	8.36	2.08	1.213	0.231
	Cont. group	26	7.53	2.54		
Total (120 points)	Exp. group	22	36.18	6.20	1.821	0.075
	Cont. group	26	32.84	6.42		

Table 4 showed that the experimental group's post-test scores were higher than the control group's post-test scores but there was no significant difference. However, the experimental group's post-test reading scores were found to be significantly higher than the control group's post-test reading scores (*p<0.05).

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The results of this current study support the claim that the lexical-based learning approach in the classroom leads to a positive effect on the development of the learners' lexical abilities and general language proficiencies, especially reading ability. The experimental group's lexical ability scores and general language proficiency scores from the post-test were significantly higher than their scores from the pre-test. In addition, the experimental group's lexical ability scores from the post-test were significantly higher than those of the control group.

The results exhibit that the general language proficiency post-test scores of the experimental group which are higher than those of the control group, are not statistically significant. However, when we look at their three abilities of general language proficiencies among the two groups, it is

interesting to find that there is a significant difference in the reading ability as shown in table 4.

From this result, it is interpreted that learners' lexical knowledge which includes orthography, phonology, morphology and syntax, semantics and pragmatics can lead to the enhancement of the learners' reading abilities. English reading ability is very important for students of English in this knowledge-based society where knowledge is provided mostly in English. Thus, it's clear that this research supports the concept of raising students' linguistic awareness and is more powerful than teacher-centered. Lewis (2000: 35, 160) claims that it therefore aids acquisition and helps learners develop their learning skills as well. This research has also supported the research results reported by Laufer (1997) that reading ability is greatly influenced by lexical ability.

Further, the post-test general language proficiency scores of the experimental group reveal that there is a tendency for some weaker students to make much greater progress than those of the better students who received the same instructional treatment. Phadivibulya and Luksaneeyanawin (2005: 228) also found similar results from their research study and reported the development of many lower proficient students to the higher level, based on Vygotsky's concept of the ZPD, cooperative learning and learner autonomy.

Designing technology enhanced learning models for face-to-face foreign language learning in the classroom should now be considered and promoted. Forcier (1996: 222) stated that the computer is not only a productivity tool for the teacher but also a tool that enhances the productivity of the students. As shown in this study, during the class time the teacher gives some good suggestions to the students and enables the high proficient students to help their friends after finishing their given tasks. It is obvious that assisted learning takes place in learners' zones of proximal development where they can do new tasks within their capacities only with a teacher's or peer's assistance.

It can thus be concluded that *the lexical-based approach* can encourage learners to take responsibility for their own learning and improve their lexical abilities. Moreover, the emphasis on lexical ability development can contribute to successful reading comprehension. It is hoped that the control role occupied by lexis and linguistic description of lexical items in the reality of foreign language learning will one day be reflected in the attention given to it in research and the classroom.

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The preliminary study on curriculum design with culture-based language learning for university students

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to propose the English language learning curriculum for university students on the basis of culture-based language instruction. In this study, the 50 learners are exposed by the target language culture with 18 hours of culture based English lecture and communal life with native speakers for one semester. During the program students reported their satisfaction and development of English competence in terms of survey. On the basis of Need Analysis of students, the study proposes the effectiveness of culture teaching for university students as well as suggestible English language learning program.

Keywords

Curriculum, Culture-based instruction, Needs Analysis

Introduction

The goal of this study is to develop the curriculum of English language learning program for university students on the basis of culture-based language learning. According to Taba (1962), the considerations of curriculum design include seven factors; the diagnosis of the learner's needs, formulation of objectives, selection of content, organization of content, selection of learning experience, organization of learning experiences, and determination of what to evaluate and the means of doing it. In the process of curriculum design, the Needs Analysis (NA) of students is posed at the first stage, so this study is regarded as a preliminary study for the entire project of curriculum design. For the diagnosis of the learner's need, the students' demands to English language learning program are analyzed in this study. Based on the Needs Analysis (NA), the study elaborates the instructional contents as for the second stage of curriculum design and proposes the culture-based language learning.

Along with the 7th National Curriculum (NC) in Korea, the enthusiastic demands on culture supplemented, or culture centered English instructions are requested (The Ministry of Education and Human Recourses, 1997). And the

effectiveness of culture-based instruction for Korean EFL children was reviewed by Chang (2007), and there is the intercultural-based content between the target and native culture in order to motivate and attract the EFL learners. With the belief of the role of culture to facilitate the target language acquisition, the survey is conducted by three considerations; learners' personal information, concerns on contents and topics and preferable teaching and learning methods in order to diagnose the needs of learners.

1. Literature Review

1.1 The purposes of English learning in Korea

There exist many purposes of learning English depending on the intrinsic and extrinsic environments and requests around learners. Most Korean university students reported that the reason to take English courses is related to the promotion of conversational confidence as well as career preparation (Seong, Chang & Kim, 2007; Lee & Lim, 2005; Chung & Kim, 2001). And the modified and suggestible English curriculum is also recognized by several researchers who intended to match the goal of English instruction with the demands of learners. According to Joh (2002), considering the students' individual proficiency, the proficiency-based instruction can adjust the heterogeneous group of students to the homogeneous group with shrinking the size of class. Kim (2006) and Kim & Seong (2006) also proposed the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) based instructions which incorporate learner's needs and the target situation analysis (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Regarding the considerations of curriculum design, after the diagnosis of learners' needs, there is a stage to clarify the objectives of instruction and this study concerns the proficiency-based and ESP centered instructions on the basis of responses by university students and previous researchers. In addition, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is appended, because the subjects of this study are all university students who have specific purposes to learn English, which is the academic competence and it is recognized as the branch of ESP. The importance of EAP is introduced by Bell (1988) and he illustrated the skill-based EAP training for

pre-departure students at the British Council in Jakarta. In his research, students are exposed to the position to cope with the challenges of academic study, so they are requested to attain the academic competence during the training program and that is their specific purposes to learn English. Like Bell's program, this study also focuses on the group of university students who have a specific purpose of English learning and it would be diagnosed by the survey.

1.2 Culture-based English instruction

With the demand of specific purposes of English instruction as well as proficiency based instruction, the instructional contents to facilitate the language acquisition are also elaborated in this study. Among the various aspects, the belief that the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) can be facilitated by culture-based instruction (Chang, 2007) irritates the culture-based English language learning program for university students. According to Ellis (2000), culture is imbedded in language, playing the role to determine the characteristics of language, so L2 learners would experience the different culture and language from their native culture and language during the instruction. In addition, the aspects of Brown (1980) to language learning also asserted that learning of target culture is regarded as the equivalence learning of target language learning. Therefore, the instruction, where the goal is specified with ESP, EAP and proficiency-based one, requests the curriculum of culture-based language learning.

The culture-based language learning shares the perspectives with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). According to Brown (2001), there are five characteristics in CLT and they are knowledge structure (Knowledge of the world), language competence (Knowledge of language), strategic competence, psycho-physiological mechanism, and context of situation. In the comparison, Knowledge of world and language are considered as the knowledge of target culture referred as intercultural competence (Byram, 2000), and strategic competence and psycho-physiological mechanism are also given something in common with the acculturation strategies. According to Berry and Sam (1997), the second language (L2) learners have shown their mental strategies on the process of acculturation. When L2 learners firstly met the target and unfamiliar language and culture, they express their feeling of marginalization and separation, which are also defined as culture shock. However, after their recognition of big difference, L2 learners tried to assimilate themselves to the target and dominant culture rather than staying in

alien status, and finally showed their comfort and confidence with a strategy of integration. These acculturation strategies are also recognized in the CLT based instruction with their strategic competence and mechanism. Along with the shared perspectives with CLT, culture-based content is strengthened in English language learning program.

2. Research methodology

2.1 Subjects

The targeted students in this study have a specific purpose to learn English that matches with the definition of ESP. They are enforced to study in American University after two years of Korean school as a part of their scholarship program. The prominent motivation to learn English would expect more intensified English language learning program. So the 50 scholarship students are focused on this study, and given their needs to their extracurricular English learning program in order to receive more proficiency and specific purpose based instruction.

2.2 Survey methods

A questionnaire (refer to appendix A) consists of three considerations: personal information, contents and topics, and teaching and learning methods. For the personal information, students are asked to their background information like gender, the purpose of English learning, time spending for study English as well as preferable materials to study. And the questions about contents and topics are included to specify the objectives of learning English and to examine the preferable contents and topics in terms of learners' views. In the last part of questionnaire, the preferable learning and teaching methods are regarded to propose the necessity of culture-based instruction along with preferable activities for instruction.

3. Findings and Suggestions

4. References and appendices

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4.2 Appendices

Appendix A. Survey questions of a need analysis in the view of college students

Survey questions

I . Personal Information

1. Gender: a. male b. female
2. What is the reason to learn English?
 - a. a part of curriculum
 - b. develop your self
 - c. getting better job
 - d. interest in Western culture
 - e. assist to course textbook reading
 - f. other: _____
3. How much hours do you spend for learning English?
 - a. less than 2 hrs
 - b. 2-4 hrs
 - c. 5-6 hrs
 - d. more than 7 hrs
4. What are your difficulties to learn English?
 - a. reading
 - b. vocabulary
 - c. speaking/listening
 - d. grammar
 - e. writing
5. If your English competence is not fluent, what is the reason?
 - a. lack of ability
 - b. lack of knowledge
 - c. no need for English
 - d. idleness of English learning or busy schedule
 - f. lack of English learning methods
6. How do you use your English competence in the future?
 - a. job
 - b. social relationship
 - c. travel
 - d. education
 - e. studying abroad
7. What is your preferable English learning material?
 - a. course book
 - b. English novel/essay
 - c. newspaper
 - d. TV and media
 - f. TOEIC and TOEFL

II. Contents and topics

8. I believe that English instruction should focus on daily based conversation.
 - a. strongly disagree
 - b. somewhat disagree
 - c. neutral
 - d. somewhat agree
 - e. strongly agree
 9. I believe that English instruction should focus on topic based content related to my study in college.
 - a. strongly disagree
 - b. somewhat disagree
 - c. neutral
 - d. somewhat agree
 - e. strongly agree
- * If you can't agree with this opinion, please write down your reason.
-

**Indicate your opinion about the effective topics for English learning.

		Scale		
		strongly disagree		strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

10. Travel/food
11. Social issue
12. leisure/hobby
13. career/business
14. College application in America
15. Holidays in America
16. Education system in America
17. Sports and cities in America
18. American family
19. Regions of the USA
20. Paralanguage/ money in America
21. Shopping custom in America
22. American Name/ dating custom

** Indicate your opinion about the situation of using English in the future

- | Scale | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|----------|
| least use | | | | most use |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. Communication with native speakers | | | | |
| 24. Communication over the telephone | | | | |
| 25. Mail or email in English | | | | |
| 26. Internet search | | | | |
| 27. Reading newspaper or magazine | | | | |
| 28. Reading journal or articles | | | | |
| 29. Presentation for study in college | | | | |
| 30. Reporting the result of study | | | | |
| 31. Job Interview | | | | |

III. Teaching and learning methods

** Indicate your opinion about the effective teaching methods of culture-based English instruction

- | Scale | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| least useful | | | | | most useful |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 32. Text and translation based method | | | | | |
| 33. Reading comprehension based method | | | | | |
| 34. Topics with debate and discussion | | | | | |
| 35. Project with cooperative method | | | | | |
| 36. Presenting reports | | | | | |

** Indicate your opinion about the preferable classroom activities

- | Scale | | | | | |
|----------------------------|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| least prefer | | | | | most prefer |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 37. On-line activity | | | | | |
| 38. Pair works | | | | | |
| 39. Lecture | | | | | |
| 40. Small group discussion | | | | | |
| 41. Presentation | | | | | |

The Effect of Reading Aloud Practice on English Abilities of College Students

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Abstract

Japanese college students participated in the English training program in which they were involved in reading aloud practices such as overlapping, buzz reading and shadowing. They practiced reading two different English passages aloud for about twenty minutes every day. The program lasted for four months and the improvement of their English abilities was measured in two ways: TOEIC scores and quality of their speeches in terms of fluency and accuracy.

Keywords

English training program, reading aloud, TOEIC, fluency, accuracy

Introduction

Though reading aloud practice has been considered one of the effective methods to acquire the basic knowledge of phonology, syntax and vocabulary (Tsuchiya, 2004), less than twenty percent of senior high school students practiced reading their textbooks aloud on a daily basis and one third of them never read English passages aloud at home (Ano, 2006). Reading aloud has not been regarded as an important activity in SLA researches, however, in a situation of English education in Japan, where learners learn English as a foreign language and seldom use the target language in their daily life, it is a crucial issue to examine the effectiveness of reading aloud practice. It is also useful to find out what kinds of practices will help learners to improve their English abilities.

1 Experiment

1.1 Purposes

The purpose of the study is to examine the influence of daily reading aloud practice on English ability of Japanese learners in terms of scores of the English proficiency test and the quality of their speeches.

1.2 Subjects

The subjects in the experiment are fifteen college students: two boys and thirteen girls. Though thirty one students were in the experiment as subjects at the beginning of the study, sixteen of them failed to continue the daily practice of reading aloud in the middle of the experiment. All of them were the students of a national university in Japan and belonged to the faculty of education, humanities or science.

1.3 Procedure

1.3.1 Pretest

All the subjects took TOEIC test. Then they were told to answer the following question in a CALL room and their speeches were recorded.

Q: What did you do in your winter vacation? / How did you spend your winter vacation?

1.3.2 Treatment

They participated in the “English training program” which lasted for four months. The instructions about the program were given in the orientation and they continued daily reading aloud practice every day. The training menus were as follows:

Listening 1- listen to the passage while looking at the text.

Listening 2 - listen to the passage with the textbook closed.

Overlapping – listen to the model reading and read the passage aloud at the same time. They can look at the text.

Buzz reading – read the passage aloud by themselves.

Shadowing - listen to the model reading and say the passage at the same time with the textbook closed.

The textbook used in the experiment was “*Sokudoku Sokucho Eitango Core 1800*” (Rapid Reading, Rapid Listening, English Vocabulary Core 1800). It has sound CDs which include the model reading for all the passages with natural speed by native speakers of English.

Each lesson was studied for two consecutive

days and two lessons were covered in a day. A daily practice took them about twenty minutes. Everyday practice went like this:

(1) Review of the previous lesson

- Listening 2 – once
- Overlapping – twice
- Buzz reading – five times
- Shadowing – three times

(2) New lesson

- Listening 1 – three times
- Overlapping – five times
- Buzz reading – three times

Since these are the minimum requirement, the subjects often practiced more than these numbers. Each subject was told to record the number of practices which they pursued and submitted them every three weeks.

1.3.3 Posttest

After being involved in the program, each subject took TOEIC test again. They were also asked to answer the following question and their speeches were recorded.

Q: What did you do in your Golden Week holidays?
/ How did you spend your Golden Week holidays?

2 Analysis

2.1 TOEIC score

TOEIC scores before and after the training program of all the subjects were compared in three different points: Section 1 (Listening), Section 2 (Reading) and total scores.

2.2 Transcription of Spoken Data

All the recorded speeches were transcribed and the following tags were inserted.

- () silent pause
- <r> repetition
- <R> repair
- <J>Japanese words
- <L>laughter
- <C>cough

2.3 Fluency

In order to examine the qualitative improvement of speeches, numerical values of fluency was defined with total numbers of words in one minute, frequency of silent pauses, repetition, repair and mean length of utterance. These five variables were integrated into one value through principal component analysis.

2.4 Accuracy

Accuracy, another aspect of qualitative measurement, was examined. All the grammatical errors in the scripts were checked and the frequency of errors was calculated.

3 Results

3.1 TOEIC scores

Average scores of TOEIC for pretest and posttest were shown in table 1.

Table 1: Average scores of TOEIC

	Section 1 (listening)	Section 2 (Reading)	total
pretest	257.7	193.0	450.7
Post test	294.0	199.0	493.0
difference	36.3	6.0	43.0

Though ten subjects improved their total scores while five went down the scores, the average scores increased by forty three points. They improved the score of listening section more than reading section. As for listening section, twelve subjects improved their scores.

3.2 Qualitative improvement of speeches

Compared the speeches of posttest with those of pretest, the quality of speeches of most subjects has improved in terms of both fluency and accuracy.

4 Educational Implications

Since the experiment started in the middle of January and ended in the middle of May, the subjects had only some English classes during the most of the experiment period. Through the interview with the subjects, all of them said that they concentrated on this program without having any other English study for months. This means they improved both the score of proficiency test and the quality of their speeches through pursuing reading aloud practices.

It can be concluded that reading aloud practice is effective to improve some aspects of English ability of Japanese college students.

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A Study of What Students Think They Have Learned through Synchronous Computer-Mediated Communication

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Abstract

This study focuses on synchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC), which is commonly referred to as ‘chat’, based on my experience at Waseda University in 2006-2007. The subjects are 72 freshmen enrolled in my writing courses at Waseda University. They engaged in text-based synchronous CMC with Korea University students. Exchanges out of class time involved small groups of participants using BizMate, a chatting system.

The purpose of this study is twofold: (1) to explore what students think they have learned through synchronous CMC and (2) to consider its significance in my teaching context. First, this paper analyzes the final essays written by my students, in order to probe what they thought they had learned through synchronous CMC with Korea University students. The essay topic was ‘some advice to their juniors (the future freshmen) about the chat activities in the course’. The students’ reactions vary. Then, based on the findings, the paper discusses the significance of CMC in my teaching context in terms of cultural awareness, interpersonal connections, autonomous learning, communication skills, language in chats, language use, and teacher’s role.

Keywords

CMC, chat, EFL, CCDL

Introduction

The rapid development of information and communication technologies in recent years is associated with a corresponding growth in interest in computer-mediated communication (CMC) in language learning/teaching. E-mails, chats, and video conferencing are indispensable in the Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) programs at Waseda University. Nakano (2006) argues:

Some students suffer from inferiority complex about their English, although they have sufficient

grammatical competence. This is largely due to the lack of opportunities to use English in the authentic communicative situations. It is important to note that CCDL CMC can provide such opportunities. (7)

This paper will (1) give a brief overview of CMC, (2) show the outline of my writing course, (3) analyze the students’ final essays, and (4) examine the significance of CMC, especially chats, in my teaching context.

1 Computer-mediated communication

1.1 CMC in EFL learning

CMC is said to be the process of using computers in order to facilitate person-to-person interaction regardless of location.

The integration of CMC into EFL (English as a foreign language) learning can increase both exposure and use of English. CMC is also said to benefit learners in terms of increased participation, increased motivation, an opportunity for skills development, and the promotion of learner autonomy.

1.2 Synchronous CMC

There are some forms of CMC. CMC can allow language learners to “communicate with other learners or speakers of the target language in either asynchronous (not simultaneous) or synchronous (simultaneous, in real time) modes (Warschauer, M. & Kern, R, 2000: 12)”.

Synchronous CMC, where interaction takes place in real time, includes online chats and video conferencing. Asynchronous CMC, participants are not necessarily online simultaneously, encompasses emails, discussion boards, and mailing lists.

1.3 Chat

A ‘chat’ is a way to “to communicate in real time, that is, instantaneously. Whatever you type into a chat program is immediately visible to the

other participants on their computers. (Teeler, D. & Gray, P., 2000: 4)". There are three basic computer-based chat modes: text, audio and video. The most widely used in education so far has been text chat.

Using chats means that the target language is learnt by interacting with people from the real world, in real time, and using language of the real world, whether they are native or non-native speakers.

2 Course description

This paper deals with "Practical Writing in English 1B" and "Practical Writing in English 1E", the required courses for the freshmen at the Department of English Language and Literature, School of Education, Waseda University. 36 students were enrolled in "Writing Practice 1B", and "Writing Practice 1E" each in 2006-2007.

2.1 Course objectives

The course objectives were twofold:

- (1) to develop students' writing skills
- (2) to develop students' cultural awareness

2.2 Evaluation

The evaluation was based on:

- (1) attendance, participation (classes and chat sessions): 50 %
- (2) summaries after each chat session, presentations, final paper: 50 %

The summaries were supposed to be an extension of the chat session's contents for that week and include personal opinions.

The students were required to write a final paper about 'some advice to their juniors (the future freshmen) about the chat activities in the course'.

2.3 Chat session

Chatting was made a course requirement. Students were supposed to chat online through the computers at Distance Learning Center.

Waseda University students were paired with Korea University students. Students, in the form of small groups consisting of 3-5 persons, engaged in a chat session once a week (30-45 minutes).

Text-based chatting was conducted through a software program called BizMate. It supports a video stream, through which participants can visually interact while typing on the computer keyboard.

The topics of the chat sessions were as follows:

Table 2: Topics in chat sessions

1st semester	
wk 1	self-introduction, university culture
wk 2	fashion
wk 3	sports
wk 4	date, marriage, divorce
wk 5	plastic surgery
2nd semester	
wk 1	self-introduction, part-time job
wk 2	foreign countries
wk 3	dating
wk 4	education
wk 5	free chatting

2.4 Course design

This section shows what was related with CCDL in the course.

Table 1: Course outline

1st semester	
wk 1	introduction, guidance
wk 2	how to use BizMate, topic
wk 3	self-introduction practice (with BizMate)
wk 4-7	expressions for discussion, preparation for chat sessions
wk 6-7	analysis of chat logs
wk 8-12	oral presentation: what they learned through the chat sessions with their logs
2nd semester	
wk 1	introduction
wk 2	topic (with BizMate)
wk 3	information gap task (with BizMate)
wk 4-5	preparation for chat sessions
wk 6-11	oral presentation with PowerPoint
wk 12	review

This course was mainly aimed at developing students' writing skills. I introduced various writing activities which were closely related to the chat sessions. The students were given the opportunity in advance to think about the language they would need so that they could be prepared for the chat and less anxious when trying to type quickly.

3 Research

3.1 Data collection

Data were collected from 72 students' final papers and analyzed in terms of what they thought they had learned through the chat sessions. The essay topic was 'some advice to their juniors (the future freshmen) about the chat activities in the course'.

3.2 Findings

Table 3 shows the findings, followed by two extracts from the students' essays.

Table 3: Findings

to develop their awareness of cultural issues in Korea	27 (38%)
to develop their awareness of Japanese cultural issues and events	13 (18%)
to develop their interpersonal skills or social skills	13 (18%)
that they should not be absent from or late for the chat sessions	11 (15%)
that they should study in advance about the assigned topics (expressions and opinions)	18 (25%)
that they should be more interested in many things to hold their opinions	9 (13%)
to develop their communication skills for carrying on chatting	15 (21%)
that they should be more actively involved in chatting; that they should enjoy chatting	17 (24%)
that the Korean students responded faster or had better typing skills	31 (43%)
that it was efficient to use a web camera for a better understanding	7 (10%) [ex 1]
that so-called 'chat language' made the communication faster	18 (25%) [ex 2]
that they should not be afraid of making errors	7 (10%)
that there were some frequent mistakes in spelling and grammar (from their log data)	7 (10%)
that they should bring their dictionaries	5 (7%)
that they should use the expressions they had learned during the class	5 (7%)
to use English in the authentic communicative situations	19 (26%)
that they should study English harder than before	13 (18%)
other comments: summary, assigned day, historical issue, copy and paste, good relationship with Waseda peers	

[ex 1]

“What I really like about Bizmate chatting is that we can see each other’s face. It makes some kind of relief. I cannot describe it really well, but you will understand what I mean. In general, you do not see a partner’s face when you chat on the internet. However, on Bizmate chatting you can see it. You can see if he/she laughs or not. Your face can tell your feelings that you cannot express in words. So, do not hide your face from the camera! It is fun to laugh together with Koreans. I believe seeing each other builds better relationship.”

[ex 2]

“And there is a method that will help you to cover your typing speed. The method is to cut sentence into pieces (this method is often used by Korean partners). I will give you example. When you type somewhat long sentence like ‘because of that fact many people have to change their perspective of the world’, you type it like ‘because of’ (press Enter Key), ‘that fact’, ‘many people have to’, ‘change their perspective’ and ‘of the world’. This method has another effect: it

dissolves some interruption of partners and you can type your opinion effectively.”

4 Discussion

Based on the findings above, the significance of CMC, especially synchronous CMC, in my teaching context is discussed in terms of cultural awareness, interpersonal connections, autonomous learning, communication skills, language in chats, language use, and teacher’s role.

4.1 Cultural awareness

CMC can be effective for enhancing FL/SL learners’ cross-cultural awareness. The students can acquire new information and exchange ideas with students from another culture.

My students developed a positive attitude towards Korea and Korean people, and learned to accept and respect differences in their viewpoints, beliefs, and tradition. Some students reported that they exchanged some e-mails with Korean students, which increased their interest and motivation.

4.2 Interpersonal connections

Learners can get to know each other better through online social interaction. By using web cameras, learners can participate in online communications that almost resemble face-to-face communications.

My students reported that they developed their interpersonal skills (listening, discussing, helping, etc.) and social skills (greeting others, interacting politely, showing respect, etc.). Some chat log data showed that the more fluent or computer literate peers helped and coached the weaker students, who were given time to think and keyboard their ideas.

4.3 Autonomous learning

The students’ authentic and meaningful interactions with Korea University students via the Internet promoted their motivation to keep learning. This motivation of learning supported them to become more responsible and willing to engage in their own learning.

The students felt that they had to prepare for the topics to be discussed in each session. Their preparation helped them generate ideas for their messages. Some students reported that they knew what was still needed to be learned in the future.

4.4 Communication skills

Another advantage to be obtained from CMC is the development of communication skills such as carrying on a chat, negotiating meanings, and so on, which are difficult to be achieved in the EFL setting.

In chatting, turn taking is not usually well distributed. Some people tend to hold the floor or participate more than others.

Some students reported that turn taking did not exist and that they easily lost their opportunities to intervene. Some people only listened to the conversations taking place. Some people introduced new topics without finishing previous ones.

Many students felt that their keyboarding skills were slower and reported that they sometimes missed a part of the chat. Better keyboard skills are likely to develop naturally as a result of frequent chat practice.

4.5 Language in chats

The synchronous CMC causes “most radical linguistic innovation ... affecting several basic conventions of traditional spoken and written communication. (Crystal, D., 2001: 130)” Short phrases, abbreviations, emotive symbols and so on are frequently used in synchronous CMC.

The students were interested in new forms of cues ([:]) = smile, [I am ANGRY] = to emphasize emotion and language ([btw] = by the way), for ‘minimum effort in minimum time’. Many students made a presentation about the effective use of ‘chat language’ during the first semester.

Through some assignments, the students became aware of the differences in style between formal writing and conversational writing. They also knew that an essay or formal term paper needs a plan and careful reflection.

4.6 Language use

The integration of CMC into EFL learning is said to increase both input (exposure) and output (use) of English in authentic social interactions. Some students reported that they got adequate access to English outside of the classrooms and practiced what they had learned in the classroom.

The social nature of chats between EFL learners can contribute to lower the affective filter, one of Krashen’s five hypotheses for language acquisition, offering a relaxing atmosphere for learning to take place. Most of the students reported that they had a great time chatting with Korean students.

4.7 Teacher’s role

I tried to give the students positive feedback and encourage them to communicate and not to worry about spelling, grammatical, and capitalization mistakes. The students felt free to express themselves and their own opinions.

Students often need scaffolding which

includes some pre-teaching of new vocabulary and expressions, or reviewing the use of particular structures. It is up to the teacher to introduce remedial strategies to encourage students to continue participating in the chat sessions.

5 Conclusion

CMC can be a powerful tool in the EFL setting. CMC can

- (1) give learners more authentic exposure and more opportunities to use the knowledge learned in the classroom;
- (2) facilitate the connection with people across the world;
- (3) make students become independent learners;
- (4) be advantageous in terms of such affective factors as motivation, anxiety and confidence.

Synchronous CMC, which makes students communicate with ‘real’ people in the ‘real’ world in ‘real’ time, is indispensable in my teaching context. It allows for a better and more comprehensive awareness of the outside world and generates richer language learning experiences and environments. Through chats, the students can

- (1) develop their interpersonal and social skills;
- (2) encourage their autonomous learning;
- (3) enhance their communication skills;
- (4) broaden their language awareness.

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The Design of Web-based Collaborative Environments for Global Teacher Training: A Knowledge Building Community for Future Assistant Language Teachers in Japan

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Abstract

The main objectives of this project are to design and implement Web-based collaborative environments, and to help future and novice Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) to have better chances to acquire professional knowledge in advance with support from experienced senior teachers, both Japanese and former ALTs. Computer Support for Collaborative Learning (CSCL) was adopted as a platform for their online discussion. Results are reported by the analysis of system design and the Web-based questionnaire conducted to the participants involved in the knowledge-building forum.

Keywords

CALL, CSCL, teacher education, Web-based learning, knowledge building

Introduction

There has been a pressing need to propose more effective preparation for ALTs on a practical level in Japan, since the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan, announced in 2002 that the number of ALTs should be increased to the unprecedented number of over 8400. These ALTs are young overseas graduates who assist in international exchange and foreign language instruction in local governments, boards of education and junior and senior high schools. To cope with this rapid increase, however, surprisingly few projects have been carried out for professional training in the recent years within the educational arena of ELT in Japan.

This paper discusses effective ways to meet the above-mentioned pressing need, with regard to appropriate preparation based on the questionnaire survey given to 600 ALTs in Japan (Kushima & Nishihori, 2006). ALTs have little job training on a practical level at the orientation sessions offered at present, and virtually no individual preparation is provided for them before coming to Japan. The

analysis leads us to a proposal of web-based global training which is composed of a discussion forum between future ALTs all over the globe and Japanese Teachers of English (JTE) in Japan, in addition to experienced ALTs either in Japan or anywhere in the world. This forum offers a good opportunity for future ALTs to undergo pre-training and join the teachers' community in advance.

1 Literature Review

Much focus is placed on interaction (Ferry et al., 2000; Schon, 1987; Vygotsky, 1978) in the discussion forum, since this offers learners the opportunity to analyze information, explore ideas, and share feelings among learners and instructors in an e-learning course (Khan, 2005). For learning communities, collaboration and knowledge building are essential elements. In particular, knowledge building is viewed as the creation of knowledge as social product (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1994). A number of studies have been carried out concerning knowledge building communities (Li, 2004).

In the field of professional teacher development, recent studies have focused on the teacher community of practice supported by networked environments (Lave & Wenger, 1999). There have been interesting case studies conducted within an Asian context (Liu et al., 2006; Tan & Kwok, 2005; Chai & Tan, 2005). Our study was conducted further to extend this type of training to a global context.

2 System Design: Principles for the Platform

In this research, we applied collaborative space ontology (Takeuchi et al., 2006) to design and construct a web-based training platform, which was implemented in a network environment. According to collaborative space ontology, collaborative space is classified into two spaces: one for practice to create community knowledge and the other for education to pass it on to the next generation. In essence, our system is designed to amalgamate both

functions within the same space. Our project is a challenge to realize learning environments in which a learner or novice teacher can draw on the expertise of other experienced learners and senior teachers effectively in an on-line forum to create and disperse community knowledge.

Several viewpoints have been taken into consideration with the design of this platform. The actual knowledge building can be seen in the comment box, under a certain topic which has been visualized as a tree in this Forest Forum. Contributions from each member can be visualized in this forest which takes the form of a visual display of the actual community. Each member is indicated by the color of the group they represent in the comment box, and also by a flower in the tree. The learning process is visualized by the assessment of discussion which is made by a future or novice ALT using methods such as a “good” button and a final evaluation box. A wealth of information such as the nature of the discussion, who is participating, and how the discussion is evaluated can be made at a glance by following this process. We can witness this creation of knowledge once we are in this forum.

3 System Design: Developments & Analysis

3.1 Training in the Learning Community

Forest Forum is an online community whose members are composed of future and novice ALTs, JTEs and former ALTs. Its aim is to support young people who are interested in working as an ALT to prepare for their professional career. Members get together to grow a topic tree by having future and novice ALTs posting questions, and former ALTs and JTEs answering them.



Figure 1: Forest Forum as a Community

A tree appears when a question is posted. The newest tree always appears on the upper-left. Clicking the title will take a member to the detailed question page. A flower will appear when a comment on a question is posted. The number of flowers is equivalent to the number of comments. The color shows the status of the respondent. The flower will blink when the future ALT evaluates the

comment positively by clicking the “good” button. When the discussion reaches the stage of eight comments, a butterfly will appear. When the discussion reaches the next stage of sixteen comments, a second butterfly will appear. When the future ALT clicks the “satisfied” button for the final evaluation of the topic, a rainbow-colored butterfly will appear.

3.2 Knowledge Building Process

The knowledge building process can be visualized through the discussion flow in the Forum. Contribution by each participant is traced by the color of a flower which is the same as that of the background in the text.



Figure 2: Color and Text Matching

Interaction is visualized in the discussion flow following each contribution from start to finish.

Starting Stage

↓ A future ALT asks a question about the ALT’s job.

Responding Stage

↓ A JTE or an experienced ALT answers the question.

Interacting Stage

↓ Participants further interact by asking and answering additional questions. During the course of the discussion, a future ALT evaluates answers to the original question.

Closing Stage

↓ The future ALT evaluates the whole discussion when she/he finds the answer to the initial question satisfactory, and then closes the topic.

In the Forest Forum, each tree has a discussion flow in sequence. Once a particular tree, i.e. a topic, is selected, the details of the future ALT’s question appear in the text.

3.3 Evaluation and Reflection in the Train of Thought

It is of great importance to provide learners with meta-awareness around the discussion. In the knowledge building collaborative space, this can be achieved by the design which offers possibilities for interaction and reflection over the train of thought accomplished in collaboration among participants. Our project offers this opportunity through its

design, which enables reflection during the course of interactive discussion.

The “good” button plays a role for evaluation during the course of discussion in that a future ALT can evaluate any answer made by senior experienced teachers. In this way, novice teachers can acquire meta-awareness for their profession.

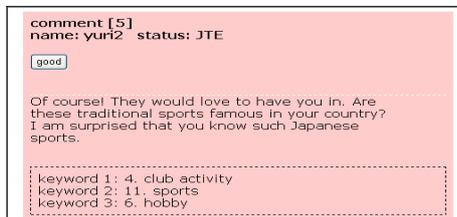


Figure 3: The “good” button

By clicking the good button, a “blinking” flower will appear on both the tree and the comment box so that evaluation can be visually identified by other members in the forum community.

The above evaluation process is incorporated in the discussion flow to make the train of thought in the forum. The contributions of each member, which are displayed in their assigned colors, can be visualized at a glance in the course of the discussion. The main stream of the flow is the comments by a future or novice ALT. These are in white colored text which is placed toward the left edge of the discussion forum, so that it can be physically identified as a major role.



Figure 4: The Train of Thought

Other contributions can easily be seen by various colored texts posted by senior teachers. In this way, an amalgamation of knowledge can be viewed and traced as a whole at a glance.

The ultimate stage is marked by the “close this topic” button. When future ALTs need no more answers and want to close the topic, they make a final evaluation on the whole discussion.



Figure 5: Closing Button

4 Data Collection & Research Findings

The data was collected from October 11 to 15 with regard to the evaluation of the initial stage of the system's operation from August 20 to October 10 in 2007. The anonymous questionnaire was conducted on-line to the participants in the Forest Forum both in English and Japanese. The English version was made for both those who are interested in teaching English in Japan and novice ALTs who have just arrived in Japan to teach, as well as the experienced former ALTs. The Japanese version was made for Japanese teachers of English.

4.1 Attitude to the Community and Change in Outlook

There were four responses in the English version: two from future or novice ALTs, and two from former ALTs. Although there were only a very small number of answers, we have gained interesting results about the effects of this system.

Regarding the attitude to the knowledge building community and the effect on the outlook of the participants, the following questionnaire items illustrate the results.

Question 4 : To what extent did you feel a sense of belonging to the community in this forum?

Choices: 1. greatly 2. fairly 3.a little 4.not at all

Question 5 : After joining the Forest Forum, did you think the forum effected a change in your outlook?

Choices: 1.greatly. 2.a little. 3.Undecided.4. Not at all.

Table 1 Questionnaire Results of (4)–(6)

Answer	novice		experienced	
(4)	3	1	2	3
(5)	3	1	3	3
(6)		1		

Both groups showed favorable results with regard to their attitude and the change of their outlook. In Question (6), one of the future ALTs has specified the change by choosing the item: I became more interested in the ALT's job.

With regard to the level of satisfaction concerning interaction on the Forum, the participants all answered the question (10) with 'perfectly' or 'pretty much'.

Question: Were you satisfied with the answers to your question(s)?

1.perfectly 2.pretty much 3.not really 4.not at all

Table 2 Questionnaire Results (10)

Answer	novice	experienced
(10)	2	1

Looking at the awareness by the Japanese teachers, Items 3 illustrates interesting results. This is open-ended questions which are translated into Japanese by the present author.

Item 3: Did you become aware of anything yourself by the answers from others? Please illustrate if any.

Person 3: I realized the difference between Japanese and people from other countries concerning the relation between a teacher and students.

Person 4: I reconsidered my opinion, when I found a different opinion from my own.

Person 5: It was interesting to know other teachers' opinions about each topic. It was also helpful to feel anxiety and feelings of ALTs.

We should assume that the experience of this forum was influential to these teachers. Although the data is limited, this system shows a general tendency of a possible influence to participants.

5 Conclusions and Further Considerations

This paper presented a description of the system design which was constructed for Web-based collaborative environments to help future and novice ALTs with support from experienced Japanese teachers and former ALTs. The data was collected in order to analyze the effectiveness for future and novice ALTs to have better chances to acquire professional knowledge at the initial stage of development. The results indicate that both groups of teachers demonstrated greater gains for their professional development. The findings will encourage the researchers in refining the knowledge building community for future professional development.

We plan to further develop this Forest Forum to support on-line training in the Web-based collaborative environments. In order to make it

successful, evaluation is of critical importance as shown by the quantity of the data we gained to conclude quantitatively. It is our future work to analyze this system with a much more detailed survey to learners' awareness toward collaboration.

Acknowledgements

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Poster presentation

Using Differential Item Functioning to Detect Individual Differences of Japanese EFL Learners

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the applicability of differential item functioning (DIF) in the analysis of the questionnaire data obtained from the research of individual differences (IDs). In this study, we will focus on self-determination theory (SDT). Developed by Ryan & Deci (2000), SDT is now widely applied in the field of IDs, especially in the field of motivation research. SDT hypothesizes the developmental stages of human motivation, starting from “Amotivation“, changing into “External Motivation” and finally transforming to “Intrinsic Motivation”. In order to examine the staged development of Japanese learners’ motivational needs, we translated the SDT questionnaire items developed by Noels et al. (2000) and created a Japanese version. We conducted the questionnaire on 1000 Japanese university students. Our questionnaire consisted of 27 questions: Its 21 items are based on Noels et al.’s scales and the remaining 6 items correspond to Gardner and Lambert’s (1972) instrumental and integrative motivations. The results of factor analysis indicated that the factors extracted in this study fairly matched Ryan & Deci’s classifications of motivations. However, their hypothesis of developmental stages of self-determination was not supported by our research results. DIF analysis showed that individual differences played a role in motivation.

Keywords

Self-determination Theory, Rasch, DIF, Individual Differences

1. Introduction

According to Embretson & Reise (2000), DIF (Differential Item Functioning) is studied to investigate whether or not two or more examining groups have the different relationship to a latent variable or a multidimensional latent vector.

Abbot (2006) employed a DIF procedure

to compare and contrast the reading test performance of Arabic-speaking learners with that of Mandarin-speaking learners. According to her research results, the Mandarin-speaking group performed incredibly well on 4 items which require bottom-up, local strategies (i.e., lexical, scanning, synonym, and matching keywords), while the Arabic-speaking group significantly performed well on 3 items, where one needs to regulate the top-down, global strategies (e.g., skimming, connecting, and inferencing). In order to ensure the fairness of all kinds of tests, it is very important to detect DIF.

In this study, we will examine whether or not the SDT can be applicable to Japanese EFL learners. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), the SDT hypothesizes the developmental stages of human motivation, starting from “Amotivation“, changing into “External Motivation” and finally transforming to “Intrinsic Motivation”. In order to examine Japanese learners’ motivational needs, we translated 21 SDT questionnaire items that were developed by Noels et al. (2000) and we created a Japanese version.

Also, we added 6 items by referring to Gardner and Lambert’s (1972) instrumental and integrative motivations. The former motivation comes from one’s social needs, while the latter is triggered by social relationships. Items were selected through the analyses of factor analysis and the Rasch (1960) model.

2. Motivation and gender

2.1. Motivation scales

A factor analysis extracts the following seven factors, which correspond to Deci and Ryan’s, theoretical classifications, overall.

1. Amotivation
2. External (Instrumental) regulation
3. Introjected regulation
4. Identified & Integrative regulations

5. Intrinsic motivation (knowledge)
6. Intrinsic motivation (accomplishment)
7. Intrinsic motivation (stimulation)

2.2. DIF analysis

In this study, DIF effects are calculated by WINSTEPS (Linacre, 2006), which employs the following formula.

$$t = \frac{d_1 - d_2}{\sqrt{(DIFS.E.1)^2 + (DIFS.E.2)^2}}$$

where

- d_1 : item difficulty for group 1
- d_2 : item difficulty for group 2
- DIFS.E.1: standard error of d_1
- DIFS.E.2: standard error of d_2

with $df=n-2$.

In the case of a DIF analysis, it is crucial to ensure that the ability of the targeted groups should be equal (Pae, 2004). Therefore, we focus on 111 males and 94 females at the same proficiency level.

As a result, DIF is detected among external and instrumental regulations. The male group is significantly motivated by external and instrumental factors ($t(203)=-3.4$, $p<.01$), as in figure 1.

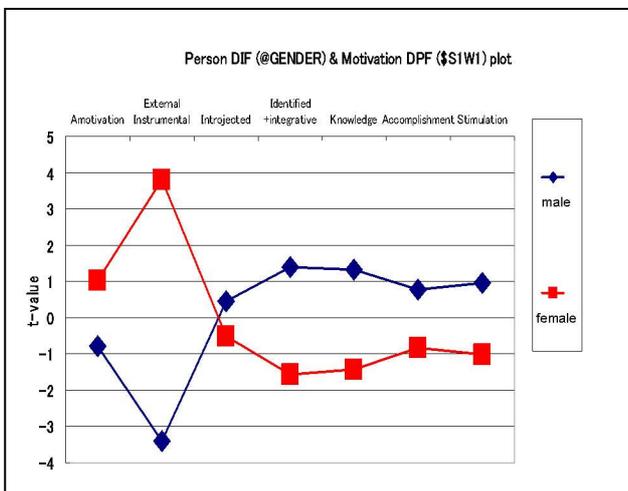


Figure 1: DIF (DTF) for males and females

3. Motivation and academic backgrounds

The results will be presented at the conference.

4. Motivation and anxiety

The results will be presented at the conference

5. Motivation between global strategy users and local strategy users

The results will be presented at the conference.

6. Conclusion

DIF analyses indicate that individual learner characteristics play a role in motivational intensity and directions. In this presentation, we will also discuss how language teachers can deal with the different types of learner's motivations and other characteristic traits.

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Examining predictors of second language speech evaluation

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Abstract

This study examines predictors of subjective evaluation in second language speech. The raters evaluated the recorded speech by Asian learners of English, and the evaluation scores of the speech were calculated based on multi-faceted Rasch model. The learners' speech was analyzed in terms of speech rate, pause control, and rhythmic control. These objective measurements were used as predictor variables in the multi-regression analysis to predict the evaluation score. The results showed the high predictability of the score by the predictor variables among which the index of speech rate was the dominant predictor.

Keywords

Second language, Speech evaluation, Item Response Theory, Multi regression analysis

Introduction

Attempts have been made in the field of speech science to predict subjective evaluation of second language (L2) speech with the objective measurements. In Muto, Sagisaka, Naito, Maeki, Kando, and Shirai (2003), they focused on temporal features as predictors of subjective evaluations. Muto et al. (2003) investigated the relationship between subjective evaluation and objective measurements in terms of rhythmic control in order to establish an automatic evaluation system for L2 speech.

The framework in Muto et al. (2003) was extended in Kondo, Tsutsui, Nakano, Nakamura, Tsubaki, and Sagisaka (2007). This study examined predictors of L2 speech evaluation in view of language learning. While multi-regression analysis was adopted, which is the same method as in Muto

et al. (ibid.) in order to investigate the predictability of subjective evaluation by objective measurements, in Kondo et al. (2007), there were four differences from Muto et al. (ibid.): (1) evaluation scores were analyzed based on multi-faceted Rasch model; (2) multiple evaluation items were used to evaluate learners' speech while in Muto et al. (ibid.) a single evaluation item was used to evaluate learners' rhythmic features; (3) the objective measurements were selected from the previous studies in the field of language learning; (4) a passage was used as reading material, while in Muto et al. (ibid.) relatively short sentences were used.

The results of Kondo et al. (2007) indicated that the index of learners' speech rate is the dominant predictor of the subjective evaluation, and the second influential predictor is the index of rhythm. In this study the high predictability (adjusted $R^2=.74$) was obtained compared with that of Muto et al. (2003). These results are attributed to the three facts: (1) the raters evaluated several aspects of learners' speech using multiple evaluation items; (2) the evaluation scores were analyzed based on multi-faceted Rasch model and were converted to interval scale; (3) a short passage was used as reading material, which might have let the raters catch learners' speech characteristics more easily than through short sentences.

Although the previous study obtained the high coefficient of determination in their analysis, no speculation has taken place upon learners pause control. The present study, based on the results of Kondo et al (2007), investigates the influence of learners pause control on L2 speech evaluation as well as speech rate and rhythmic control.

1 Method

1.1 Participants

Participants were thirty-three undergraduate or graduate students in Asia whose first language backgrounds were Chinese, Tagalog, Korean, Malay, Thai, and Japanese. The participants' backgrounds are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: The participants' background

	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	Range
Age (year)	23.0	3.6	11
Study of English (year)	12.0	4.1	16

1.2 Recording procedure and material

The participants came to a room for recording individually, gave their self-introduction, and received the instruction for reading material. Then they read the reading material, and digitally recorded using Roland R-09 and a condenser microphone, SONY ECM-MS957. It took around fifteen minutes for each participant to complete this procedure.

The reading material that the participants read was a phonetically balanced passage, "The North Wind and the Sun" (Appendix A), which is so famous that the students at university level must know it. This passage is also used in the NIE corpus (Deterding and Ling, 2005), and is used in the phonetic description of the International Phonetic Association.

1.3 Speech evaluation

1.3.1 Raters and rating procedure

Raters consisted of six Japanese teachers of English whose academic backgrounds were Applied Linguistics or its related area. They attended the rater training where they discussed the criteria of Common European Framework of References (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) and grasped the characteristics of learners of six levels by seeing the video (North and Hughes, 2003).

After the workshop the raters evaluated the recorded speech individually on the website. They used eleven evaluation items to which 6-point Likert scale was adopted according to CEFR: (1) Voice volume, (2) Voice pitch, (3) Speech rate, (4) Vowel quality, (5) Consonant quality, (6) Deletion, (7) Epenthesis, (8) Rhythm, (9) Intonation, (10) Position of pause, and (11) Frequency of pause.

1.3.2 Common European Framework of References

CEFR is a widely used guideline on learning, teaching, and assessing L2 and describes six levels of learners with descriptors. In reception,

production, and interaction in the modes, both spoken and written modes, namely six categories, the descriptors give Can-do statements to the learners' activities. In addition to the descriptors in global scales, such as spoken interaction, and written production, CEFR presents the descriptors in local scales such as phonological control and grammatical accuracy.

North and Hughes (2003) provides samples of learners as benchmarks in order to assure that rating procedures reflect the construct of CEFR. It is, moreover, possible to compare our learners with others if our rating procedures are implemented in relation to CEFR, which is one of the aims of CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001: 21).

1.3.3 Multi faceted Rasch model

The learners' scores were estimated based on multi faceted Rasch model, which is an extension of Rasch model. The analysis was done with software, FACETS (Linacre, 2006). In this model, item properties and trait level can be separately estimated. The model is depicted in the equation below:

$$\log(P_{nmijk}/P_{nmijk-1})=B_n - A_m - D_i - C_j - F_k$$

where

B_n = ability of examinee n

A_m = difficulty of task m

D_i = difficulty of skill item i

C_j = severity of judge j

F_k = difficulty of category k relative to category $k - 1$

P_{nmijk} = probability of rating of k under these circumstances

$P_{nmijk-1}$ = probability of rating of $k - 1$

To establish inter-and intra-rater reliability, and to scrutinize items, the scores of the misfit of raters and items were adopted. The score of the misfit is an index of the difference between observed scores and expected scores (McNamara, 1996: 169-176).

1.4 Objective measurements

The learners' speech was orthographically transcribed and automatically segmented by an automatic speech recognizer (Hidden Markov Model Toolkit) using the Viterbi algorithm.

The target features of learners' speech in this study are speech rate, rhythm, and pause control. They are operationalized as follows:

Index of speech rate:

$$S = (T - E) / TD$$

S is the index of speech rate, T is the total number of syllable a learner uttered, E is the total number of syllable unneeded (e.g. repetitions, fillers, and false starts), and TD is the total time duration. This measure is called pruned syllables per second, which provides a useful index about learners' fluency (Derwing, Rossiter, Munro, and Thomson, 2004).

Index of rhythm:

$$R = A / U$$

R is the index of rhythm, namely the ratio of unstressed to stressed syllables, A is the average time duration of accented syllables, and U is the average time duration of unaccented syllable. The average ratios of English native speakers are closer to .5 or .4 (Derwing, Rossiter, Munro, and Thomson, 2004).

To operationalize learners' pause control, pauses are divided into three categories: sentential pause, phrasal pause, and within-phrasal pause. The number of pause is counted in each category. The examples are provided in Table 2. As Osada (2003) pointed out, it is a controversial issue to define silent pause. In this study we define silent pause as silence over 100ms according to Kondo et al. (2007).

Table 2: Examples of pause categories

Category	Example
Sentential pause	...when a traveler came along wrapped in a warm cloak. <P> They agreed that the... They agreed <P> that the one who succeeded in making...
Phrasal pause	And at last <P> the North Wind gave up the attempt. ...the North Wind was obliged to confess that <P> the Sun was the stronger of the two.
Within-phrasal pause	The <P> North Wind and the Sun were disputing... ...the Sun shone out <P> warmly and immediately the traveler...

Note: <P> stands for silent pause.

1.5 Multi-Regression Analysis

Multi regression analysis was adopted to investigate the predictability of the evaluation score by the objective measurements: the criterion variable is the evaluation score, and the predictor variables, the indices of speech rate, rhythm, and pause control. Stepwise procedure is adopted, and variables whose significance level of partial correlation coefficient is lower than .05 were deleted.

2 Results and discussion

2.1 Correlation between evaluation score and objective measurements

The participants were divided into three groups according to their evaluation scores: high, mid, and low level. Figure 1 shows the differences of the average number of pause in each pause category in each group. In sentential pause, there was no difference among three groups, but in phrasal pause and within-phrasal pause, the learners in higher level tended to make fewer pauses than those in lower level.

This tendency was also found in the index of speech rate, and rhythm though in varying degrees. The correlation coefficients between these indices and the evaluation score are showed in Table 3.

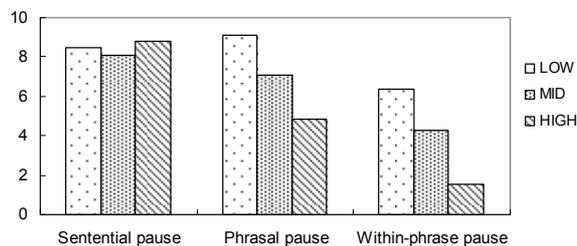


Figure 1. The Differences of Pause Control

Table 3: Correlations between score and measures

	ES	SR	RH	SP	PP	WP
ES	1	.83	-.60	-.15	-.64	-.53
SR		1	-.45	-.34	-.75	-.54
RH			1	-.15	.44	.49
SP				1	-.32	.19
PP					1	.67
WP						1

Note: ES, SR, RH, SP, PP, and WP stand for evaluation score, index of speech rate, and rhythm, average number of sentential pause, phrasal pause, and within-phrasal pause respectively.

As Table 3 indicates, the dominant predictor was the index of speech rate, and the second was the average number of phrasal pause, but high correlation was found between the index of speech rate and the average number of phrasal pause. There is no way of telling the second and later predictors in this correlation table.

On the whole, the speech rate obtained relatively high correlation with other predictors, but the correlation of the sentential pause with other predictors was relatively low. The other predictors were moderately correlated with each other. These results indicated that all the predictor variables at issue, except the average number of sentential pause, could be considered components of one construct.

2.2 Predictability of evaluation score by objective measurement

Two predictor variables were found to be statistically significant; the index of speech rate, rhythm. The significance of the model was verified ($F_{(2, 32)} = 44.80, p < .01$). The model indicates that the evaluation scores can be predicted by the two variables to large extent (adjusted $R^2 = .73$). The equation below was obtained:

$$\hat{Y} = 1.35a_1 - 5.88a_2 - 1.29$$

where

a_1 is the index of speech rate

a_2 is the index of rhythm

This result means that among all the variables, these two indices independently predict the evaluation scores. The average number of phrasal pause had a higher correlation with the evaluation score than the index of rhythm, but the correlation of the phrasal pause with the index of speech rate is so high that only a small portion of the score might be able to be predicted by the phrasal pause.

3 Conclusion

This study investigated the predictability of the evaluation scores in L2 oral reading by the objective measurements related to suprasegmental features: speech rate, rhythmic and pause control. It revealed that pause insertion is one of the clues by which the raters evaluate the learners' speech. However, the index of the speech rate used in this study is partially influenced by pause duration and number, so that the index of pause control could not be a significant predictor.

In order to obtain higher predictability of subjective evaluation by objective measurements, we need to investigate the relationships between the evaluation scores and other features of learners' speech, such as intonational and segmental features. Considering the coefficient of determination, however, we can conclude that these features are relatively less influential on L2 speech evaluation.

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Appendix A: Reading Material

The North Wind and the Sun were disputing which was the stronger when a traveler came along wrapped in a warm cloak. They agreed that the one who first succeeded in making the traveler take his cloak off should be considered stronger than the other.

Then the North Wind blew as hard as he could, but the more he blew the more closely did the traveler fold his cloak around him; and at last the North Wind gave up the attempt.

Then the Sun shone out warmly, and immediately the traveler took off his cloak. And so the North Wind was obliged to confess that the Sun was the stronger of the two.

Development of Grammar (Expectancy) Strategies: Expecting the Following Sentence Constituent

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Abstract

The current study (1) examines, through a survey, whether any relationships or tendencies can be found between learners' ability to expect the constituent that is likely to follow a certain word or structure, their use of learning strategies, and their proficiency level and (2) invites a discussion on the significance of developing strategy items or inventory concerning grammar. The survey is conducted of Japanese learners of English, whose proficiency level seemingly varies from intermediate to low-level, and the data gained are statistically analyzed to show features on learners' strategy use and scores in grammar and proficiency tests. The analysis provides the discussion on developing strategy items and instructing those strategies to foster learners' ability to expect the following constituent, especially for low-level learners.

Keywords

learning strategy, grammar, expectancy, constituent

Introduction

Language learning strategies are ones that help learners learn a (second or foreign) language effectively. It has been argued that learning strategies are helpful to improve learners' autonomy, that the use of appropriate strategies for the tasks or situations at hand is necessary, and that strategy instruction or training, explicit or implicit, is effective in bringing learners to higher achievement. As Wenden (1991) argues, more proficient learners show higher level of autonomous learning. This means that learners with higher proficiency can more or less manage or responsible for their own learning process, which can lead them to even higher proficiency. Thus, lower-level learners can improve their proficiency by learning to use appropriate strategies through instruction or training, and this leads to raising their consciousness of their own learning. What matters here is what (kinds of) strategies are helpful and appropriate for learners at different proficiency levels.

1 Background of the study

Various studies have proposed and developed strategy items and inventories concerning overall learning behavior, each language skill (reading, writing, listening, and speaking), and vocabulary learning, but not concerning grammar, though it is often recognized as an essential language component as well as vocabulary.

It seems, from the author's experience, that apparently low-level learners do not necessarily use less strategies than relatively more proficient learners. They often appear to (try to) use strategies like "paying attention to keywords in the text" and "making use of their own background or previous knowledge" when, for example, reading a text, only to fail to understand what is written in the text. Such learners are not likely to be successful in using appropriate strategies. One of the possible problems many of them face appears to be their lack of ability to understand basic syntactic structure at the single-sentence level, and to expect (or guess) what constituent is likely to follow a certain word or phrase (e.g. a transitive verb is usually followed by an object (or an equivalent), and a preposition by a noun (phrase)). This aspect of expectancy is not included in the strategy items proposed so far, some of which mention grammar but often within the framework of overall learning or each language skill. Thus, the current study aims to explore whether grammar expectation can be one of the predictors of learners' proficiency, and how or to what extent learners' ability of grammar expectancy (and proficiency), and their strategy use are related to each other.

In the survey, the focus of the grammatical structures to be investigated is limited only to basic sentence structure. In many Japanese classroom settings, students traditionally learn that in principle English sentences can be categorized into five types: (1) S+V, (2) S+V+C, (3) S+V+O, (4) S+V+O+O, and (5) S+V+O+C (S, V, C, and O stand for subject, verb, complement, and object, respectively). Most learners often grasp the

meaning of sentences and teachers often give explanations based on this categorization, and thus the concept of sentence patterns can be familiar to learners in general. The reasons for choosing sentence pattern as the target for the survey are that (1) the sentence pattern(s) of a sentence depend(s) on the verb and thus the possible pattern(s) a sentence is likely to take can be inferred when recognizing a set of S+V; (2) understanding the meaning of a sentence requires a full knowledge of sentence patterns (making mistakes in identifying the pattern disturbs understanding the meaning); and (3) from the author's experience, those who are seemingly low-level learners more frequently appear to feel difficulty in accurate understanding of each sentence, and therefore of the message of the whole text as well.

2 Survey

2.1 Hypotheses

The hypotheses to be examined in the current study are:

- (1) No significant correlation can be found between learners' proficiency and their strategy use. (More proficient learners do not necessarily use more strategies or more often.)
- (2) More proficient learners show higher correct expectancy on sentence patterns.
- (3) Learners showing higher correct expectancy on sentence patterns are more conscious of what pattern(s) a sentence may take, and attach more importance to what constituent(s) will follow a certain word or phrase.

2.2 Participants

Participants are university students, most of whom are Japanese freshmen, with a few students from China included. For the Chinese students, English is one of the foreign languages (they have learned Japanese and attend classes conducted exclusively in Japanese). The participants can roughly be said to vary from intermediate to low levels.

2.3 Components of the survey

The participants took (1) TOEIC Bridge(R)-type test (exactly the half volume of the original TOEIC Bridge(R)) to measure overall proficiency, (2) grammar expectancy test to measure the accuracy of understanding sentence patterns, and (3) strategy use questionnaire to elicit the daily use of learning strategies. The strategy items in the questionnaire are selected from the strategy inventory developed by Purpura (1999) and its Japanese translation (available in Maeda (2001)), considering the learning situations where Japanese learners are in general. In the questionnaire was added a few items

concerning (the extent of) learners' consciousness of and their belief on sentence patterns and grammar expectancy.

3 Analysis and discussion

The data are statistically analyzed to show relationships between proficiency, grammar expectancy, and strategy use. The general tendencies are explored according to learners' proficiency level. The results gained from the analysis are carefully examined to evaluate the effectiveness of grammar expectancy. Learners, especially low-level learners, are recommended to make themselves conscious of sentence patterns, in other words sentence constituents and how they are arranged to form the meaning. Further research is required as to identifying concrete strategies to enhance learners' grammar expectancy, and the effectiveness of instructing those strategies.

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Study on Students' Attitude Towards World Englishes and Non-native English Teachers

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Abstract

The objectives of this paper are first to investigate how students perceive the relatively new concept "World Englishes" and second to find out whether they prefer native English teachers or non-native local English teachers. A new paradigm of teaching and using English as a world language has been suggested and studied by some researchers in recent years. Local varieties of English have been studied and some are even recognized as a standard variety of local English. Many Korean students still consider British English or American English the only Standard English for them to admire and to master. This paper examines how Korean students perceive Standard English and native/non-native English teachers in relation to the notion of World Englishes by conducting a questionnaire survey on two different groups. One group consists of students of a 2-year college who have never taken a course on world Englishes, thus are not familiar with the new concept. The other consists of students of a 4-year university who have taken a course on world Englishes. The former group shows a strong preference towards British English or American English while the other group shows a relatively less preference towards the so-called Standard English. However, in terms of their preference toward teachers, the result is reversed.

Keywords

World Englishes, Standard English, localized Englishes, native English teachers, non-native English teachers

Introduction

In this world of free trade and globalization, it is more likely that Korean people use English with non-native speakers of English rather than native speakers. It is imperative and beneficial for us to recognize the existence of local varieties of English and to become more aware of the characteristics of localized Englishes instead of worshipping Standard English. When educating students, we have to teach standard norms and rules of English

grammar and core vocabulary. But at the same time, it is vital for us to understand various varieties of English practiced around the world and to study characteristics of Korea English as well.

The concept of world Englishes needs to be discussed and made known not only to English teachers and researchers but also more importantly to students to help them set free from the bondage of Standard English. This paper examines what some Korean college students think of world Englishes and teaching of English by non-native local teachers and native teachers of English.

1 Theoretical background

1.1 Standard English

Jenkins (2003) states that Standard English "is purely a social dialect" (p. 32) that is being promoted through an education system. Various definitions on Standard English have been given by many researchers but none of them are concrete or finalized. But one thing common in some definitions is that it involves educated usage and educated people. Park and Nakano (2007) argue that Standard English is a dialect of those in power. Kahane (1992) argues that American English was only a colonial substandard in 1780. Australian English was labeled non-standard or substandard until 1970s.

The notion of Standard English is only a myth. It is not a tangible entity we can reach or grasp. Park and Nakano (2007) and other researchers (Jenkins, 2003; Jin, 2005; Kirkpatrick & Zhichang, 2002; Xiaoqiong, 2004) suggest that, instead of being obsessed with British English or American English and native teachers, it is wiser and more realistic to pursue a standard or to be more specific a localized standard.

1.2 Localized Englishes

There are, however, some difficulties in codifying local varieties of English. Deciding what criteria have to be considered is another obstacle in the process of codification. Butler (1997) suggests five criteria that have to be met in order for one variety

to be considered a standard. A variety of English should be judged upon whether it has a systematic pattern of pronunciation, a set of localized vocabulary, history, literary creativity, and reference works. However, as Choi's (2007) study on East Asia Englishes suggests, there are few languages that satisfy all the criteria. Bolton (2000) in his study of Hong Kong English also suggests that whether the five criteria are persuasive or powerful is not important. The important thing, according to him, is to create a space in which Hong Kong English can be discussed. Jenkins (2003) suggests a different view that there lies a difficulty in the fact that a codified Asian English needs to satisfy those who use it for communication intranationally while it also has to satisfy those from outside world especially from native speaking countries internationally. Besides, it also has to satisfy those non-native speakers who use it for international communication purposes with non-native speakers from other countries.

1.3 NS English teachers vs. NNS English teachers

As English is being used as an international language or a global language, the distinction between native and non-native is meaningless and blur. The term native/non-native causes some negative impacts on teachers whose English proficiency is high. Some problems lie in the assumption that native teachers are automatically capable of teaching English as a foreign language even though they have never learned or taught English as a foreign or second language.

Phillipson (1992) suggests that *educated local teacher* is an ideal English teacher. Seidlhofer (1999) even suggests that non-native speaker teachers can take advantage of their status as non-native speakers for they can develop their assets for the benefit of their students. Korean teachers should have more confidence in teaching English while they have to keep trying to improve their general English ability. Well trained non-native teachers can teach a foreign language better than native teachers of the target language.

2. Research methods

2.1 Subjects

The total number of participants is 159. 118 students were sophomores in a 2 year-college in Seoul in 2006. Their major was tourism and had never taken a course on world Englishes or related areas. Even though they did not formally study world Englishes, some of them heard about it from their teacher who is the researcher of this paper. The group of these 118 women students is labeled "H Group." All the students in this group are Korean

from Korea. On the other hand, 41 students went to a 4 year university in Seoul. They took the course entitled "World Englishes and Miscommunication" in the spring semester in 2007. The course was taught by the same researcher. This group of 41 students is labeled "K Group." Three students in K Group were Malaysian, one was Chinese, one was Uzbekistan, one was Taiwanese, and one was Korean American who was born and raised in the United States. The rest 34 students were from Korea but most of them had lived abroad except a few.

2.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire (see Appendix) conducted on both H Group and K Group includes four sections in each of which contains 5 questions. In the first section, the questions concerning American English and British English as Standard English and ownership of English are being asked. The second section deals with issues of world Englishes and recognition of localized Englishes especially Korea English. The third section focuses on what students think of the so-called native teachers while the fourth section asks questions in relation to non-native Korean teachers.

2.3 Research Questions

- 1) The students who have taken the course on world Englishes get rid of the myth of Standard English and have better and positive attitudes towards World Englishes.
- 2) The students who have taken the course prefer non-native local English teachers.

2.4 Analysis and discussion

As Table 1 and Table 2 show, the two groups show a significant difference in Section 1. More they were educated and informed of world Englishes they are less obsessed with the notion of Standard English. This result coincides with that of Jin's study (2005). In the second section, the five statements are concerned with World Englishes and Korea English. The second section was especially designed to find out what the students think of Korea English. Overall, the two groups do not show a significant difference between them in Section 2, meaning that they both are not yet ready to accept the existence of Korea English. The change in the attitudes of K Group students towards Standard English did not affect their attitudes towards Korea English. A similar result was suggested by Jin (2005).

The third section focuses on preference of native English teachers while the fourth concerns non-native English teachers. While the third section shows no significant mean difference between the

two groups, the fourth indicates a very big difference between them. As Table 2 indicates, the two groups show a big difference in Section 4.

Table 1: Mean comparison of each question between H Group and K Group

Sct	Q	Schl	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	1	H	118	4.47	.676	0.000
		K	41	3.85	.910	($p < 0.01$)
2	H	H	118	3.41	1.235	0.002
		K	41	2.71	1.188	($p < 0.01$)
3	H	H	118	2.36	1.051	0.897
		K	41	2.39	1.115	($p > 0.05$)
4	H	H	117	3.47	1.126	0.001
		K	41	2.73	1.361	($p < 0.01$)
5	H	H	117	2.68	1.113	0.013
		K	41	2.20	1.005	($p < 0.05$)
2	6	H	117	3.56	1.322	0.180
		K	41	3.90	1.393	($p > 0.05$)
7	H	H	118	3.55	1.083	0.000
		K	41	2.83	1.070	($p < 0.01$)
8	H	H	116	3.44	1.057	0.614
		K	41	3.54	1.051	($p > 0.05$)
9	H	H	118	1.94	.909	0.004
		K	41	2.46	1.185	($p < 0.01$)
10	H	H	118	2.75	1.403	0.206
		K	41	3.05	1.024	($p > 0.05$)
3	11	H	118	2.10	.946	0.000
		K	41	2.22	1.255	($p < 0.01$)
12	H	H	118	3.42	1.016	0.676
		K	41	3.34	1.257	($p > 0.05$)
13	H	H	116	2.97	.903	0.957
		K	41	2.98	1.332	($p > 0.05$)
14	H	H	118	3.19	1.101	0.876
		K	41	3.22	1.333	($p > 0.05$)
15	H	H	118	3.20	.975	0.409
		K	41	3.37	1.113	($p > 0.05$)
4	16	H	118	3.51	.885	0.000
		K	41	2.78	1.061	($p < 0.01$)
17	H	H	118	3.64	.929	0.007
		K	41	3.15	1.014	($p < 0.01$)
18	H	H	118	3.71	.848	0.014
		K	41	3.29	1.146	($p < 0.05$)
19	H	H	118	3.50	.922	0.345
		K	41	3.32	1.105	($p > 0.05$)
20	H	H	117	3.15	.887	0.003
		K	41	2.63	1.067	($p < 0.01$)

Note: Cronbach's Alpha = 0.99

Table 2: Mean comparison of each section between H Group and K Group

Section	Schl	No.	Mean	Std.Deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	H	588	3.28	1.284	0.000
	K	205	2.78	1.256	($p < 0.01$)
2	H	587	3.05	1.326	0.286
	K	205	3.16	1.250	($p > 0.05$)
3	H	588	2.98	1.090	0.502
	K	205	3.04	1.320	($p > 0.05$)
4	H	589	3.50	.907	0.000
	K	205	3.03	1.104	($p < 0.01$)

3. Conclusion

The result of this study informs that the students who took a course on world Englishes have become less obsessed with American English or British English as Standard English and come to understand the existence of local varieties of English used and

developed around the world. However, they have not yet agreed with the notion of Korea English. Their preference for non-native local teachers is not greater than that of the other group students who have never taken a course on world Englishes. Thus, the first hypothesis has proven to be correct while the second one has not. The reason that these university students do not yet support for Korea English can be attributed to the fact that main characteristics of Korea English have not yet been defined and agreed upon by many researchers in the academic fields concerned.

On the other hand, while H Group students strongly support for the statement that American English or British English is Standard English and American people or British people have the right to decide how English should be, they do show stronger preference for non-native English teachers. The students in H Group who were generally less confident of their English ability may feel less stressful with Korean teachers of English. They are usually nervous to produce anything that is not "good" and "normative" and to misunderstand what native speaker teachers say. Lower level students may feel more comfortable with Korean teachers of English who can better understand their mistakes and difficulties. However, for lower level students, education on world Englishes is still necessary since they are the ones who are usually too shy to communicate in English with foreigners because of their "incorrect" pronunciation and grammar. Their variety of English may be on the basilectal level or the mesolectal level. They can move up to the acrolectal level only by learning and using the language in any given situation.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

Section A

1. Standard English is British English or American English.

1 2 3 4 5

2. English belongs to the UK or the USA.

1 2 3 4 5

3. It is British or American English speakers who have right to decide how English should be.

1 2 3 4 5

4. I am ashamed of my Korean (local) accent and try to get rid of it when I speak English.

1 2 3 4 5

5. If English is used differently from British or American English, it must be wrong.

1 2 3 4 5

Section B

6. I have heard of World Englishes.

1 2 3 4 5

7. Korea English (My local variety of English)

should be recognized and stand alongside British or American English.

1 2 3 4 5

8. More lectures should be given on World Englishes and Korea English.

1 2 3 4 5

9. I am proud of my Korean (local) accent when I speak English.

1 2 3 4 5

10. Korea English (My local variety of English) is used differently from British or American English. It should be learned by foreigners, especially the native speakers of English who want to communicate with Korean (my local) people in English.

1 2 3 4 5

Section C

11. I do not want a Korean (Malaysian, Chinese, etc.) teacher to teach me English.

1 2 3 4 5

12. I want a native English speaker teacher to teach me English since his/her English is Standard English.

1 2 3 4 5

13. Native speaker teachers provide more reliable linguistic knowledge.

1 2 3 4 5

14. Native speaker teachers correct me better when I make mistakes.

1 2 3 4 5

15. Eventually, I will speak native like English if I study with a native speaker teacher.

1 2 3 4 5

Section D

16. I learn more with Korean (Malaysian, Chinese, etc.) teachers of English since they explain grammar better than native speaker teachers.

1 2 3 4 5

17. I learn more with Korean (Malaysian, Chinese, etc.) teachers of English since they can sometimes explain in the Korean (my) language and that helps me understand English better.

1 2 3 4 5

18. Korean (Malaysian, Chinese, etc.) teachers help me better with difficulties in learning English since they have experienced similar difficulties.

1 2 3 4 5

19. Korean (Malaysian, Chinese, etc.) teachers of English set a good example of successful English learners. That motivates me to study hard.

1 2 3 4 5

20. I want to have a Korean (Malaysian, Chinese, etc.) teacher as my English teacher since his/her English is more realistic for me to achieve as a learning target.

1 2 3 4 5

Developing CEFR-based Can-do Descriptors to Assess Practical Communication Skills of Japanese Learners of English

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to develop can-do descriptors to assess Japanese EFL learners' practical communication skills. The can-do descriptors in this study are based on Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which is one of the most well-known guidelines for language teaching, language learning, and language assessment. We created a bilingual self-checklist for participants enrolling in an English conversation course, Tutorial English, developed by Nakano (2006). The questionnaire items for the checklist include 99 CEFR statements concerning spoken production, spoken interaction, language strategy, and language quality. 2619 Japanese university students self-assessed their own practical communication skills by using the checklist, and their tutors who are native or near-native speakers of English evaluated 982 learners with the same checklist. Thus, we compare and contrast the results of learners' self-assessment and those of tutors' assessment. The data is analyzed by using the two-parameter logistic model (2PLM) of Item Response Theory (IRT). The IRT analysis will shed a light on the developmental process of practical communication skills and self-regulation capacities. We will also discuss how our research findings can be applied in practical language teaching contexts in Japan.

Keywords

Common European Framework of References,
Item Response Theory,
Communication strategies,
Communicative Competence

1. Introduction

The Common European Framework (CEF) is one of the most well-known guidelines for language

teaching, language learning, and language assessment. The CEFR has been developed by the Council of Europe (2001) and it has been world-widely used by educators and language practitioners for several decades. Nakano (2006) developed textbooks for Tutorial English courses in Waseda University with reference to the CEFR and she adjusted the levels of textbooks in terms of language quality as well as conversational tasks and activities. In Kondo et al. (2007), ESL learners' speech performance skills were rated by Japanese language teachers. During the rater training, all the raters referred to the CEF criteria. Thus, CEF has been usefully applied in language teaching and assessment in Japan.

This study examines whether or not the CEF-based can-do descriptors are applicable to practical language teaching and testing contexts in Japan. We created a bilingual self-checklist for participants enrolling in Tutorial English. The questionnaire items for the checklist include 99 CEF statements concerning spoken production, spoken interaction, language strategy, and language quality. By using the self-checklist, 2619 Japanese university students reported their own practical communication skills, and 982 students of them were assessed by their tutors who are native or near-native speakers of English. Thus, the results of learners' self-assessment are compared with those of teacher's assessment. The data is analyzed by using the 2PLM of IRT. The following results will be reported: (1) Whether or not the sequence of CEF levels corresponds to the sequence of Japanese learners' task difficulties, (2) whether or not the 4 subtests (i.e., spoken production, spoken interaction, language strategy, and language quality) are correlated, (3) Whether or not teachers' assessment and learners' self-assessment are consistent, (4) Whether or not their theta estimates correlate with

the proficiency test scores. We will also discuss how our research findings can be applied in practical language teaching contexts in Japan.

2. Tutorial English

Tutorial English is an English conversation course, developed in Waseda University (Nakano, 2006). It provides a wide range of oral communication activities through small group classes with a maximum of four students. This course focuses on the language use and encourages students to actively engage in performing tasks and participating in role-plays and academic discussions by using new expressions and communication strategies that they have learned. According to the results of WeTEC, Web-based Test for English Communication, the course is divided into six levels: Beginner, Basic, Pre-intermediate, Intermediate, Pre-advanced, and Advanced. The task difficulties in the textbooks are carefully adjusted with special reference to the six levels of CEFR.

3. CEFR

As shown in Figure 1, CEFR defines second language (L2) proficiency in three broad bands (A: Basic User, B:Independent User, C:Proficient User, in ascending order), each of which is subdivided to yield six levels (A1, A2; B1, B2; C1, C2) (Council of Europe, 2001: 24).

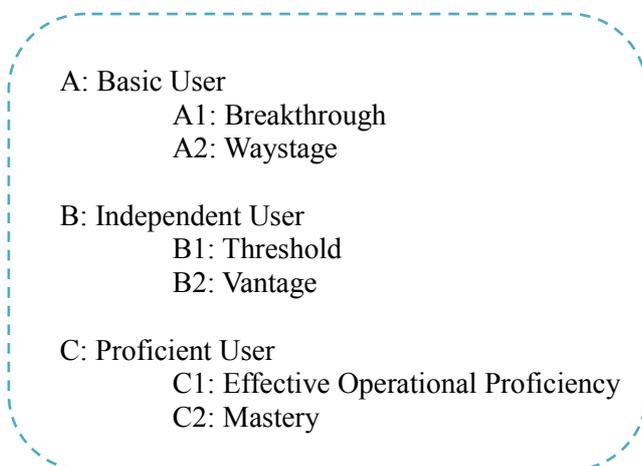


Figure 1. CEFR levels

Thus, can-do descriptors describe what sort of functions a learner at each level can perform in a particular context. As an example, global descriptors that represent the learner at each CEFR level are given in table 1.

Some empirical studies on the descriptors have already been done. North & Schneider (1998) conducted questionnaire-based surveys in EU and analyzed the items by using the Rasch rating scale

model. As a result, the descriptors proved to be stable even in a different context.

Table 1: Examples of can-do descriptors (global)
(Adapted from Council of Europe, 2003)

Level	Description
A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type.
A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment).
B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.
B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation.
C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning.
C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read.

4. Self-Checklist

In order to create this self-checklist sheet, 99 items were selected from CEFR descriptors. The 99 items consist of 39 items of spoken interaction(SI), 25 items of spoken production(SP), 15 items of language strategies(LS) and 20 items of language quality(LQ) descriptors. Because the students are all Japanese, and almost all of the language teachers are non-Japanese, we created a bilingual self-checklist sheet.

It would be tiresome and scarcely beneficial for students as well as tutors to answer all the 99 items. Thus, 4 different self-checklists were produced because of the time restrictions of the course. As shown in figure 2, A1, A2 and B1 CEFR-descriptors were prepared for the beginner and basic levels of students in the Tutorial English

course, A2, B1, B2 for the pre-intermediate level B1, B2, C1 for the intermediate, and B2, C1, and C2 for the pre-advanced and advanced levels. By doing this, we experienced at least one-third reduction in the number of items in each checklist.

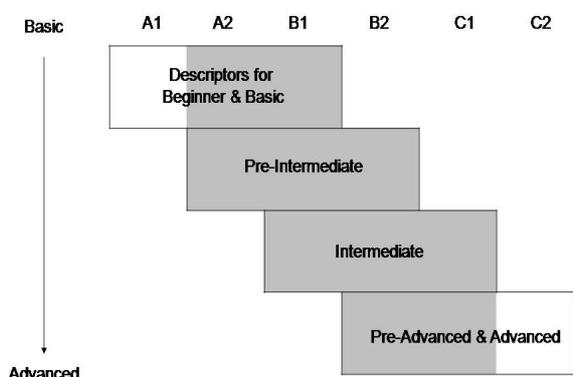


Figure 2: Four different types of descriptors

As shown in figure 3, the role of this self-checklist is schematized with minor revisions of an ideal flowchart of the curriculum development proposed in Brown (1995).

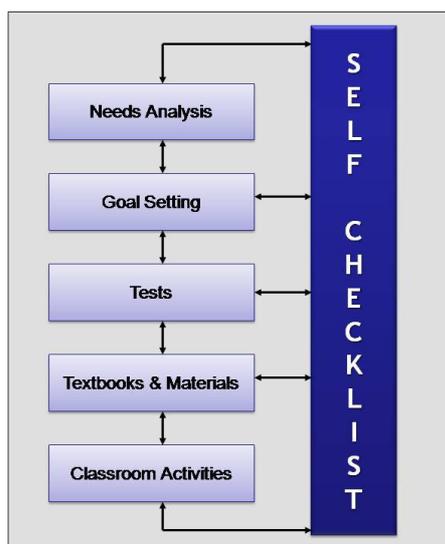


Figure 3: Role of Self-checklist: (adapted from Brown, 1995)

The purpose of the self-checklist is five-fold: (1) To identify Japanese EFL learners' needs and weakness of communication skills, (2) to adjust learning and teaching objectives of the course, (3) to review the tests, (4) to reconsider the task difficulties of textbooks and activities in the course, and (5) to give a feedback to the tutors according to the research results. Along with the review of the Tutorial English course, we try to improve the quality of our scaling descriptors.

5. Participants and Methods

On the final day of the course, 2619 students assessed their own communication skills by using

the self-checklist in this study. While students were working on their self-assessment, tutors assessed 982 students in terms of their communication skills by using the same checklist. They failed to assess all students because of the time restrictions.

Table 2: Participants

	The number of students participating in self-assessment	The number of students assessed by tutors
Beginner	32	13
Basic	417	153
Pre-Intermediate	591	225
Intermediate	601	229
Pre-Advanced	704	266
Advanced	274	96
Total	2619	982

Each descriptor of the self-checklist is assessed by a 4-category rating scale: (1) can't do it at all, (2) can't do it very well, (3) can do it to a certain degree, and (4) can almost do it perfectly, from the left to the right. Yashima (2004) points out that Japanese people tend to choose an option in the middle and avoid choosing its extreme end. Therefore, 4-point scales are employed in this survey, although the four options are finally reduced to binary formats in the IRT analysis: (0) can't and (1) can.

6. Self-Checklist

After reducing the four-category scales into two, we conducted the 2PLM estimation by using BILOG-MG 3.0. Students' self-reported data and tutors' assessment data are analyzed separately. Thus, item difficulties (β), item discriminations (α) and students' trait levels (θ) were calculated.

As a result, item difficulties of learners' self-assessment are correlated fairly well with those of tutors' assessments. [$r=.85, .97, .90, .83$ (SI, SP, LS, LQ, respectively)] However, the trait levels obtained self-assessment and those of tutor's evaluations are not correlated very well. [$r=.28, .19, .20, .18$ (SI, SP, LS, LQ, respectively)] On the one hand, students and tutors have a shared consensus on what sort of communication skills or functions are difficult/easy to students (i.e., perceived item difficulties). On the other hand, learners' self-reported capacity-levels are not in consistency with the trait levels assessed by tutors. In general, tutors are more lenient about students' skills and capacities, while students tend to severely assess their own skills and capacities. In addition, tutors' item discriminations are higher. Seemingly, tutors' assessment is more valid than self-assessment; however, in terms of the correlations with WeTEC scores, there is hardly any difference between

self-assessment and tutors' evaluation, as exemplified in table 3.

Table 3: Correlation Coefficients
(WeTEC Scores * trait levels)

	Self-Assessment	Tutor-Assessment
Spoken Interaction	.334	.319
Spoken Production	.326	.366
Language Strategies	.394	.357
Language Quality	.208	.312

Figures 4 and 5 indicate the characteristic curves of the descriptors at each level (from A1 to C2). Overall, the IRT results correspond to CEFR levels. Thus, the CEFR-based can-do descriptors are applicable in assessing Japanese EFL learners' communication skills, after some minor revisions.

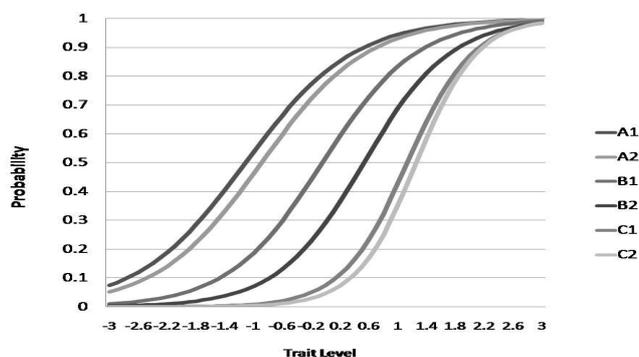


Figure 4: Characteristic Curves of overall items
(Students' self-evaluations)

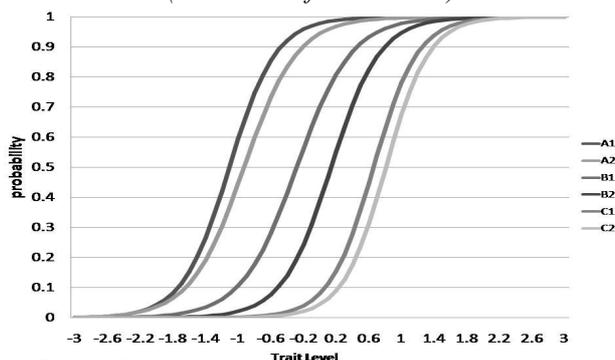


Figure 5: Characteristic Curves of overall items
(Tutors' evaluations)

7. Discussion

Overall, as stated before, there are hardly any gaps in item difficulties between students' self-assessments and tutors' evaluations, in terms of our correlational study. But the following 5 items are exceptions.

SI9 (β for students (S): 1.462 β for tutors: -0.695 Difficulty Difference(D): 2.157)

I can make simple transactions in shops, post offices or banks.

LS02 (S: 0.990, T: -0.927, D: 1.917)

I can very simply ask somebody to speak more slowly.

LS01 (S: 0.626, T: -1.001, D: 1.627)

I can say when I don't understand.

SI23 (S: 1.553, T: 0.040, D: 1.513)

I can maintain a conversation or discussion but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what I would like to do.

LQ11 (S: 1.189, T: -0.081, D: 1.270)

I have sufficient vocabulary to express myself on matters connected to my field and on most general topics

As for SI07, we believe the original descriptor was not carefully translated into Japanese. Thus, the discrepancy may be caused. Therefore, SI07 needs revision. In anxiety-triggered situations such as LS02, LS01, and SI23, the item difficulty of learners is much higher than that of tutors. The gap of LQ11 shows learners do not feel that they have practical or active vocabulary to handle common and general topics.

8. Conclusion

As one of the performance-based assessments, the self-checklist developed in this study will be helpful when Japanese learners' practical communication skills need to be assessed. Moreover, the use of this self-checklist can also encourage Japanese learners' independent learning. This is because the learners can be given tangible and feasible goals so that they can overcome their individual weaknesses and hopefully advance to the next CEFR level.

According to our research results, generally, the performance skills perceived by Japanese learners are lower than those assessed by language teachers, especially in the anxiety-triggered situations. This means Japanese learners should have more confidence. In order to raise their confidence, two approaches are indispensable: (1) Learners must be taught communication strategies or strategic vocabulary, enough to cope with anxiety-induced situations, and (2) they should be trained by teachers in the classroom, and independently outside the class.

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The effect of previewing item-stems and answer options, and the effect of repetition of a text in listening comprehension tests

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Abstract

This study describes the effects of task types of multiple-choice listening comprehension tests on item difficulty and item discrimination. Six different formats were administered and results showed that non item-stem and answer option preview with repetition format likely to facilitate test-takers' understanding the most while task differences did not seem to have impacts on item discrimination.

Keywords

listening comprehension test, question previewing, answer option previewing, repetitions.

Introduction

Previewing of item-stems (questions) and answer options by test-takers in multiple-choice listening comprehension tests has been reported as having a positive influence on the test results (e.g., Sherman, 1997; Yanagawa, 2003, 2004, 2007). Some studies also suggest repetition of a text in a listening comprehension test facilitates test takers' understanding as well (e.g., Iimura, 2004). On the other hand, only limited research has focused on the relationship between previewing item stems, previewing answer options, and hearing the text a second time.

In order to examine the effects of these different tasks, the following six different test formats were administered in this study: (1) Format I: no answer options and item-stems previewed with repetition format. Neither item-stems nor answer options are visually provided prior to listening and the text is broadcast twice, (2) Format II: no answer options and item-stems previewed with no repetition format. Neither item-stems nor answer options are visually provided prior to listening and the text is broadcast once only, (3) Format III: both answer options and item-stems previewed with repetition format. Item-stems and answer options are both visually provided prior to listening and the text is broadcast twice, (4) Format IV: both answer options and item-stems previewed with no

repetition format. Item-stems and answer options are both visually provided prior to listening and the text is broadcast once only, (5) Format V (identical with the original format of senior high school entrance examination): answer options previewed with repetition format. Answer options are visually provided prior to listening and the text is broadcast twice, (6) Format VI: answer options previewed with no repetition format. Answer options are visually provided prior to listening, and the text is broadcast once only.

1 Method

1.1 Participants

A total of 232 first and second grade senior high school Japanese learners of English participated in the study.

1.2 Materials

1.2.1 Pre-test

A pre-test was arranged in order to distribute six different formats of the main test to six homogeneous groups. A set of test (30 items) was adopted from a listening comprehension section in a 3rd grade STEP test as a pre-test. STEP was chosen because it is one of the established English proficiency tests, and 3rd grade test is designed for the purpose of measuring ability of candidates in junior high school graduate level. One point was given per correct answer.

1.2.2 Main test

A set of listening comprehension test (8 items) was adopted from a listening comprehension section in a certain public senior high school entrance examination. In the original test, there are four short dialogues followed by two questions each. Test-takers listened to a short dialogue performed by two speakers (a boy and a girl) and answered two orally questions by choosing an appropriate answer from four multiple-choice items that were printed on a test sheet, that is to say, answer options could be seen before and while listening to a text.

Based on the original formats, six exploratory

versions of the test were constructed as explained in the Introduction section. One point was given per correct answer.

2 Results and analyses

2.1 Pre-test

ANOVA found that the participant distribution procedure had been successful in producing equivalent groups of comparable listening ability ($F(5,226)=1.27, p=.28ns$).

2.2 Main test

Table 1 displays *Ns*, *Ms*, and *SDs* for each format. ANOVA showed that there are statistically significant differences between forms ($F(5, 226)=13.15, p=.00$). Post-hoc test by Bonferroni method reveals that some statistically significant differences were found as Table 2 summarizes.

Table 1: *Ns*, *Ms* and *SDs* for item format

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
format I	39	6.79	1.01
format II	41	5.27	1.55
format III	38	6.61	1.42
format IV	36	5.75	1.30
format V	42	6.60	1.23
format VI	36	5.00	1.31

Note: Full mark=8.

Table 2: Summary of Bonferroni post-hoc test

	II	III	IV	V	VI
I	$p=.00$	$p=1.00$	$p=.01$	$p=1.00$	$p=.00$
II		$p=.00$	$p=1.00$	$p=.00$	$p=1.00$
III			$p=.08$	$p=1.00$	$p=.00$
IV				$p=.08$	$p=.24$
V					$p=.00$

2.3 Item difficulty

Table 3 shows item difficulty of each format. ANOVA showed that there is statistically significant differences between forms ($F(5, 42)=4.02, p=.00$). Bonferroni post hoc test revealed that there is statistically significant difference between Form I and Form VI ($p<.05$)

Table 3: Item difficulty by format

Item	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1	0.90	0.39	0.92	0.68	0.81	0.45
2	0.63	0.68	0.69	0.71	0.50	0.55
3	1.00	0.68	0.87	0.74	0.93	0.63
4	0.85	0.68	0.82	0.68	0.81	0.68
5	0.93	0.76	0.92	0.84	0.98	0.78
6	0.88	0.73	0.90	0.84	0.98	0.73
7	0.68	0.61	0.67	0.34	0.71	0.43
8	0.85	0.73	0.77	0.68	0.91	0.78
<i>M</i>	0.84	0.66	0.82	0.69	0.83	0.63

2.4 Item discrimination power

Table 4 shows item discrimination power index. ANOVA showed no statistically significant differences among the six formats ($F(5, 42)=2.44, p=.97ns$).

Table 4: Item discrimination

Item	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1	0.13	0.38	0.05	0.55	0.49	0.32
2	0.47	0.12	0.63	0.46	0.70	0.39
3	0.00	0.65	0.65	0.21	0.14	0.33
4	0.50	0.35	0.57	0.43	0.64	0.65
5	0.59	0.35	0.53	0.60	0.21	0.54
6	0.43	0.56	0.44	0.20	0.21	0.32
7	0.61	0.55	0.44	0.44	0.49	0.45
8	0.32	0.42	0.40	0.40	0.43	0.38
<i>M</i>	0.40	0.44	0.48	0.42	0.43	0.43

Note: Means were calculated after all indexes were transformed by Fisher's z-transformation formula.

3 Conclusion

The main findings of this study can be summarized as follows: (1) repetition facilitates test-takers' understanding, (2) previewing item-stems and answer options may destruct test-takers' understanding, (3) task differences do not influence item discrimination power.

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Why do we need to teach communication strategies to Japanese EFL learners?

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is two-fold. Firstly, we illustrate Japanese EFL learners' anxiety and communication apprehension. Secondly, we consider how learners can be aware of their own anxiety and learn to gain their confidence. In this study, two experiments were conducted. The first experiment is to show how far anxiety can be a robust indicator of Japanese EFL learners' proficiency by administering a questionnaire based on FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale: Horwitz et al., 1986) and PMLP (Preliminary Measurement for Learner Preference: Ely, 1986). The second experiment is to show how far Japanese EFL learners have failed to learn to regulate anxiety-management strategies by conducting a questionnaire of can-do statements with reference to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). In doing so, the production skills of Japanese learners can be compared with those of EU learners. Our findings show that teaching anxiety-management strategies is indispensable so that the learners will be able to manage their own anxiety/confidence. Thus, we will find a way to raise learners' awareness of their own anxiety and encourage them to use communication strategies more proactively.

Keywords

Communication strategies, anxiety, communication apprehension, individual differences

1. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate Japanese EFL learners' anxiety and discuss why and how Japanese learners of English need to lower their own anxiety and overcome their negative attitude

toward language learning and language use. Anxiety is regarded as one of the important factors of individual learner characteristics (Dörnyei, 2005). Thus, many studies have so far been done on Japanese EFL learners' anxiety. (Yashima et al., 2004; Tsutsui et al., 2005; Motoda, 2005; Noro, 2005). According to Kolpf's (1984) cross-cultural comparisons of communication apprehension among people in different countries, the Japanese group attained the highest percentage of communicatively apprehensive people, followed by the Americans and the Chinese. On the other hand, Tsutsui et al.'s (2004) survey concerning Japanese EFL learners' preferred language courses indicates that "daily English conversation" attains the first rank. However, other speaking-oriented courses such as speech presentation, discussion, debate courses do not interest the survey participants. According to the result of a factor analysis, "daily English conversation" is not included in the speaking-oriented courses. The SEM analysis shows that the preference of the speaking-oriented courses is associated with ones' degree of anxiety. To sum up, on the one hand, Japanese learners may have some 'willingness to communicate' (MacIntyre, 1994) but on the other, they easily avoid the uncomfortable environments triggered by their own anxiety or communication apprehension. Since the survey is targeted at intermediate and advanced levels of students in one of the top private universities in Japan, the result might not depict a whole picture of Japanese learners' characteristics. However, we believe they should increase the opportunities to use communication strategies and they should be trained to regulate anxiety-management strategies more proactively.

In this study, we conducted 2 experiments.

The first experiment is to investigate a relation between Japanese EFL learners' proficiency and their degree of anxiety. The participants are 1789 Japanese university students. In order to measure the degree of anxiety, we conducted a questionnaire based on FLCAS and PMLP. For proficiency indices, we collected reports of their proficiency test scores. The proficiency tests include TOEIC, TOEFL, and WeTEC, an online computer adaptive test developed by Nakano (2006).

The second experiment is to show how far Japanese EFL learners have failed to learn to regulate anxiety-management strategies, compared to EU learners. For this analysis, we conducted a questionnaire of can-do statements based on the CEFR. The subjects are 2619 Japanese University students. The results show that Japanese learners do not use anxiety-management strategies.

2. Anxiety Scale

2.1 FLCAS and PMLP

The Japanese translation version of FLCAS originally consists of 33 items, and Yukina (2003) found 4 factors. Tsutsui et al. (2005) found 3 factors as meaningful, and employed 12 items after excluding some overlapped items. PMLP consists of 12 items in Yukina (2003), which can be reliably reduced to 9 items in 2 factors. Judging from the high correlations among these 5 factors, we combined FLCAS and PMLP items and reduced to 11 items in 4 factors. As shown in table 1, 4 factors are (1) class avoidance, (2) speech anxiety, (3) in-class anxiety, and (4) complexity tolerance.

Table 1: Anxiety Scale

	Class Avoidance	Speech Anxiety	In-class Anxiety	Complexity Tolerance
Item11*	0.944			
Item08	-0.856			
Item06*	0.587			
Item03*		0.891		
Item02*		0.844		
Item01*		0.557		
Item05			0.818	
Item04			0.657	
Item07			0.645	
Item10*				0.728
Item09*				0.685

2.2 Proficiency and anxiety

Our correlation studies on 1789 Japanese university students show that the correlations between proficiency (i.e., TOEIC scores) and anxiety (factor scores obtained from factor analysis) are relatively high: class avoidance ($r=.50, p<.01$), speech anxiety ($r=.37, p<.01$), in-class anxiety ($r=.44, p<.01$), and

complexity tolerance ($r=.43, p<.01$), although seemingly one's anxiety can not be associated with test constructs, (i.e., what a test measures). Moreover, a stepwise multiple regression analysis indicates that 4 dimensional anxieties explain 28% variance of proficiency test scores.

$$F(4,1784)=248.46, p<.001, \Delta R^2=.28$$

$$\hat{Y} = -50.234x_1 - 17.152x_2 + 19.427x_3 - 13.618x_4 + 556.34$$

\hat{Y} = Proficiency test scores

x_1 : Class Avoidance

x_2 : In-class Anxiety

x_3 : Complexity Tolerance

x_4 : Speech Anxiety

3. Anxiety-related performance deficits

Tsutsui, Kondo and Nakano (2007) created a bilingual self-checklist for Japanese EFL learners. The self-checklist is helpful to students who wish to acknowledge their present practical skills and make realistic and progressive efforts in speaking English. The self-checklist consists of 99 can-do statements. In order to assess their production skills, interaction skills, strategy regulation capacities, and strategic language use, can-do descriptors concerning (1) spoken production, (2) spoken interaction, (3) language strategy and (4) language quality are taken from Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

Although the self-checklist is initially designed as a self-reflection tool for learners, the learners' tutors (N=982) evaluated their practical communication skills by using the same checklist descriptors. The results of item difficulty estimated by the two-parameter logistic model are shown in figure 1. Item difficulties yield an upward trend as the levels of descriptors go higher. The only exception is the level of C1 descriptors in that the mean value of C1 (0.89logit) is slightly higher than that of C2 (0.81logit). The mean values of 4 different skill descriptors in each CEFR level are practically identical.

Using the self-checklist, 2619 Japanese university students assessed their practical communication skills. The data is also analyzed by 2-parameter logistic model. The mean values of item difficulties in each level of descriptors are given in figure 2. There is an overall upward trend in item difficulty; however, it should be noted that 'language strategy' fluctuates more strangely than the other three categories. Especially in A2, the item difficulties are inconsistent.

Anxiety-related situations represented in item 65 (A2:I can say when I don't understand) and item 66 (A2:I can very simply ask somebody to speak more slowly) may deteriorate Japanese learners' speech performance. Interestingly, on the

other hand, their tutors tend to be oblivious of this fact, as evidenced in figure 1. Therefore, its awareness-raising is necessary not only for language learners but also for language teachers, especially who teach Japanese EFL learners.

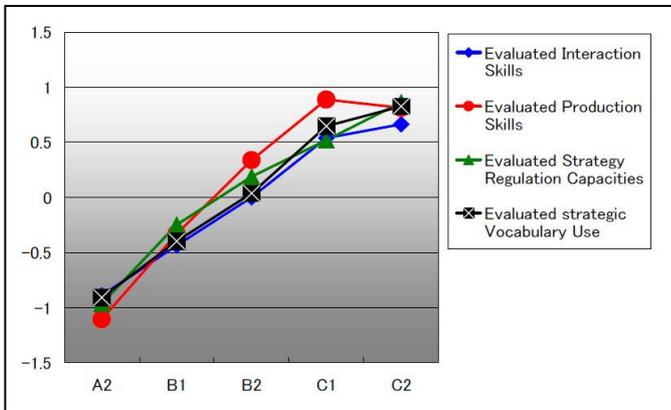


Figure 1: Item difficulties of Can-do statements by each CEFR level (Tutors' evaluations)

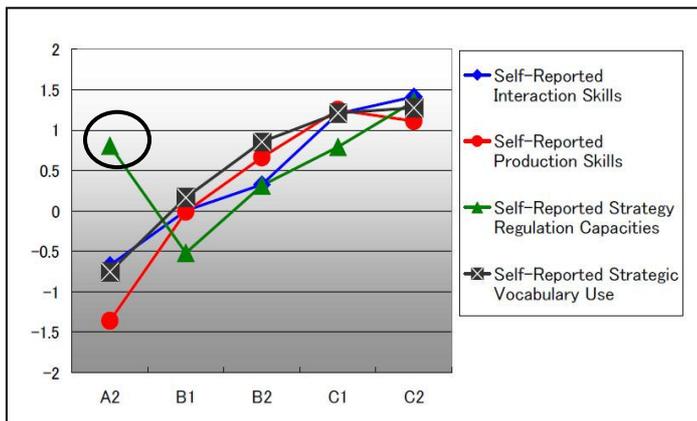


Figure 2: Item difficulties of Can-do statements by each CEFR level (Learners' self-reports)

4. Consciousness-raising approach

Cotterall & Reinders (2004) provide a very practical framework of strategy-based language teaching. Their approaches are staged as follows: (1) to raise awareness of the strategy, (2) to model the strategy, (3) to try out the strategy, (4) to evaluate the strategy, and finally (5) to encourage transfer of the strategy to new contexts.

To begin with, we need to find ways of raising awareness of learners' characteristics (i.e., anxiety, strategy use, motivation). Let us propose a model for awareness-raising. We create an online counseling system on English learning. Learners work on the questionnaire based on anxiety, strategy use, motivation and they are individually given their own standardized scores as well as educational tips according to their scores, immediately after their response.

As in figure 3, first, the learner is

explained why and how they are doing this.

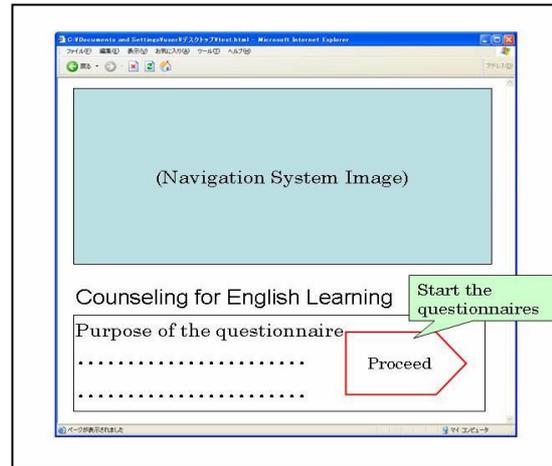


Figure 3: Online counseling system (1)

As illustrated in figure 4, learners respond questionnaire items on 5 scales from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

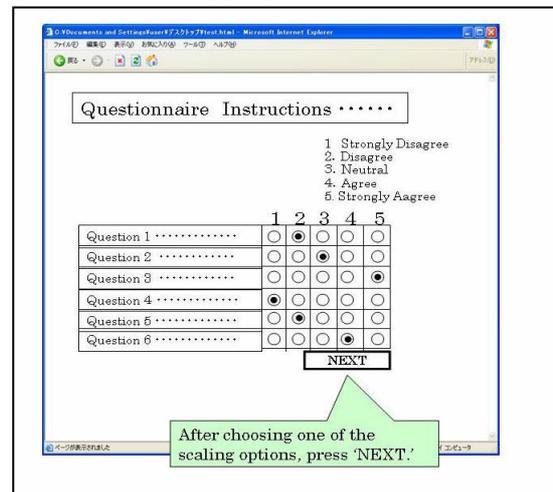


Figure 4: Online counseling system (2)

According to the response patterns, their general tendency (i.e., strengths and weaknesses) and individualized educational tips are shown in figure 5.

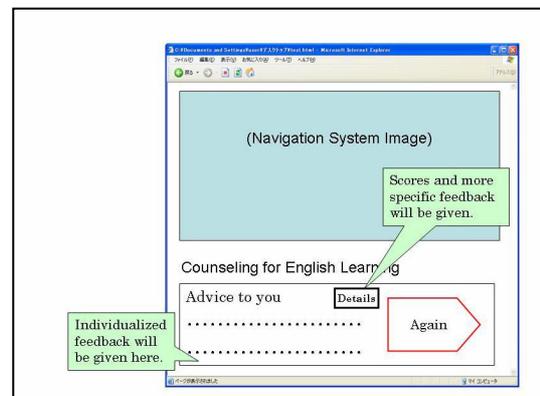


Figure 5: Online counseling system (3)

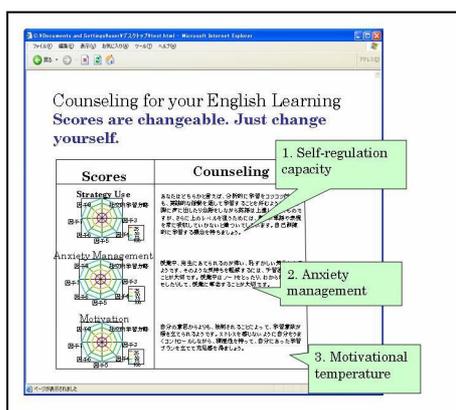


Figure 6: Online counseling system (4)

As exemplified in figure 6, individualized scores associated with strategy use, anxiety management and motivational temperature are given. Students are informed that their scores are fluid and changeable, and thus they are encouraged to change themselves. Counseling is given from the following perspectives. We specially referred to Brown (2002) and Motoda (2005)'s strategic approaches to anxiety management.

(1) Planning for attitudinal change

- Be aware of strengths and weaknesses.
- Practice more (Increase opportunities to speak and listen).
- Practice efficiently (Avoid just listening routines and try active listening such as note-taking or shadowing).
- Think positively and never say 'never' or 'can't.'
- Prepare more before class and actively engage in class.
- Review more outside class.

(2) Planning for practical goals

- Be practical. (Try not to engage in too difficult or too impractical tasks).
- Find your weaknesses by checking can-do descriptors at your level.
- Enjoy learning (Using pop music or movies)
- Plan what you are going to say before speaking

(3) Risk-taking

- Don't be a perfectionist.
- Tolerate someone's mistakes
- Know making mistakes are important.
- But make mistakes work later on. (Take a mental note of what mistakes you have made or write it down.)

(4) Ask for help or information seeking

- Have specific questions and nicely ask teachers.
- Make opportunities to communicate with someone in English. (Have a chat online.)
- Share effective and efficient learning tips with classmates and teachers.
- Google successful learners' learning tips online

- Communicate nicely with classmates.

5. Conclusions

The educational tips given in section 4 may not be spectacular. However, we believe down-to-earth approaches are necessary to make learners as well as teachers tangibly aware of the role of anxiety in learning English. After that, we should take feasible actions for confidence development or anxiety regulation. Otherwise, Japanese learners' anxiety may persistently affect their learning and performance.

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Integrating Debate and Drama in an Intermediate College English Course

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Abstract

The author conducted a “Media English Course” that integrated debate and drama. First, the students were familiarized with media English, reading and discussing a variety of news articles on the Internet. Next, the participants debated, based on a certain simple format, on some of the issues they had dealt with. The last phase involved extensive reading on a specific issue they were concerned about and making a script of a conflict scene related to the issue, followed by acting out the scene. Most activities were conducted in small groups of two to four students.

The debate and drama were performed dynamically, which gave the students confidence and satisfaction. Critical thinking and group dynamics seem to have been developed through the course.

Keywords

debate drama media English college English critical thinking

Introduction

The Media English course, consisted of fourteen 90-minute sessions, was aimed at building ability to discuss current issues in English. The students involved were 18 juniors, majoring in international communications. The course roughly consisted of three phases: the warm-up phase focusing on interactive pair work, the second phase practicing debate, and the last phase dramatizing the conflict.

1 Warm-up activities

In the first phase, the students were familiarized with media English and short debate-like activities. At the beginning, the instructor chose an article that involved a controversial issue. Class discussed the content and vocabulary. Then, the students were instructed to choose an article on their own equally controversial as the first one. They then summarized the article and posted it along with their comment and useful expressions on a

designated bulletin board (BBS) on the Net.

Mini text-based debate between two students was also conducted regularly for 15 minutes each class; the students were paired up and exchanged arguments several times quickly in a written form.

2 Debate

In the second phase, the students were engaged in oral debate activities based on a simple format commonly used at high schools. Debate topics were taken from the popular articles from the BBS. Each topic was then tailored to a proposition. For instance, “Balancing career and family” was changed to “Career is more important than family”. The class was divided into groups of four or five and given their topic and side.

After research on their issues, the students decided on their roles in the group and prepared their speech. Each group practiced debating twice.

3 Dramatization

The last phase involved further reading on a specific issue the students were concerned about and making a script of a conflict scene related to the issue, followed by acting out the scene.

The students chose topics such as “shotgun marriage” and “mobile phone”. The students were instructed to designate specific roles in the play. For instance, when the topic was mobile phone, one character could be a child and another could be her mother.

4 Discussions

The author conducted a questionnaire after the course. Due to the limited number of participants, no statistic data was available; however, the course was evaluated quite favorably on the whole. The debate and drama were both considered effective to improve their listening and speaking skills. Moreover, the students came to think deeply about social problems. Students were also forced to think quickly and differently. As for dramatization, students tried hard to come up with realistic

situations and lines in groups.

The students also experienced some difficulties. Preparation for arguments took long. In drama, some felt embarrassed to speak with emotion.

5 Conclusion

The “Media English Course” to integrate debate and drama helped the students analyze current issues as well as build oral communication skills.

Debate, both in oral and written form, fostered students’ spontaneity and critical thinking. On the other hand, dramas, where situations are contextualized, seem to have developed their creativity and imagination.

In order for the students to benefit more from this course, modification is necessary. For instance, students may need more time and exercises to lower inhibition and maximize group dynamics.

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Using diaries to investigate teachers' perception of rating schemes

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Abstract

Whilst diary study is used for pedagogical purposes, course evaluation and basic research, this study aims to explore the possibility of using it to investigate how teachers perceive and use rating schemes. Three English teachers who worked at various high schools in Korea rated 224 scripts written by 112 Korean high school students for this study. The teachers assessed the scripts twice, first according to their subjective holistic scoring and then using the FCE scale for writing assessment, and they kept diaries on their rating process for each assessment. The analysis of their diaries shows the teachers' rating patterns and tendencies, problems with the rating schemes and their understanding of the rating schemes. All of these findings will contribute to the investigation of the validity of the rating schemes and identification of the aid and guidance that they might need for assessment.

Keywords

Diary study, qualitative study, writing assessment, rater

Introduction

Diary studies have attracted attention from researchers who are interested in gathering qualitative data, especially since Bailey (1983), as reviewed in Howell-Richardson and Parkinson (1988). The studies using these recordings are classified into one of ethnographical studies in that they are intended to reveal existing phenomenon and generate hypothesis (Bailey, *ibid*; Woodfield & Lazarus, 1998). This study will use the term "diary" as it appears to be more widely employed.

These kinds of diary studies have been employed for various purposes: pedagogical purposes, course evaluation and basic research. It is worth noting that while diaries can be used for a variety of purposes as mentioned above they cannot be used for all of these purposes at the same time. Therefore, the purpose of the diary needs to be determined at the outset of a diary study.

1 Purpose of the study

This study starts with the assumption that diaries can also be used for purposes other than those mentioned above, such as assessment. This is an attempt to explore such a possibility: the use of diaries as a qualitative research method for investigating how teachers perceived and used rating schemes for assessment, and to discuss assessment-related implications of using diaries for this purpose.

2 Methodology of the study

The scripts for this study were obtained by asking 112 high school students in 1st and 2nd year at a foreign language high school in Korea to do two writing tasks (an informal letter to a foreign friend suggesting places to visit in Korea, and a formal essay explaining the advantages and disadvantages of using the Internet).

The three teachers in this study, known Teachers A, B and C, were Korean teachers of English at different high schools. They had worked as English teachers for twelve years, five years and thirty-four years respectively, and had never acted as professional raters.

They were invited to use two scoring schemes for the assessment: subjective holistic scoring and the FCE rating scale for writing assessment (FCE Handbook, 2001). These two kinds of rating schemes were chosen to investigate how the teachers perceived and used rating schemes for assessment across the two rating schemes. For their rating process, they were asked to make a diary entry just after assessing and scoring each script.

3 Data analysis

I followed the process outlined in the literature (e.g. Halbach, *op.cit*; Lakshmy & Lee, 2002), reading the obtained diaries and trying to find salient features and patterns in them. Some patterns were found in relation to the purpose of this study, and grouped under the following three headings: rating patterns

and tendencies; problems with the employed rating schemes; teachers' understanding of the rating scheme.

4 Findings

4.1 Rating patterns and tendencies

It was found that diaries could reveal which assessment features the raters focused on in the case of subjective holistic scoring. For example, all the raters in this study paid attention to content and grammar, as can be seen in (1.1), and in addition to these features, they considered different features depending on the proficiency level of the scripts, for example, length and/or grammar when assessing low-level scripts such as Band 2 scripts (see (1.2)), organisation and intelligibility for intermediate level scripts such as Bands 3 and 4 (see (1.3)), and expressions and sentence structure which looked natural and like native English for Bands 5 and 6. They also showed central tendency in rating that means avoiding assigning the lowest and the highest bands. On the other hand, when they were using the FCE rating scale, even though they were using the scale, they sometimes considered their own subjective criteria. For example, Rater A considered length that was explicitly not included in the scale.

(1.1)

Band 3

This script could be good because it is fairly long and well organised. But as I looked at it more closely, I found a major error in it. It is that this script deals with the myth of Ulsan Rock rather than the required content from the prompt--places in Korea which are worth visiting. Additionally, it has basic grammatical errors and does not include connectors which can be seen in other students' writings. Therefore, I think Band 3 is most appropriate for this script.¹

(1.2)

Band 2

There are grammatical errors in almost every clause. Most of them are caused by the use of inappropriate vocabulary, and consequently there are many clauses which are unintelligible. Additionally, the writer makes errors in the use of verbs. That is, since he/she does not know the exact meaning of the verbs he/she makes errors by either using a preposition

wrongly or omitting it after a verb. What is worse, it is too short. I suppose there are few aspects that would help this put script in a good band.

(1.3)

Band 3

This script is at the very middle level, I think. Whilst communication is relatively good on the whole, it has errors in terms of differentiating between singular vs. plural, tense and word classes. The errors, however, are local rather than global, so they do not affect the communication of clauses. So I marked it as Band 3.

4.2 Problems with the rating schemes

Diaries helped to reveal the problems with each rating scheme. In this study, while the raters were assessing according to their own subjective criteria, they sometimes considered an aspect of scripts that did not correspond with any recognised measure or component of writing ability (see (2.1)), they were not always confident of their rating but they wondered if their rating was appropriate for it (see (2.2)), and their criteria for some levels, especially the highest and the lowest, were unlikely to be clearly established (see (2.3)).

(2.1)

Band 3

I hesitated between Bands 2 and 3 for this script. It could be Band 2 in that it is only half as long as the other scripts, is poorly organised and shows poor sentence construction and grammar. There are few well constructed sentences without grammatical errors. This notwithstanding, I assigned it Band 3, because it looks as though the writer has made an effort.

(2.2)

Band 4

If I assign Band 4 to this script, I think it would be very harsh. This is because this script is fairly good in terms of length, organisation and content. However, its weak point is that the writer tried to use a variety of expressions and this resulted in some awkwardness. While I read through the first half of the script I thought these awkward expressions would not negatively affect the grade, but in the second half, they negatively affected my impression of it and in turn the grade, because they sometimes hindered communication and intelligibility, and the

¹ All the diary entries and think-aloud protocols obtained for this study were originally made in Korean. I have translated them into English.

former is one of the most important assessment categories for me. However, I wonder if it is fair to mark it down merely because of a few sentences that are not intelligible, even though the script communicates well on the whole. I am not sure whether the grade I assigned is fair.

(2.3)

Band 2

This script is extremely short – just one paragraph long. And not only is it short, but it contains many grammatical errors, so I can't help but assign it to Band 2. But if I mark it as Band 2, I'm not sure which scripts deserve to be put in Band 1.

Band 6

This script is excellent - the best so far. It is fantastic in organisation, genre format and paragraphing, and each point is equally developed and written very clearly. There are just a few grammatical errors. But even though it is written well, I hesitated in assigning Band 6 to this script because I'm not sure whether it is really good enough to deserve Band 6, given that Band 6 is the highest band and would mean "perfect". Even though I am unsure about this, I assigned Band 6 to this script because it is the best bit of writing I have seen so far.

As for the FCE scoring, the diaries revealed that the teachers found some assessment categories and descriptors inappropriate for the specific test-takers and context. They found one of the assessment categories in the scale unnecessary (Register), since intermediate level test-takers such as Korean high school students do not command a variety of registers depending on language use context, but focus on making grammatical sentences *per se*. The teachers' diaries also revealed that they thought that some additional assessment categories should be included in the scale, such as 'length' and 'development of idea'. With regard to descriptors, the teachers found that the use of vague quantifiers such as "all", "some", "little" and "limited", and ambiguous words such as "effectively", "clearly" and "inadequately" made it difficult to grasp the differences between descriptors. They also pointed out that the scale lacked descriptors that could deal with frequently observed phenomena in specific test-takers' scripts, and that this made it inconvenient to use.

4.3 Teachers' understanding of the rating

schemes

The diaries were also helpful in revealing how the teachers understood the FCE scale. The issue of how teachers understand the rating scale they are using needs to be investigated in terms of validity. If their understanding does not coincide with the use suggested or intended by the developers of the scale, or if some assessment categories or descriptors are not clear to the teachers, the validity of their rating and use of the ratings are likely to be questionable. The diaries were found to be helpful in investigating this point. For example, the raters for this study found some assessment categories unclear to them, such as Appropriacy of Register and Format, Range and Target Reader, as can be seen in (3.1).

(3.1) Band 4

...The most peculiar error in this script is that it is not well-paragraphed and is written in a very colloquial style. Since this is the case, I suppose that marks will have to be cut in terms of both Accuracy and Register, but I am not sure. Still, I am unsure about the category of Register.

Band 4

... To be honest, I'm not sure about how to assess the Range of scripts. It might be partly because I haven't fully grasped the concept of Range, and partly because there is little difference between Korean high school students' scripts in terms of vocabulary and structure. To me most scripts look similar in this category....

Band 4

This script is well organised in that it consists of opening, body and closing, and in that each of three points in the body is developed equally in three paragraphs. Unfortunately, although the required content from the prompt was to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the Internet, this script discusses only the disadvantages of the Internet. It seems to me, therefore, that this script does not satisfy the requirement of Content. Apart from this problem, the content of this script doesn't look good. So I wonder how much I should mark it down in terms of Content. Further, given that half of the major content is omitted, I suppose that this script only achieves half of its purpose, so there is good reason to assign a low band in terms of Target Reader as well. But I am not sure whether I am right and whether I understand the concept of

5 Conclusions

This study has shown that diaries can be used to record teachers' internal thought processes during assessment, revealing how they understand the rating schemes and find them to use, and what kind of problems exist in their rating and the rating schemes themselves. Given these findings, it was said that diaries can be adopted for assessment purposes, in addition to the purposes mentioned in the literature: for pedagogical purposes, for course evaluation and for basic research. The investigation of teachers' perceptions and use of rating schemes could highlight any problems rating schemes may have either before they are to be introduced, or when existing rating schemes in use need to be examined. This is desirable in light of two aspects: in investigating the validity of assessment, which has become a main concern in assessment since the 1980s; and in identifying the aid and guidance that teachers may need when using a rating scheme in question. The former is possible, given that diaries could reveal whether a rating scheme in question is appropriate and valid for the specific context, teachers and learners. Therefore, it seems reasonable to suppose that diaries could be employed as a possible validation method, along with the other methods suggested in other studies (e.g. Fulcher, 2003), such as think-aloud protocols, interviews and questionnaires. As for the latter, teachers' diaries enable rating scale developers to develop or revise manuals, descriptors and assessment categories for a rating scheme so as to aid teachers. They also enable teachers to realize the problems with their subjective holistic scoring in terms of concerns about the validity of assessments.

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Tense and Aspect in English, French and Mandarin Chinese

Proposal for a Pedagogical Tool

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Abstract

Our work starts by providing evidence to define the notions of *tense* and *aspect* and their intricate relations at a meta-linguistic level. We compare and analyze then discourses in English, French and Mandarin Chinese by focusing on the cognitive-semantic facets of these notions. We also try to attribute temporal-aspectual values to the grammatical forms of the tenses expressed in English and French. Along with these values, we introduce the notional invariants in a graphical form, which we believe to be an efficient tool to make these notions and their temporal-aspectual relationship clear at discourse level. By doing so, we hope to help learners not only to understand these abstract notions, but also to give them a hand in the context of FLT/FLL.

Keywords

Tense, aspect, semantics, FLT, FLL.

Introduction

Language learning is a difficult and time consuming task, particularly when it comes to the mastering of abstract notions such as *tense* and *aspect*, a well-known problem for many native Chinese. The difficulties are probably rooted in the fact that the Chinese language uses different resources to convey these notions (temporal adverbs and aspectual markers), while western languages rely on verb choice and conjugation.

Still, Chinese do tell stories like people all over the world. How do they express the “concept of time”? Conversely, how do English or French speakers adapt themselves while being deprived of a verbal system (conjugations) in order to convey this information? The answer is, that while there is little doubt that tense and aspect are universal, every language has its set of resources, i.e. its own aspect (semantic) and tense (grammatical) system [Huang, 1988].

1 The problem of tense and aspect

1.1 Related work

The linguistic literature abounds in work devoted to this problem. It shows that these notions are not only intimately interwoven, but also essential for true mastering of language, be it for analysis (understanding) or synthesis (language production).

The work done by Vendler, Comrie, Verkyul, Co Vet and Smith are classic. These authors have offered various categories and classifications. Another often cited reference is Reichenbach’s “Typology of tense”. The core of his work is an attempt to “formalize” time relations with regard to different situations. Tense is characterized by three perspectives, S, E and R. The S stands for the Time of Speech, the E, the Time of Event and the R marks the Time of Reference.

1.2 Our point of view concerning tense and aspect

Basically, we consider *Tense* to be a morpho-syntactic variant in grammar. For example, in French, the verb “PARLER” has to be inflected by taking into account the person, the mood and the time. We will use the term *tense* as a synonym of verb conjugation, for example the “présent”, “imparfait”, etc.

One question that arises then is: do *Tenses* express the notion of *Aspect*? Does each tense form convey a different aspectual meaning? Our answer to the question is positive. We consider the tense to be a kind of time specification accomplished via morphemes in the verbal system.

Time is universal, hence language independent. *Aspect* is our cognitive transposition of time of the different events. *Aspect* is linguistically mediated via adverbs, prepositions, verbs, etc. Verbs are a bit special, as they have two facets, both of which are aspectual : the morpho-syntactic - *tense*, and their inherent semantic aspectual values. This being so tense and aspect are strongly related, interacting in intricate ways.

Tenses, on the other hand, locate the events that sentences represent on a time line. This is to be contrasted with the internal “temporal contour” of the event, which is specified within the aspectual

system. As for *aspect*, it is how we perceive and interpret an event. It is the temporal relation of different situations expressed in a sentence / a paragraph .

2 States, processes, events and their semantico-cognitive values

In our work, we adapt the three types of aspectual situations defined by J.-P. Desclés [Desclés, 1993], namely states, processes and events. We study these aspectual situations by showing how they are expressed (prepositions, verbs), how they can be represented and how they manifest themselves in a concrete discourse. We will give examples of them hereafter in French, English and Mandarin Chinese.

2.1 State

A state is defined as a static situation, without discontinuity and change (even in the smallest fraction of time). All phases of the situation are equivalent.

	<i>Aspectual type</i>	<i>Example</i>
1	Permanent state	La mer est salée. 海水是鹹的。 The sea is salty.
2	Contingent state	Il est malade en ce moment. 他此刻生病著。He is sick for the moment.
2.1	Final state	La porte est ouverte. 這門開著。 The door is open.
2.2	Resultative state	Donc, tu as perdu ta carte ! 所以你的卡丟了。So, you have lost your card !
a.	Resulting from unaccomplished process	Depuis ce matin, Jean nettoie la cave. Il est fatigué. 忠從一早打掃地下室到現在, 他累了。John has been cleaning the basement since this morning. He is tired.
b.	Resulting from accomplished process	La campagne est blanche : il a neigé pendant 5 heures. 鄉間景色一片雪白: 下了五個小時的雪。The countryside is all white as it had snowed for 5 hours.
c.	Resulting from a sequential event	Jean a été au Musée du Louvre. 忠去過羅浮宮。John has been to Louvre museum.
d.	Resulting from reconstructive process	Tu as une augmentation de salaires : comme tu es content ! 你加薪啦, 瞧你多樂呀! You've gotten a wage raise : look how happy you are !
2.3	Passive state	La porte a été ouverte (par le concierge). 門被(管理員)打開了。The door is opened (by the guardian)
2.4	Consequential state	Jeanne restait à la maison après son accident de travail. 梅在工作受傷後一直待在家裡。Jane has stayed at home since her accident at work.

2.5	State of activity	La machine est en marche. 機器運轉著。The machine is running.
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2.2 Process

A process describes a situation that is likely to evolve; not all the phases of the situation are equivalent.

	<i>Aspectual type</i>	<i>Example</i>
	Process	Il était en train de déjeuner quand sa mère arriva. 他媽到的時候, 他正在吃午飯。He was having lunch when his mother arrived.
1	Progressive process	Pierre travaille en ce moment. 皮耶此刻在上班。Peter is working at this moment.
2	Non-progressive process	Pierre dînait quand je suis rentré hier. 我昨天回來的時候, 皮耶在吃晚飯。Peter was having dinner when I came home yesterday.
2.1	Unaccomplished process	En ce moment, Paul essaye de réparer le robinet. 此刻保羅在試著修水龍頭。At this moment, Paul is trying to fix the tap.
2.2	Accomplished non-achieved process	Jean a réparé le toit de sa maison pendant une heure ce matin. 忠今早花了一個鐘頭修他房子的屋頂。John has spent one hour to fix the roof of his house this morning.
2.3	Accomplished achieved process	Pierre a terminé l'emballage des cadeaux qui étaient tous destinés à ses amis. 皮耶把要送朋友的禮物都包裝好了。Peter has finished wrapping the gifts that are all destined for his friends.

2.3 Event

An event is not related to a fixed, static reference.

	<i>Aspectual type</i>	<i>Example</i>
	Événement (Evt)	Le roi a régné pendant 35 ans. 國王當政了35年。The king has reigned for 35 years.
1	Punctual event (aoristic)	Le cerf-volant tomba du ciel. 風箏從天上墜落。The kite fell from the sky.
2	Achieved event (perfective)	Il a fini le contrôle technique de sa voiture. 他完成了車子的安檢。He has finished the security check-up for his car.
3	Identical event (habit)	Jacques mange à midi pile. 傑克每天準時正午吃飯。Jack has lunch at 12 sharp. À l'époque, il fumait la pipe. 在那個時代, 他抽煙斗。At that time, he smoke pipes.

3 Aspecto-temporal expressions in Mandarin Chinese

As many may know, Mandarin Chinese (MC) does

not have grammatical tense [Li & Thompson, 1981]. Indeed, MC employs mainly adverbial expressions and relies heavily on context. Yet, unlike the classic Chinese, the modern Chinese uses various aspectual markers, such as : 了(*le*'), 過(*guo*'), 在(*zai*') and 著(*zhe*'), to express aspectual nuances. We will present the aspecto-temporal values of these 4 markers.

在(*zai*') : as many other Chinese words, it is polysemical. It can be a locative preposition or an aspectual marker which marks a process with progressive and unaccomplished value.

著(*zhe*') : it marks often the « state of activity » value of an event, hence it is often durative and continuous. It suffixes a sub-ordinate action (verb) when another verb occurs in the sentence. (小李聽著歌吃早飯 – Xiao Li prend son petit déjeuner en écoutant des chansons – Xiao Li listens to music while taking his breakfast.)

過(*guo*') : like 在(*zai*'), it can be used as a spacial marker, used as suffix for certain transitive verbs, such as, cross (over). As an aspectual marker it is mainly used in the « past », but it could be also employed in the future (a projection), however it expresses « experience », « accomplished » with perfective value.

了(*le*') : it is a quite polemic marker in Chinese linguistics. Some linguists consider it as identical regardless of its position, *while* others take it into account as aspectual marker (verbal suffix) or sentence particle. We believe that there are some subtle changes depending on its position. When suffixed to a verb, its value is perfective, accomplishment of an action (perfective event). But when the sentence stops right after V+ 了(*le*') + COD, the listener expects some more words to come, some more context. Otherwise, mostly in patterns such as : V+ 了(*le*') +quantifiers + COD, this marker expresses the perfective value. When used at the end of a sentence, it tends to express the change of state.

Grammatical forms of verbs in English and French	aspecto-temporal value	Chinese Aspectual marker
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> past, present perfect, past perfect passé composé, futur simple, futur antérieur 	resultative (perfectif)	了
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present perfect, past perfect passé composé, présent, futur simple 	Change of state (transition)	了
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> past, present perfect passé composé 	Resultative state	了
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present, past passé composé 	Consequential state	了
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present progressive, 	état d'activité	著

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> past progressive présent, imparfait, futur antérieur 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present présent, passé simple 	Permanent state	∅
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present présent, passé composé 	Final state	了
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present progressive, past progressive présent, imparfait 	Progressive process	在
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present perfect, past perfect passé composé 	Accomplished achieved process	了, 過
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present perfect passé composé 	Accomplished non-achieved	了
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present progressive, past progressive imparfait 	Unaccomplished process	在, 著
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present perfect, past perfect passé composé 	Achieved event	了, 過
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present, past présent, past 	Identical event	∅
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> past passé simple 	Punctual event	∅
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> past, future passé composé, futur simple, futur antérieur 	Accomplished event (expérience)	過

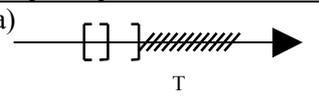
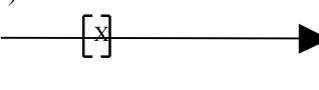
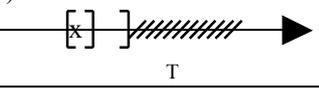
4 Pedagogical tool

Given our experience in teaching and learning foreign languages, we find visual/audio tools very useful, especially with regard to explaining abstract notions. Many psychologists share this view, considering visual memory as important as audio or kinetic memory. This is why such tools are often used or built by researches of the CALL community [Ligozat & Zock, 1992]. We aim at elaborating such a tool, as computers are particularly well suited to visualize the underlying meanings of a sentence and their abstract forms.

4.1 Graphical representation

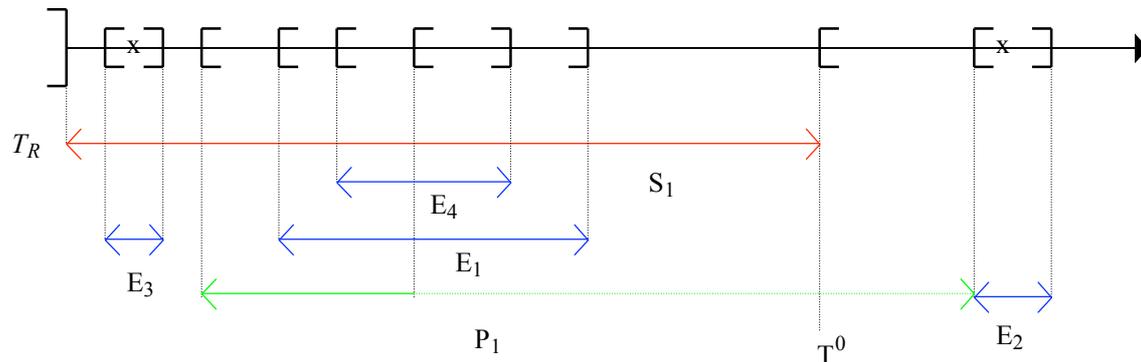
Along with the identified temporal-aspectual value, we present the figurative invariant (a non-linguistic intermediate) as sole terminology. In other words, we will use the following graphical representation, open interval, closed interval, open to the right, etc., to illustrate the different types of aspecto-temporal situations mentioned in Section 2.

The following table shows that the sentences (a)-(c) and their translated equivalents in English and in French are almost the same ("I have read", "j'ai déjà lu"). Yet, they are clearly different in Mandarin Chinese regarding the aspectual markers : *-le*' & *-guo*'. One can clearly see the semantic nuances by looking at the figures presented in the left column. The aspectual markers are used to express different "intentions/foci".

Graphic representation	Examples
a) 	我讀了這本小說。 J'ai lu ce roman. I have read this novel.
b) 	我讀過這本小說。 J'ai (déjà) lu ce roman. I have (already) read this novel.
c) 	我讀過這本小說了。 J'ai (déjà) lu ce roman. I have read this novel.

Furthermore, we analyse a whole paragraph with these graphic to stress the aspecto-temporal relation amongst several situations described in the discourse. See example below :

	<u>Tenses</u>	<u>Aspect</u>
E ₁ : j'appelai Aïda chez une voisine	passé simple	event
P ₁ : qui la gardait quelque temps <i>en attendant</i>	imparfait	unaccomp. process
E ₂ : de la remettre à la brigade de mineurs	infinitif	event
S ₁ : Cette petite fille <i>était</i> la seule belle chose	imparfait	state
E ₃ : qui me soit arrivée <i>depuis trois jours (T_R)</i>	passé subjonctif	event
E ₄ : je la sentis intimidée	passé simple	event



4.2 Perspectives

Obviously, our graphical representations needs to be tested at a greater scale in order to confirm that they are at least intuitively meaningful and “understandable” even by a linguistically “innocent” language learner. We think that our approach is generic enough to be used for other languages: Spanish, Japanese, ...etc. Likewise, a similar approach could be taken to study other linguistic sub-systems, i.e. verbs, adverbs, but this is clearly work for the future.

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The Relationship between Learning Strategy Preferences and English Proficiency: A Case Study of Japanese University Students

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Abstract

This study investigates the relationship between learner's learning strategy preferences and their English proficiency. In order to examine the frequency of learning strategy use, questionnaire-based survey was conducted on 164 Japanese university students. The questionnaire used in the present study was a short version of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL; Oxford, 1989), which is established by Tsutsui et al. (2006). The data were factor analyzed so as to find the specific factors. The participants' English proficiency was measured by the score of TOEIC or Web-based Test for English Communication (WeTEC). These scores were reported in the questionnaire if the participants have taken one of these tests. 94 students reported their scores. The data collected by the questionnaire and the scores reported from the participants were analyzed to explore the relationship between learners' strategy preferences and their English proficiency. This study found that two factors which can be interpreted as Social Interaction strategy and Positive Language Use strategy are correlated with WeTEC scores.

Keywords

Language Learning strategy, English proficiency, Japanese EFL learner, SILL

Introduction

There are several ways to classify the learning strategies. In particular, Oxford (1989) established impressive taxonomy. She made 80 types of learning strategies in SILL (version5.1) and classified them into 6 subcategories: Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Meta-Cognitive, Affective, and Social strategy. Though it is said that the scheme of this classification was "marred by a failure to make a clear distinction between directed at learning the L2 and those directed at using it" (Ellis, 1994, p.539), SILL was frequently

used by many researchers (e.g., Lee, 2004). In Yukina (2003), SILL was employed in order to investigate the relationship between individual factors and English proficiency, and the data collected by SILL were analyzed by factor analysis so as to examine the relationship between the learning strategies and English proficiency. Tsutsui et al. (2005, 2006) also used SILL and conducted the exploratory factor analysis in order to reduce the total number of items in the questionnaire. As the result, they extracted 9 factors in which various strategies were clearly classified and reduced the number of questionnaire items to 25. This well-organized questionnaire was used in this study to investigate the relationship between leaning strategy preference and English proficiency.

1 Survey

1.1 Research Question

1. Is there the correlation between learning strategy preferences and scores of English tests?
2. Is it possible to replicate the result shown by Tsutsui et al. (2006), using the same version of SILL?

1.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire distributed to the participants was a short version of SILL which is established by Tsutsui et al. (2006) according to the result of factor analysis they conducted. The number of items contained in the original version of SILL was reliably reduced to 25. As the responding form, 6-point Likert scale ranging from strong disagreement (1) to strong agreement (6) was employed because Japanese people tend to choose the middle point if the number of scale was an even number.

1.3 The Participants and their English Proficiency

The participants in this study were 164 Japanese university students: 162 undergraduates and 2 graduate students. All of them were enrolled in English class and study English as a foreign language. Their English proficiency was measured by TOEIC or WeTEC. 94 students reported their scores of tests. The scores of TOEIC were converted into WeTEC scores referring to the score comparison sheet which is officially provided by Waseda University International. The students were divided into 3 proficiency levels according to the scores (N=94, M=724.7): Group A is advanced group (N=24, M=861.6, SD=56.2); Group B, intermediate group (N=39, M=722, SD=29); and Group C, pre-intermediate group (N=31, M=622.1, SD=42.3).

2 Factor analysis

The exploratory factor analysis was conducted according to Tsutsui et al. (2005, 2006). (1) Promax Rotation was adopted, since the correlations among factors were expected. (2) The number of factors is decided when an eigenvalue is just greater than 1.0. (3) The factor loadings were more than .35.

As the result of the analysis, 7 factors were extracted: STR 1- STR7. 1 item was deleted because its factor loading was not more than .35. These factors were renamed based on Tsutsui et al. (2006). The items which consist of each factor were shown below.

(STR 1) Social Interaction strategy (STR): 5 items

e.g.,

- I ask English speakers to help.
- I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
- I practice English with other students.

(STR2) Rational Planning STR: 4 items

e.g.,

- I plan my schedule so that I will have enough time to study English.
- I have clear goals for doing the tasks.

(STR3) Positive Language Use STR: 5 items

e.g.,

- I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.
- I write notes, message, letters, or reports in English.
- I try to read the passages quickly and make guesses to understand them.

(STR4) Repetition and Substitution STR: 5 items

e.g.,

- If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means similar things.
- I say and write new English word many times.
- I study English repeatedly

(STR5) Associative Memory Use STR: 3 items

e.g.,

- I place the new words in a group with other words that are in some way.
- I list all the other words I know that are related to the new words.
- I think of relationship between what I already know and new things I learn in English.

(STR6) Grammatical Analysis STR: 2 items

e.g.,

- I try to use the illustrative sentences in different combination to make new sentences.
- I use familiar words in different combination to make new sentence.

(STR7) Mnemonics STR: 3 items

e.g.,

- I physically act out the new words.
- I associate the sound of new words with the sound of familiar words.
- I make encouraging statements to myself so that I will continue to try hard and do my best in language learning.

Tsutsui et al. (2006) found 9 types of strategy: Rational Planning STR, Communication STR, Social STR, Associating Memory STR, Analytic Grammar STR, Anxiety Management STR, Practical Writing STR, Repetition STR and Mnemonics STR, whereas 7 types were found in this study. The reason for the difference must be that items relating to learner's anxiety could not consist of one factor. These items were involved in the other factors or deleted. Another reason must be that items relating to writing strategies and reading strategies were comprised of one factor which is interpreted as Positive Language Use STR.

3 Result

3.1 Frequency of strategy use

The frequency of learning strategy use was shown in Figure 1. Figure 1 indicates that Repetition and Substitution STR is most frequently used by the learners. Interestingly, it is also indicated that the learners tend to use Associative Memory Use STR more frequently than Mnemonics STR.

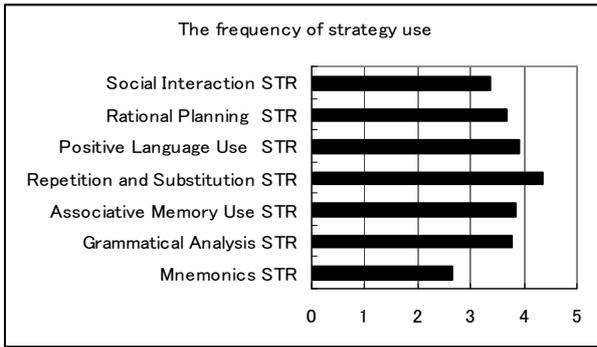


Figure 1: The frequency of strategy use (N=94)

3.2 Correlation between each factor and WeTEC scores

I examined whether the 7 factors extracted from the factor analysis are correlated with WeTEC scores or not. As the first step of the analysis, Pearson's Correlation Coefficient between WeTEC scores and each factor score was calculated. Table 1 shows the results.

Table 1: Correlation between WeTEC scores and the extracted factors

	STR1	STR2	STR3	STR4
Pearson's Correlation Coefficient	.283**	.048	.534**	.045

	STR5	STR6	STR7
Pearson's Correlation Coefficient	.127	-.196	-.060

STR1 to STR 7 means 7 extracted factors.

** indicates the probability level, 0.01.

* indicates the probability level, 0.05.

Table 1 indicates that Social Interaction STR and Positive Language Use STR yielded the statistical significance with WeTEC scores. Also, it indicates that there are negative correlations between Grammatical Analysis STR and WeTEC scores, and between Mnemonics STR and WeTEC scores.

Next, the relationships between frequency of strategy use and level of English proficiency are reported. Each figure shows the frequency of strategy use by each group. The frequency of strategy use was calculated as the average of the factor scores.

As Table 1 indicates, the positive correlations were found between WeTEC scores and the frequency of strategy use such as Social Interaction STR, Positive Language Use STR, Repetition and Substitution STR, and Associative Memory Use STR. In particular, concerning the

Social Interaction STR and Positive Language Use STR, the difference in the frequency between each group was remarkable. It can be said that the more advanced the learners become, the more interactions they require. As for the Rational Planning STR, ceiling effect is found.

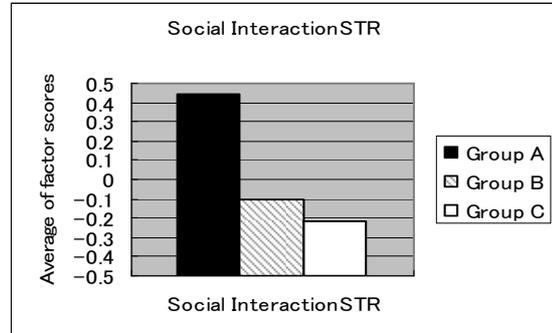


Figure 2: The frequency of Social Interaction STR use by each group

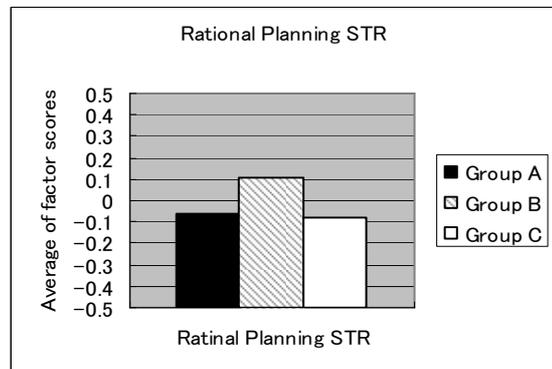


Figure 3: The frequency of Rational Planning STR use by each group

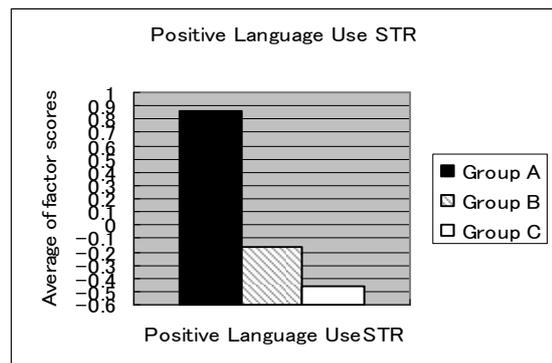


Figure 4: The frequency of Positive Language STR use by each group

Figure 7 and 8 show negative correlations between the frequency of strategy use and the levels of English proficiency. Both figures indicate that the learners in each group infrequently use Grammatical Analysis STR and Mnemonics STR. With regard to the frequency of Mnemonics STR, the advanced group and the pre-intermediate group use this strategy more frequently than the intermediate group.

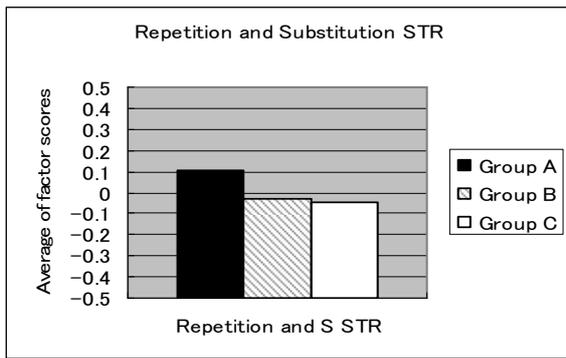


Figure 5: The frequency of Repetition and Substitution STR use by each group

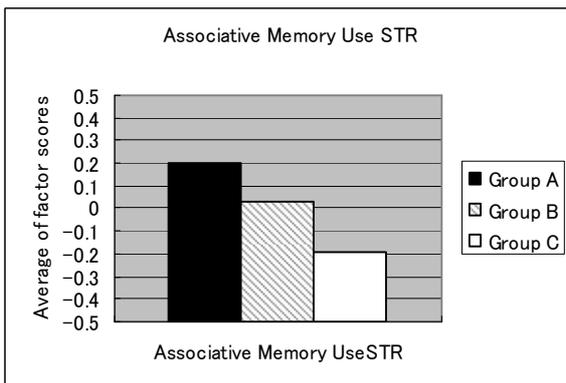


Figure 6: The frequency of Associative Memory Use STR use by each group

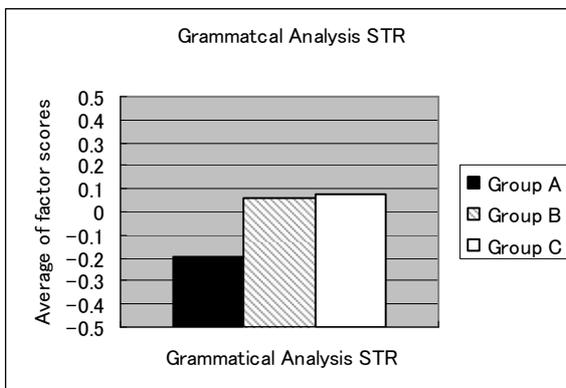


Figure 7: The frequency of Grammatcal Analysis STR use by each group

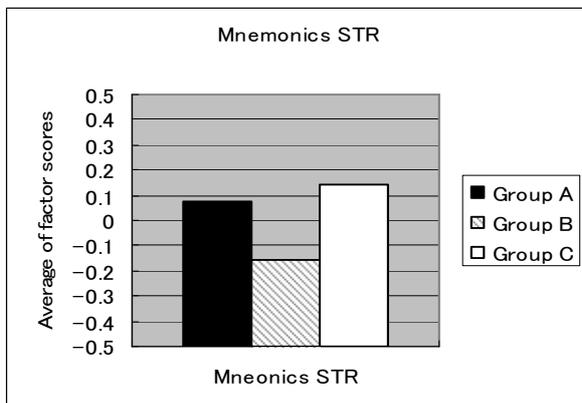


Figure 8: The frequency of Mnemonics STR use by each group

4 Conclusion

This study found close correlations between English proficiency and two strategies which are interpreted as Social Interaction STR and Positive Language Use STR. However, this study could not replicate the results in Tsutsui et al. (2006) because the number of participants was different. They conducted questionnaire-based surveys on huge number of participants across several universities whereas only 94 students in a university participated in this study. From the results, I found that it is necessary to investigate the other individual differences together with learning strategy preferences as in Tsutsui et al. (2006), in order to explore the relationship between learner's internal factors and their English proficiency.

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my special thanks to Eiichiro Tsutsui, who gave me a sample questionnaire.

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The Role of Anxiety in Self-perception of L2 Competence

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Abstract

The present study was published in Kim (2006). It investigated the relationship between anxiety and perceived competence in a specific L2 performance task. Eighty five nonnative pre-service elementary teachers participated in the study. They completed scales of anxiety and self-perceptions of competence on the microteaching task, and they performed the task. L2 competence was assessed in terms of general L2 communication, classroom language and language teaching skills. The results of the study confirmed and extended the findings from the previous study (MacIntyre, Noels & Clément, 1997). Intercorrelations were found among perceived L2 competence, actual L2 competence, and L2 anxiety, and among general L2 communication proficiency, classroom English and language teaching skills. It was also found that anxious pre-service teachers were likely to underestimate their L2 communication, classroom language and language teaching skills while less anxious teachers tended to overestimate their competence.

Keywords

Anxiety, perceived competence, actual competence, self-rating

1 Introduction

In second language acquisition, anxiety is associated with other affective variables, or learning processes and accomplishment, and has been continually studied while relatively little study has been made on perceived competence. Research on perceived competence will show the process of anxiety affecting performance and completion of task and help to better understand the second language learning process.

Within this context, this research attempts to relate anxiety to the tendency of self-evaluation on L2 competence. In this study Korean students at a university of education who are in training to be teachers and who are non-native speakers (NNS) of English were tested to ascertain how anxiety affects L2 perceived competence.

Specifically, this research attempted to find out:

1. Does L2 learning anxiety of these students as L2

learners influence their L2 perception of communicative competence?; 2. Does L2 teaching anxiety of these students as future L2 teachers influence biases in their L2 perception of teaching ability?; 3. Are there any relationships between L2 competence and L2 teaching ability?

2 Methods

2.1 Participants

The participants were 104 junior-year students from three classes at a university of education who were taking a teaching practice course. They were learning L2 teaching skills by practicing the use of classroom English and English teaching methods. They were asked to respond to the questionnaires to measure anxiety and perceived competence a week before they participated in the task during the class session. A total of 85 students who conscientiously completed the questionnaires were selected for analysis.

2.2 Instruments

To measure L2 communication anxiety, twelve items from MacIntyre and Charos (1996) were used. To measure classroom English anxiety and English teaching anxiety, four items from Lee (1999) and Kim and Kim (2004) each were used. Following MacIntyre and Charos (1996), the subjects were asked to mark the degree of anxiety a scale ranging from 0 to 100%. The self-evaluation instruments were made up of items to measure self-perceptions of L2 communicative competence, classroom English competence, and English teaching competence.

To measure self-perception of L2 communicative competence, twelve items of perceived competence from MacIntyre and Charos (1996) were used. For self-perception of classroom English competence and English teaching competence, six items for each category were developed respectively based on Lee (1999).

To measure students' actual performance of L2 communication competence, classroom English competence, and English teaching competence, a microteaching task was assigned two weeks before performance.

3 Results and conclusion

This study tested the NNS student-teachers to determine how perceived L2 competence and actual L2 competence are related to anxiety and how anxiety influences perceived competence. The results of the study revealed the following.

First, there were significant correlations between self-perception and actual competence of the student-teachers in three areas: communicative competence, classroom English competence, and English teaching competence.

Second, both self-perception and actual competence of classroom English competence and English teaching competence were in negative correlation with anxiety. This anxiety showed higher correlations with perceived competence than with actual competence.

Third, there were significant correlations among communicative competence, classroom English competence, and English teaching competence for NNSE student-teachers. There were correlations among self-evaluations of the competence in the three areas. Also, there were correlations among actual evaluation and anxiety in the three areas. The fact that actual competence in the three areas is closely related to each other implies that competence in the three areas transfer to each other, helping mutual development.

The findings that the student-teachers underestimate or overestimate their competence depending on anxiety suggest the following in reference to L2 training process. First, the L2 teacher trainers need to use training strategies to reduce anxiety, which is the cause of underestimation of their competence. At the same time, they may train student-teachers to use communication and learning strategies that might help to reduce anxiety. Besides, they need to develop success-oriented training tasks through which the learners can continuously experience success of task completion to increase their low self-efficacy, the source of anxiety.

However, the learners' tendency to overestimate or underestimate their competence should not be solely approached with uniform criteria. Generally, an overestimation of one's own competence creates more opportunities for practice and experience and is more positive than underestimation. But at the same time, with overestimation, if the learners expect a too high accomplishment relative to their ability, and if the outcomes fall short of their expectation, then they will experience a setback. If such experience is repeated, then they may create a negative attitude toward the development of L2 competence and L2 teaching competence.

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A Comparison of Immigrants in Taiwan with respect to their Language Use and Language Attitude: Southeast Asia brides and Japanese spouses in Tainan

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Abstract

International marriage between countries has become more and more common in the globalization era. There is no exception to Taiwan. The purpose of this study is to investigate Taiwan's new immigrants' local language ability, languages use in family, and language attitude and choice toward local and original ethnic languages.

Keywords

language use, foreign brides, language proficiency, international marriage

Introduction

International marriage between countries has become more and more common in the globalization era. There is no exception to Taiwan. According to the statistics of Taiwan's Ministry of Interior¹ (2007), there were a total of 396,133 foreign spouses in Taiwan by September 2007. They account for 1.72% of Taiwan's total population. Among the foreign spouses, they were mainly from China (259,579), Vietnam (77,828), Indonesia (26,192), Thailand (9,058), Philippine (6,132), Cambodia (4,608), Japan (2,604), and Korea (822). As for gender difference, most of them were female (370,003), and they account for 93% of the foreign spouses.

In Taiwan, the Taiwanese and Mandarin Chinese languages are commonly used in daily life. Therefore, most of the foreign spouses except those who speak Mandarin Chinese or Southern Min from China, have to learn either Mandarin Chinese or Taiwanese in order to get better communication with the local people in Taiwan. To assist the newly arrived immigrants to be acquainted with local languages, the Taiwanese government frequently offer free language classes for them. Once the immigrants acquired the local language(s) and

became bilingual, will they pass their original ethnic language to their children or not? The purpose of this study is to investigate the new immigrants' local language ability, languages use in family, and language attitude and choice toward local and original languages.

1 Methodology

This study was conducted with questionnaires. Questionnaires were collected based on subjects' subjective answers. A total of 77 foreign spouses were interviewed from April to July 2007. The subjects were originally either from Japan or Southeast Asian countries, and they all currently reside in Tainan city in southern Taiwan. Their socio-economic and educational background are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Subjects' socio-economic and educational background

	Southeast Asian / Japanese			
	Male	Female	Male	Female
number	0	62	10	15
Age in average	*	28	43	34
Income				
zero	*	27	*	2
under20000	*	23	1	4
20000-29999	*	10	1	2
30000-49999	*	0	*	4
50000-99999	*	0	4	2
Above 100000	*	0	3	1
education elementary	*	21	0	0
junior high	*	15	0	0
senior high	*	22	4	1
university	*	3	1	11
graduate	*	0	5	3

2 Results and discussions

2.1 Language ability in local languages

Due to time and budget limits, subjects' language ability in local languages (thereafter LALL) was evaluated based on subjects' subjective answers,

¹ Available at <www.ris.gov.tw/ch4/static/st1-9-95.xls>

rather than on objective language tests. Subjects' language ability was summarized in Table 2, in which 5 means highest language ability (native speaker) and 1 means lowest (never learned).

Table 2. Immigrants' language ability in Mandarin Chinese and Taiwanese

	Southeast Asian		Japanese	
		Female	Male	Female
M. Chinese	ave.	3.1	2.8	2.7
	s.d.	0.9	1.5	0.7
Taiwanese	ave.	2.4	1.8	1.4
	s.d.	0.9	1.3	0.5

Statistical correlation tests were employed to predict the potential factors in affecting immigrants' LALL. The preliminary results reveal that immigrants' LALL has NO positive relation to the following factors: 1) time having been stayed in Taiwan, 2) numbers of friends in Taiwan, 3) family size, 4) income, and 5) educational level. In contrast, statistical results show that time spent in learning local language has positive relation to LALL in the cases of Japanese spouses. However, there is no positive relation in the cases of Southeast Asian spouses.

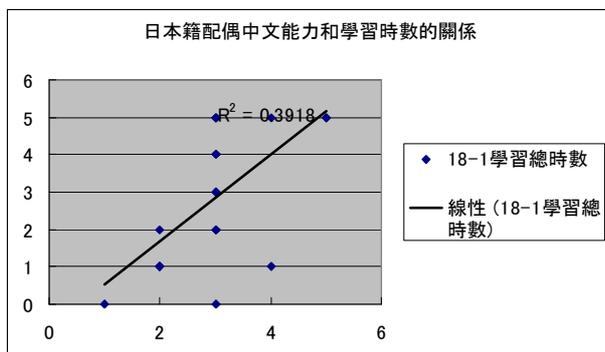


Figure 1: Correlation between Chinese language ability and time spent in learning in the cases of Japanese spouses

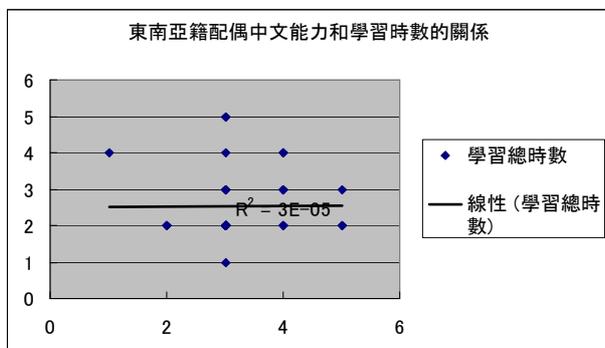


Figure 2: Correlation between Chinese language ability and time spent in learning in the cases of Japanese spouses

Table 3: Language abilities of Southeast Asian spouses' children

	M. Chinese	Taiwanese	Ethnic language
average	4	3.08	1.27
5: Native	34.6%	7.7%	0.0
4: fluent	30.8%	19.2%	0.0
3: good	34.6%	46.2%	3.9%
2: poor	0.0	26.9%	19.2%
1: never learned	0.0	0.0	76.9%

2.2 Language use in family

Table 4. Language use in family

	Southeast Asian	Japanese
M. Chinese-only	45%	20%
Ethnic Language-only	0	60%
Taiwanese-only	0	6.7%
Chinese + Taiwanese	37.5%	0
Chinese + ethnic lg.	2.5%	13.3%
Chinese + Taiwanese + ethnic lg.	7.5%	0
Taiwanese + ethnic lg.	2.5%	0
Chinese + Hakka	5%	0

2.3 Language attitudes and choice

Table 5: Time spent in official class in learning spouse's ethnic language

	Learners (%)	Time in ave.	Target languages
Taiwanese husbands (of Taiwan-Southeast Asia marriages)	0	0	Southeast Asian languages
Southeast Asian wives (of Taiwan-Southeast Asia marriages)	71.7	375	Chinese, Taiwanese
Japanese spouses (of Taiwan-Japan marriage)	79.3	420	M. Chinese
Taiwanese husbands (of Taiwan-Japan marriage)	92.9	540	Japanese
Taiwanese wives (of Taiwan-Japan marriage)	100	615	Japanese

Table 6. Attitudes toward language education for the second generation

	Southeast Asian	Japanese
Chinese	73.1%	7.1%
Chinese first and then ethnic language	23.1%	0
bilingual of Chinese and ethnic language	3.8%	57.1%
Ethnic language first and then Chinese	0	35.7%

3 Preliminary conclusions

Statistical results show that time spent in learning local language has positive relation to LALL in the cases of Japanese spouses. However, there is no positive relation in the cases of Southeast Asian spouses.

Mandarin Chinese and Taiwanese are more likely to be used in the family of Taiwan-Southeast Asian international marriage. In contrast, Japanese are more frequently to be used in Taiwan-Japan intermarriage family.

In the Taiwan-Japan intermarriage family, husband and wife are more willing to learn each other's ethnic language through official language class. However, in the Taiwan-Southeast Asia family, only Southeast Asian wives are willing to learn husband's local language. On the contrary, Taiwanese husbands are not willing to learn Southeast Asian languages.

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The Study on Writing Anxiety in Korean EFL classroom

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Abstract

Reading and writing are two fundamental tools of written communication in the first and the second language. Writing has not been often regarded as the anxiety-related skill in second language education while speaking skill is frequently treated as the anxiety-provoking part. The purpose of my study is to show the effect of writing anxiety on the college students in Korean EFL classroom and to suggest possible ways to get over the anxiety produced in writing class.

The participants in the study are 30 college level students taking English writing class.

Questionnaire and written task results are both measured.

Keywords

writing, anxiety

Introduction

1. The Purpose

The purpose of my study is to show the effect of writing anxiety on the college students in EFL classroom and to suggest possible ways to get over the anxiety produced in writing class.

Anxiety has been regarded as one of emotional factors which can hinder or facilitate learners' language acquisition process. And, of course, the bad side of that feeling has been always emphasized. For some students the feeling of anxiety may be raised from the fear if they are ridiculed for a wrong answer or production in class. So, Researchers have considered production, or, speaking as a primary part which can make students worried.

Reading and writing are two fundamental tools of written communication in the first and the second language. Reading takes a receptive part and writing takes an expressive role in communication of letter. Writing has not been often regarded as the anxiety-related skill in second language education while speaking skill is frequently treated as the anxiety-provoking part.

My concern in this research is turning to the field of writing. Is writing anxiety real in EFL

classroom? In some ways it would seem that writing should be the least anxiety-producing of language functions. Unlike when listening and reading, when writing one controls the language and the content of the message. In this study, I tries to show the effect of an emotional variable, anxiety in the EFL classroom when students are doing the writing tasks.

2. Backgrounds

Arnold, & Brown (1999) state anxiety is quite possibly the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the learning process. It is associated with negative feelings such as uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension and tension. They add it is not always clear how foreign language anxiety comes into being. But when anxiety is present in the classroom, there is a down-spiraling effect. Anxiety makes students nervous and afraid and thus contributes to poor performance. If that nervousness is connected to the cognitive side of anxiety, it can damage the working space of memory, so processing on a type of thinking may be harmed.

We can also see, however, the bright side of anxiety in the previous research as well as harmful effect of anxiety and worry. Bailey (1983) mentioned both learners' debilitating anxiety and facilitating anxiety. Facilitating anxiety is considered as a type of emotional feeling which can be helpful for learning related to competitiveness.

Early research on writing anxiety developed out the studies of communication apprehension (McCroskey 1970) and referred to the problem as writing apprehension (Daly & Miller 1975a).

Raisman(1982) stated the effects of writing anxiety, or writing apprehension can be significant because students often use writing avoidance strategy to choose their career in their L1 as well as L2. But unlike speaking, writing allows time to think about the message (Leki 1999). It means writers can control the language reducing anxiety when they're doing writing tasks.

Method

1. Participants

In this study, the participants are 30 college students (15 male students, 15 female students) who have enrolled the English writing class. Their major is Tourism English but they haven't had enough chance to expose and learn English. So, their English comprehension / production level is not so high. They are taught English writing & grammar during the class in this semester.

2. Measurements

The first measurement tool for my study is the analysis of the result of the written test. The writing test was held on October 2007. Participants were required to make sentences in English according to the given meanings. The other way of measurement is a questionnaire research about anxiety. The questionnaire research was done at the same time. The questionnaire is made for evaluating the degree at which the participants feel anxiety while they have English classes, especially they do writing tasks. The Anxiety Questionnaire consists of 30 anxiety-related questions including 5 open-ended questions. It has the characteristics of self-report showing their emotional state. The questionnaire about anxiety is based on Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory, developed by Cheng (2004) and Writing Apprehension Scale used by Daly & Miller (1975a). The questionnaire is translated into Korean for participants' understanding.

The questions in the questionnaire are about (1) How do the adult learners in the beginning level feel when they think they can't write down what they want to express in English? (2) How does the emotional feeling anxiety act on the adult learners in the beginning level? Can it act positively or negatively?

Results & Discussion

Figure1 shows the differences measured by writing anxiety level between male and female participants.

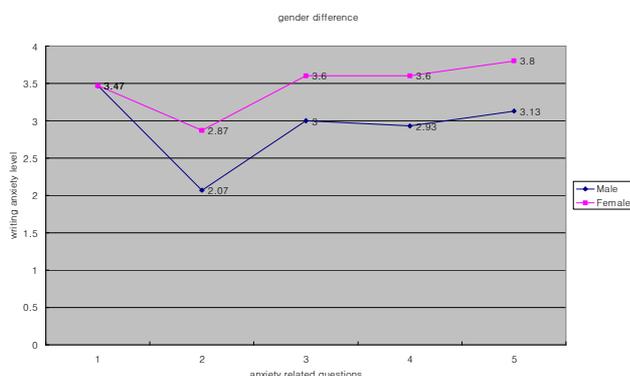


Figure 1. Gender difference on writing anxiety

Results show that the anxiety level female students experience on the writing tasks are higher than the results of male students.

According to results of the questionnaire, the relationship between students' anxiety levels and their writing test scores is not very clear. The research questions I've raised for this study from the beginning are (1) Does anxiety have a negative effect on writing? If so, what is the characteristic of writing anxiety produced in EFL classroom? (2) What suggestions can we, English teachers, give to students when writing if they are experiencing emotional difficulty while writing? But the results are not easy to analyze. Some teaching suggestions for effective writing can be considered for EFL classroom reducing the negative emotional influences.

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Teaching Practice Focusing on Improving Students' Communicative Competence

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Abstract

In this paper, I discuss teaching practice focusing on improving students' communicative competence with reference to some theories and textbook analysis.

Keywords

Communicative competence, Recitations, Speech, Skits, Teaching Practice

Introduction

In this paper, I will discuss my teaching practice aimed at improving communicative competence in a junior high school. Before discussing my teaching practice, I will introduce some theoretical background and analyze some textbooks.

1 Communicative competence

H.G. Widdowson thought of communicative competence as interpretation.

Canale and Swain thought of communicative competence as grammatical competence, sociocultural competence, discourse competence and strategic competence.

2 Recitations

Some textbooks have oral reading exercises that allow students to show various emotions. Emotional expressions are one of the effective ways of communication. To improve these kinds of expressions, we can utilize some English poems and songs as materials for reading aloud. According to one textbook, there are some points to note when participating in speech activities. That is, the importance of reading materials aloud again and again. And the importance of not just reading to oneself but reading materials to the supposed audience. By practicing oral reading, we can improve the importance mentioned above. The idea that we express English sentences showing our emotions abundantly is also one of the goals in another textbook. For example, there is a goal. One can read aloud showing one's emotion which is the

same as that of the author's. To achieve this goal, textbooks also have skit activities. In these activities, we are supposed to practice skit activities by changing underlined words. When practicing, this exercise can be more significant by showing various emotions. We can see here the relation between exercises of skit activities and the effects of oral reading. There is also a goal about reading aloud in some textbooks. That is, one can read aloud with appropriate speed paying attention to intonation, sound variation and accents. This goal also can be achieved by the activity of recitation. We can get the sense of intonation and accent as a form.

3 Speech

I think speech activities have some relationship to sociocultural competence and discourse competence discussed by Canale and Swain. That is because in many textbooks the speech activities are dealt with as one project. That is, students are supposed to collect some information, summarize them and express them in public. For example, if you make a speech on Japanese culture, you can improve sociocultural competence in the process of looking into Japanese culture. You can also improve discourse competence in the process of summarizing the information to the audience.

Next, I will look at the way the speech activity is composed in textbooks. There is a tendency. Some textbooks have the speech activities right after studying certain linguistic forms and functions, while other textbooks do not. Though this tendency is much more evident in the skit activity, it also can apply to the speech activity.

4 Skits

We will look at skit activities in this section. There are two ways of exercising skit activities. One way of exercising them is to use the skit without any change. Another way is to use the skit by changing the underlined word. The former is effective in the aspect of improving grammatical competence and

strategic competence discussed by Canale and Swain. The latter is effective in the aspect of improving sociocultural competence and discourse competence by Canale and Swain. The reason is that the former way of exercising them is the same as that of exercising recitation, in that both ways exercising enables students to gain the structure of English.

Furthermore, both ways are effective mediums of expressing various emotions.

On the other hand, the latter way of exercising is an effective way of improving discourse competence in that students have to think of the skit as a whole in changing the underlined word. They also have to think of whether the whole sentence is socioculturally appropriate when changing the underlined word. As a result, these activities improve both sociocultural competence and discourse competence.

5 Teaching Practice

In this section, I will discuss my teaching practice at Tokyo Gakugeidaigaku Fuzoku Takehaya Junior High School. My teaching practice has three parts. That is, oral readings, speech activities and skit practices.

I will discuss what I did. During the first term, I did not make students recite long sentences such as English poems and songs. I made students learn their favorite proverbs by heart as a bridge to recitation of longer sentences. There were five skit lessons. In choice of topic, there are two standards for judging. One standard is that I take the topic which has close relationship with students' daily lives. Another standard is that I take the topic which improves students' grammatical knowledge by using them in the skit.

Then, there were two speech activities. Some students made a speech about the person who influenced them, Japanese traditions and schools when the ALT first came to the class. I gave the students who listened to the speeches an evaluation sheet. By making students evaluate, I also intended to make students be aware of some important points when making a speech. Other than the activities mentioned above, I taught students to write a diary in English.

During the second term, I did not make students do recitation of long sentences either. Here, I also made students learn their favorite proverbs by heart as a bridge to recitation of longer sentences.

There were three skit lessons. All three skit lessons dealt with topics which were familiar with students' daily lives. There were two speech activities. As students made ALT newspapers, I made students make a speech on their newspaper. Another speech activity is about students' dream. As is the same

with the first term, I gave students who listened to the speeches evaluation sheets. As I have said, I intended to make students realize some important points when making a speech.

Now is not the third term. So, I will just briefly mention my teaching plan in the third term. I regard the recitation of English poems and songs as the main activity in the third term. Other activities will be skit activities. Students will practice skit activities which are dealt with frequently in many textbooks.

6 Conclusion

I have discussed my teaching practice both from the aspect of communicative competence and from the aspect of textbook analysis. I will discuss my teaching practice considering another aspect, the aspect of debate in my next paper. I am also thinking about discussing my teaching practice aimed at improving students' communicative competence in high school.

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Investigating English Teachers' Attitudes towards E-learning Platforms

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Abstract

This study investigated English tertiary teachers' attitudes toward using E-learning platforms in instruction. It used the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) as a theoretical framework to analyze the participants' attitudes towards using a new technology system. English teachers teaching in higher education in Taiwan formed the sample of this study. A survey method was used to gather the data for analysis. The research aims at answering the following two questions: What is English teachers' attitude toward using E-learning platform? What are the variables influence English teachers' use of E-learning platform? Investigating external variables that influence teachers' attitudes towards applying E-learning platforms in instruction can help researchers and system manufactures to provide a better courseware and technology support for language teachers. In the field of computer-assisted-language-learning, English teachers can then better apply the technology systems to help more language learners.

Keywords

CALL, E-learning platforms, TAM (Technology Accepted Model)

1. Introduction

In the Information Age, universities all around the world strongly encourage their faculty to use technology in the classroom. E-learning platforms facilitate teachers to manage their course materials and deliver their instruction. With this trend of applying technology in instruction, computer-assisted instruction is also valued in English courses. This study investigated English tertiary teachers' attitudes toward using E-learning platforms in instruction. It used the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) as a theoretical framework to analyze the participants' attitudes towards using a new

technology system. TAM was proposed by Davis in 1986 in his doctoral thesis. Since then, it has been used widely by many researchers. In the information technology area, TAM is still one of the best-known models for explaining intention to use a new technology. It assumes that the perceived usefulness (PU) and the perceived ease of use (PEOU) are central in influencing a person's attitudes and behavioral intentions towards using it (Scheppers & Wetzels, 2007). More other variables might also influence a person's attitudes and behavioral intentions towards using it such as social factors, university support, E-learning system functionality, personal innovativeness with technology, computer self efficacy, measuring perceived usefulness, measuring perceived ease of use, and teachers' personal attitudes. Thus, this study attempts to find the significant variables that influence teachers' application of E-learning platforms.

2. The study

The study selected part of the data from a major study investigating tertiary teachers' attitudes towards using E-learning platforms in higher education in Taiwan. Data reported in this paper included English teachers of higher education in Taiwan who had participated in a digital training program offered by Ministry of Education, Taiwan during the two past summers. All of these teachers have English background and technology background, and had experience of applying technology in their classes. A survey method was used to gather the data for analysis. The questionnaire includes questions about the participants' basic background information including their years of teaching, school types, and their ability of using multimedia programs. Likert-scale items of attitude questions with five

points were designed to investigate teachers' attitudes towards technology acceptance.

The research aims at answering the following two questions: What is English teachers' attitude toward using E-learning platform? What are the variables influence English teachers' use of E-learning platform?

This study first describes the subjects' characteristics according to the valid questionnaires. Next, it used SPSS 15.0 for Windows to test the construct reliability and to report the data.

2.1 Subjects' characteristics

There are twenty-two English Teachers joining the Digital Learning Program offered by Ministry of Education, Taiwan. The questionnaire surveying teachers' attitudes towards using E-learning platforms was distributed to these teachers and twelve respondents were received. Selected data are presented in this paper. The data of the sample are described in Table 1.

Table 1: Teachers' Background Information

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender			
Male	2	16.7	16.7
Female	10	83.3	100.0
Position:			
Professor	1	8.3	8.3
Associate Professor	1	8.3	16.7
Assistant Professor	2	16.7	33.3
Lecturer	6	50.0	83.3
Part-time Lecturer	2	16.7	100.0
Age			
25-30 years old	2	16.7	16.7
31-35 years old	2	16.7	33.3
36-40 years old	2	16.7	50.0
41-45 years old	3	25.0	75.0
51-55 years old	1	8.3	83.3
Over 56	2	16.7	100.0
Educated			
Doctor	4	33.3	33.3

Master	8	66.7	100.0
Years of Teaching			
0-5 years	3	25.0	25.0
6-10 years	2	16.7	41.7
11-15 years	4	33.3	75.0
More than 25 years	3	25.0	100.0
School Type			
National	3	25.0	25.0
Private	9	75.0	100.0
School System			
General universities	7	58.3	58.3
Universities of Science and Technology	4	33.3	91.7
Technological institutes	1	8.3	100.0
School Area			
Taipei City	5	41.7	41.7
Taipei County	3	25.0	66.7
Taoyun County	1	8.3	75.0
Hsinchu County	1	8.3	83.3
Yunlin County	1	8.3	91.7
Tainan County	1	8.3	100.0

2.2 Item analysis

Select items are described for analysis. See Appendix A for the items. The means of the 18 items in the questionnaire are presented in Table 2. All of the items have a mean higher than 3.75. Item 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 11, 16, 17, and 18 have a mean higher than 4.0.

Table 2: Result of English Teachers' Attitudes towards E-learning Platforms

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	12	4.1667	.71774
2	12	4.1667	.83485
3	12	4.0833	.99620
4	12	4.0000	.85280
5	12	3.9167	.90034
6	12	3.8333	.83485
7	12	4.1667	.83485
8	12	4.0833	.51493
9	12	4.0000	.60302

10	12	3.9167	.66856
11	12	4.0000	.73855
12	12	3.9167	.79296
13	12	3.7500	.75378
14	12	3.7500	.86603
15	12	3.8333	.57735
16	12	4.0833	.90034
17	12	4.0000	.73855
18	12	4.0000	.85280

Items 12 to 15 did not have a mean higher than 4. The reasons why these items did not achieve a higher mean might be due to the following reasons:

First, not all teachers were interested in all types of technology devices. Some might had good experiences with E-learning platforms while they might not have good experience with other types of technology devices.

Second, for English teachers, E-learning platforms are not common used in class and the efficacy of English teachers did not really fall on technology application. Item 13 and item 14 are in this case.

Third, item 15 might not be applied well for English teachers as they responded to this item while it might be true for other subject teachers such as technology related teachers. Thus, it did not achieve a higher mean.

3. Conclusion

This study finds that teachers show positive attitudes toward E-learning Platforms. In this paper, the following results are reported:

- As the government encourages teachers to use new technology in their teaching in higher education, teachers would like to try new technology as an indication of advancement in course management.
- The teachers' schools are committed to supporting teachers' efforts in using E-learning platforms for teaching. Thus, teachers are willing to try new course delivery formats.
- Some teachers' schools recognize their faculty's efforts in using E-learning platforms for teaching. This factor also indicates that university support is a strong external variable that influences teachers' course instruction and reform.

- For language learners and teachers, E-learning platforms might offer flexibility in learning as to time and place. Thus, teachers would like to try and ask their students to try using it anywhere for language learning.
- Most of the teachers in this study indicate that they will use E-learning platforms in a future course, which shows teachers have positive attitudes toward this type of course management format.
- Only one teacher said, "I'm more interested in teaching students via face to face." This might indicates that still some language teachers favor face-to-face English instruction format as real language communication.

This study finds that investigating external variables that influence teachers' attitudes towards applying E-learning platforms in instruction can help researchers and system manufactures to provide a better courseware and technology support for language teachers. In the field of computer-assisted language learning, English teachers can then better apply the technology systems to help more language learners.

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5. Appendices

Appendix A: The Attitude Questionnaire

Item	Questions
1	The Government encourages teachers to use new technology in their teaching.
2	The University is committed to supporting my efforts in using course E-learning platforms for teaching.

3	The University strongly encourages the use of course E-learning platforms for teaching.
4	The University will recognize my efforts in using course E-learning platforms for teaching.
5	The University is committed to a vision of using course E-learning platforms in teaching.
6	E-learning platforms offer flexibility in learning as to time and place.
7	E-learning platforms offer multimedia (audio, video, images and text) types of course content.
8	E-learning platforms provide a means for taking tests and turning in assignments.
9	E-learning platforms can present course materials in a well-organized and readable format.
10	E-learning platforms can clearly present course content.
11	If I heard about a new information technology, I would look for ways to experiment with it.
12	I like to experiment with new information technologies.
13	Using E-learning platforms improves the quality of my teaching.
14	Overall, I find the E-learning platforms useful in my job.
15	It is easy for me to remember how to perform tasks using the E-learning platform.
16	Overall, I find the E-learning platforms easy to use.
17	I intend to use the E-learning platforms in a future course.
18	I predict I might use the E-learning platforms in future courses.

Does vowel quality matter?

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Abstract

This study aims to address two issues: one is to describe acoustically English vowels produced by native speakers of Japanese; the other is to investigate whether vowel quality affects overall proficiency in pronunciation. The results showed each group, according to the proficiency level, held a slightly different L2 vowel system; however, vowel quality was not defined as the crucial factor to dictate the overall proficiency in pronunciation.

Keywords

vowel, second language, acoustic analysis

1 Introduction

1.1 Current need in SLA

Adult speakers of second language (L2) are believed to need to exert more assiduous effort than children to acquire the target language in both the phonetic and phonological aspects. According to Flege (1987), their difficulty in the successful acquisition of L2 sounds is attributed to various factors such as developmental factors, motivation and affective factors, and social factors. L2 learners themselves, experiencing the effect of interlanguage transfer, do also realize how demanding it is to overcome these difficulties and to learn to speak the L2 with accurate phonetics and phonology just like native speakers do. Drifting with this current, “intelligibility” has started to gain attention disputing the native-like pronunciation argument.

As long as it is true that L2 learners are required to obtain only a marginal pronunciation to keep their speech comprehensible as Jenkins insists (2000), all L2 learners have to do is to acquire L2 pronunciation exclusively. In other words, some phonemes or phones need to be mastered accurately, whereas others do not have to be. It will, therefore, reduce the burden on L2 learners to reveal whether this claim is factual or not.

1.2 The aim of the study

The pronunciation of language primarily consists of two main features: segment and suprasegment.

These two are also composed of a variety of features including vowel, consonant, stress, intonation, pause and many more. Then what is identified as the so-called good pronunciation to achieve intelligible communication?

Probably, the overall proficiency in pronunciation, as the compound of these phonetic and phonological features, has to be high, whether or not each feature is acquired properly. Out of the possible features to make the pronunciation good, this study characterizes the contribution of vowel quality on the so-called good pronunciation by L2 speakers, and addresses two issues: how vowel quality produced by native speakers of Japanese can be described, and whether vowel quality is crucial to the overall proficiency in pronunciation.

1.3 Previous studies

As Piske, Mackay and Flege (2001) suggest, on the other hand, segmental and suprasegmental aspects are so closely related that the empirical evidence had not been adduced to determine how contributory to foreign accent each aspect is, such as segment, prosody and fluency. Therefore, not many studies have focused on how the vowel quality in L2, just one phonetic parameter, contributes to the overall proficiency in pronunciation. The following two studies are research related to vowels spoken by L2 learners.

Munro (1993) examined foreign accentedness of English vowels spoken by native speakers of Arabian. He measured vowel duration, first and second formant frequencies (F1, F2 respectively) and formant movement of them, and observed that F1 and formant movement in F2 led to foreign accentedness. He, however, did not go so far as to suggest how this finding was relevant to the overall proficiency in pronunciation or intelligibility.

Suenobu, Kanzaki and Yamane (1992) conducted research on error analysis of speech produced by Japanese learners of English. They categorized errors into six types: consonant addition, vowel substitution, consonant substitution, consonant deletion, wrong pause insertion and wrong accentuation, and pointed out that comparing

errors in consonants with those in vowels, the former was much more serious in misunderstanding. That is to say, vowels are of little importance, in that the accuracy of them is not required for intelligible communication.

1.4 Comparison of the vowel systems

In order to design the experiment examining the two issues discussed in section 1.2, it is necessary to look over the difference of vowel inventory between Japanese and English.

Japanese has five vowels in quality, namely, close front, close back, mid front, mid back and open central, as shown in Figure 1, and each vowel can be both long and short. On the other hand, Figure 2 illustrates English holds the much larger vowel system with about eleven or twelve vowels, whose number slightly varies from accent to accent.

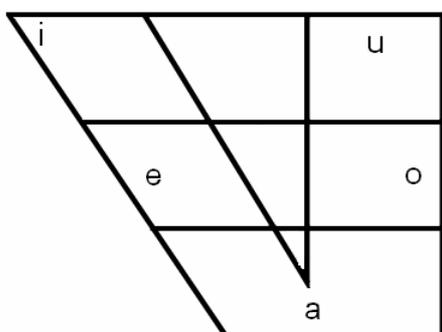


Figure 1. Japanese vowel system

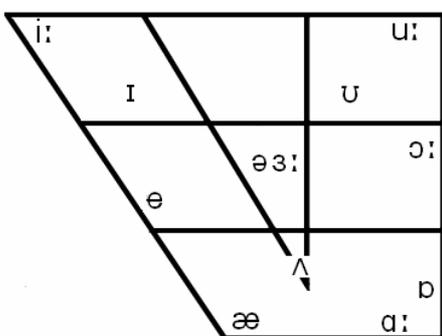


Figure 2. English vowel system (RP)

Comparing two vowel inventories enables us to speculate on the possible interlanguage transfer on vowels. Obviously, Japanese has a much smaller vowel inventory than English, so that native speakers of Japanese will be very likely to produce two or more distinct vowels of English in the same phonological vowel space.

For instance, /i:/ and /ɪ/ in English are so close to each other that native speakers of Japanese should integrate them into the same vowel space. If this substitution rule is valid, English vowels around the /a/ area of Japanese vowel inventory must be the most problematic because the largest number of English vowels lie there. Based on the

auditory judgment as well as the visual one, /a/ in Japanese can be a counterpart of /æ, ɑ:, ə, ɜ:, ʌ/. Likewise, English /u:/ and /ʊ/ should be less distinguishable.

2 Methodology

An experiment to address the two issues mentioned in section 1.2 followed two steps: first, recorded the passage produced, rated them, defined the overall proficiency in pronunciation and grouped them into three according to the level; then, measured the F1 and the F2 of the collected data and carried out the appropriate statistical test.

2.1 Participants

Participants were thirty-eight Japanese university students. The average of their ages was 20.4 years with a standard deviation of 2.1. The average length of their study of English was 9.3 years with 2.8 as a standard deviation.

2.2 Recording

The participants read a phonetically balanced passage, "The north wind and the sun." The speech was digitally tape-recorded using Roland R-09 and a condenser microphone, SONY ECM-MS957. It took around 15 minutes to complete the task, including providing self-introductions, receiving instructions about the content of the passage and recording their speech.

2.3 Rating

Raters comprised of seven English teachers who had achieved Master's degrees in English language education or related areas. They all attended the workshop to discuss the evaluation criteria set by the Common European Framework of References (Council of Europe, 2001) before participating in the rating. The raters evaluated the recorded speech adopting fourteen items.

The evaluation scores were analyzed based on a multi-faceted Rasch model, using statistical software FACETS (Linacre, 2006). In this analysis, the examinees' ability is reported as a logit score. According to the score reported, the participants were divided into three groups: high, mid, and low.

2.4 Measurements

Acoustic measurements of the six target vowels, /i:, ɪ, u:, ʊ, æ, ʌ/, were done with acoustic analysis software, Praat. Firstly, segmentation was provided to each speech. Then, the F1 and the F2 of the target vowel were measured at the point which was considered under the least influence from sounds adjacent to it. The point was visually

defined by hand with the help of formant tracks from F1 to F5.

The words including the target vowel were as follows; agreed [1], succeed [1], immediately [1] for /i:/; wind [4], which [1], considered [1] for /ɪ/; disputing [1], blew [2], two [1] for /u:/; should [1], could [1], took [1] for /ʊ/; traveler [4], wrapped [1], last [1] for /æ/; sun [3], one [1], other [1], up [1] for /ʌ/. The number in the blanket indicates how many times the word was spoken. If a word was repeated more than once, the values of F1 and F2 were averaged; as a result, the data of each target vowel was obtained from three or four different words respectively.

2.5 Statistical test

As a physical reference of the achievement in vowel quality, whether each speaker differentiated each vowel from another was examined. The value of formant frequencies is subject to inter-speaker variability, and therefore the simple comparison of formant frequency values is not sufficient. Rather the ability to categorize each vowel counts.

Thus, a statistical test, a discriminant analysis was conducted with SPSS to investigate the speakers' achievements in classifying the six vowels.

3 Results and discussion

The five-participant data in each group was, after all, acoustically measured. This is because the raters defined only five as high in the overall proficiency in pronunciation. Consequently, five sets of data were randomly selected from the whole data of the mid-level and low-level group, and each group was made up of two males and three females.

The following three figures, Figure 3 through 5, are examples of the scatter graphs for each group to represent the F1 and F2 values. F1 values are plotted on the y axis, and F2 values on the x axis.

As far as the visual observation on the scatter graphs of all the data go, three vowel spaces seem roughly created among the six vowels at issue, according to the phonetic and phonological similarity: /i:/, ɪ/ space, /u:/, ʊ/ space and /æ/, ʌ/ space. The English vowels whose counterparts in Japanese are in the same vowel space, therefore, appear to overlap one another, creating one vowel space. This tendency is remarkable within /æ/, ʌ/ quasi-space. Furthermore, /i:/, ɪ/ and /u:/, ʊ/ quasi-spaces are relatively close though neither of the others is. As a result, the boundary between these spaces is not always clearly defined.

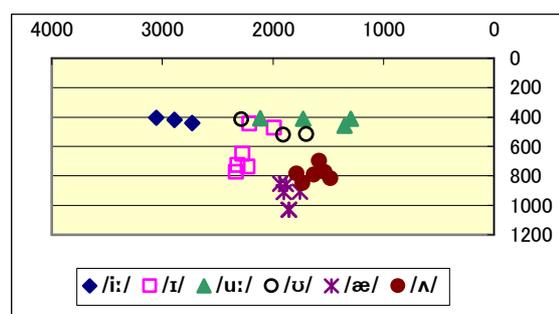


Figure 3. F1 and F2 for a fem. speaker (high-level)

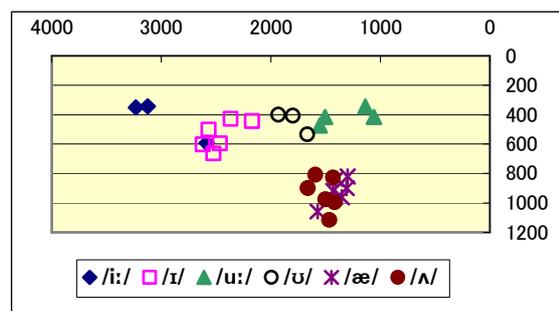


Figure 4. F1 and F2 for a fem. speaker (mid-level)

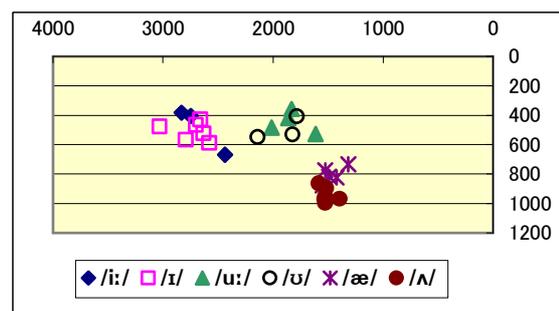


Figure 5. F1 and F2 for a fem. speaker (low-level)

The next tables, Table 1 to 3, show the results of the linear discriminant analysis with cross validation between every possible pair for each group different in overall proficiency in pronunciation. Bold percentages in the tables indicate correct classification rates within each quasi-space argued in the previous paragraph.

There are two main points to be noticed. Firstly, the correct classification rates within the three spaces (bold percentages), i.e. /i:/, ɪ/, /u:/, ʊ/ and /æ/, ʌ/ whose counterparts in Japanese are /i/, /u/ and /a/ respectively, were strikingly low for all the groups, except that the speakers in the high-level group tended to succeed in classifying /i:/ and /ɪ/ (86.7%). Secondly, /æ/, ʌ/ space was independent of the other spaces to a large degree for all the groups; however, this was not necessarily true of the boundary between /i:/, ɪ/ and /u:/, ʊ/. To put it simply, /i:/, ɪ/, u:/, ʊ/ were somehow likely to be confused even beyond Japanese vowel space. This tendency was evident concerning every group

though the way it overlapped was not the same.

Table 1: Correct classification rates (high-level)

	/ɪ/	/u:/	/ʊ/	/æ/	/ʌ/
/i:/	86.7	90.0	90.0	100	100
/ɪ/	-	70.0	80.0	100	100
/u:/	-	-	63.3	100	100
/ʊ/	-	-	-	96.7	100
/æ/	-	-	-	-	62.9

Table 2: Correct classification rates (mid-level)

	/ɪ/	/u:/	/ʊ/	/æ/	/ʌ/
/i:/	51.4	80.0	83.6	100	100
/ɪ/	-	75.9	75.9	96.4	97.1
/u:/	-	-	63.3	96.6	94.3
/ʊ/	-	-	-	96.6	91.4
/æ/	-	-	-	-	53.7

Table 3: Correct classification rates (low-level)

	/ɪ/	/u:/	/ʊ/	/æ/	/ʌ/
/i:/	43.3	90.0	76.7	100	97.1
/ɪ/	-	90.0	83.3	100	100
/u:/	-	-	56.7	93.1	88.6
/ʊ/	-	-	-	93.1	91.4
/æ/	-	-	-	-	55.9

Describing the details of the second point leads to a further discussion for each group as follows. To begin with, as for the high-level group, that /i:/ and /ɪ/ were distinguished and conversely /ɪ/ and /u:/, /ʊ/ overlapped (70.0%, 80.0%) implies that /i:/ vowel space was quite fixed in the speaker's phonology; instead, /ɪ/ space approached /u:/, /ʊ/ space. Next, apropos of the mid-level group, both that /i:/ and /u:/ were not differentiated from /ɪ/ (51.4%) and /ʊ/ (63.3%) respectively and that /ɪ/ and /u:/, /ʊ/ were confused (75.9%, 75.9%) suggests that /ɪ/ space moved toward /u:/, /ʊ/ space in the same way as the high-level group although a vague boundary seemed to exist between /i:/, /ɪ/ and /u:/, /ʊ/ vowel spaces. Finally, with regard to the low-level group, /i:/ and /u:/ were not well-distinguishable from /ɪ/ (43.3%) and /ʊ/ (56.7%) respectively, but the correct classification rates between /ɪ/ and /u:/, /ʊ/ were much higher (90.0%, 83.3%) than those for the other groups while /ʊ/ was more confused with /i:/, /ɪ/ (76.7%, 83.3%) than the other vowels except for /u:/. This indicates these four vowels had yet to hold their own vowel space, and /ʊ/ space advanced towards /i:/, /ɪ/ vowel space, taking /u:/ forward along with it.

The reason why some vowels were confused with others is mostly because, as mentioned above,

the vowel space was yet to be established in the speakers' phonology. Besides, there are several reasons that /ɪ/ approached /u:/, /ʊ/ for the high-level and mid-level group. One is that /ɪ/ in two target words out of three was preceded by voiced labial-velar approximant which has some phonetic features in common with /u:/, /ʊ/ and /ɪ/ in this context was subject to the effect of /w/ due to the phenomena called "coarticulation" or "undershoot." The more fluent the speech is, the more frequently these changes occur. This is why /i:/ might have happened to be well-distinguished from /ɪ/ for the high-level group.

4 Conclusion

To conclude, all the groups showed the similar tendency in the classification in that not all the speakers perfectly succeeded in holding six vowels distinct. Accordingly, what can be maintained is that the overall proficiency in pronunciation is less related to vowel quality. Whether undershoot occurs or /æ, ʌ/ are not classified correctly, the learners were, in effect, categorized into the different level of pronunciation proficiency. This highlights, as Suenobu et al. (1992) and Jenkins (2000) infer, the overall proficiency in pronunciation or the so-called good pronunciation is defined with other factors, rather than vowel quality itself.

Acknowledgement

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Analysis on Text Chats of Novice Japanese Learners of English in Computer Mediated Communication

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Abstract

With the advancement of the Information Technology, it has been made easier for students different in nationality to exchange messages with each other. Distance Learning Center at Waseda University in Japan provides their students and the students at partner universities with various types of programs for such needs. One is Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) program. One component in the program is PC-Based Text Chat.

This study reports sample analysis in the computer mediated communication (CMC) in terms of Vocabulary level, Type/Token Ratio, and Mean Length of Utterance in words. Most of the subjects are novice learners of English at Waseda University, who chatted with students relatively good at speaking English at Kangwon National University. There are several studies on chat text data (see, eg., Park and Nakano, 2002). The present study focuses on novice learners of English at Waseda University.

Keywords

Vocabulary, Computer Mediated Communication (CMC)

Strategic Language Teaching: Using Moodle in EFL contexts

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to show how effectively Moodle can be used in practical language teaching and language learning environments. Moodle is an open-source learning management system (LMS). This LMS has attracted worldwide attention from lots of teachers and educational practitioners because of its cost-effective and multi-functional features. Against the backdrop of increasing demands of information and communication technology in EFL contexts, Moodle is worthy of our attention. Therefore, this study describes various kinds of strategies for using Moodle so that language teachers can facilitate language teaching activities in e-learning environments. The results of a questionnaire conducted on 17 Japanese teachers of English who are familiar with the Moodle system will be reported. The endorsability of Moodle-based strategies will also be discussed so that we can extract the strategies worth adopting in an e-learning environment.

Keywords

e-Learning, Moodle, strategies

1. Introduction: What is Moodle?

Moodle is regarded as an open-source learning management system (LMS). It is also known as CMS (course management system) because it enables language teachers and course developers to create and implement a learning course virtually. This Moodle system has cost-effective and feature-rich characteristics; therefore, language teachers and educational practitioners can take advantage of this system to facilitate language teaching activities and build an environment for a wide variety of language learning activities without introducing enormous financial costs.

Item and activity formats available in a Moodle course include cloze (embedded answers, dictations, short answer, and other fill-in-the-blank tasks), multiple choice and random short-answer matching (for simple vocabulary tests). Using these close-ended questions, automatic assessment as

well as instant feedback can be possible. Giving immediate feedback has great impact on new millennial types of learners. Ubiquitous learning makes it possible for students to study and learn at their own paces, either at home or at school. The close-ended question type of tasks may well be assigned as homework, if the answers are close-ended or fixed, and general and common feedback is possibly given. Meanwhile, language teachers can spend more time focusing on more creative, authentic, and language-use oriented activities and providing more specific and individualized feedback in class. Needless to say, Moodle leads to the efficiency of our teaching activities.

Open-ended questions and more creative activities can be also carried out through the Moodle formats, (i.e., chat, forum, journals, workshop and online and offline text assignments). Even in class, by using Moodle, we can provide such productive activities as communicative tasks, writing tasks, and note-taking. Teachers' individualized comments and score-rating can be given, and the assessment reports will be sent to individual students. Learners' learning histories and other educational resources are automatically accumulated; therefore, teachers' duties such as attendance, monitoring, portfolio assessment and evaluations may be facilitated by making effective use of Moodle.

2. Moodle-based teaching strategies¹

Let us turn to various kinds of potential strategies for using Moodle. Since Moodle will facilitate our teaching activities in e-learning environments. The following strategies are discussed in turn: (1) To minimize introduction and running costs, (2) to pool items and share materials with colleagues, (3) to take advantage of authentic materials and activities, (4) to provide immediate feedback and assessments, (5) to utilize various test forms and different types of activities, (6) to keep track of students' activities and adjust your teaching accordingly, (7) to make effective use of students'

¹ The word 'strategy' is used here in a general sense.

naturally occurring data.

Minimize introduction and running costs

Moodle is freely downloadable software, although commercial software (especially if packaged with technical supports) may cost you enormous amounts of money ranging from 1,000,000 yen to 10,000,000 yen (Hamaoka, 2006). Besides, Moodle functions well on a Linux operation system, which is also freely available on the Internet. Moreover, if you effectively use materials on the Internet and make electronic handouts, you can also cut down paper costs. Students should be encouraged to save what was learned in their own USB memories or other electronic media so that they can review it afterwards.

Pool items and share materials with colleagues

Each teacher surely has his/her own teaching points or educational goals; therefore, some may like to produce contents individually. However, Moodle also allows teachers to work together as a team to create and share the contents. A noteworthy feature of Moodle is that each course developer or each teacher can customize the items, contents, and activities according to learners' proficiency levels or needs, and teachers' goals or beliefs. Educationally good items and materials should be reused, cloned and shared. Otherwise, one-shot items and activities are quite wasteful. Moreover, item responses answered by many students can be educationally and psychometrically valuable resources.

Take advantage of authentic materials and activities

Both controlled and authentic materials may be equally important in the context of language learning and language use. Because Moodle requires computers with internet access, we can make full use of natural resources on the Internet. Using naturally occurring texts, we can provide scanning and skimming activities. Huge amounts of sound and movie files give us a repertoire of more creative and rather authentic learning activities. Dudeney (2000) presents a wide variety of online activities which can be usefully applied in practical language teaching.

Bachman (1990) and Ellis (2003) put forward the idea that both 'interactional authenticity' and 'situational authenticity' are important in testing situations. Moodle ensures interactive activities by using chat formats.

My colleague in Korea and I administered a cross-cultural computer-mediated communication project for a short period of time. (Korean students are intermediate and Japanese students are false-

intermediate.) According to their Moodle journals, almost all students liked or appreciated these opportunities for the genuine interactions. However, technically, at least 2GB random access memory is necessary to ensure 50 persons' concurrent chatting activities.

Provide immediate feedback and adaptive learning.

Prensky (2001a), who advocates digital game-based learning, reiterates the importance of immediate feedback and constant stimulation in learning. By the adaptive mode available in Moodle, students are immediately informed whether the items are answered correctly or incorrectly. Thus, accordingly, students can make another attempt. Overall, this sort of dynamic learning or interactive assessment seems to attract current students. Educational feedback should be given as early as possible, since on-the-spot feedback may have the utmost impact on students. Pronskey (2001b) states that 'our students have changed radically, and today's students are no longer the people our educational system was designed to teach.' Accordingly, new-millennial language teachers may need to plan teaching activities for students with millennial or neo-millennial learning styles (Dede, 2005).

Utilize various test forms and different types of activities

As mentioned earlier, along with language learning-oriented activities, (i.e., close-ended and open-ended type of questions and tasks), more language-use oriented, performance-based tasks are possible through the formats of discussion forum, text-chat and blogging systems. Balanced learning and teaching (i.e., accuracy vs. fluency, fluency vs. intelligibility, language learning vs. language use, production skills vs. reception skills) will be necessary when using Moodle in the classroom. We can and should carefully monitor learners' needs and weaknesses and adjust our teaching contents, dynamically.

Monitor students' activities and adjust your teaching accordingly

Moodle also provides statistical information of items (i.e., item difficulty & item discrimination) based on classical test theory. One of the teachers' important jobs is to carefully adjust the levels of tasks as well as activities. If the tasks are too difficult or not at all challenging, learners are liable to be demotivated. In addition, if you encourage students to study independently either at school or at home, teachers need to assign attainable tasks.

Not only teachers but also students like to monitor 'history logs'. It is important for students to

become responsible for their own learning. We hope to gradually pass on the learning responsibility to learners. Showing teachers' active involvement and engagement is crucial in e-learning environments.

Make effective use of students' naturally occurring data

Students' naturally occurring production data, such as essay-writing, can be easily collected in Moodle. If students regularly work on any writing tasks, (i.e. if they constantly have a text communication via Moodle,) learners' developmental process can be observed. Tsutsui (2001) describes the incremental development in synchronous CMC data as shown in table 1 as well as in figure 1.

Table 1: Averaged MLU by sessions (adapted from Tsutsui 2001)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japanese students (M=5.92)	4.88	5.66	5.66	5.97	5.9	6.42	6.94
Korean students (M=6.63)	5.35	6.18	6.06	7.04	6.99	7.19	7.62
ALL (M=6.28)	5.12	5.92	5.86	6.5	6.45	6.81	7.28

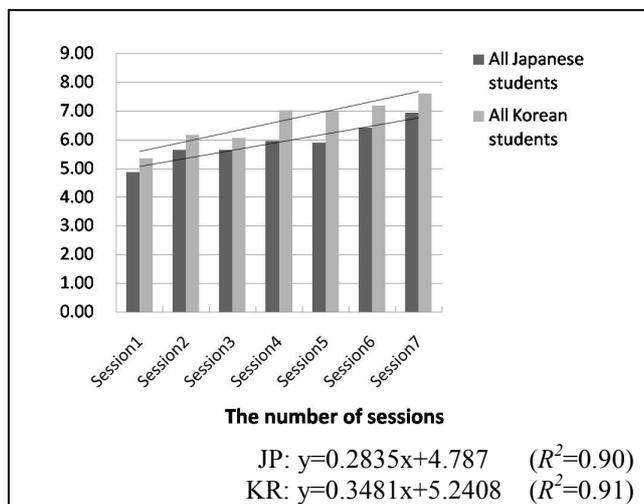


Figure 1: MLU movements of Japanese and Korean university students by sessions, (adapted from Tsutsui 2001)

Figure 1 represents Japanese and Korean university students' MLU (Mean length of utterance) development by each session. Both Korean and Japanese students are pre-advanced and advanced students. This weekly chatting session lasts about 45 minutes.

The two lines show in figure 1 are the approximated regression lines, (x=the number of sessions, y=MLU). Table 1 indicates that the mean

values of students' MLU increase as they engage in communication. Since R^2 of the two approximated regression lines for Japanese and Korean students show 0.90 and 0.91, respectively, it can be noted that their MLUs are positively increasing and linearly definable with high reliability.

We, language teachers, can take advantage of a wide variety of Moodle testing facilities; however, in the language classroom, we have to try not to fill the class with dull testing activities.

3. Moodle Workshop and Questionnaire

After Moodle is installed, language teachers need to know how to use it. Thus, Moodle workshops need to be held. During the workshops, teachers (1) register for the moodle site in creating a new account, (2) experience Moodle formats in a model course to see how it works, (3) create a new course on their own, (4) create contents, and (5) learn some management functions (e.g., how to share contents with other teachers or how to upload users).

A questionnaire was conducted on 17 Japanese teachers of English in two different universities in Japan. The 5 people out of 17 reported that they had ever used the system in their teaching. The remaining 12 teachers participated in a 3-hour Moodle workshop and knew how the Moodle system works.

The questionnaire consists of 12 items, which query respondents as to what they (like to) use Moodle for. They were asked to mark one of the four scaling options: (1) strongly disagree (2) disagree, (3) agree, and (4) strongly agree. The data is analyzed by WINSTEPS 3.59 (Linacre, 2006). Rasch person reliability is .70 and Rasch item reliability is .72.

Table 2 shows the measure logits (as well as mean values of raw scores), infit values and standard errors of each item. The lower measure logits are, the more endorsable items are. Therefore, our participants like to use Moodle for in-class activities (-1.40 logit, M=3.65) and for a quiz (-1.33, M=3.67). On the other hand, some teachers think it problematic to conduct exams by Moodle (1.62 logit, M=2.64), and Moodle may not cause students' motivation (1.0logit, M=2.88). The infit values are an index of idiosyncrasy that the items yield. The higher the values are, the more disagreement in opinion there is among teachers. Since the t values that exceed ± 2 are regarded as misfit (McNamara, 1996), none of the 12 items are excluded in the analysis. Standard errors (S.E.) indicate how erroneously the measure logits and infit values can be estimated.

Figure 2 visually represents table 2. The measure logits are plotted on y-axis, and infit values on x-axis. S.E. is expressed in diameter.

Table 2: Questionnaire results (1):
What do you (want to) use Moodle for?

Item #	Labels	Measures (Mean of Raw Scores)	t Infit Zstd	S.E.
Item 2	For in-class activities	-1.40 logit (3.65)	1.52	0.50
Item 12	To give a quiz	-1.33 (3.67)	0.02	0.61
Item 4	For review tasks	-0.73 (3.47)	-0.58	0.45
Item 8	For a communication tool	-0.37 (3.36)	0.60	0.53
Item 5	For test preparations (TOEIC or TOEFL)	-0.34 (3.35)	-0.55	0.43
Item 9	To provide textbook-based activities	-0.34 (3.35)	-0.56	0.43
Item 10	To increase the competence	0.01 (3.24)	-1.65	0.42
Item 7	For a research tool	0.42 (3.09)	-0.24	0.50
Item 13	To take attendance and to monitor students' records	0.62 (3.08)	1.35	0.49
Item 3	For students to make class preparation beforehand	0.84 (3.00)	0.54	0.40
Item 11	To motivate students	1.00 (2.88)	-1.21	0.40
Item 6	To conduct exams	1.62 (2.64)	1.30	0.49
Mean		0.00 (3.23)	0.00	0.48

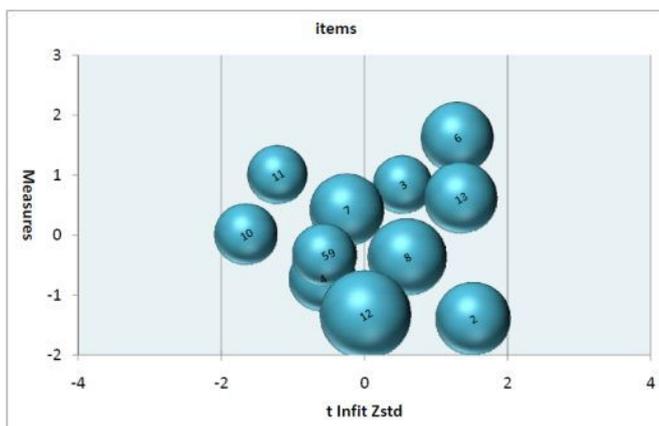


Figure 2: Questionnaire results (2)

Language teachers working in Japanese universities tend to endorse the Moodle-based language learning and teaching. In particular, they wish to integrate Moodle activities in their classroom, although our findings cannot be generalized since this study is based on a small-scale research.

3. Conclusion

The introduction of the Moodle system in practical

language teaching contexts results in cost reductions. In addition, because of its feature-rich characteristics, our efficiency can be increased. Our questionnaire results show an overall positive outlook for the use of Moodle in EFL environments. We believe this Moodle system can meet some of the mounting needs from a wide variety of language teachers as well as language learners.

Some concerns over Moodle are elicited from language teachers in Japan. They are worth addressing here: (1) If Moodle is used in class, in-class activities may be limited to computer-based tasks. (2) Face-to-face communications will be necessary. (3) Students need tactile activities (e.g., using paper and pencil). (4) I feel uncomfortable in drill learning. I agree with all the insightful comments. I do not simply call for a wider use of the Moodle system. However, if this CMS is used wisely and collaboratively, successful learning environments can be built.

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Sex difference in Kanji processing: a MEG study

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Abstract

This paper we report sex difference in Kanji (Chinese characters in Japanese) recognition using magnetoencephalography (MEG), a non-invasive brain imaging technique. We found that some female participants' brain activities showed a different pattern from a previously reported pattern regardless of the female participants' mother language and learning Japanese history. MEG Studies on English word recognition by English native speakers showed that three magnetic fields, M100, M170, and M250 are observed. However, four major magnetic responses were observed in our four female participants. Precious studies on sex difference in Chinese character recognition by Chinese native speakers claim that sex difference in Chinese character recognition is due to more left dominant phonological processing in the male brain. However, our finding suggests that sex difference might exist from graphic processing in Chinese character recognition. Further, the four -response pattern is found in 4 out of 32 female participants. The four female participants were Japanese, Chinese and Mongolian. This suggests that Kanji recognition process vary considerably from a person to person even in female regardless of their mother languages.

Keywords

Sex difference, Kanji recognition, MEG

Introduction

According to previous English word recognition studies using MEG (e.g., Pylkkaen and Marant, 2003), three magnetic fields, M100, M170, and M250 were observed when English words are presented visually, M100 appears after around 100 ms onset. M100, M170, and M260 appear after around 100 ms, 170ms, and 250ms onset respectively. It has been supposed that M100 reflects primary graphic analysis of a character, M170 reflects more complicated graphic analysis and M250 reflects graphic to phonological analysis. Figure 1 shows a representative MEG when Kanji stimuli were passively presented to a male Chinese

native speaker. The three major responses, M100, M170, and M250 were observed around the time window 100-300ms post-stimulus. This example replicated what Pylkkaen and Marant (2003) found in English word recognition.

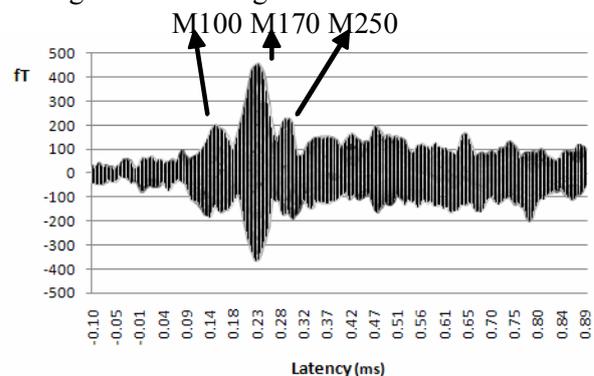


Figure 1: A representative MEG from a male Chinese native speaker who saw Kanji stimuli.

Studies on sex difference on Chinese character recognition by Chinese native speakers (Hsiao and Shillcock, 2005; Hsiao, Shillcock and Lee, 2007) claim that sex difference in Chinese character recognition is due to more left dominant phonological processing in the male brain. magnetoencephalography (MEG). Hsiao, Shillcock and Lee (2007) were based on the assumption that the left half of a Chinese character represents sound. For example, four characters, 青清請晴, share the same pronunciation /chin/ in Chinese and 青 in 清請晴 is a sound radical. However, most of Kanji have two pronunciations, one is originated from Chinese sounds and the other is from Japanese sound, unlike Chinese characters in Chinese. Therefore, Hsiao, Shillcock and Lee (2007)'s claim is not applicable for Kanji. In this paper, we will report that sex difference appears to exit from the early stage of visual recognition of Kanji.

1. Method

1.1 Participant

Our participants consist of college 56 (24 male, 32 female) students from a wide variety of countries, not only East Asian countries (Japan,

China, Korea) but also South east Asia, Arabic countries, and South America. The mean ages of the male and female participants were 25.7(SD=5.20) and 24.1 (SD=4.13), respectively.

1.2 Procedure

Visual stimuli consist of five groups, picture font, Hangeul characters ㅁ, pseudo Kanji 利, wrong Kanji 申, and Real Kanji 神. Pseudo Kanji does not exist but follows kanji graphic rules. In wrong Kanji the positions of semantic and sound radicals were inverted. Each stimulus (black letter with white background) was presented for 100ms followed by blank (white background) for around 1 second. Each stimuli group had 80 items (total 400 items). Four hundred items were divided into 20 blocks. Each block consists of randomly arranged 20 stimuli. There was a 2 second resting time between blocks. The participants were instructed to blink during the resting time. Neuromagnetic data were recorded with Bti Magnes 2500, a whole-head MEG system with 148 channels at a sampling rate 254.31 Hz with high pass filter 1.0Hz, and bandwidth 50Hz. After removing trials in which amplitudes exceeded 4000ft and filtered at 50Hz, the data were averaged by stimulus groups. In this study we only report the result of real Kanji.

2 Result

In our study, there are four cases in which four magnetic responses, around M100, M130, M190, and M250 were found. All four participants are female, one Japanese, two Chinese and one Mongolian. The two Chinese participants were advanced learner and the Mongolian was a beginning learner. Figure 2 shows a representative MEG from a Chinese participant.

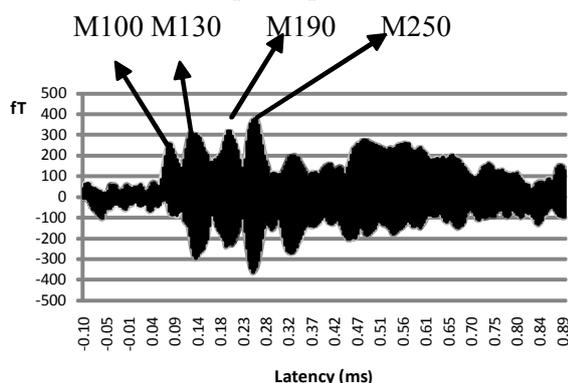


Figure 2: A representative MEG from a female Chinese native speaker who saw Kanji stimuli.

Figure 3 shows the time course of current distribution changes in the back brain of the representative participants. It seems that M190 in the female participant is an additional response.

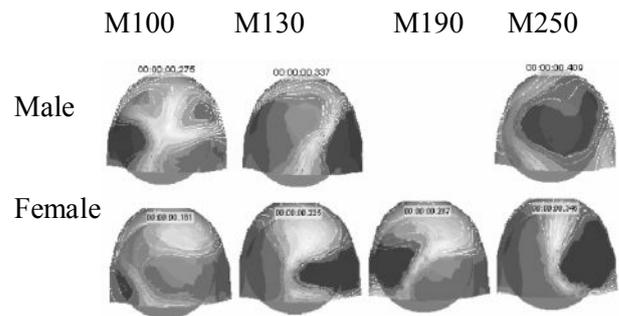


Figure 3: The time course of current distribution changes in the back brain. The darker area is blowing and the gray area is absorption of the current flow.

In the female case the current flow changed between both hemispheres rapidly (M130 – M190). This might be related to the claim that two hemispheres are equally involved in woman in language processing. Previous studies (e.g., Hsiao and Shillcock, 2005) reported sex difference after 200ms stimulus onset. However, our data suggest that sex difference does exist from the early visual processing stage of words. Further, the four response pattern was not found in all female participants. Even among female, there are great differences between individuals. Further studies are necessary to confirm if this pattern is due to just individual difference or sex difference.

3 Conclusion

There was a MEG response pattern, four not three responses between 100-300ms after stimulus onset that was only found in woman. Precious studies reported only sex differences in later phonological and semantic processing. This suggests that sex difference might exist from the early visual processing. There seems to be large individual differences in word recognition processes.

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Acquisition of English Vowel Contrasts by Native Korean Speakers: The Effect of Perceptual Identification Training on Production

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Abstract

This study examined the effect of identification training on the perception and production of English vowel contrasts (/ɪ/-i/, /ɛ/-æ/) by native Korean speakers. Performance in perception and production was assessed before and after 2-week training. The results revealed that the trained group showed significant improvement in perception, which generalized to new words and new speakers. Productions made at post-test by the trained group were more accurately identified by native English listeners than those of the control group. Subsequent acoustical analysis confirmed that F1 values of /ɪ/ and /æ/ and vowel duration of /ɪ/ became more native-like after training. These results suggest that identification training was effective in improving Korean subjects' perception and production of English vowels, and support the claim that perception and production are directly linked.

Keywords

Speech perception, L2 speech learning, English vowel contrasts, identification training

1 Introduction

Earlier training studies have suggested that perceptual mechanisms adopted to perceive non-native contrasts could be modified through short-term laboratory training and retained long after training. In addition, appropriate choice of talker, stimulus variability, and training tasks were found to affect the effectiveness of the training.

More recently, the transfer of perceptual learning to production of non-native consonant contrasts has been reported in several studies (Rochet, 1995; Bradlow et al., 1997) For the training of non-native vowels, however, evidence of transfer is not only limited but inconsistent; some have observed an improvement in production (e.g.

Lambacher et al., 2005) while others have not (e.g. Wang, 2002). This asymmetry may limit the claims that can be made about the effect of perceptual training on the production of non-native vowels.

To provide additional empirical evidence, this study examined the effect of perceptual training on the perception and production of English vowel contrasts (/ɪ/-i/, /ɛ/-æ/) by native speakers of Korean. Based on previous studies, two things were hypothesized; first, perceptual identification training may be effective in modifying non-native speakers' perceptual pattern; second, if perception and production are linked in some ways, improvement in perception would automatically be transferred to production.

2 Experiment 1

Experiment 1 examined the perception of English vowel contrasts by Korean participants.

2.1 Methods

2.1.1 Subjects

The subjects were 15 native Korean speakers. Nine subjects were assigned to the trained group and the remaining five to the control group. As first-year undergraduate students at Hanyang University in Korea, all of the subjects had studied English for about 12 years, and their mean percentage of daily use of English was less than 4% at the time of testing. All subjects reported no history of speech or hearing impairments.

2.1.2 Stimuli

English minimal pairs that contrasted /ɪ/-i/ and /ɛ/-æ/ were used in tests and training sessions. In the pre/post-test 13 vowel pairs including six filler stimuli were used. These were recorded by three native English speakers. A total of 48 pairs of words produced by additional five speakers were used in the training sessions. The stimuli saved for the generalization tests consisted of 16 words used in

the training session and 16 new words. The stimuli for the generalization test 1 were recorded by two familiar speakers, and the stimuli for the generalization test 2 by two novel speakers.

2.1.3 Procedure

A two-alternative forced choice identification procedure was adopted in the pre/post-test and two tests of generalization. After the pretest, the trained group participated in the 17 session identification training during 2 weeks. The procedure was the same as the one used in the test sessions except that the immediate feedback was given for each trial.

Each stimulus was played only once immediately after orthographic representation (e.g. set-sat) was given on the computer screen. The order of stimulus presentation was counterbalanced for half of the trials. The subject identified the token by clicking the button labeled “1” for the left-side word and “2” for the right-side word.

After a day’s training sessions were completed, a mini test was taken to check the daily improvement. According to the result of the test, subjects whose point was below 80% had to repeat the previous sessions. Therefore, the number of session each subject completed a day was different across the subjects, ranging from 2 to 4 sessions a day. A day’s training lasted about 50 minutes.

2.2 Results

The results of each perception tests are shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

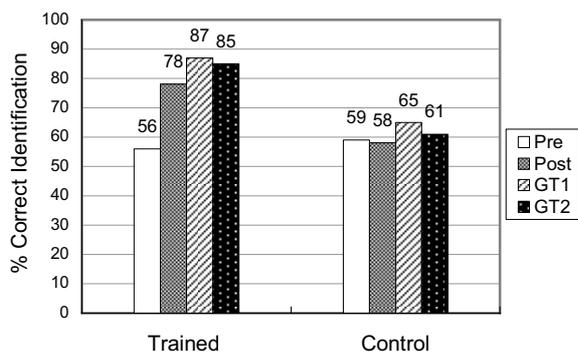


Figure 1: Mean % correct identification scores for two groups of Korean subjects in the perception tests.

A two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed with group (trained, control) as a between factor, and test (pre, post) and vowel (high, low) as within-group factors. The analysis revealed that there was a significant main effect of group [$F(1,13) = 6.465, p = 0.025$], an effect of test [$F(1,13) = 37.143, p < 0.0001$], an effect of vowel [$F(1,13) = 20.953, p = 0.001$], and a significant group x test interaction [$F(1,13) = 43.267, p <$

0.0001]. Paired t-tests showed that the trained group’s improvement from the pretest (56%) to the post-test (78%) was significant [$t = -10.968, p < 0.0001$] whereas the control group’s improvement was not [$t = 0.277, p = 0.793$]. In two generalization tests, the trained group also performed better than the control group [$F(1,13) = 17.080, p = 0.001$].

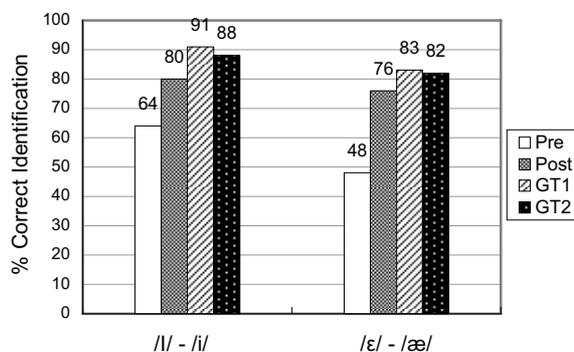


Figure 2: Mean % correct identification scores on English vowel contrasts for the trained group

The identification accuracy of the two vowel pairs was significantly improved only for the trained groups [$t = -4.450, p = 0.002$ for /l/-/i/; $t = -6.923, p < 0.0001$ for /ε/-/æ/] with overall improvement greater for /ε/-/æ/ contrast. In the two tests of generalization, /l/-/i/ contrast was more accurately identified than /ε/-/æ/ contrast [$t = 3.546, p = 0.008$ in GT 1; $t = 2.636, p = 0.030$ in GT 2].

3 Experiment 2

In Experiment 2, native English speakers assessed the intelligibility of productions made by Korean participants.

3.1 Methods

3.1.1 Subjects

Eight native speakers of English served as listeners. They were either ESL instructors at Hanyang University or undergraduate students at Yonsei University. The length of residence in Korea ranged from 0.5 to 12 years with a mean of 6.1 years at the time of recording. None of the subjects reported any history of speech or hearing impairments.

3.1.2 Stimuli

The stimuli were 10 minimal pairs containing target vowel contrasts as produced by Korean subjects at pretest and post-test. The recordings were digitized at a sampling rate of 44.1 kHz with a 16-bit resolution on a desktop computer using Adobe Audition 1.5 software. The digitized waveform files were edited by separating the target word from the carrier sentence.

3.1.3 Procedure

The procedure was the same as the one used in the perception tests. In eight test sessions, native English listeners identified a total of 600 stimuli. Each session contained productions made by the two subjects.

3.2 Results

The results are summarized in Figure 3 and Figure 4. A two-way repeated measures ANOVA with group as a between factor, and test and vowel as within-group factors yielded a significant main effect of group [$F(1,13) = 13.610, p = 0.003$], an effect of test [$F(1,13) = 11.917, p = 0.004$], an effect of vowel [$F(1,13) = 7.473, p = 0.017$], and a group \times test interaction [$F(1,13) = 7.095, p = 0.019$].

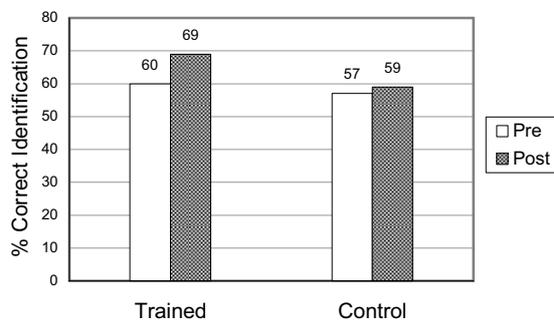


Figure 3: Mean % correct identification scores for NK subjects' productions by NE listeners

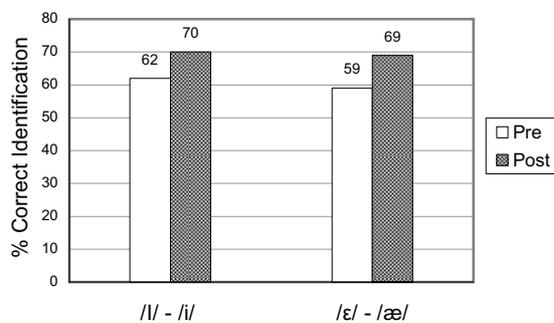


Figure 4: Mean % correct identification scores for the trained subjects' productions of English vowel contrasts made at post-test by NE listeners

The intelligibility scores of the trained group's productions significantly increased [$t = -4.512, p = 0.002$]. For two vowel contrasts, significant improvement was observed for the trained group [$t = -4.116, p = 0.003$; $t = -2.905, p = 0.02$]. Contrary to the result of Experiment 1, improvement in the production of two vowel contrasts showed no significant difference [$t = 0.378, p = 0.715$].

4 Acoustical Analysis

To further examine the effect of perceptual training on the acoustic properties of vowel productions,

vowel formants and duration were measured.

4.1 Method

Stimuli used for measurement were *bid/bead*, *sit/seat*, *head/had*, *set/sat*, as produced by two groups of Korean subjects at pretest and post-test and by nine native English speakers. The frequencies of F1, F2, and F3 were measured at the midpoint of each vowel. Vowel duration was measured by hand from dual spectrogram and waveform displays. Formant values (in Hertz) were converted to Bark scale to normalize the speakers' gender and age in vowel production.

4.2 Results

4.2.1 Formant Frequencies

The trained group outperformed the control group in some vowel productions at post-test. Particularly, F1 values of /i/ and /æ/ became nearly native-like ($t = -2.315, p = 0.027$; $t = -6.656, p = 0.000$). Although still far away from the native group's, the F1 value of /i/ was also significantly improved ($t = 2.686, p = 0.011$). These improvements suggest that trained subjects became sensitive to spectral differences through training so they may form new categories for /i/ and /æ/.

4.2.2 Vowel Duration and Duration Ratio

The mean durations of /i/, /i/ and /æ/ produced by two groups at pretest did not statistically differ from those of the native group; only the duration of /ε/ was significantly different ($t = -3.913, p = 0.000$ for trained group; $t = -3.760, p = 0.000$ for control group). The vowel duration ratio of the Korean subjects was the same as that of the native group for /i/-/i/ pair but noticeably lower for /ε/-/æ/ pair.

After training, the trained group showed a significant decrease in vowel duration of /i/ ($t = 4.595, p = 0.000$), becoming nearly native-like. However, the vowel duration either changed little as in /ε/ or became longer than the native group's as in /i/ and /æ/. As a result of these changes, the trained group's duration ratio for the /i/-/i/ pair became much longer than that of the native group. For the /ε/-/æ/ pair, however, the duration ratio became the same as the native group's value.

5 General Discussion

The results of this study replicate and confirm previous findings (e.g. Yamada et al., 1998; Wang, 2002) that high variability identification training was effective in modifying the perception of non-native vowel contrasts, and that the improvement generalized to new words and new

speakers.

The trained subjects' improvement in production in terms of both intelligibility and acoustic properties provides additional empirical evidence that perceptual learning can be transferred to production without any explicit production training. This result implies that perception and production are linked in some ways, as suggested in a previous study (Bradlow et al., 1997).

Several interesting findings were observed in this study. First, trained subjects exhibited performance and learning differences in the perception and production of two vowel contrasts. At pretest, they showed higher identification accuracy for /ɪ/-/i/ contrast than for /ɛ/-/æ/ contrast. It is possible that the Korean subjects' perception may have been influenced by the L2 teaching method. As English /ɪ/ and /i/ have been taught as short and long vowel respectively, subjects may have relied more on temporal difference than spectral difference in identifying this contrast.

The performance inconsistency was not found at perception post-test due to higher improvement in /ɛ/-/æ/ contrast. Considering this result, trained subjects seem to have learned how to discriminate vowel contrasts using spectral as well as the temporal quality of vowels through training, which was also observed in the acoustical analysis of post-test productions; F1 values of /ɪ/ and /æ/ and vowel duration ratio were significantly improved.

Another finding is that despite performance and learning differences, a significant correlation was found between perception and production (Pearson's $\rho = 0.754$, $p = 0.019$). Different from previous findings (Bradlow et al., 1997; Wang, 2002), in this study, the improvement between two modes was rather parallel, suggesting a close and direct link between perception and production. This result may be explained in terms of two speech perception models, the Second Language Model (Flege, 1995a) and the Perceptual Assimilation Model (Best, 1995). The basic premise of SLM says that production errors are related to perceptual problems caused by mapping L2 sounds onto instances of L1. If perception is improved through learning to perceive L2 phonetic properties, therefore, a new phonetic category will be established, resulting in more accurate production. From the perspective of PAM, the actual gestures produced by vocal tract are directly detected in speech. If attunement to the invariant gestural features of L2 is achieved through perceptual learning, it would be directly reflected in production.

It seems that the improvement of production through short-term training is limited to the point

where native speakers can identify only a small difference between native speakers' and non-native speakers' productions. Nevertheless, considering the limited number of hours spent in training, the effect of perceptual training on production seems quite encouraging. This has an important pedagogical implication where short-term, computer-based perceptual training can be used in an L2 teaching environment to correct and improve L2 learners' perception and production.

Further research is necessary to examine the effect of production training as well as the effect of perception and production training. This line of research will suggest a more effective training method and present a detailed picture of the relationship between perception and production.

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Methodological Considerations of Mental Lexicon Research: Focusing on Representational Links among Lexical Entries

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Abstract

As a preliminary survey for a research project that aims at developing a learning/teaching tool which visualizes the network relations among vocabulary items, the present study reviews some models of the mental lexicon, a learner's structured knowledge of the vocabulary in a target language. In these models, the mental lexicon is conceived of as forming "networks" at each of the linguistic levels. In this review, particular focus will be placed on how these networks are envisaged in each of the models, as well as how the interrelatedness and/or "distances" among the items in the network are determined.

Keywords

mental lexicon, network conceptions, vocabulary learning

Introduction

It has been widely acknowledged that vocabulary items are interrelated to form networks at various linguistic levels in the mental lexicon. Such a conception of the mental lexicon as a network (of networks) has significant implications for foreign language teaching and testing.

However, the network conception of the mental lexicon has remained largely theoretical. To our knowledge, vocabulary tests that directly assess the qualitative state of vocabulary knowledge are scarce. Already proposed teaching tips are much less systematic than desired; the selection of vocabulary included in word mapping, for example, depends on the teacher's subjective judgment and/or textbook materials. From the learners' perspective, very few learning tools have been developed that enable them to visualize the state of their mental lexicon, that is, how a word is known in relation to other words, and thus help them to confirm their progress in vocabulary learning.

As the preliminary survey of a research project that aims at developing such a learning tool, some accounts and models will be reviewed with special reference to the interrelation among lexical entries in the learner's mental lexicon. Such considerations form a necessary first step toward developing tasks that support (and assess) the network building process in vocabulary acquisition in the target language.

1 Models of the mental lexicon

1.1 The network conceptions of the mental lexicon

Since Oldfield (1966) first proposed the idea of a "mental dictionary", the storage system in the mind has been likened variously to a thesaurus, an encyclopedia, and a computer. Nowadays, though, the metaphor of choice is that of a network, or "giant multidimensional cobweb", as Aitchison (2003) puts it. Evidence that the mental lexicon is a web of words connected to each other comes largely from word association experiments. The findings of such studies point toward both L1 and L2 lexicons being phonologically arranged. Access appears to be primarily via phonological networks for low proficiency learners and via semantic networks for high proficiency learners.

Network theories draw on connectionist models of cognition (see, e.g., Bechtel & Abrahamsen, 1991). These are broadly based on the structure of the brain, with the terms "nodes" and "networks" being used to represent neurons and synapses. It seems likely that both semantic and phonological/orthographical networks are organized this way, with the representation of a word involving multifarious interconnections. Evidence that words in the network are related meaningfully comes from priming experiments, which have found that it takes

less time to identify a target word when it is immediately preceded by a semantically related word. Priming effects can also be found using stimuli that are phonologically, orthographically, or morphologically related (Taft, 1991).

1.2 Phonological/orthographical perspective

Aitchison (2003) states that “in general, words which have similar beginnings, similar endings and similar rhythm are likely to be tightly bonded” (p. 146). This kind of general view of the clustering of words is deemed quite plausible both intuitively and experientially. In this respect, although few empirical studies have been conducted with Japanese EFL learners, the notion of “neighborhood density” provides us with some insights into how phonologically and orthographically similar words are grouped together in the mental lexicon and how the distances among them might be measured.

Neighborhood density refers to the number of words with minimal differences. That is, DATE, GATE, HATE, LATE, MATE and other words with -ATE are neighbors, and this group of words is regarded as having higher density compared to another group of words, say, GAIT and WAIT.¹

In psycholinguistic studies, it has been shown that neighborhood density affects the efficiency of lexical access (Goldinger, Luce & Pisoni, 1989; Cluff & Luce, 1990). In the lexical decision task frequently used to test the neighborhood density effect, the degree of closeness among neighbors is not directly measured; however, it could be argued that the degree of closeness can be seen in terms of differential response latencies.

1.3 Syntactic perspective

The correspondence between syntax and lexico-semantics has for some time been one of the liveliest arenas for discussion in both first and second language acquisition and in language processing (e.g., Pinker, 1989; Jackendoff, 1990; Goldberg, 1995; Juffs, 1996). Investigations into the subcategorization properties of verbs, and into their projections onto the surface structures, have lead researchers to classify the verbs into several subclasses whose members share common semantic features and co-occurring argument structures.

However, it is widely acknowledged that even though a pair of verbs may be semantically similar, one of them cannot be used in a construction in which the other can be used (e.g. *Joe told/*whispered Mary a story*). Also recognized is that, even in one subclass of verbs that can be used

¹ Note here that though these two groups of words are orthographically two distinct neighborhood groups, all these words are phonological neighbors.

within a construction, some lexical idiosyncrasies and different degrees of acceptability are observed. In order to account for such cases, Goldberg (1995, Ch. 5) proposes two learning mechanisms; to explain the first cases, she claims that “every construction contrasts with every other construction” (p. 139), and therefore, the non-use of the verb in a construction preferred in the context entails it never co-occurring with the construction. In order to explain the lexical idiosyncrasies, she further circumscribes the verbs in a subclass into implicitly represented verb clusters, and based on the usage-based model of language acquisition, claims that the more members a cluster embraces, the more productive the cluster will be.

Of particular relevance to the mental lexicon is that, in Goldberg’s constructionist account, the verbs are grouped into subclasses or clusters, and that these subclasses are interrelated with each other at the level of argument structure construction. Furthermore, it should also be noted that *type frequencies* of verbs and of constructions are conceived of as the determinants of the “closeness” among the members of the relevant networks.

1.4 Semantic perspective

One prevalent model of lexical representation is based on the semantic network. This approach assumes that words which are semantically associated with each other are represented in the form of a network, with activation spreading through this network from presented words to their associated words in memory (Anderson, 1995). In the hierarchical network model (Collins & Quillian, 1969), semantic concepts of lexical entries represented as nodes are interconnected to each other in a hierarchy network structure. Broad categories of concepts are subdivided into narrower categories which in turn are subdivided into still narrower categories. The degree of semantic interrelatedness between lexical items is determined by the number of the nodes between them. Therefore, lexical access takes longer if the gap between node levels is wider than others (semantic distance effect), or if the number of lexical items in a category is greater than others (category size effect). However, this model has been criticized because, by assuming that all the lexical items in one category belong to the same node level, it fails to explain the typicality effect, and because the number of node levels do not necessarily reflect the difficulty of semantic verification of lexical items.

The spreading activation model (Collins & Loftus, 1975) was proposed in order to overcome these theoretical flaws. In this model, each node represents a word and the length of the pathways (i.e. the distance between nodes) reflects the

amount of conceptual relevance (semantic similarity) between each word. In the hierarchical network model, it is assumed that connections between concepts are based on logic. However, in the spreading activation model, the connections are not necessarily logical, but are based on personal experience.

In research about the organization of semantic lexical models, priming has been one of the most widely used experimental tasks. However, the results are controversial, because in such research, semantic relationships between words are not as clearly defined as associative ones which reflect word use rather than word meaning (McNamara, 1992; Thompson-Schill, et al., 1998). Furthermore, although many semantic priming studies have used a lexical decision task, the results obtained from this task are not conclusive. More recent studies consider, in pursuing the validity of semantic lexical models, possible influences of the experimental procedures and the processing strategies used by the participants, such as retrospective processing (Neely, et al., 1989) and prospective expectancy generation (Becker, 1980).

Another issue of semantic priming is the selection of the related prime-target pairs, and it mainly concerns the degree of semantic similarity. Studies have disagreed on the strength of the semantic relationships between primes and targets, and have used various procedures to assess it. Some used similarity rating tasks (Moss, et al., 1995; Perea & Rosa, 2002), while other selected the pairs based on their intuitions, which resulted in the failure to find purely semantic priming effects. Thus, it is necessary to establish a well-accepted method in the selection of semantically related pairs, and some databases of semantic features of English words have been reported in recent years (McRae, et al., 1997; Vinson & Viglicco, 2002).

2 Applications

The theoretical background to the mental lexicon has had applications in many aspects of teaching practice and materials and task design. Due to limitations of space, only two of these applications, viz., application to the word association tasks and online and/or electronic learner dictionaries, are reviewed here.

2.1 Word association tasks

The word association task is another frequently employed tool for investigating the organization of the mental lexicon of L2 learners. Three types of word associations have been postulated: paradigmatic, syntagmatic, and clang associations. Paradigmatic associations are words from the same

word class as the stimulus, which fulfill the same grammatical function (*dog-cat*). This type of association includes coordinates, subordinates, and synonyms. Syntagmatic associations bear sequential relationships to the stimulus, which are generally from a different word class (*hunt-dog*). Clang associations are responses which are phonologically similar to the stimulus, and bear no semantic connection to the stimulus (*dog-log*).

Researchers on word association by L2 learners have shown that the type of word association changes with the development of learner's proficiency level of English. Meara (1980, 1983) detected that L2 learners' association responses are far less regular than native speakers' and often different from the type that would be given by native speakers. However, as the proficiency of the learner increases, their responses become similar to those of native speakers. Söderman (1993) found that the number of paradigmatic associations was positively related to the ESL students' proficiency level. Her study also shows that the number of clang and syntagmatic associations tended to decrease, while that of paradigmatic associations increased as the students had increasingly more exposure to the second language. These results provide evidence that shows organization of L2 words in mind changes as the student's proficiency of L2 increases.

2.2 Online and electronic dictionaries

Functions of cross-reference or lexical linking are major features of online and electronic dictionaries used in order to demonstrate the vocabulary network. In many cases, the network is represented by synonyms, antonyms and other related words, and the word(s) at the nearest node displayed in a manner familiar to users of paper-based dictionaries. On the other hand, some "visual" electronic dictionaries can display a multitude of nodes and entries at the same time like a spider web. This web is expandable, and the core word can be altered with ease by (double) clicking the word/phrases. This sort of visualization of a semantic network may correspond to the underlying mental vocabulary web.

In addition, paper-based dictionaries and electronic dictionaries can be distinguished by the order of entries and the method used for searching. Usually, in paper-based dictionaries, direction words are lemmatized in alphabetical order and searched. In electronic dictionaries, however, there is no advantage in alphabetical ordering since the search method differs. The mental lexicon is not designed to be listed and searched like telephone directory, either.

3 Discussion

The above review has shown that the networks at each of the linguistic levels are quite different in nature; interconnections among words are at times formal, and at other times, conceptual. Seemingly, a learner can connect any words on the basis of similarities of some kind, but clustering of verbs requires collating the use of a verb with the context in which it is used. Few standardized measures have been proposed to empirically evaluate the distances among the words in a network.

However, it would be safe to conclude that the construction of the networks is exemplar- or usage-based. Future directions of our project will be discussed in the poster presentation.

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Developmental Processes in L2 Acquisition of Japanese Learners of English

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Abstract

This study investigates L2 vocabulary acquisition, specifically the acquisition of three English prepositions, *on*, *in* and *at*, by Japanese learners of English cross-sectionally. We apply prototype theory, semantic network and image schema in cognitive linguistics to L2 vocabulary acquisition and conducts two experiments to examine the three hypotheses: (1) prototypical meanings of the English prepositions to Japanese EFL learners are the same to native speakers of English.; (2) mental representations in L2 of Japanese learners of English come to be similar to those of native speakers of English as they have studied English longer, but they are not identical with those of native speakers of English; and (3) processes predicted by prototype theory, such as graded category and prototype effect, in cognitive linguistics can be observed in the process of L2 acquisition.

The results support Hypothesis (1) (2) and (3), and imply that the various usages of the spatial prepositions make a new category in L2 mental lexicon, and that the extension of the meanings can be explained by prototype theory and image schemas.

Keywords

Developmental processes, L2, prototype theory, English prepositions, semantic networks

Introduction

The question of how the second language (L2) vocabulary is acquired is a complex problem, not only because the structure of the first language (L1) mental lexicon is different from the L2 mental lexicon, but also because the process of L2 vocabulary acquisition is different from that of L1 vocabulary acquisition. In this study, we examine the L2 mental lexicon based on prototype theory, using multidimensional scaling as research method.

1 Theoretical background

1.1 Mental lexicon

The question of how the second language (L2) vocabulary is acquired is a complex problem, not only because the structure of the first language (L1) mental lexicon is different from the L2 mental lexicon, but also because the process of L2 vocabulary acquisition is different from that of L1 vocabulary acquisition. Many bilingual studies using the measurement of reaction time support a hypothesis that restructuring occurs between concepts and lexical items in the L2 learner's mental lexicon. (Kroll & Stewart 1994, Chen & Leung 1989, Cheung & Chen 1998)

In the studies on the L1 mental lexicon, Kellerman (1979) and Sandra and Rice (1995) used the Multidimensional scaling (MDS) to show the mental representations of the meanings in a word in the mental lexicon visually.

In this study, we examine how restructuring will occur between concepts and meanings through development in the L2 mental lexicon by MDS

1.2 Prototype theory

Prototype theory explains the characteristics of conceptual categories. (Rosch, 1975; Rosch & Mervis, 1975; Rosch et al., 1976) In this theory, a prototype is defined as the best example in a category; that is, a member in a category which has the most attributes in common with other members of the category is considered the best example.

On the other hand, a member which has a few attributes in common with other members of the category is thought of as the bad, or peripheral example (Rosch 1975, Rosch & Mervis 1975, Rosch et al. 1976). The characteristics of prototypes are summarized as follows (Hatch & Brown 1995):

1. Items judged to be typical members of a concept can be categorized more efficiently than atypical ones.
2. Typical members are learned first by children.
3. Prototypes are named first when subjects are

asked to give examples of members of a concept.

4. Prototypes serve as cognitive reference points.

2 Previous studies

Ijaz (1986) examined differences in mental representations of meanings of English prepositional phrases between the native speakers of English and EFL learners, using the MDS. Ijaz claimed that the difference in responses to the sentences between native speakers of English and ESL learners lies in the differential weighting of semantic dimensions (in other words, image schemas) in the corresponding meaning in L1 and L2. In the study, Ijaz concluded that ESL learners are more similar to native speakers of English in the prototype meaning and also that the prototype meaning is easy for ESL learners to acquire, and that even advanced ESL learners cannot acquire the identical knowledge about meanings in L2 words.

Hayashi (2006) examined differences in understanding English preposition between native speakers of English and Japanese EFL learners, and among the Japanese EFL learners with different English proficiency levels, using image schemas. Hayashi's study provides two main findings in L2 vocabulary acquisition: (1) prototypical meaning in English prepositions is understood by Japanese EFL learners in the same way as by native speakers of English; (2) it becomes more difficult for EFL learners to acquire the meanings of prepositions far from the prototypical meaning.

3 Experiments

3.1 Research hypotheses

We propose three hypotheses:

1. The prototype meanings of the English prepositions are the same to Japanese EFL learners as to the native speakers of English.
2. The mental representations of Japanese learners of English in L2 come to be similar to those of native speakers of English as they study English for longer, but they are not identical with those of native speakers of English.
3. Processes predicted by prototype theory, such as graded category and the prototype effect, in cognitive linguistics can be observed in the process of L2 acquisition.

This experiment examined these three hypotheses through two experiments, Experiment 1 (the sentence generation test) and 2 (the MDS test).

3.2 Experiment 1

The purpose of Experiment 1 was to examine (1) what usages of the three English prepositions, *on*, *in*, and *at*, will be produced by English native speakers and Japanese learners of English at the three different English levels, (2) whether any difference would be found in the results between the groups, and (3) to identify what usage is considered to be a prototype by the native speakers of English and Japanese learners of English.

3.3 Participants

Participants were Japanese second language learners of English from the three different development levels in English: junior high school, high school, and university students. Native speakers of English also participated. Forty-one Japanese junior high school students (mean age = 14; range = 14-15) participated in the experiment as the L2 beginners. Their mean period of studying English (MPSE) was 2 years and 3 months. Seventeen senior high school students (mean age = 17; range = 17-18) participated as the L2 intermediates. Their MPSE was 5 years and 3 months. The junior and senior high school students were all boys. Thirty-nine university students also participated as the L2 advanced (mean age = 20; range = 20-22; 20 males and 19 females), who registered on a general English course, or an essay writing course that the author is in charge of at a university in Japan. They had studied English for more than 7 years. Twenty-three native speakers of English (8 female and 15 male) also participated (mean age = 32 years old; range = 19-57). The native speakers were from the UK, Ireland, the USA, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. All of the participants were volunteers.

3.4 Method

Participants were asked to freely generate five sentences including the prepositions, *on*, *in* and *at*, as soon as possible. Then, the obtained sentences were classified according to the four categories in usage: a spatial (*S*), temporal (*T*), abstract (*A*) and Idiomatic (*I*) usage. Next, the classified data were analyzed in the following two ways: (1) to identify which meanings are more often produced by the subjects (frequency effect), and (2) to examine which meanings first occurred to subjects (prototype effect).

3.5 Results in Experiment 1

We found that the Spatial usage in *on*, *in* and *at* was not frequently produced by all different groups.

4 Experiment 2

The purpose of Experiment 2 was to examine that the sentences above should be the center of the category of spatial meanings, from which other meaning will be radiated; and that the configuration from the Japanese learners of English will become more similar to that of the native speakers of English as they have more study experience. (We cannot show all the results and configurations here because of limited space. So, we would like to show only the results of the preposition, *on*, here.)

4.1 Participants

Thirty-four native speakers of English, 26 males and 8 females, voluntarily participated in the experiment. Twenty-one Japanese junior high school students (all male), 30 Japanese high school students (all male), and 34 university students (18 male and 16 female) also participated voluntarily in the experiment.

4.2 Method

The participants were asked to compare each pair of sentences, including the English prepositions, *in*, *at*, and *on*, in the list (The list consisted of 9 sentences each for *on* and *at*, and 10 sentences for *in*), and to rate the similarity between them on a 7-point scaling. The data was analyzed by INDSCAL of MDS using SPSS for Windows Version 13.0.

4.3 Results

Figure 1 to 4 show the configurations of the two-dimension solution of the INDSCAL for *on* from the Japanese junior high school students (Stress = .26619, RSQ = .46518), the Japanese high school students (Stress = .20306, RSQ = .77661), the Japanese university students (Stress = .18825, RSQ = .81918), and the native speakers of English (Stress = .16334, RSQ = .86873). ‘on 1’ to ‘on 9’ represent the number of the stimulus sentences in the list. The sentences from ‘on 1’ to ‘on 5’ contain the Spatial usage (*S*). And ‘on 1’ (“The cup is on the table”) contains the prototypical usage, *S*. ‘on 6’ and ‘on 7’ contain the Abstract usage (*A*); and ‘on 8’ and ‘on 9’, the Temporal usage (*T*), respectively.

In Figure 2 to 4, ‘on1’ to ‘on 4’, containing *S*, tend to be plotted at one end along the axis of Dimension 1, whereas ‘on 8’ and ‘on 9’ with *T* are at the other end. Hence, we can interpret Dimension 1 as spatial – temporal. In Dimension 2, on the other hand, ‘on 6’ and ‘on 7’ were plotted at the one end, and ‘on 1’ and ‘on 2’, at the other end along the axis. Therefore, we can interpret Dimension 2 as concrete – abstract.

The results of the Japanese high school

students and university students show a great similarity with those of the native speakers of English than the Japanese junior high school students. Also, the results of the Japanese high school students are very similar to those of the Japanese university students.

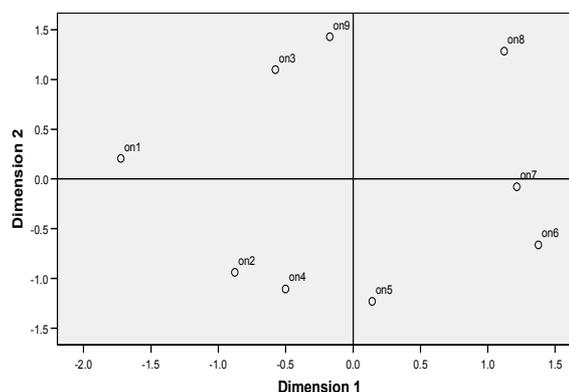


Figure 1: The configuration of *on* from the Japanese Junior High School Students.

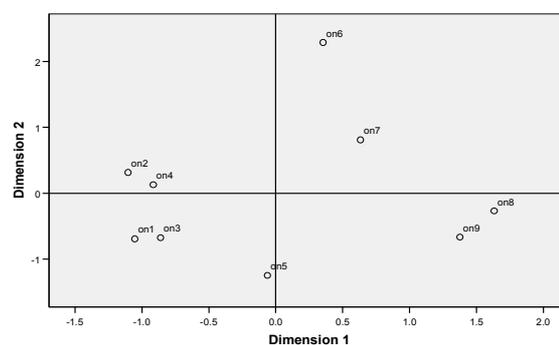


Figure 2: The configuration of *on* from the Japanese High School Students.

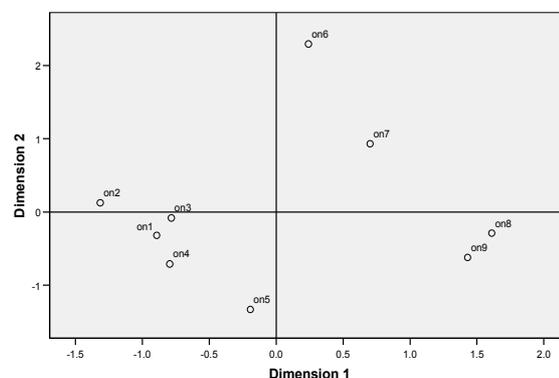


Figure 3: The configuration of *on* from the Japanese University Students

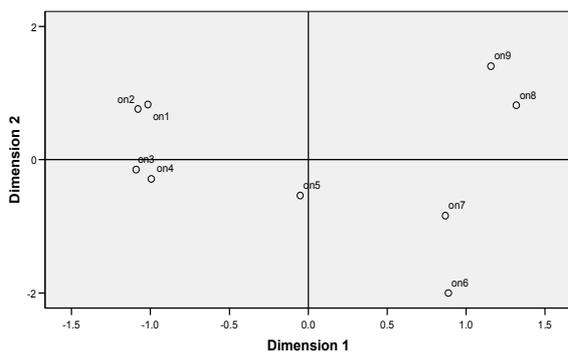


Figure 4: The configuration of *on* from the native speakers of English.

We observe a distinctive difference between the results of the L2 beginners and those of the other groups: the plots of the results from the L2 beginners are more widely spreading. As in Figure 2, 3, and 4, the sentences containing *S* (on 1, 2, 3, and 4) make a cluster, but not in Figure 1. The sentences, on 8 and 9, are closely plotted in Figure 3, 4, and 5, but not in Figure 2.

We calculated Spearman's rank correlation coefficient among the results of four groups. For Dimension 1, we found a significant correlation in the results between the Japanese groups: between the L2 beginners and the L2 intermediates ($\rho = .767, p < .05$); between the L2 beginners and the L2 advanced ($\rho = .767, p < .05$); and between the L2 intermediates, and the L2 advanced. ($\rho = 1.00, p < .01$). The way of distribution along Dimension 1 between the L2 intermediates and the L2 advanced was identical.

The high correlations were found between the native speakers of English, and the Japanese groups. The results of the L2 intermediates and the L2 advanced show higher correlations with those of the native speakers of English ($\rho = -.883, p < .01$, in both cases) than the L2 beginners ($\rho = -.750$). (Here we obtained negative correlations between the native speakers of English and the Japanese groups, but it does not matter whether the correlations are positive or negative in this case. This is because positive or negative directionality come from the rotation of axis to fit the INDSCAL model.)

As for the correlation coefficients on Dimension 2, we found the significant correlation only between the L2 intermediates and the L2 advanced ($\rho = .750^*, p < .05$), and there were no significant correlations between the other pairs. From the findings of *on*, we can assume that as the learners have a longer study experience of English, the mental representations of spatial - temporal meanings in *on* among the Japanese second

language learners of English come to be similar to those of the native speakers of English: on the contrary, development in understanding on Concrete - Abstract dimension cannot be observed.

5 Conclusion

From the results, we found (1) there is no difference in the prototype meaning between the Japanese EFL learners and the native speakers of English; (2) as they gain more experiences of studying English, Japanese EFL learners' mental representations of English prepositions come to be similar to those of native speakers of English, but cannot come to be identical; and (3) the various usages of the spatial prepositions create a new category in L2 mental lexicon, and the extension of the meanings can be explained by prototype theory and image schemas.

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Theme-Based Cross Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL): (1) Social & Global Issues

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Abstract

Theme-based Cross Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) in 2008 deals with three issues: Social & Global Issues, Media and International Career Path. This presentation deals with Social & Global Issues. This is a part of the collaborative joint cyber seminar among Asian Universities initiated by Waseda University. Waseda students are encouraged to take this CCDL course after they complete Intermediate Tutorial English (above WeTEC score 733, TOEIC score 703). The main purpose of this CCDL course is that Asian youths should be able to discuss current problems in the world in English and that they should offer their own tentative solutions to the problems which may be acceptable compromise among Asian students whose world views are diverse. The specific topics include Climate Change, NEET, Happiness Factors (Co-existence in Asia seen from individuals), and Glocalization (balance between Globalization and Local prosperity) this year. The course also contains lessons on cross-cultural concepts and transferable skills, some of which are illustrated in our presentation.

Keywords

Course Development, transferable skills, LMS, theme-based CCDL

Introduction

Cross Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) Project which has been carried out by Waseda University and its partner universities for the past three years has now come to the stage of expanding the scope of the program and specifying the theme of the course. One of the three renewed CCDL courses which will be offered in 2008 is specially adapted for learners who are willing to study and discuss the social and global issues. Living and working in a global society occurs at micro interpersonal and macro international levels. This requires us to develop communication skills as we develop

relationships with people on a human 1-to-1 level, and also to develop understanding of issues that arise when countries have to collaborate in international and global issues such as climate change. The objectives of this CCDL-Social & Global Issues course are to (a) motivate students to be concerned about social/global issues and to become autonomous learners, (b) have students understand the perspectives of other countries toward the certain social/global issues, (c) help students to develop language skills for addressing social/global issues, and (d) enhance students' intercultural competence and emotional intelligence.

The course takes up 6 topics that relate to social/global issues, where each topic consists of 5 phases, namely self study 1, preparation lesson, self study 2, joint lesson and reflection. In the self study phase, students are encouraged to study autonomously about the topic by using "Course N@vi", which is a learning management system developed by Waseda University. On-Demand lectures given by Waseda professors combine with reading materials to provide students with input on each topic. In the preparation lesson, important conversation principles such as Grice's Maxims and Politeness are included in a set of transferable skills we refer to as "CCDL Skills". CCDL skills development has emerged as a result of using this method of learning and communication over the last 4 years, and is now being standardized into a specific skill set for the new theme-based CCDL courses. Joint lesson is carried out by using a PC-based webcam system called "LiveOn", where students from each university form groups of upto six and have face to face discussion through the internet. After having each joint lesson, students will report in the "reflection sheet" what they have learned about the other country.

1 Syllabus

In 2008, the participants are students at Waseda

University, Nam-Seoul University, Tangkang University, Southern Taiwan University, Dalian University of Technology, Dalian University of Foreign Languages, Dalian University of Communication. Due to the time lag and different academic calendars, we have five joint lessons in the spring semester and six in the fall semester. The remaining lessons are carried out individually, but all the students follow the same course contents. Each topic is covered by the two lessons. The joint course starts on the second topic and ends in the sixth topic.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Welcome to CCDL | Translation Equivalence |
| 2. Course Introduction | Ethnocentrism |
| 3. Happiness Factors | Conversation Principles
Facilitation Skills |
| 4. Relationship | |
| Describe-Interpret-(Suspend)Evaluation | |
| 5. Climate Change | Reaching Agreement |
| 6. Glocalization | Indirect direct communication |
| 7. Group Project | Critical and reflective thinking |
| 8. Presentation 1 | Presentation |
| 9. Presentation 2 | Presentation |

Six topics will be discussed during the course. We will discuss one topic for two weeks. In the first week, we will share some background knowledge (**Preparation Lesson**), and a week later, we will discuss a topic (**Joint Lesson**). For each topic, the students are required to do the following.

1. Reading & Self-study: To be completed before Preparation Lesson.
2. Self-study on Course N@vi BBS between classes.
3. Reflection: To be completed after Joint Lessons.

In the following sections, core concepts and transferable skills are illustrated

2 Cross-Cultural competence

Developing the ability to switch perspectives is one of the most exciting aspects of Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL). By encountering views and opinions different from your own, you will begin to develop a deeper self-awareness. In other words, you will become aware of your own "ethnocentrism". Gradually, we want to encourage you to develop a more "ethnorelative" awareness. This means not just *respecting* others' opinions, but also being able to *understand* why others have different points of view and why their values & choices may be different from your own. It involves "suspending" our own values in order to enable us to put ourselves in others' shoes. The ability to accommodate or assimilate diverse

perspectives like this is what we call "Cross-cultural competence" so that you can solve a part of the real problems in the incommensurable world; you can suggest your own unique solution, however tentative it may be. In what follows, a brief explanation of the core concepts is given.

2.1 Engaging Self-Introduction

Stand up and move around talking to different students. Explain how and why your first name was chosen and ask your classmates about their first names. Practice explaining in a way that overseas students will understand. For instance, if you were named after an actor, overseas students may not know the actor, you will have to explain what kind of actor the person was/is and why your parents liked him/her. Once you can introduce yourself to other people in an interesting and informative way, this skill can be useful for you all your life.

2.2 CCDL Concepts and Skills (1): Translation Equivalence

When explaining about your country and/or culture in English you may come across some words or expressions that are more difficult to communicate than others. There are times when a literal (direct) translation will not mean anything without some extra explanation. Here are examples of words that are difficult to translate in another language. How would you translate them to English?

<Japanese Examples>

1. 空気を読む
2. 以心伝心
3. いいかげん

<Chinese Examples>

1. 面子
2. 心領神会
3. 窩心
4. 好不

<Taiwanese examples>

1. MRT

(Although this is an English word, students outside of Taiwan do not know what it is)

No equivalent in your partner's language?

Be prepared to deliver your message to someone who does not have the same 'common knowledge' as you. You may need to explain more than you do to someone from your own background.

No equivalent in English?

The concept or expression may exist in your partner's own language as well as your own language, but it may be difficult to explain in English.

Tips: Use 2 or 3 of the following strategies to help

1. Describe the situation or context in which it occurs.
2. Rephrase the literal translation of the expression (word-for-word meaning) so it makes some sense in English
3. Describe it as a mixture between 2 or more

- related things which you can name more easily.
4. Describe the feeling or mood that is associated with it.
 5. Describe the outcome or result if it works/happens/is used, or if it doesn't/isn't.
 6. Give a few examples of the word in context, in a sentence it would naturally occur.
 7. Draw it using the WhiteBoard function!

2.3 CCDL Concepts and Skills (3): Principles of Spoken Interaction- Grice's Maxims and Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory

Our ability to communicate with one another successfully depends on general assumptions that we all make as to what linguistic communication is like, if it is to be successful. Current theory suggests that there are two main sets of such assumptions; the first is more to do with facilitating efficient communication, the second with maintaining good relationships.

• COOPERATIVENESS

There are certain basic pragmatic 'rules' which we follow and which we assume our interlocutors are following. It was to capture the essence of these rules that the philosopher Grice formulated his 'cooperative principle' in the form of a set of 'maxims':

- ⇒ try to make your contribution one that is true (**maxim of quality**)
- ⇒ make your contribution as informative as is required (neither more nor less) (**maxim of quantity**)
- ⇒ make your contributions relevant (**maxim of relevance**)
- ⇒ avoid obscurity and ambiguity; be brief and orderly (**maxim of manner**).

These maxims are relevant to the CCDL participants, in exchanging information. Some participants are verbose and wordy with full of decorative expressions, which violates all the maxims. Some participants are too eager to show their fluency, resulting in many false starts and repetitions. This also violates Grice's maxims. Try to give relevant and essential information in an orderly manner. This is our learners' starting point of CCDL discussion. Later, they can violate maxims deliberately so as to produce special effects. The effect of violation is that certain special kinds of meaning - implicatures - are created. Implicatures play an important part in signalling non-literal (e.g. indirect, metaphorical, ironic) meanings.

When we obey Grice's maxims too diligently, one's statement can be too direct to the extent of

being rude to your partner. If you think your partner's pronunciation of English is bad, you might say in accordance to Maxim of quality, 'Your pronunciation is unintelligible.' This will hurt your partner's feelings. So, you need to be tactful in personal matters. You need to master **Politeness Principles** as well. R. Lakoff summed up the 'rules' as follows:

- ⇒ don't impose
- ⇒ give options
- ⇒ make your receiver feel good.

Another way of looking at these rules is suggested by Brown and Levinson through the notions of positive and negative 'face.'

- ⇒ Protect 'negative face' through strategies of negative politeness (for example, don't make it difficult to say no)
- ⇒ Attend to 'positive face' through strategies of positive politeness (for example by being respectful and giving compliments).

It should not be surprising that 'tact' is often in conflict with 'cooperativeness'. The desire not to hurt someone's feelings, for example, may be in conflict with the requirement to tell the truth: see On-demand Video by Hugh Trappes-Lomax (2005).

2.4 CCDL Concepts and Skills (4): Indirect/High Context Culture vs Direct/Low Context Culture and Indirect mode of speech vs Direct mode of speech

Indirect vs direct mode of speech relates to implicatures mentioned in Section 2.3. It is important for the CCDL participants to acquire these skills. There is another dimension to this distinction.

Indirect / High Context: Culture

People in these cultures tend to infer, suggest and imply rather than say things directly. At least that is how they appear to people from more direct/low-context cultures—though not, of course, to each other. These cultures tend to be more collectivist, where harmony and saving face are the greatest goods; hence there is a natural tendency toward indirectness and away from confrontation. In collectivist cultures, in-groups are well established and members have developed an intuitive understanding of each other, in part because the culture has a long history. This means that as a rule people do not need to spell things out or say very much to get their message across. This shared understanding is known as context, and in high-context cultures messages often do not even need words to be expressed; nonverbal communication may be enough, or the message

may be expressed in terms of what is not said or done. The goal of most communication exchanges is preserving and strengthening the relationship with the other person.

Direct/Low Context Culture:

Direct cultures tend to be less collectivist, with less well-developed in-groups, and more individualist than indirect cultures. People lead more independent lives and have fewer shared experiences; hence, there is less empathic understanding of others. People need to spell things out and be more explicit; to say exactly what they mean rather than merely suggest or imply. There is less context; less that can be taken for granted. The spoken word carries most of the meaning; you should not read anything into what is not said or done. The goal of most communication exchanges is getting or giving information.

No culture, of course will be exclusively direct or indirect- all cultures will have elements of both poles but many cultures tend to be *more* one than the other. As always, personal differences will also come into play, along with circumstances. On the whole, however, you should expect to find most individuals on the same side of the continuum as their culture in general. Going back to the distinction of indirect vs direct mode of speech, our learners learn such implicature as, "That is a very interesting viewpoint"; Implicature is "**I don't completely agree. We need to talk more about this. I see things very differently.**"

2.5 CCDL Concepts and Skills (5): Reaching Agreement

There are various ways of arriving at an agreement when 2 (or more) people or groups are involved: Submission style, Compromise style, Evasive style and Consensus style.

(1) **Submission style:** Allowing another person or group to have authority to make decisions or being willing to hand over control.

(2) **Compromise style:** An agreement in which both (or all) sides make a concession by agreeing to accept less than they originally wanted.

(3) **Evasive style:** To intentionally avoid dealing directly with something, especially for strategic purposes

(4) **Consensus style:** Absence of conflict amongst all members and general feeling of shared agreement.

2.6 CCDL Concepts and Skills (6): Describe, Interpret and Evaluation (DIE)

This is discussed in Media Presentation.

2.7 CCDL Concepts and Skills (7):Research Method

Try to gather information from a variety of sources to make your research valid. It is important to triangulate the information, having different sources. Therefore, do not gather information from a single website/newspaper or book. Do not just go to Wikipedia! Combine several sources such as:

- Generally available Internet websites
- Academic databases/search engines (usually access via your library website ON CAMPUS network)
- Books and academic journals in your library
- Newspapers and magazines
- Survey results

At least ONE source must be an Academic database/search engine

A) Evaluating sources

It is easy to go online and type in keywords to find what you are looking for. BUT, because something comes up first on the search engine like yahoo or google, does not mean that the information is valid. You need to judge whether the sources are credible if you are referring to a text (website, newspapers, books, etc). Use these factors to assess the credibility of the articles your group members brought to class. Factors you should consider are:

Authority: Is the writer of the source an expert?

Purpose: Does the source want to inform you or persuade you?

Audience: Who is the audience? Is it written for experts? Children?

Currency: Is the information recent?

Quality: Is the language objective?

Accuracy: For factual information, can the same information be found in other sources?

When you decide to use information from a written text, keep a record of the source (note where you got the information: the title, the author's name and date of publication) and mention the source in your presentation.

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Theme-Based Cross Cultural Distance Learning: (2) Media

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Abstract

Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) is a joint seminar that is offered by two universities using an Internet video-conferencing system. Students from two universities in different countries discuss various topics in small groups after some preparation in class. From 2008, CCDL courses will be divided into three separate courses according to the specific themes to be discussed.

In this paper, course schedules and contents of CCDL-Media course are illustrated. The Internet video-conferencing system which is used for joint discussion is also described in detail. CCDL courses not only give students opportunity to use English to communicate with students in other countries but also develop students' transferable skills, which are adaptable generic skills for life and work. In this paper, we describe how facilitation skills, research skills, and the concept of high and low context communication are introduced in class.

Keywords

CCDL, Course Development, Facilitation Skills, Research Skills, High & Low Context Communication

Introduction

The Cross Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) course at Waseda University is now in its fourth year and has been subject to a process of continuous development. The renewed theme-based CCDL courses which will be offered in 2008 have been developed reflecting the comment and feedback from teachers and students who have taken part in previous courses. By analyzing students' topic preferences, one of the new CCDL courses is specially designed for dealing with the topic of mass media. Mass media are often mirrors of society and public opinion, but at the same time

people are subconsciously influenced by them. One major objective of this CCDL-Media course is to have our students break the stereotypes of country images given by the media, and have them redefine images of their partner country in ways that are acceptable and recognizable to their counterparts at the partner university. Students will also learn to think critically about media sources and their credibility, and to be aware of unreliable sources of information.

Setting students' sights beyond the end of the course links closely with another CCDL aim, which is to encourage students to develop as autonomous learners. Reflection worksheets and the BBS entries are written after each 'Joint Lesson' with the partner university. Both of these work towards motivating students to find intrinsic value in studying. Such unstructured learning environments encourage students to identify with the CCDL material in their own terms. During the course, activities and discussions are autonomously managed by the students through taking turns in the role of facilitator.

CCDL tips, skills and concepts are introduced throughout the course to help students become better, more sophisticated communicators. Many of the skills they will learn apply not just to communication in English but to communication in any language. They are generic, transferable skills that can be usefully adapted to a range of situations outside the classroom. CCDL Skills will help students make the most of the CCDL course but will also help them in life and work in the future.

In this paper, first the course schedule of the CCDL-Media course is introduced. Next a brief explanation is given of the *LiveOn* system, an Internet video-conferencing system used in 'Joint Lessons'. Thirdly, the concept of high and low context communication and two of the important

CCDL skills, specifically facilitation skills and research skills are described.

1 Course Schedule

The CCDL-Media course comprises of 6 topics that relate to mass media. Students will discuss the same topic for two weeks; the first week is for discussion among their own university classmates (Preparation Lesson), and the second week is for discussion with the partner university students (Joint Lesson). Table 1 shows the course schedule and the topics.

During the first half of the course (Topics 1-3) there is a high degree of overlap between preparation and joint lessons. This gives students time to practice language-related expressions in a face-to-face setting with home-country students, making them more resilient to additional challenges created by the “noise” of the technology interface compounded by unfamiliar accents. By the second half of the course (Topics 4-6), students become accustomed to the ‘lower context’ environment created by the technology interface and are able to go deeper with their discussions and to undertake more sophisticated activities. For the detailed information of the lesson procedure, refer to *Theme-based CCDL: (3) International Career Path* in the present proceedings.

Table 1: Course Schedule & Topics

Lesson number	Topic	Lesson style
1	Generic Introduction	Individual Lesson
2	Topic 1: Welcome to CCDL	Preparation
3		Joint
4	Topic 2: Advertisement	Preparation
5		Joint
6	Topic 3: Gender Image	Preparation
7		Joint
8	Topic 4: Country Image	Preparation
9		Joint
10	Topic 5: Front page news	Preparation
11		Joint
12	Topic 6: Group Project	Preparation
13		Joint

In Topic 1, students are introduced to fundamental aspects of CCDL such as international English, ethnocentrism, and the use of *LiveOn* system (refer to the next section). In Topic 2, students compare advertising techniques, and have discussions on subconscious influences of advertising. Topic 3 and Topic 4 deal with gender image and country image given by the media. Students find out how the image of gender and countries are perceived

differently, recognizing the stereotyped view given by the media. In Topic 5, front page news of several newspapers is compared. Students will discuss how the same news is conveyed differently in different cultures. In Topic 6, students decide their own discussion topics for a group project.

2 LiveOn system

The ‘Joint Lesson’ is conducted using an Internet video-conferencing system called *LiveOn* (Figure 1). Three students from each university, a maximum 6 students in total, will be assigned to one Chat Room. One student per Chat Room will be taking the role of facilitator during all group work. Instructors can silently move in and out of Chat Rooms to monitor students’ conversations. During the introduction Preparation Lessons, instructors can keep their camera on and talk to students as they drop in occasionally to see how students are doing.



Figure 1: LiveOn system

The *LiveOn* system has many useful functions to support the discussion such as document sharing system, desktop sharing system, White Board, Text Box chat, and File Transfer system to name but a few. If the sound quality is too bad to continue the discussion, students can use the Text Box as the main tool. Students can also make use of the Text Box to reinforce the clarity of their message. The Text Box is helpful when a) students are not sure about the pronunciation of words in English, b) when other group members do not seem to understand what the student said, and c) when the group members want to keep a record of key points.

The facilitator will also start off, or change the topic of discussions by writing the discussion questions into the Text Box. White Board can be used when students want to illustrate something. If they have difficulty explaining something, they can simply draw it. At the end of each session, students save the Text Box and White Board to keep as a record.

3 CCDL Skills & Concepts

In the ‘Preparation Lesson’, students are introduced

to CCDL skills and concepts. CCDL skills are mainly concerned with the process of communication and understanding meaning, not just vocabulary. The examples of these skills are facilitation skills and conversation management skills to name a few. CCDL concepts are introduced to raise students' awareness about culture and communication at a deeper level than simply 'speaking English'. Ethno-relativism and risk orientations are two of these concepts.

In the following section, the concept of high and low context communication, facilitation skills, and research skills are described in detail. For the rest of the skills and concepts, refer to "*Theme-based CCDL: (1) Social & global Issue*" and "*Theme-based CCDL: (3) International Career Path*" in the present proceedings.

3.1 High and low context communication

"Context" refers to the situation in a communication setting and includes everything surrounding the verbal message such as a) sensory perception and awareness of the interlocutor's nonverbal communications, b) sensory perception of the peripheral surrounding environment, c) knowledge of the speaker's personal life history, family background, acquaintances, education, employer, etc., and d) assumptions about the speaker based on the combined sensory awareness and background knowledge.

High context cultures have high awareness and ability to make assumptions or informed guesses, low context cultures are less sensitive to contextual information and/or place less priority on these channels of communication. Direct verbal messages are necessary in low context environments such as those that are mediated by technology interface. The technology interface prevents us from being able to pick up on as many nonverbal cues as are available during face-to-face communication. The lack of nonverbal cues reduces our ability to use high context communication. This is why the role of facilitator described in the following section is extremely important in CCDL.

3.2 Facilitation Skills

Facilitating is one of the core CCDL skills that students have the opportunity to develop during the course. All students take turns facilitating activities and discussions. Students learn how to facilitate by a) observing others facilitate, b) experiencing being a participant in a discussion facilitated by another student, as well as c) facilitating a discussion themselves.

Depending on their learning styles, some may prefer to try first, others to watch first. Thus

asking for volunteers is preferable to allocating roles during the first half of the course (Topics 1-3). In order to experience personal development and to contrast the different environments (face-to-face versus technology interface), the course has been structured to give all students the opportunity to practice facilitating at least twice in both 'Preparation' and 'Joint Lessons', four times in total, by the end of the semester.

Facilitation skills are introduced to the students using a metaphor of engine oil and cooking oil. Engine oil makes the different parts of an engine move smoothly together and prevents the engine seizing. This means that a facilitator helps the conversation in a group of 3 or more people go smoothly between people with different personalities and communication styles. Cooking oil stops the food from sticking to the frying pan. It helps to toss the food easily to stop one side burning while the other side is uncooked. A facilitator stops the conversation getting stuck, clarifies misunderstandings, enables everyone to take part in the discussion, and has a pool of questions to keep the discussion moving in interesting directions. If the oil in the engine is overfilled, it will leak and the engine will not function at its best. If there is not enough oil the engine may seize. If there is too much cooking oil in the pan, the food itself will become oily and the flavor of the oil overpowers taste of the food. The facilitator's role is not necessarily to be as noticeable as that of a chairperson, although sometimes clear direction such as typing discussion questions into the Text Box, and clear structure such as asking for contributors by name can help. A facilitator helps their group to get the best out of the discussion and helps each person to give their best.

The following points are the responsibility of facilitators;

1. Being the engine/cooking oil in the system; helping things go smoothly; stopping things from getting stuck, keeping the conversation going.
2. Writing main questions in the Text Box.
3. Ensuring everyone is participating and can understand the discussion.
4. Encouraging a student to speak up or ask questions if they have been quiet for some time.
5. Offering opportunities to all students to contribute and preventing one person from dominating the discussion.
6. Deciding who should go first if two or more people want to speak at the same time.
7. Directing discussion by calling on individual people by name.

8. Typing in key words in the TextBox.

After briefly introducing the role of a facilitator, students will be given a facilitation exercise as a homework which asks them what they would do or say in certain situations in a discussion. For example, one student is very talkative and talking about 70 percent of the time while others are remaining quiet most of the time. In the preparation lesson, students will share their answers in group and discuss what they should say or do.

The instructor will elicit responses from different groups for the questions. The purpose of this activity is to a) give students phrases they can use if they encounter those situations, and b) get students used to the idea of asking themselves “why” they think a student was behaving in a certain way.

3.3 Research Skills

Since it demands autonomy and familiarity with the environment, the topics that require students to do research are placed at the second half of the course (Topics 4-6). Students are instructed to gather information from a variety of sources to make their research valid. It is important to let the students triangulate the information with different sources, because they tend to gather information from a single website such as *Wikipedia*.

The following are the recommended sources for students.

- Generally available internet websites
- Academic databases/search engines (usually access via the library website ON CAMPUS network)
- Books and academic journals in the library
- Newspapers and magazines
- Survey results

If the articles that students found were in their native language, they would have to translate technical terms and tricky expressions in English and be prepared to speak about it in English.

3.3.1 Evaluating Sources

It is easy for students to go online and type in keywords to find what they are looking for. Although something that comes up first on a search engine like Yahoo or Google is not necessarily valid. Students tend to simply adopt the information they see first. They need to be able to judge whether the sources are credible if they are referring to a text. Table 2 shows the factors introduced to the students to assess the credibility of the articles that the group members bring to class.

Table 2: Factors of Source Evaluation

Authority	Is the writer of the source an expert?
Purpose	Does the source want to inform you or persuade you?
Audience	Who is the audience? Is it written for experts? Children?
Currency	Is the information recent?
Quality	Is the language objective?
Accuracy	For factual information, can the same information be found in other sources?

When they decide to use information from a written text, students are told to keep a reference of the source such as where they got the information, the title, the author’s name, and date of publication.

4 Conclusion

Developing the skills and awareness necessary to communicate with people from various cultures around the globe stimulates college students’ interests and enriches their learning experiences. CCDL is a program which enhances students’ inter-cultural or cross-cultural awareness, and increases mutual understanding among Asian countries. In addition to negotiating cultural issues, we must also be prepared to negotiate the logistics of distance communication: to communicate in spite of time differences and irrespective of the various barriers to communication that technology can present us with. In order to communicate across cultures and geography we need an ever wider repertoire of communicative and cognitive styles and the ability to adapt according to the situation.

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Theme-Based Cross Cultural Distance Learning: (3) International Career Path

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Abstract

The CCDL-International Career Path course, which will be offered by Waseda University and its partner universities from 2008, aims to prepare students to enter an international arena as 'global players'. This course covers 6 topics that relate to controversial issues of business such as 'distribution of rewards' and 'work life balance', and students will learn to reach agreement or to negotiate these issues by having discussions with partner university students. Students will also learn how people from different cultural backgrounds cope differently with business issues, which enables them to recognize their own cultural values. In this paper, overall flow of the course and CCDL skills and concepts will be described.

Keywords

Course Development, CCDL, International Business, Skills and Concepts

Introduction

Economic globalization and advanced IT technology make communicating with people whose background is different from our own inevitable. In order to succeed as part of the global workforce, it is important to be open-minded to the differences between cultures. This requires us also to develop a heightened awareness of our own perspectives and the cultural values that underpin them.

Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) is a joint seminar that is offered by two universities at undergraduate level using Internet. Students from two universities discuss various topics in small groups after some preparation in class. Student feedback surveys from the previous CCDL course showed that students are willing to use their English to take part in the international community from their home country, working for a firm established

through foreign investment capital, to work for a multinational in order to be a part of big impact projects, or to use English for international trading from a home-country company.

Based on this survey result, one of the three CCDL courses which will be offered from 2008 was specially designed for students wanting to study English for business purpose. In this paper the overall course structure of the theme-based CCDL and specific content of International Career Path course will be described.

1 Course Structure

The CCDL-International Career Path course deals with 6 topics on business issues. Each topic is discussed for two weeks. During the first week, students share ideas on the topic among classmates from their own university (Preparation Lesson), and the following week, students discuss the topic with overseas students (Joint Lesson).

Table 1: Course Structure & Topics

Lesson number	Topic	Lesson style
1	Generic Introduction	Individual Lesson
2	Topic 1: Welcome to CCDL	Preparation
3		Joint
4	Topic 2: Distribution of rewards	Preparation
5		Joint
6	Topic 3: Entrepreneurs	Preparation
7		Joint
8	Topic 4: Job interviews	Preparation
9		Joint
10	Topic 5: Work Life balance	Preparation
11		Joint
12	Topic 6: Group Project	Preparation
13		Joint

Before each lesson, students are encouraged to do 'Self-Study' on Course N@vi, a Learning Management System developed by Waseda University. After having the 'Joint Lesson', students report in a 'Reflection Sheet' what they have learned from discussion with their counterparts at the overseas partner university. The overall flow of the course will be 1) Self-Study 1, 2) Preparation Lesson, 3) Self-Study 2, 4) Joint Lesson, and 5) Reflection. Table 1 shows the structure of this course and the 6 topics being dealt with.

2 Self-Study 1

2.1 Reading

In order to give students some background knowledge as well as the language input specific to the topic, reading materials were gathered from newspapers and academic articles. Some of the reading materials were written by a member of our CCDL project team so that the content would best match the topic. After getting the copyright license, reading materials were uploaded on Course N@vi together with vocabulary checks and comprehension questions. Students complete the readings before the preparation lesson.

2.2 On-demand Lecture

Since theme-based CCDL is ultimately aiming for students to be able to discuss their professions in English, on-demand lectures were given by professors in the Faculty of Commerce at Waseda University, one of whom specializes in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial finance. The lectures were 20~30 minutes long, and students must complete comprehension questions after listening to the lecture at home.

2.3 Discussion Preparation

When starting to discuss a controversial topic, there needs to be a personal buy-in or a personal connection to the topic. For 'Self-Study 1', a list of personal buy-in questions for the topic is given to students. The following are a few examples of these questions from the topic 'Entrepreneurs'.

[Examples of personal buy-in questions]

- (a) Do you think you have what it takes to be a good entrepreneur? Why or why not?
- (b) Would you prefer to start up your own business (be an entrepreneur and create your own company) or working for an established company (be an employee)?
- (c) There are different types of risks involved in starting your own business and working in an established company. What kinds of risk can

you think of in relation to your answer (b) above?

3 Preparation Lesson

3.1 Skills and Concepts

In the preparation lesson, CCDL tips, skills and concepts are introduced to help students become better, more sophisticated communicators. Many of the skills they will learn apply not only to communication in English but also to communication in any language. They are generic, transferable skills that can be usefully adapted to a range of situations beyond the end of the course. CCDL skills will help students make the most of the CCDL course but these will also help them in life and work in the future. There are 15 or more skills and concepts introduced throughout the course, but here we will explain four of which are especially concerned with international business, which are 1) reaching agreement, 2) risk orientation, 3) emotional intelligence, and 4) social intelligence. As for the remaining skills and concepts, refer to "Theme-based CCDL: (1) Social & Global Issues", and "Theme-based CCDL: (2) Media" of the present proceedings.

3.1.1 Reaching Agreement

Ways of reaching agreement is one of the fundamental principles of the CCDL course to enhance mutual understanding across the East Asian region. There are various ways of arriving at an agreement when two or more people or groups are involved. Students are introduced to different styles of agreement such as a) submission style, b) compromise style, c) evasion style, d) consensus style, and they are also introduced to activities which develop their joint decision making and negotiating skills. These are key to developing such understanding in life and work beyond the classroom. During the second half of the course, students come to understand the strengths and weaknesses of the 4 different styles of agreement.

3.1.2 Risk Orientation

Research has shown that some cultures and people seem to enjoy risk and change, while other cultures and people prefer stability over change (Gudykunst & Nishida, 2001; Hofstede, 1980; Singh & Matsuo, 2004). It is said that countries like Canada, Australia, the UK, and the United States have greater tolerance for ambiguity and risky situations, whereas countries like Greece, Japan, and Mexico value security and low-risk situations. The concept of risk orientation is introduced in connection to the topic of 'Entrepreneur'. Students will find out whether they are more of a risk taker or

conservative individual by scoring a list of risk orientation questions. Teachers from both universities will put the class results up onto the Course Notice Board so that students can compare and discuss their results in the Joint lesson.

3.1.3 Emotional Intelligence

How people show their emotions and how much emotion to show can vary both among individuals and cultures. Japanese are said to ‘minimize’ displays of emotion, for example, hiding upset with a poker face or keeping back tears in public. In some Asian cultures, people tend to ‘substitute’ one feeling for another, for example, giving positive assurance where it is impolite to say no (Goleman, 1995). It is significant to be able to employ these strategies appropriately, and be aware that these strategies are used differently in other cultures.

Table 2: A framework of Emotional Competence (Goleman, 2000)

	<Self> Personal Competence	<Other> Social Competence
Recognition	Self-Awareness Emotional Self-Awareness Accurate Self-Assessment Self-Confidence	Social Awareness Empathy Service Orientation Organizational Awareness
Regulation	Self-Management Self-control Trustworthiness Conscientiousness Adaptability Achievement drive Initiative (+Innovation)	Relationship Management Developing others Influence Communication Conflict management Leadership Change catalyst Building Bonds Teamwork & Collaboration

The concept of Emotional Intelligence was first introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990), being defined as “the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions.” Salovey and Mayer (1990) propose that there is a set of conceptually related mental processes involving emotional information, which are a) appraising and expressing emotions in the self and others, b) regulating emotion in the self

and others, and c) using emotions in adaptive ways. CCDL enhances students’ ability to perceive and understand emotions of other students and to manage their own emotions even with barriers of technology and language between them.

Goleman (1995) defines emotional intelligence in somewhat broader sense than Salovey and Meyer. His approach is better adapted the objectives of our CCDL course. He proposes four broad domains of emotional intelligence; self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, and relationship management, with twenty specific competencies falling into one of these domains (Table 2). Emotional intelligence is considered to determine the potential for learning the fundamentals of self-mastery and the like, whereas emotional competence shows how much of that potential is mastered in ways that can be translated into on-the-job capabilities (Goleman, 1995; xv). Students are introduced to Goleman’s framework of emotional competence during the business-related activities in preparation lesson, so as to become better communicators or to develop leadership skills.

3.1.4 Social Intelligence

Later in his work, Goleman (2006) looks closer into ‘social competence’ which was previously included as a part of ‘emotional competence’, and reintroduced the domain separately as ‘Social Intelligence’. The ingredients of social intelligence proposed by Goleman (2006) correspond with the skills necessary for CCDL. Followings are the skills included in Goleman’s social intelligence.

<Social Awareness>

Primal empathy: Feeling with others; sensing non-verbal emotional signals.

Attunement: Listening with full receptivity; attuning to a person.

Emphatic accuracy: Understanding another person’s thoughts, feelings, and intentions.

Social cognition: Knowing how the social world works.

<Social Facility>

Synchrony: Interacting smoothly at the nonverbal level.

Self-presentation: Presenting ourselves effectively.

Influence: Shaping the outcome of social interactions.

Concern: Caring about others’ needs and acting accordingly.

(Goleman, 2006; 84.)

3.2 Discussion

Besides introducing some of the important skills and concepts of CCDL, the 'Preparation Lesson' is used for reviewing readings and on-demand lectures, as well as having group discussions on the personal buy-in questions given in 'Self-Study 1'. The discussion questions then move on from personal questions to more general questions, for example, asking for the pros and cons of being an entrepreneur.

4 Self-Study 2

In 'Self-Study 1', reading materials and on-demand lectures were given to the students in order to have some background knowledge of the topic, whereas in 'Self-Study 2', students themselves have to do some research and gather information of the topic on their own. In case of 'Entrepreneur', students will do research on one entrepreneur in their country, explaining 1) his/her personal background, 2) his/her business, 3) influence on society, and 4) their opinion of the person. Students can use the BBS on the Course N@vi to upload any documents they want to share with other students.

5 Joint Lesson

Joint lessons will be conducted using a video-conferencing system called LiveOn (For the detail refer to "Theme-based CCDL: (2) Media" in the present proceedings). Three students from each university cooperate in the same chat room, one of whom will take the role of facilitator. Facilitation skills are introduced in an earlier preparation lesson as one of the transferable skills. Students take turns introducing what they have learned from their research. Discussion questions at this stage are deeper, moving on from personal questions to general questions to more global questions, such as "Are entrepreneurs good or bad for an economy?" If the chat group cannot come to a conclusion within the time frame, they can continue their discussion on the BBS set up for each chat group.

6 Reflection

After the joint lesson, students are asked to hand in the reflection sheet covering the following;

- What interesting points emerged from your discussion in the joint session?
- What were the commonalities between members' understanding and experience of the issues raised?
- What differences existed between the contexts of all participants (even between group members) on the issue and what did this indicate about their respective cultures of work?

7 Summary

In this paper, course structure of CCDL was explained as having 5 stages, namely, 'Self-Study 1', 'Preparation Lesson', 'Self-Study 2', 'Joint Lesson', and 'Reflection'. Since CCDL is a student-centered course which aims to develop autonomous learners, a self study phase before each lesson is an essential part. Reflection worksheets and the chat group BBS both work towards motivating students to find intrinsic value in studying. Such unstructured learning environments encourage students to make meaning from the CCDL material and apply it to their own contexts.

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On the Acquisition of Passives in Child Language

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Abstract

This study explores an alternative account of the developmental patterns in the acquisition of passives crosslinguistically, particularly as for the acquisition of English and Korean. English has two types of passives, adjectival (lexical) and verbal (structural) passives. It is observed that adjectival passives are acquired earlier than verbal ones. In generative grammar, researchers have contended that it is because verbal passives involve syntactic movement of an argument, creating a chain, while adjectival ones are not. Borer & Wexler (1987) argued that early child English lacks an A(argument)-chain. Considering child Korean data, children produce passive-like constructions involving syntactic movement later than the morpheme *-ci-* occurs. Thus it seems that Borer & Wexler's argument is justifiable crosslinguistically. However, Korean children produce unaccusative sentences quite early, which also forms an A-chain. In this study, I argue that a semantic/pragmatic analysis might provide a better account of the acquisition of passives along with the acquisition of unaccusative constructions. Both in the acquisition of English and that of Korean, it is found that young children develop structures which are low in the Transitivity Hierarchy. Therefore, I will conclude that the notion of transitivity gives us a clue to explain the developmental pattern of passives in child language.

Keywords

language acquisition, passives, unaccusatives, transitivity

1 Introduction

English has two types of passives, adjectival passives and verbal passives, as illustrated as follows:

- (1) a. The violin was not used for a long time.
(an adjectival passive)
- b. The violin was played by one of the audience. (a verbal passive)

Adjectival passives include a predicate with no 'by-agent' phrase, expressing a certain state of being, while a 'by-agent' phrase usually appears in verbal ones which denote an action or a process. Under generative grammar, it was proposed that verbal passives are involved with movement, yielding an argument chain (A-chain), but adjectival ones are not.

Children acquiring English develop two types of passives in order, adjectival passives first and verbal ones later. Thus, Borer & Wexler (1987) argued that this order shows the late development of A-chains, and took this as evidence for the Maturation Hypothesis that grammatical properties are biologically preprogrammed and mature.

The analysis of passives above, of course, applies to English. The question is whether the analysis based on forming an A-chain still may hold crosslinguistically. In this paper, I will propose an alternative account which is arguably more plausible in terms of generalizability. My argument is based on a semantic approach with the Transitivity Hierarchy proposed by Hopper & Thompson (1980) and developed by Hukuda (2006).

2 Acquisition of passives in child Korean

2.1 Passive constructions in Korean

The Korean language has several ways of making passive-like constructions, which are either involved with passive morphology or not. The latter is the case that a verb carries a passive meaning by itself, as seen in (2a), while the former comes with the morpheme *-hi-* or *ci-* as in (2b) and (2c), respectively.

- (2) a. Mina-ka tol-e mac-ass-ta
Mina-Nom. stone-with **be.hit**-Past-Decl
"Mina was hit with a stone."
- b. Mina-ka Yuno-eke cap-**hi**-ess-ta
Mina-Nom Yuno-by catch-**Pass**-Past-Decl
"Mina was caught by Yuno"

c. byung-i kkey-**ci**-ess-ta
 bottle-Nom break-**Pass**-Past-Decl
 ‘The bottle was broken’

The morpheme *-ci-* in (2c) is also attached to a transitive verb and makes it an unaccusative.

(3) Mina-ka namu-ese ttele-**ci**-ess-ta
 Mina-Nom tree-from let.fall-**Pass**-Past-Decl
 ‘Mina fell down from a tree.’

Park (2005) argued that passive-like constructions with *-ci-* involves syntactic movement while those with *-hi-* does not.

2.2 Acquisition of passive-like constructions

According to the child Korean data, which were analyzed in Kim (1997), children develop the (2a)-type constructions quite early, the (2b)-type ones with *-hi-* next, and later the (2c)-type ones with *-ci-*. Now, if we accept Park’s analysis on Korean passive-like constructions, we might adopt Borer & Wexler’s (1987) argument since the syntactic passives involving A-chain develop late.

But there are a few things that we should consider. First, Kim (1997) states that the *-ci-* passive develops late because adult Korean does not show much use of it, and thus its late occurrence could be due to the scarcity of the relevant input. Second, considering (3), it is predicted that unaccusatives like (3) are produced late since it is involved with A-movement that creates an A-chain as discussed in Belletti & Rizzi (1988). However, unaccusative sentences appear quite early in child Korean. The story sounds contradictory if we try to explain child Korean data with syntactic approach.

3 Transitivity Hierarchy

Transitivity is taken to be associated with the concept of an activity being carried over from an agent to a patient. Hopper & Thompson (1980: 252) proposed the following parameters of Transitivity.

(4) HIGH	LOW
2or more participants	1 participant
action	non-action
telic	atelic
punctual	non-punctual
volitional	non-volitional
affirmative	negative
realis	irrealis
A high in potency	A low in potency
O totally affected	O not affected
O highly individuated	O non-individuated
(A=agent; O=object)	

With the above hierarchy, we can explain the developmental pattern of passives in child language.

First, verbal passives in child English carry high Transitivity while adjectival ones low Transitivity. Second, Korean *-ci-* passives denote high Transitivity and develop later. On the other hand, unaccusatives with *-ci-* show low Transitivity and develop early.

Note that both types of constructions involve an A-chain. Now we can explain why structures with an A-chain develop in the different order. It is not the presence or absence of an A-chain that explains such order but the Transitivity Hierarchy that governs the order.

Based on the argument above, I conclude that children begin with passives with low Transitivity and later can process the constructions with high Transitivity. This is a preliminary remark and, in order to generalize this, we need to research on other types of constructions involving seemingly A-movement.

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Adaptation of Cross-Cultural Distance Learning to EFL Context of Korean Universities

-A Case study of Kangwon National Univ., Hanyang Women's College, and Namseoul Univ.-

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Abstract

Until recently much research has proved that Cross-Cultural Distance Learning(henceforth CCDL) project plays a very important role in helping the nonnative speakers (like Japanese, Korean, and Chinese, etc) acquire their self-confidence and gives them the non-threatening environment to practice English abilities.

Through the survey on the history, the courses' names which participated in this project in Korea and students' number, and the results of the questionnaire about this project, this research would like to prove the significance and importance of CCDL in cultivating the communicative competence of Korean students in university level.

Keywords

Cross-Cultural Distance Learning, Non-Native Speakers, Communicative Competence, University Level

Introduction

Until recently much research has proved that Cross-Cultural Distance Learning(henceforth CCDL) project plays a very important role in helping the nonnative speakers acquire their self-confidence and gives them the non-threatening environment to practice English abilities.

For example, Yano(2006) pointed out the importance of CCDL by suggesting the effects of NNS-NNS interaction. He argued three effects of the interaction. First, using English in the NNS-NNS interaction helps the Japanese learners to liberate themselves from the inferiority complex toward native speakers. Second, using English for communication forces the interlocutors to be attentive to what is going on and leaves little room to pay attention to their pronunciation, their use of articles, and prepositions and other grammatical matters. Third, nonnative speaker interlocutors at times show difficulties in expressing in English and often make similar grammatical mistakes as Japanese do. This makes the Japanese learners to realize it is more important to participate in the

discussion and express their ideas and opinions than being silent until your English becomes perfect, which never comes after all. So it is natural that we make efforts to develop CCDL project based on the needs and circumstances of EFL learners.

1 CCDL of Namseoul University

Namseoul University has been participated in CCDL since the second semester of 2005. CCDL project in Namseoul University consists with two parts.

1.1 Video Chatting Activities

Namseoul University - Waseda University partners meet in cyber space through a "Live On" program. For one hour once a week, and they had to record all the interactions through text chat and submit them as a report for the course.

1.2 Video Conferencing Lecture

Every Thursday from 14:40 to 16:10, during which every student must participate in the course through listening and speaking only in English.

2 CCDL of Hanyang Women's College

Hanyang Women's College (HWC hereafter) started its CCDL program with Waseda University (WU hereafter) in the beginning of the second semester in 2006. The Cross-cultural Distance Learning Lab of HWC is equipped with 16 PCs for chatting and the PolyCom system for video conferencing. Video conferences between the two schools are held only in the spring semester.

2.1 The 2nd Semester in 2006

2.1.1 Chatting Sessions

The professors from HWC and WU agreed to have oral chatting with the use of headset for the last 5 minutes of the each session. The total of 72 students of HWC – 58 freshmen taking English Conversation for Tourism II and 14 sophomores taking Business English – and 49 freshmen of WU took part in the first cooperative chatting program. The topics of the sessions included self-introduction, summer break, DOs and DON'Ts in Korea and

Japan, campus life, and major studies.

At the end of the semester, HWC conducted a questionnaire survey, which reveals that most of the HWC students participated in the chatting sessions to improve their English proficiency. The second reason for their participation was to make Japanese friends. 36 out of 46 students responded that the chatting was helpful in improving their English proficiency. 40 out of 46 students answered that they could learn about Japanese culture through the chatting. When they were asked which area of English they were most weak at, most of them thought they lacked grammar skills and then vocabulary. Quite a number of them thought that the duration of their sessions was too short and they wanted to have more chances to do oral chatting using headsets.

2.2 The 1st Semester in 2007

2.2.1 Chatting Sessions

More students participated in the second chatting program. From the Korean side, 95 sophomore students of English Conversation for Tourism III, 20 freshmen of English Conversation for Tourism I and 14 freshmen of Business English participated in the sessions. Meanwhile, from the Japanese side, 36 freshmen of Writing Practice IB, 32 freshmen of Writing Practice IC, and 35 sophomore students of English II (Comprehension) took part in the program. The total of 129 of HWC students and 103 WU students were involved in the second program. The topics included self-introduction, dating, marriage, sports, and traveling foreign countries.

2.2.2 Video Conference

The Video Conferences between WU and HWC were held on every Thursday afternoon from 3 p.m till 4 p.m. Some 20 sophomores of WU led by Professor Matsusaka and 23 sophomores in the Department of Tourism of HWC led by Professor Kyunghee Choi participated in the VCs. The handout was made each week by the presenters and distributed to the students of both schools about a week before the VC. The first, third, and fifth sessions were conducted by WU and the second and fourth by HWC. When they were asked how the VC helped them improve their English skills, they said they were able to improve speaking skills by asking and listening to questions. They were able to improve writing skills by writing a script for the presentation. They also gained confidence in speaking with foreigners in English. They expressed that the VC topics were interesting and helpful for them to understand Japanese culture. However, they found that listening to what Japanese presenters said was difficult to understand due to the physical and psychological distances and also

due to their poor listening abilities.

3 Conclusions

- 1) The first thing is that most students were very impressed with the possibility of being able to get in touch with students and cultures in foreign countries through CCDL program.
- 2) The second is that they could develop their English proficiency through CCDL.
- 3) The third is that they wish to participate in CCDL program again if possible, and they think this project activated the interests in cultural understanding and world English.

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A Study of Grammar Development among Japanese University Students: Intransitive Verbs, Transitive Verbs, Ditransitive Verbs and Logical Subjects in Xcomps – Part (1)

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Abstract

This paper deals with Grammar Development among Japanese University students in the area of intransitive verbs, transitive verbs, ditransitive Verbs in Part 1 and logical subjects in Xcomps in Part 2. We have been collecting grammatical judgment data for seven years since 2000. Last year we analyzed the judgment data, using Item Response Theory (IRT). As a result, we can now present some developmental stages across grammatical constructions, based on the Difficulty scores yielded by IRT. This paper summarizes our investigation.

Keywords

VT, VI, Ditransitive, Logical Subjects, Xcomp, IRT

Introduction

The present reanalysis of our grammatical judgment data involves the three tests; Y, N and S tests. Y test examined unaccusative, and unergative verbs. The previous studies showed that the unergative verbs are acquired earlier than unaccusative verbs. It has been argued that the underlying forms are different in these verbs:

Unergative verbs: *laugh* (X _): [John [VP laughed]]

Unaccusative verbs: *arrive* (_ <Y>): [empty [VP arrived John]]

Transitive verbs : *break* (X_<Y>): [John [VP broke the vase]]

To test this hypothesis, Y test contained transitive verbs. We also included the passivized forms, since if learners believe that some implicit agent causes Y to do the action denoted by the verb, their assumption might force the form to be passivized.

In N-test, there were four kinds of sentences: (1) prepositional to-datives and for-datives; (2) their di-transitive counterparts; (3) passive sentences of prepositional datives; (4) passive sentences of the di-transitive ones. There were some items which cannot be regarded as dative sentences so that we

can test whether the learners can differentiate dative constructions from non-dative constructions. We also tested whether animacy effects in subject nouns can influence learners' grammatical judgments.

All our data had been analyzed in view of Competition Model which proposes that learners go through the four stages. The most primitive stage is called 'cue-unconscious' stage where learners do not possess any means to judge the grammaticality of a sentence, hence their responses are at random. The next developmental stage is called 'meaning dependent' in which learners can understand the thematic roles of the entities denoted by the noun phrases, but thematic understanding are not mapped onto the grammatical functions, in short, incomplete understanding of syntax. The next stage is called transitional stage where the thematic roles of the entities denoted by the noun phrases can be sometimes mapped onto grammatical functions, but this mapping is not stable. In the last stage of development, learners can map the thematic roles onto grammatical functions successfully, hence, this group is called 'syntax-dependent'. This interpretation of Competition Model is based on the Lexical Mapping Theory (LMT) in Lexical Functional Syntax (LFS): Bresnan (2001). LMT bridges the connection derived from argument structures to grammatical functions, suggesting that learners' semantic understanding in the form of argument structures influence learners' grammatical judgments. In order to relate our data analysis to the learner's grammatical growth, all the participants' grammatical ability was individually assessed by measure of English Grammar (MEG): see Shimizu et al. (2003). Sugino et al. (2003) illustrated that there were four types of subjects: syntax dependent, transitional, meaning dependent and cue unconscious groups in terms of the MEG scores as follows:

Cue unconscious group: below 49 points

Meaning dependent group: between 50 -59 points

Transitional group: between 60 – 79 points
 Syntax dependent group: more than 80 points
 To sum up, cue unconscious participants are those whose grammatical judgments are ‘uncertain’; meaning dependents rely on argument structure; syntax dependents can map from argument structures to grammatical functions; that is, they can possess Lexical mapping abilities. Transitional participants are between meaning dependents and syntax dependents.

In S test, we examined a learner’s understanding of the logical subject of Xcomp, as shown below. The mother promised the boy to go to the school. The mother told the boy to go to the school. The logical subject of the XCOMP is determined whether the main verb is subject-control or object-control. This is specified in the lexicon as follows

Promise V ↑ pred =
 promise < ↑subj ↑obj ↑xcomp>
 ↑xcomp subj = subj
 Tell V ↑ pred =
 ‘tell <↑subj ↑obj ↑xcomp>
 ↑xcomp subj = ↑obj

In our previous studies, the data was analyzed in view of Competition Model, by manipulating noun phrases to elicit different responses from the participants, depending on their developmental stage, i.e., cue-unconscious, meaning dependent, transitional and syntax dependent stages.

In this presentation, we will examine our data in view of the difficulty valued estimated by the Item Response Theory (IRT).

1 Grammatical Judgments on intransitive verbs and transitive verbs (Y-test)

Y test contained 8 types of grammatical judgments, a ~ h. The following 8 tables summarize the target sentences and difficulty values.

Type a (unaccusative verbs)

YC-a My grandmother died when I was five.-1.64
 YC-a She fell down from a second floor window.-1.24
 YC-a Laptop computers first appeared in the 1990s.-0.83
 YC-a Your letter arrived yesterday. -1.19
 YC-a Do you think ghosts exist? -0.71
 YC-a A funny thing happened in the office today.-1.09
 Mean -1.17

Type b (unergative verbs)

YC-b Children played with a ball on the beach.-0.83
 YC-b She works for a computer company. -1.18
 YC-b We laughed when we saw his face.-1.98
 YC-b They danced all night at the bar.-1.47
 YC-b Her father cried at her wedding ceremony.-1.95
 YC-b She usually sings in the bathroom. -1.47
 Mean -1.48

Type c Ill-formed passives with unergative ve

YC-c *New types of shoes were appeared in the shops.

0.22

YC-c *A temple was existed here hundreds of years ago. -0.44

YC-c *I was not there when the accident was happened. 0.86

YC-c *I hit him so hard that he was fallen down. 0.88

YC-c *Because of the rain, the train was arrived late. -0.35

YC-c *At least 300 people were died in the earthquake.0.37

Mean 0.26

Type d Ill-formed passives with unaccusative verbs

YC-d *They were laughed when she told a funny joke. 0.22

YC-d *He was cried when he heard of his mother’s death. -0.36

YC-d *Mary is sung at the church every Sunday.-0.55

YC-d *Because of the rain, we were played inside yesterday. -0.35

YC-d *She was danced with him until midnight.-0.20

YC-d *Tom was worked until late yesterday.-0.26

Mean -0.25

Type e Intransitive verbs (unergative types) used as transitive verbs

YC-e *Finally the waitress arrived the salad to us. -1.11

YC-e *Jimmy happens a lot of trouble to me. -0.67

YC-e *The lack of rain died all the flowers. -0.93

YC-e *He exists a lot of new words. -0.12

YC-e *He fell down the glass on the floor. 0.35

YC-e *The next day the reporter appeared the accident in the newspaper. -0.47

Mean -0.49

Type f Intransitive verbs (unaccusative types) used as transitive verbs

YC-f *They sang their son at the concert. -1.18

YC-f *They danced the couple at the wedding ceremony. -0.50

YC-f *The boss worked his employees very hard. -0.78

YC-f *The boy hit his little sister and cried her. -0.65

YC-f *The young comedian always laughs me. -0.22

YC-f *She played her daughters together. -0.49

Mean -0.64

Type g Passive sentences with transitive verbs

YC-g The door was broken by the police. -1.30

YC-g A lot of roses are grown in the village.-1.31

YC-g The factory was burned by the fire. -2.13

YC-g The snow was melted by the hot sun. -2.09

YC-g Their shirts were dried in the room.-1.38

YC-g Many restaurants were closed last year.-0.88

Mean -1.52

Type h Transitive sentences

YC-h He closed the gate at six o'clock. -1.58

YC-h The sun soon melted the ice in the lake. 0.46

YC-h She dried her hands on the towel. 0.18

YC-h I broke a glass in the kitchen. -1.74

YC-h We grow tomatoes in our garden every year.	-1.60
YC-h I burned all my letters.	-1.45
Mean	-0.96

The difficulty mean values suggest the following grammar development:

Difficulty values	
Transitive verbs (passivized)	-1.52
Intransitive (unergative verbs)	-1.48
Intransitive (unaccusative verbs)	-1.17
Transitive verbs	-0.96

2.0 N test: Ditransitive Verbs and transitive verbs

N Test is to test grammatical knowledge of dative alterations. It contains six kinds of test items which we call here A, B, C, D, E, and F.

Group A: Well-formed ditransitives

A01 Mr. Jones gave me some money.	-2.05
A02 The company gave him a new job.	-1.65
A03 My wife sent me three golf clubs.	-1.92
A04 The family sent him ten apples.	-1.64
Mean	-1.82
A05 John found me a new dress.	-0.31
A06 The company found him a new office.	0.05
A07 Simon made us a new dinner table.	-1.46
A08 The company made the secretary a new uniform.	5.09
Mean	0.84

Group B: Ill-formed ditransitives

B01 *Mr. Jones reported me the accident.	4.03
B02 *The police reported Bill the fire.	0.83
B03 *My wife moved me three golf clubs.	-1.33
B04 *The family moved him a box of apples.	-1.18
Mean	0.59
B05 *King Arthur fought the queen the monster.	-1.58
B06 *The company burned me a lot of boxes.	-0.89
B07 *Simon discovered us a nice dinner table.	-1.18
B08 *The company discovered them a new house.	-1.33
Mean	-1.25

Group C: Prepositional datives

C01 Mr. Jones gave some money to me.	-1.68
C02 The company gave a new job to him.	-1.99
C03 My wife sent three golf clubs to me.	-2.44
C04 The family sent ten apples to me.	-1.76
Mean	-1.97
C05 John found a new dress for me.	-2.18
C06 The company found a new office for him.	-1.57
C07 Simon made a new dinner table for us.	-1.59
C08 The company made a new uniform for the secretary.	-1.78
Mean	-1.78

Group D: Distracter Items which appear to look like prepositional to-datives and prepositional for-datives. There are four items for each distracter type.

D01 Mr. Jones reported the accident to me.	-2.10
D02 The police reported the fire to Bill.	-1.29

D03 My wife moved three golf clubs to me.	-0.98
D04 The family moved a box of apples to me.	-1.71
Mean	-1.52
D05 King Arthur fought the monster for the queen.	-1.65
D06 The company burned a lot of boxes for me.	-1.03
D07 Simon discovered a nice dinner table for us.	-2.35
D08 The company discovered a new house for them.	-1.84
Mean	-1.72

Group E: Well-formed Passives:

E01 I was given some money by Mr. Jones.	-1.69
E02 He was given a new job by the company.	-1.59
E03 I was sent three golf clubs by my wife.	-1.36
E04 He was sent ten apples by the family.	-0.63
Mean	-1.32
E05 I was found a new dress by John.	3.29
E06 He was found a new office by the company.	5.31
E07 We were made a new dinner table by Simon.	5.97
E08 The secretary was made a new uniform by the company.	3.33
Mean	4.48

Group F: Ill-formed Passives: theme subjects

F01 *Some money was given me by Mr. Jones.	1.42
F02 *The new job was given him by the company.	1.74
F03 *Three golf clubs were sent me by my wife.	1.50
F04 *Ten apples were sent him by the family.	1.67
Mean	1.58
F05 *The new dress was found me by John.	-1.23
F06 *The new office was found him by the company.	-1.42
F07 *The new dinner table was made us by Simon.	-0.88
F08 *The new house was made them by the company.	-1.14
Mean	-1.17

The mean difficulty values suggest the following grammatical development. We have combined some constructions in Y test.

C-to prepositional dative + to)	-1.97
A-to Ditransitives	-1.82
C-for prepositional dative + for	-1.78
D-for transitive verb + for	-1.72
D-to transitive verb + to	-1.52
=VT passive	
E-to human subject passives	-1.32
*B-for *non-dative verbs turned into ditransitives	-1.25
*F-for *theme passives	-1.17
= unaccusative	
*B-to *non-dative verbs turned into ditransitives	0.59
A-for Ditransitives	0.84
*F-to *theme passives	1.58
E-for human subject passives	4.48

S-test and integrated analysis of intransitive, transitive, ditransitive verbs are discussed in Part 2, along with the analysis of logical subjects in Xcomps.

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A Study of Grammar Development among Japanese University Students: Intransitive Verbs, Transitive Verbs, Ditransitive Verbs and Logical Subjects in Xcomps – Part (2)

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Abstract

This paper deals with Grammar Development among Japanese University students in the area of intransitive verbs, transitive verbs, ditransitive Verbs and logical subjects in Xcomps. We have been collecting grammatical judgment data for seven years since 2000. Last year we analyzed the judgment data, using Item Response Theory (IRT). As a result, we can now present some developmental stages across grammatical constructions, based on the Difficulty scores yielded by IRT. This paper summarizes our investigation.

Keywords

VT, VI, Ditransitive, XCOMP, IRT

Introduction

The present reanalysis of our grammatical judgment data involves the three tests; Y, N and S tests. Y test examined unaccusative, and unergative verbs. The previous studies showed that the unergative verbs are acquired earlier than unaccusative verbs. It has been argued that the underlying forms are different in these verbs:

Unergative verbs: *laugh* (X _): [John [VP laughed]]

Unaccusative verbs: *arrive* (_ <Y>): [empty [VP arrived John]]

Transitive verbs : *break* (X_<Y>): [John [VP broke the vase]]

To test this hypothesis, Y test contained transitive verbs. We also included the passivized forms, since if learners believe that some implicit agent causes Y to do the action denoted by the verb, their assumption might force the form to be passivized.

In N-test, there were four kinds of sentences: (1) prepositional to-datives and for-datives; (2) their di-transitive counterparts; (3) passive sentences of prepositional datives; (4) passive sentences of the di-transitive ones. There were some items which cannot be regarded as dative sentences so that we can test whether the learners can differentiate dative

constructions from non-dative constructions. We also tested whether animacy effects in subject nouns can influence learners' grammatical judgments.

All our data had been analyzed in view of Competition Model which proposes that learners go through the four stages. The most primitive stage is called 'cue-unconscious' stage where learners do not possess any means to judge the grammaticality of a sentence, hence their responses are at random. The next developmental stage is called 'meaning dependent' in which learners can understand the thematic roles of the entities denoted by the noun phrases, but thematic understanding are not mapped onto the grammatical functions, in short, incomplete understanding of syntax. The next stage is called transitional stage where the thematic roles of the entities denoted by the noun phrases can be sometimes mapped onto grammatical functions, but this mapping is not stable. In the last stage of development, learners can map the thematic roles onto grammatical functions successfully, hence, this group is called 'syntax-dependent'. This interpretation of Competition Model is based on the Lexical Mapping Theory (LMT) in Lexical Functional Syntax (LFS): Bresnan (2001). LMT bridges the connection derived from argument structures to grammatical functions, suggesting that learners' semantic understanding in the form of argument structures influence learners' grammatical judgments. In order to relate our data analysis to the learner's grammatical growth, all the participants' grammatical ability was individually assessed by measure of English Grammar (MEG): see Shimizu et al. (2003). Sugino et al. (2003) illustrated that there were four types of subjects: syntax dependent, transitional, meaning dependent and cue unconscious groups in terms of the MEG scores as follows:

Cue unconscious group: below 49 points

Meaning dependent group: between 50 -59 points

Transitional group: between 60 – 79 points

Syntax dependent group: more than 80 points

To sum up, cue unconscious participants are those whose grammatical judgments are ‘uncertain’; meaning dependents rely on argument structure; syntax dependents can map from argument structures to grammatical functions; that is, they can possess Lexical mapping abilities. Transitional participants are between meaning dependents and syntax dependents.

In S test, we examined a learner’s understanding of the logical subject of Xcomp, as shown below. The mother promised the boy to go to the school. The mother told the boy to go to the school. The logical subject of the XCOMP is determined whether the main verb is subject-control or object-control. This is specified in the lexicon as follows

Promise V ↑ pred =
 promise < ↑subj ↑obj ↑xcomp>
 ↑xcomp subj = subj
 Tell V ↑ pred =
 ‘tell <↑subj ↑obj ↑xcomp>
 ↑xcomp subj = ↑obj

In our previous studies, the data was analyzed in view of Competition Model, by manipulating noun phrases to elicit different responses from the participants, depending on their developmental stage, i.e., cue-unconscious, meaning dependent, transitional and syntax dependent stages.

In this presentation, we will examine our data in view of the difficulty valued estimated by the Item Response Theory (IRT).

1 Y and N tests

In Part (1) we have seen that the mean difficulty values suggest the following grammatical development. We have combined some constructions in Y test.

C-to	prepositional dative + to)	-1.97
A-to	Ditransitives	-1.82
C-for	prepositional dative + for	-1.78
D-for	transitive verb + for	-1.72
D-to	transitive verb + to	-1.52
	=VT passive	
E-to	human subject passives	-1.32
*B-for	*non-dative verbs turned into ditransitives	-1.25
*F-for	*theme passives	-1.17
	= unaccusative	
*B-to	*non-dative verbs turned into ditransitives	0.59
A-for	Ditransitives	0.84
*F-to	*theme passives	1.58
E-for	human subject passives	4.48

2 S test: logical subjects in xcomps

In this test, we had three experimental conditions:

converging, neutral and conflicting conditions. In the converging conditions, the thematic role of a logical subject of each xcomp is pragmatically congruent to the grammatical function of a sentence, as shown in the following example:

The boy promised his mother to study harder for the exam.

Logical subject xcomp
 (It is the boy who studies harder for the exam.)

In the converging condition, a learner can judge the logical subject of the xcom, even without relying on the syntactic knowledge. On the other hand, in the conflicting condition, the thematic role of a logical subject of xcomp is not congruent to the grammatical function of a sentence, as shown in the following example:

The mother promised her son to study harder for the exam.

(It is the mother who studies harder for the exam, which is contrary to our normal expectation.)

In this example, unless a learner knows the lexical property of the verb, promise, he/she tends to make a mistake. If the learner who relies on the thematic roles lacks correct syntactic intuition, he or she is bound to make an erroneous judgment.

In the neutral condition, the thematic roles of each subject noun and object noun are neutral with respect to our normal pragmatic expectation, as shown in the following example: Tom promised Mary to study harder for the exam.

In this example, it is our knowledge of lexical property of the verb, promise, that can tell us which noun phrase denotes the logical subject of the xcomp. The result of IRT analysis is given in the following table.

S44 CONV.	The boy promised his mother to study harder for the exam.	-1.93
S47 CONV.	The baseball player promised the boy to hit a homerun for him.	-1.46
S13 CONV.	The student promised the teacher to hand in his report by tomorrow.	-1.41
S20 CONV.	The police officer told the driver to stop the car immediately.	-1.34
S11 CONV.	The mother told her son to clean up the room.	-1.30
S42 CONV.	The customer asked the waitress to bring a new spoon.	-1.27
Avg. CONV.	Average of the Converging Cue Sentences	-1.27
S46 CONV.	The doctor told the patient to have some rest.	-1.24
S06 CONV.	The patient promised the doctor to take the medicine.	-1.16
S39 CONV.	The boy asked his mother to bake a cake for his birthday.	-1.13
S33 CONV.	The interviewer asked the actor to talk	

about his new film. -1.10
 S05CONV.The teacher told the student to look up the word in a dictionary.-1.08
 S10NEUT.John promised Ken to show his new computer. -1.04
 S27NEUT.Ken promised John to show his new computer. -1.03

 S29NEUT.John promised Mary to attend the lecture. -1.02
 S36NEUT.Peter asked Ken to come and see his new computer. -0.91
 S15NEUT.Ken asked Peter to come and see his new computer. -0.88
 S25CONV.The boss asked his secretary to reserve a hotel room for his business trip. -0.85
 S12NEUT.Ken asked Lucy to bake a birthday cake for their father. -0.74
 S21NEUT.Mary promised John to attend the lecture. -0.68
 Avg.NEUT.Average of the Neutral Cue Sentences-0.66
 S26 NEUT.Peter told Ken to join the baseball club.-0.50
 S23NEUT.Lucy asked Ken to bake a birthday cake for their father. -0.43
 S32NEUT.Ken told Peter to join the baseball club.-0.35
 S24CONF.The student told the teacher to look up the word in a dictionary.-0.32
 S45 CONF.The boy told his mother to clean up the room. -0.29
 S07 NEUT.Lucy told Sam to visit Peter's house at six. -0.28
 S37CONF.The driver told the police officer to stop the car immediately. -0.28
 S48CONF.The mother asked her son to bake a cake for his birthday. -0.17
 S30NEUT.Sam told Lucy to visit Peter's house at six. -0.02
 S14CONF.The patient told the doctor to have some rest. 0.10
 S09CONF.The secretary asked his boss to reserve a hotel room for his business trip. 0.27
 S38CONF.The doctor promised his patient to take the medicine. 0.29
 Avg.CONF. Average of the Conflicting Cue Sentences 0.31
 S35CONF.The boy promised the baseball player to hit a homerun for him.0.36
 S19CONF.The actor asked the interviewer to talk about his new film. 0.39
 S02CONF.The waitress asked the customer to bring a new spoon. 0.64
 S04CONF.The teacher promised the student to hand in his report by tomorrow.1.31
 S18CONF.The mother promised her son to study

harder for the exam. 1.39
 In this experiment, we had two kinds of verbs: subject control verb as 'promise' and object control verbs such as 'tell' and 'ask.' When we compare these, we get the following result:

Conversing subject control verb -1.49
Conversing object control verbs -1.16
Neutral subject control verb -0.94
Neutral object control verbs -0.51
Conflicting object control verbs 0.04
Conflicting subject control verb 0.84

3.0 Integrated analysis

We can summarize our result in terms of verb types and difficulty values as follows:

		subject
C-to prepositional dative + to	-1.97	-o
A-to Ditransitives [Input Bias]	-1.82	-o
C-for prepositional dative + for	-1.78	-o
D-for transitive verb + for	-1.72	-o
D-to transitive verb + to	-1.52	-o
=VT passive		-r
Intransitive (unergatives)	-1.48	-o
= Converging subject control		
-o		
E-to human subject passives	-1.32	-r
*B-for *non-dative verbs turned into ditransitives	-1.25	
= Converging		
*F-for *theme passives	-1.17	+o
= Intransitive (unaccusative)		-r
= Converging object control verbs		-o
Transitive verbs	-0.96	-o
Neutral Subject control verb	-0.94	-o
Neutral	-0.66	
Conflicting	0.31	
*B-to *non-dative verbs turned into ditransitives	0.59	
A-for Ditransitives	0.84	-o
= Conflicting subject control		
*F-to *theme passives	1.58	+o
E-for human subject passives	[NL transfer]	
	4.48	-r

E-to and E-for refer to the same human subject passives, but Japanese learners find E-to easier than E-for. We have attributed this big difference to the NL transfer, since in Japanese passive constructions have adversative readings and beneficiary E-for is semantically conflicting with adversative intuitions: Nakano et al. (2004). Dative ditransitives (such as give and send) are by far easier than beneficiary ditransitives, to which we found a strong Input bias in our textbook corpus: Ueda et al. (2004). Apart from these exceptions, we can generalize our findings as follows:

1. subject nouns which receives [-o] features are learned earlier and stable.
 - 2 subject nouns which receives [-r] features are learned in the next stage.
 - 3 subject nouns which receives [+o] features and which blocks ill-formed passive sentences are learned in the last stage.
- In our traditional terms, the following grammar development is suggested in our investigation:

1. VT (verbs whose primary category is transitive)
2. Dative Ditransitive (if the input is salient)
3. VI (unergative) At this stage, convergent subject control is learned.
4. VI (unaccusative) At this stage, [+o] is acquired and the convergent object control is learned.
5. VT passives At this stage, neutral subject control is learned.
6. Ungrammaticality of *B-for can be judged correctly (heavy reliance on the argument structures is reduced.) At this stage conversing conditions can be adequately dealt with.
7. VT (verbs whose primary category is intransitive) At this stage neutral subject control is learned.
8. Beneficiary ditransitives At this stage, conflicting subject control can be managed.

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A Study of Foreign Language Anxiety and its Constructs of Japanese College Students Learning English

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Abstract

The present study examined the anxiety constructs of Japanese college students learning English over one full academic year. The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between anxiety, achievement, and the construct of foreign language anxiety among university students learning English in Japan. The construct of foreign language anxiety is group of factors that make up what learners feel anxious about when learning a foreign language. Longitudinal data were gathered in order to probe 1) whether the construct of foreign language anxiety vary according to each major, and 2) whether the construct of foreign language anxiety changes over a year.

The study discovered that the object of the students' anxiety seem to fluctuate as the year goes by, exhibiting different anxiety constructs. Through analyses, the study found that the overall construct of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale or FLCAS, (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986) for the Japanese students of this study was quite different from that of Horwitz et al.'s. In their study, they suggested that the FLCAS is composed of three components, Communication apprehension, Speech anxiety, and Test anxiety. However, for this study, the factor analysis extracted a two-factor solution, which was composed of Fear of speaking in the English Classroom and General English Class Performance Anxiety.

Keywords

Foreign language anxiety, foreign language anxiety constructs, Japanese undergraduate English majors / non-English majors

Introduction

Language classroom anxiety is a widespread phenomenon which is described as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, p. 284). The recent body of research on foreign language classroom suggests that a high

level of anxiety can interfere with foreign language learning, and it has become a variable that must be heeded in teaching and accounted for in research (Burden, 2004; Elkhafaifi, 2005).

Although the study of language anxiety has progressed considerably in recent years, the study of foreign language anxiety is still a relatively new area. Similarly, language learning anxiety did not become a major research concern in Japan until quite recently. In addition, only a few of these studies used a longitudinal research design, which is an important research tool. This study longitudinally investigated the foreign language anxiety of Japanese college students learning English over one year. The first part of this study examined the difference in foreign language anxiety among students of different majors. The second part of the study dealt with the anxiety construct and its stability among English major students. As suggested by Samimy and Tabuse (1992), if anxiety-determining variables change over time, it is speculated that different predictors of performance should emerge among learners. This paper seeks to test this theory.

1 Data collection procedures

For English majors, data collection was done in the first week of April, at the beginning of the academic year, and also in the last week of January, at the end of that year. The students were asked to complete a background questionnaire and the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) during their Oral Communication Class. A brief description of the present study was presented, along with an informed consent form. For the other majors, the same survey was administered once, in the first week of April. The same procedures were followed as those for the English majors, and the survey was handed out during an English class.

1.1 Participants

The total number of participants in this study was 578 students, ranging in age from 18 to 25, with an

average age of 21.5. The participants were from various majors; first (114) and second year (133) English majors, 68 first year Business majors, 209 first and second year Mathematical Sciences and Information Engineering majors and 56 first and second year students majoring in Culture and Information.

1.2 Instrumentation

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), a background questionnaire, and the Michigan test of English (University of Michigan, 1972) were administered. The background questionnaire asked for the following information: the participant's gender, experience of living abroad, prior language training (past or present English conversation classes attended outside university), experience of traveling abroad, and whether they had native English-speaking friends. The entire survey was handed out during English class time.

In addition, the word "foreign language" in the original scales was replaced with "English." For example, the original question "I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class," was changed to "I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class."

2 Research Questions

Research Question 1: Does the structure of the FLCAS vary with the major of the participants?

Research Question 2: Does the structure of the FLCAS change over time for English majors (Longitudinal participants)?

3 Results

Research Question 1: The series of factor analyses by different majors showed that factors vary according to the group investigated. These results indicate that different sets of learners show different constructs of language anxiety. If the groups were longitudinally investigated, the post result might have been different and a new construct may have been found. However, one factor, speaking anxiety, was found to be common to all three groups. All students, regardless of major, seemed to be anxious when speaking English in the classroom. Students from the present study may have lacked confidence in speaking English.

The results of the FLCAS scores for each major are shown in Figure 1. The FLCAS yields a composite score ranging from 33 to 165, with a higher score signifying a higher degree of anxiety. In this study, the total scores of 578 students using Pre-test scores ranged from 44 to 155, with a mean

of 102.91 and a standard deviation of 20.41.

Research Question 2: The series of factor analyses found that the FLCAS structure for pre-test FLCAS and post-test FLCAS was different. Factor analysis also indicated that different majors showed different anxiety constructs. The results suggest that there may be a difference in constructs between different majors and different constructs among students over time. Due to the page limitation of the Proceeding, only the result of the first year students' is presented.

First Year Students' pre- and post-test FLCAS Constructs

For first year English major's pre-test FLCAS, the factor analysis extracted a two-factor solution. The factors were "Lack of self-confidence / Fear of impromptu speech" and "Concerns over the English class". It seems that at the beginning of the year, students were afraid to speak out or to be called on to speak in class. It is quite understandable that students felt this way since most of them did not have much experience speaking English in high school (Brown, 2004; Hojo, 1996). Also, since this questionnaire was given in the first week of school, they were perhaps still unfamiliar with the university and their classmates. They lacked confidence and were probably worried about their English class.

On the other hand, the post-test FLCAS consisted of three factors: "Low-self confidence in the classroom", "Comparison with others", and "Negative attitudes toward the English class". It seems students' concerns toward the English class were more diverse than with the post-test FLCAS. At the beginning of the course, students were anxious and had concerns about English class. When school began, students were not aware of their classmates' English proficiency level, the class requirements or the demands from their teachers. However, when they took the FLCAS for the second time, which was almost 10 months after their post-test FLCAS, they had become aware of their classmates' ability and also their own English ability. Therefore, they were able to compare themselves with other students. The results of this study indicate that the object of students' anxiety may change over time.

Students who show no anxiety at the beginning of the year may show significantly more anxiety as the class continues, while students who are fearful of teacher evaluation at first may fear peer pressure as the course progresses. Students who are afraid of speaking in class may show a different variety of

language anxiety later on. Language anxiety is a continuous phenomenon which is likely to change in the process of language learning. These results suggest the need for instructors and teachers to understand and pay careful attention to learners' changes of perceptions toward learning the language in classrooms.

Table 1: Summary of Factor Analysis: First year students' Pre-test FLCAS

Factors and items	Factor			h^2
	F1	F2		
	1	2		
Factor 1 Lack of Self-confidence/ Fear of Impromptu Speech				
FLCAS 9	.75			.61
FLCAS 33	.70			.52
FLCAS 28	-.69			.54
FLCAS 27	.67			.63
FLCAS 26	.66			.49
FLCAS 18	-.65			.48
FLCAS 4	.65			.46
FLCAS 20	.64			.46
FLCAS 16	.61			.61
FLCAS 3	.60			.39
FLCAS 1	.57			.37
FLCAS 13	.57			.39
FLCAS 14	-.56			.33
FLCAS 31	.53			.46
FLCAS 2	-.52			.30
FLCAS 32	-.49			.30
FLCAS 8	-.48			.26
FLCAS 12	.46			.27
FLCAS 15	.44			.32
Factor 2 Concerns over the English Class				
FLCAS 25		.64		.54
FLCAS 30		.62		.41
FLCAS 19		.60		.41
FLCAS 10		.57		.56
FLCAS 17		.56		.41
FLCAS 29		.54		.39
FLCAS 23		.54		.47
FLCAS 21		.50		.26
FLCAS 22		-.42		.20
FLCAS 7		.40		.24
% of variance	24.6	14		
% of total variance accounted for by the solution		38.6		
Items not included in factor solution				
FLCAS 6	-.04	.22		
FLCAS 5	-.19	-.03		
FLCAS 11	.36	.16		
FLCAS 24	.46	.45		

Table 2: Summary of Factor Analysis: First year students' Post-test FLCAS

Factors and items	Factor			h^2
	F1	F2	F3	
Factor 1 Low-self Confidence in the Classroom				
FLCAS 33	.67			.59
FLCAS 3	.66			.56
FLCAS 27	.63			.64
FLCAS 20	.63			.55
FLCAS 9	.61			.53
FLCAS 13	.58			.46
FLCAS 24	.50			.49
FLCAS 4	.48			.32

FLCAS 14	-.47		.30
FLCAS 1	.44		.45
FLCAS 12	.43		.32
Factor 2 Comparison with Others			
FLCAS 25		.67	.57
FLCAS 23		.63	.56
FLCAS 10		.62	.64
FLCAS 18		-.62	.48
FLCAS 26		.54	.51
FLCAS 2		-.53	.46
FLCAS 11		-.52	.31
FLCAS 8		-.49	.34
FLCAS 30		.45	.35
FLCAS 7		.44	.29
FLCAS 32		-.43	.34

Factor 3 Negative Attitudes toward the English Class

FLCAS 17		.64	.51
FLCAS 16		.62	.69
FLCAS 31		.55	.57
FLCAS 21		.46	.24
FLCAS 19		.42	.29
FLCAS 29		.41	.36
% of variance	16.0	16.0	10.1

% of total variance accounted for by the solution

42.1

Items not included in factor solution

FLCAS 5	.09	.03	-.22
FLCAS 6	.11	-.10	.23
FLCAS 15	.38	.12	.37
FLCAS 22	.33	.36	.25
FLCAS 28	.43	.44	.17

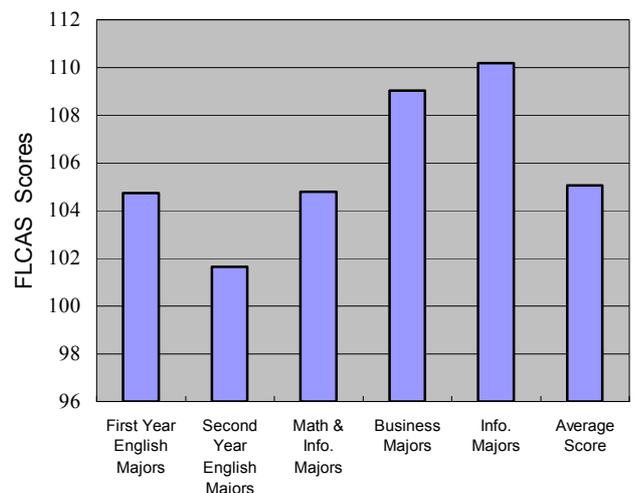


Figure 1. FLCAS Average Scores by Major

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classes.

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.
28. When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.
30. I feel overwhelmed that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of English.
33. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions that I haven't prepared in advance.

Appendix A. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.
6. During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my English class.
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over English classes.
12. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.
14. I would not be nervous speaking the English with native speakers.
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the English teacher is correcting.
16. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.
17. I often feel like not going to my English class.
18. I feel confident when I speak in the English class.
19. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I made.
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.
21. The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get.
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.
23. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.
25. English moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other

The Recognition of the Cultural Similarity as an Effective EFL Learning Strategy

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to study the recognition of the cultural similarity as an effective EFL learning strategy.

Keywords

Cultural similarity (universals), cultural differences (diversity), non-native speakers of English, native speakers of English, global language

Introduction

The NNSs (Non - Native Speakers of English) class can be found authentic skills as an effective EFL learning strategy using the basic understanding of cultural similarity between NSs (Native Speakers of English) and NNSs.

1 Culture & Language

A language is just as culture-bound are the traditional habits and value orientations characteristic of the society whose members use it.

The term culture also is all-inclusive. When one talks about a culture, the explicit mention of language is strictly speaking, redundant because any particular language is a form of learned behavior and therefore a part of culture

2 Cultural differences (diversity)

Throughout history, human have expressed an interest in cultural diversity. Different values, norms, beliefs, and practices have been recognized by peoples everywhere. People have compared and contrasted their respective cultural traditions.

3 Cultural similarity

Some anthropologists began to recognize that human throughout the world share some fundamental behavioral characteristics. George Murdock(1945), an anthropologist who devoted himself to cross-cultural analysis for cultural similarity.

4 Data Analysis and Discussion

4.1 Data Analysis

This study examines three groups of University students to prove the effect of EFL learning based on the recognition of the cultural similarity. This study surveyed and analyzed the results of a representative sample of M.A. and Ph. D. thesis on Culture/English Education.

4.2 Data Analysis and Discussion

It can be detrimental for EFL learners to emphasize acceptance of English culture as an objective in EFL classes. Since that kind of attitude can create a sense of inferiority in an EFL learner, EFL classes should emphasize reliance on their own culture to encounter the foreign culture in EFL classes.

5 Conclusion

To get rid of having those inconsistency, it is necessary to recognize the cultural similarity between the target culture of EFL learners and the vernacular culture as a Non - Native Speakers of English. This paper is the study that to be concerned the recognition of the cultural similarity than cultural differences can take an effective EFL learning strategy.

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Analysis of Native English Speaking Teacher Role in Korean English Education

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the overall effectiveness of a Native English Speaking Teacher (NEST) on students studying English in Korea within the framework of team teaching which Ministry of English (MOE) has implemented. In order to administer the study, three surveys were administered to NESTs, Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNEST) and Students Learning English in Korea (SLEK).

Keywords

Native English Speaking Teacher, Non-native English Speaking Teacher, Ministry of English, Students learning English in Korea, English program in Korea, Frequency Band

Introduction

As more and more Native English Speaking Teachers participate in English Education in Korea, it is crucial to examine the effect of a role of Native English Speaking Teacher V.S Non Native English Speaking Teacher.

1 Survey Data

The first survey was administered to NESTs currently working in Korea on a one- year E-2 visa. The NESTs were from all over Korea, but they were limited to private institutions known as Hagwons.

The second survey was administered to NNESTs in their native language to reduce misunderstanding the questions. As well these NNESTs were from all over Korea and were limited to private institutions. The third and final survey was administered to SLEKs who belonged to the ESL English Education Center in Incheon. The survey was in their native language, again to reduce their confusion with questions and allow for honest answers.

Apart from the surveys an analysis of a group of SLEK writing compositions was preformed. The analysis was to be used as factual data that would be compared to results of the surveys to support the need for a further analysis of NESTs in Korea and

the English Program in Korea (EPIK).

► Curriculums of English lessons

	NEST (1hr)	NNEST (1hr)
Mon	Lesson : storybook HW : finding definitions of words	Lesson : LG book HW : LG vocab (T) D2 Tape recording
Wed	Lesson : storybook HW : finding definitions of words	Lesson : LG book HW : LG listening dictation D2 Tape recording EB
Fri	Lesson : storybook HW : finding definitions of words	Lesson : LG book HW : LG unit (T) D2 Tape recording WB

* HW : homework

* D : diary

* WB : work book that comes along with student's book of let's go series

* EB : produced by ESL English education Center mainly practicing and reviewing from Let's go series

* T : Test

2 Survey result

The surveys for NNEST and NEST have the same questions to see the comparison and contrast of the two groups. The surveys are divided into 5 categories containing at least 6 questions.

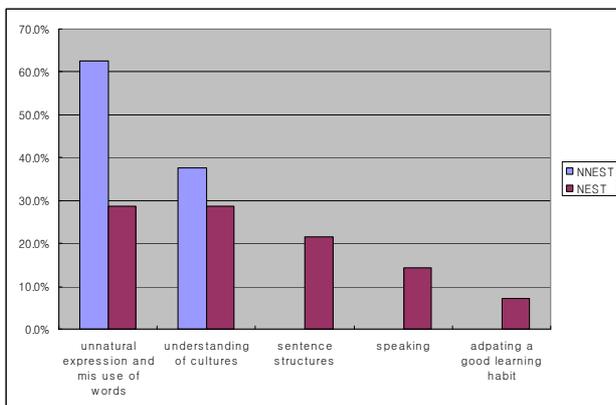
- ✓ Personal information: age, gender, education background
- ✓ Background knowledge: knowledge of English history, qualification for a teacher
- ✓ English education in Korea: problems / solutions, strength, weakness
- ✓ Preference for native or Korean teacher of English: Advantage and disadvantage of NEST and NNEST teachers
- ✓ Conception of English language: Awareness of different Englishes

The survey for SLEK is to show how they feel about NEST and NNEST teaching. The survey consists of two sections,

- ✓ Personal information: age, gender, Standard English, Experience relating to the language
- ✓ Teacher preference: attitude towards NEST and NNEST teaching methods

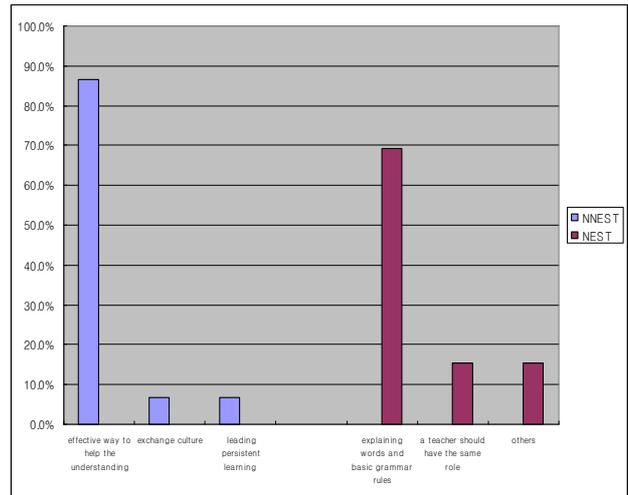
NESTs were equally divided, on what their role was, between helping with unnatural expression/misuse of words and understanding of cultures, whereas NNESTs at 62.5% saw the role mainly as helping with unnatural expressions/misuses of words.

Graph 1. Role of NEST



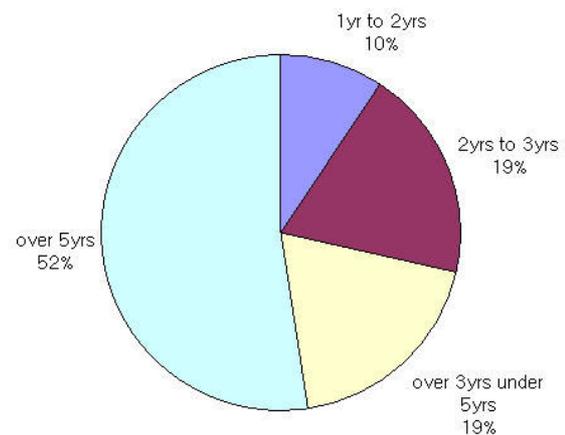
NESTs at 69.2 % believed the role of a NNEST is explaining words and basic grammar, whereas a NNEST at 86.7 felt their role was to help the students understand the new language and act as bridge between the first language and the second language.

Graph 2. Role of NNEST



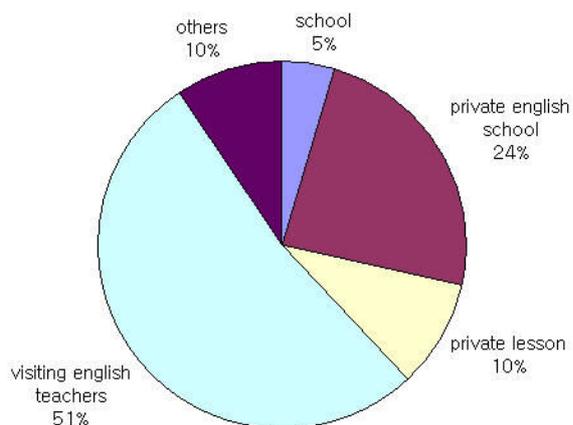
52% of the participants had studied English for more than 5 years, and most of them had studied at least 1 year or more.

Graph 3. The length of English education

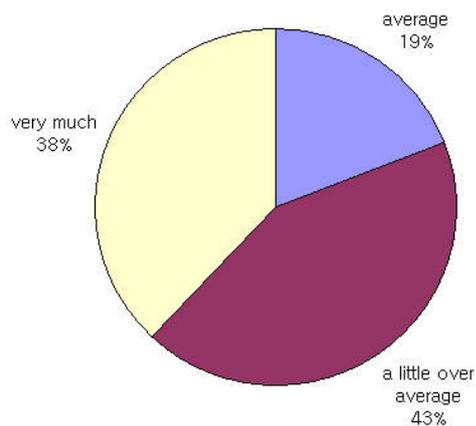


51% of them first started their English with a teacher visiting their home regularly and 24% of them learned at a private English school. Moreover 10% of the students learned from private tutors. It is evident that students in Korea encountered the English language in a variety of ways, and this has many effects on the English Education system as English is no longer learnt just in the classroom anymore.

Graph 4 . First encountered English education

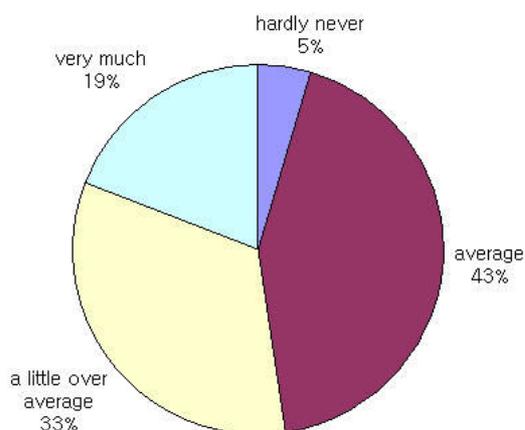


Graph 6. Role of NNEST to SLEK



The graph 5. shows how important of a role NESTs have to students. 43% students answered with average and 33% said that they were bit of help and very helpful by 19% of students and only 5% with negative response.

Graph 5. Role of NEST to SLEK



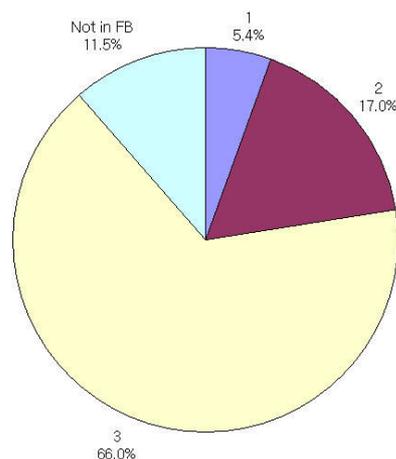
38% of the students said that NNESTs know both the advantages and disadvantages of learning English, so that the teaching by a NNEST is quite compulsory. 43% said it is agreed but it is just crucial, and 19% said just average.

3 Composition Result

The compositions were broken down word for word to be compared to the NNEST class, which uses the Let's Go 1 to 4 books, and the NEST, which uses a variety of storybooks. This is done to gauge which class is more effective when it comes to writing.

The compositions were then compared to the FB to check the students English proficiency by seeing how many words belong to the most frequently used words in everyday conversation.

Graph 7. Frequency band with the composition

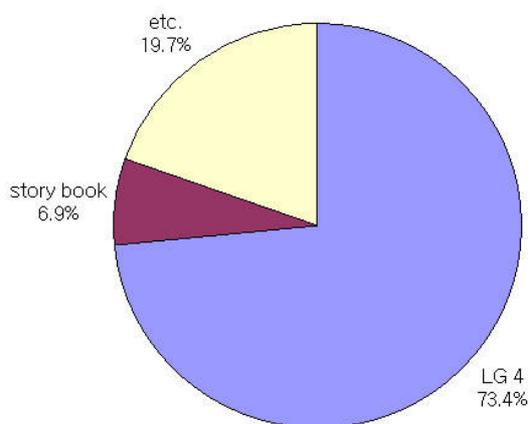


As is shown from graph 7, 66.0% of words from the compositions belong to D-3 the most frequently used words in the English language, 17% belong to D-2 and only 4.0% to D-1 the least frequently used words in the English language. In short, vocabularies that the students used for their composition are mostly based on D-3 words. There are 11.5 % of the words that do not belong to FB.

However, most of these words are proper nouns, contractions, and compound nouns with no definite identification of the words themselves. When these words were examined different tenses were considered the same words as long as the figures of speech didn't change.

Graph 8. shows that 73.4 % of the words that they used in their composition are straight from the LG book and only 6.9% come from the storybooks. The other 19.7 % might be acquired through media, books, family, or friends. Although 6.9% of the composition words match the words from the story book, the percentage may not correctly reflect the story book as being the definite source of these words as students could have acquired these words from sources other than the storybook. It can be concluded that the textbook contributed largely to the outcome of the writing thus in English education, selecting a textbook is very important because the strong positive results of learning English are very much depended on the textbook used. In other words, the NEST class isn't very effective in this specific case because of the use of the words from storybook shows a very low percentage.

Graph 8. Matching words of Composition Words



4 Conclusion

It can be seen that based upon the results of student compositions that a NEST provides more of a supplementary role to the NNEST and not the leading role as put forth by the EPIK. Upon further review, of both the composition results and student survey, when putting to much emphasis and responsibility on the NEST, this can be counter-productive for the EPIK thus undermining its ability to operate effectively. As well the requirements or lack of requirements, put forth by the MOE, for NEST can also lead to detrimental results for the English education system both

privately and publicly. The role of a NEST needs to be re-examined and further studied before the implementation of an actual effective and positive plan.

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