

遠隔授業・双方向異文化語学演習と海外共同ゼミの可能性
—教材蓄積と教育評価システム

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研究代表者・中野美知子
早稲田大学・教育学部・教授

まえがき

英語教育を增強し、国際人として通用する英語を身に着けさせることが最近の英語教育の目標としてかかげられている。高校までの英語教育では、わが国の方針として ALT の増加や英語コミュニケーション A、B、C が導入されそれなりの成果が期待されている。しかし、大学の教養英語において本格的な異文化理解を外国との実際の交信を通して、いわゆる遠隔授業の一環として実施している所は少ない。本研究では、現在すでに遠隔語学実験を開始した韓国、フィリッピン、エッセックス、マレーシアの他に、東南アジア教育相機構の下に 1968 年に開設された Regional Language Centre (RELC) の連絡網や汎太平洋応用言語学会の連絡網を活用し、第 12 回国際応用言語学会世界大会（日本学術振興会、大学英語教育学会など主催）が早稲田大学で開催された折提案された『アジア言語教育政策会議』の諮問に基づき、シンガポール、ハワイなどを含めた汎太平洋地域を中心とするネットワーク型遠隔授業網の確立を目指している。ネットワーク型の授業を環太平洋地域で推進しながら、可能性と問題点を明らかにし、解決案を具体的に明示し、モデルケースを提案することで、大学での本格的な国際理解教育に役立てることが目的である。また、本研究は、大学教養英語での双方向異文化語学演習、学部英語専門教育での異文化理解、大学院での海外共同ゼミという学部から大学院教育への一貫性をもつカリキュラム作成とコンピュータ・システム環境整備までを考慮しながら遠隔授業の形態とあり方を考えていくことに特色がある。

2000 年度前期

- ①エディンバラ大学、理論及び応用言語学科との遠隔講義の開始 (Alan Davies 教授) Current Issues in Applied Linguistics
- ②エッセックス大学、政治学科との遠隔講義の開始 (Ian Neary 教授) Human Rights and Japanese Values
- ③高麗大学校、人文大学、英語科を中心とした韓国の言語学者、応用言語学者との遠隔総合講座の開始
- ④国立江原大学との米文学遠隔演習の開始
- ⑤国立江原大学との異文化双方向語学演習の開始
- ⑥高麗大学との異文化双方向語学演習の強化
- ⑦デラサール大学との異文化双方向語学演習の強化
- ⑧高麗大学大学院と早稲田大学・教育学研究科との遠隔共同ゼミの強化
- ⑨エッセックス大学との異文化双方向語学演習の強化
- ⑩マラヤ大学との異文化双方向語学演習の強化

2000 年度後期

- ① エディンバラ大学、理論及び応用言語学科との遠隔講義 Hugh Trappes-Lomax

- ② ハワイ大学、早稲田大学、高麗大学との多地点制御遠隔講義開始
- ③ シンガポール大学、スタンフォード大学、メルボルン大学、早稲田大学との多地点制御遠隔講義開始
- ④ ハワイ大学、東南アジア言語文化学科との異文化双方向語学演習の開始
- ⑤ シンガポール大学、言語学科、日本語科との異文化双方向語学演習の開始
- ⑥ RELCとの異文化双方向語学演習の開始

2001 年度前期

- ① 国立江原大学とのアメリカ文学についてのサイバーセミナー (4 回)
- ② エジンバラ大学、理論及び応用言語学科とのサイバーレクチャー (Alan Davies 教授) (6 回)
- ③ RELC (シンガポール) との異文化双方向語学演習 (4 回); Grammar for the Future (Dr. Ronald Carter); What can Linguistics contribute to the Teaching of Grammar (Dr. Tony Hung); Critical Literacy in the Southeast Asian Context (Dr. Joseph Foley); The Role of SEAMEO RELC in Language Education in the Region (Thomas Khng)
- ④ シンガポール国立大学との異文化双方向語学演習 (2 回); シンガポールにおける日本漫画文化とその影響 (Dr Ng Wai-ming); アジアにおける日本の大衆文化ブーム: 21 世紀の文化グローバリゼーションについて (Dr Ng Wai-ming)

2001 年後期

- ① エジンバラ大学、理論及び応用言語学科とのサイバーレクチャー (Dr. Hugh Trappes-Lomax 教授) (10 回) (Language in Use)
- ② シラキユース大学、社会言語学についてのサイバーレクチャー (Tej K. Bhatia 教授) (3 回)
- ③ コロラド大学、心理言語学についてのサイバーレクチャー (Lise Menn 教授) (3 回)
- ④ 香港バプティスト大学 (1 回)
- ⑤ 高麗大学との異文化双方向語学演習 (中国、日本、韓国の家族制度をテーマとして) (4 回)
- ⑥ 国立江原大学とのアメリカ文学についてのサイバーセミナー (4 回)

いくつかの講義は VOD にし、インターネット上で公開しているが、講演者によりパスワードが必要である。遠隔講義用のホームページは <http://pcl71115.pc.waseda.ac.jp/ccdl/index.html>、学部生のための異文化双方向語学演習のホームページは <http://www.project.mnc.waseda.ac.jp/ccdl/> である。ハンドアウトは全てホームページから読めるようにした。また、教育評価として、時間測定、語彙分析を行なった。

2002 年度前期

- ① 国立江原大学とのアメリカ文学についてのサイバーセミナー (4 回)
- ② 毎週テーマカレッジ (国際コミュニケーション) を受講した学部生が高麗大学の Global English through Internet を受講した学部生と Video-Conference を行った。
- ③ 高麗大学の大学院生との早稲田大学の教育学研究科の大学院生との毎週二

回の Sociolinguistics 及び Lexical-Functional Grammar に関する Video-Conference

④ イギリスのベクター社との Internet 教材と電話によるビジネス英語講座を開講した。

2002 年後期

① エジンバラ大学、理論及び応用言語学科とのサイバーレクチャー(Dr. Hugh Trappes-Lomax 教授) (10 回) (Language in Use)

② シラキュース大学、社会言語学についてのサイバーレクチャー (Tej K. Bhatia 教授) (3 回)

③ コロラド大学、心理言語学についてのサイバーレクチャー(Lise Menn 教授) (3 回)

④ 香港バプティスト大学(月 2 回、合計 8 回; 日本文化について Web Radio Station 形式)

⑤ 高麗大学との異文化双方向語学演習 (中国、日本、韓国の家族制度をテーマとして) (4 回)

⑥ 国立江原大学とのアメリカ文学についてのサイバーセミナー(4 回)

⑦ RELC (シンガポール) との異文化双方向語学演習 (4 回); Grammar for the Future (Dr. Ronald Carter); What can Linguistics contribute to the Teaching of Grammar (Dr. Tony Hung); Critical Literacy in the Southeast Asian Context (Dr. Joseph Foley); The Role of SEAMEO RELC in Language Education in the Region (Thomas Khng)

⑧ アデレード大学 (8 回) Video-Conference による English for communication

⑨ Portland State University との Business Writing Course を Internet により開講した。

いくつかの講義は VOD にし、インターネット上で公開しているが、講演者によりパスワードが必要である。遠隔講義用のホームページは

<http://pc171115.pc.waseda.ac.jp/ccdl/index.html>、学部生のための異文化双方向語学演習のホームページは

<http://www.project.mnc.waseda.ac.jp/ccdl/> である。ハンドアウトは全てホームページから読めるようにした。また、教育評価として、時間測定、語彙分析を行った。

研究組織

研究代表者：中野美知子 (早稲田大学・教育学部・教授)

研究分担者：小池生夫 (明海大学・外国語学部・教授)

研究分担者：田辺洋二 (早稲田大学・教育学部・教授)

研究分担者：東後勝明 (早稲田大学・教育学部・教授)

研究分担者：松坂ヒロシ (早稲田大学・教育学部・教授)

研究分担者：平埜雅久 (早稲田大学・文学部・教授)

研究分担者：斎藤敏治 (東京都立航空高等専門学校・助教授)

研究分担者：大矢政徳 (早稲田大学・教育学部・助手)

研究分担者：上田倫史 (早稲田大学・教育総合研究所・助手)

研究分担者：山崎妙 (早稲田大学・教育学部・助手)

研究協力者

- 朴 京子 (高麗大学校・人文大学・英語英文科・教授)
Alan Davies (Edinburgh University, Dept. of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, Professor Emeritus)
Hue Trappes-Lomax (Edinburgh University, Dept. of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, Professor)
Ho-Min Sohn (University of Hawai'i at Manoa, Dept. of South East Asian Languages and Literature, Professor)
Joan Bresnan (Stanford University, Dept. of Linguistics, Professor)
Ronald M. Kaplan (Stanford University, Dept. of Linguistics, Consulting Professor)
Peter Sells (Stanford University, Dept. of Linguistics, Professor)
矢野安剛 (早稲田大学・教育学部・教授)
阿野幸一 (早稲田大学・教育学部・非常勤講師)
石川桂 (東京都港区立三田中学校教諭)
大和田和治 (早稲田大学・教育学部・非常勤講師)
加藤明春 (早稲田大学・教育学部・非常勤講師)
小太刀浩太 (早稲田大学教育学研究科修士課程)
斎藤直子 (東京都立江東商業高等学校教諭)
佐々木孝雄 (関東学院大学 コンピュータセンター)
杉山愛郎 (早稲田大学教育学研究科修士課程)
杉山光 ((株)早稲田大学インターナショナル)
須永美奈子 (文京学院大学非常勤講師)
筒井英一郎 (早稲田大学教育学研究科博士後期課程)
中山健治 (早稲田大学教育学研究科博士後期課程)
根岸純子 (早稲田大学教育学研究科修士課程)
細村里恵 (埼玉県立春日部高等学校教諭)
堀口貫治 (早稲田大学教育学研究科修士課程)
本間裕章 (早稲田大学教育学研究科修士課程)
宮坂直樹 (早稲田大学・教育学部・非常勤講師)
村上幾代 (早稲田大学教育学研究科修士課程)
吉賀直子 (早稲田大学教育学研究科修士課程)
渡辺あかね (早稲田大学教育学研究科修士課程)

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計

3400 千円

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「国際コミュニケーションにおける英語チュートリアル」

中野美知子 早稲田大学

共同発表：Kyung-Ja Park 高麗大学校 / 佐々木 孝雄・杉山 光 CCDL 研究所 /
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A Standard Pronunciation of English in TEFL.

Yoji TANABE

Waseda University

The *Random House College English Dictionary* (1979) defines the term “standard” as something considered by an authority or by general consent as a basis of comparison, i.e., an approved model. It is taken for granted that standard English exists, as David Abercrombie, former Professor of Linguistics at University of Edinburgh, says in his *Problems and Principles in Language Study* (1956). “Standard English is easy enough to identify – you are reading it now, for example.”

Apparently the written language does not arouse controversies, because the spelling and grammar of English have largely been fixed depending on its varieties for centuries. However, there exists a great diversity in the spoken realizations of English. The sounds of the language are always in the process of change, too, as Gimson states in his *Gimson’s Pronunciation of English* (1994). It is also true, however, that a standard pronunciation does exist, although it has never been explicitly imposed by any official body.

The Courses of Study (1989 and 1998) issued by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture recommend both junior and senior high school students to learn “standard English” and a “standard pronunciation of English.” Junior high school teachers are expected to teach their students “standard pronunciation of present-day English” and senior high school teachers “present-day standard English.” What does “standard” mean in these contexts, and how should we, the TEFL teacher and learner, interpret it?

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 - 5.1 A special dialect which has no local base
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A Standard Pronunciation of English in TEFL.

Yoji TANABE

Waseda University

1. Japanese teachers of English (JTE) have trouble choosing a type of pronunciation of English

The primary concern that Japanese teachers of English (JTE) have about teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) is following two points.

- (1) What kind of English they should teach their students in these times of global communication, i.e., what kind of English they should select as a model for their students.
- (2) What type of English pronunciation they should select when they teach their students in their classroom? Is there any good type of model pronunciation?

A serious problem was brought up in classrooms in 1987 when native-speaking assistant language teachers (ALT) started helping JTE in English classes throughout the nation. Hundreds of ALT's were assigned to visit junior and senior high schools in regional districts throughout Japan, and started cooperating with JTE's in class. ALT's participation in teaching produced a beneficial effect on English education, but many JTE's unfortunately lost their confidence in their pronunciation of English. This loss of confidence happened simply because JTE's pronunciation was not exactly the same as that of ALT's. Suppose the JTE spoke good American English, and her ALT spoke good British English. What is expected to the teachers about pronunciation? Should the JTE change her accent to a British accent when she teachers with her ALT in class? Or is it necessary for the JTE to acquire a certain type of standard English to teach in class to cooperate/cope with ALT's native English when they are working together in class?

2. What kind of English should be taught for international communication? What kind of English should be selected as a model for teaching? How can we teach standard English?

The *Random House College English Dictionary* (1979) defines the term “standard” as something considered by an authority or by general consent as a basis of comparison, i.e., an approved model. It is taken for granted that standard English exists, as David Abercrombie, former Professor of Linguistics at University of Edinburgh, says in his *Problems and Principles in Language Study* (1956)(1). He said, “Standard English is easy enough to identify – you are reading it now, for example.”

It is certainly taken for granted that standard English does exist, as Professor Abercrombie said. This is also true for the Monbusho Courses of Study. The current Course of Study for higher secondary education (10th grade to 12th grade) issued by the Japanese Ministry of Education in 1989, described a type of English to be taught to senior high students such as follows (13):

“The type of English to be taught should be the present-day standard English.” However, the course of study does not specify the details of the “standard English.” This could be said to be a very fuzzy description, and various interpretations can be made. The Course of Study for lower secondary education does not specify the type of English to be learned, but it should be the same. Anyhow, it would be necessary to specify the type of English as present-day standard English to prevent confusion among both teachers and students (14).

3. What type of English pronunciation should be selected for teaching? How does the Japanese Ministry of Education describe a type of English and English pronunciation in the Course of Studies?

The current 1989 Monbusho Course of Study for lower secondary education states the guidelines that JTE’s have to pay attention to when they teach their students pronunciation of English. Teachers are expected to teach their students (15):

- (1) Present-day standard pronunciation of English
- (2) Word accentuation
- (3) Basic intonation patterns
- (4) Basic breath grouping
- (5) Basic sentence accentuation

The first item shows the importance of present-day standard pronunciation of English,

but it doesn't specify what type of standard should be taken. This is again a very fuzzy statement. The similar description has been maintained in the new Course of Study issued last year (1999) as far as the type of pronunciation is concerned, although some minor modifications have been made outside of the first item as shown below. In other words, teachers of English are fully responsible for selecting a type of English. (15)

- (1) Present-day standard pronunciation of English
- (2) Sound modifications caused by word connection
- (3) Basic accentuation of words, phrases, and sentences
- (4) Basic intonation patterns
- (5) Basic breath grouping

4. Standard English for Japanese teachers of English

What is Standard English? A general notion of standard English can be found in David Crystal's *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* (1995, pp.110-111) and it leads to some guidelines for specifying standard English by pointing out several key factors as follows (4):

- (1) Standard English is a special dialect which has no local base:
- (2) The linguistic features of standard English are chiefly matters of grammar, vocabulary and orthography, not pronunciation.
- (3) Prestige goes with Standard English.
- (4) A desirable educational target is the norm of communication
- (5) Standard English is not widely produced. It is only maintained in 'BBC English' or 'the Queen's English'. It is found in print.

On the basis of those five items, we may be able to grasp the general notion of standard English for TEFL.

5. Standard English defined.

5.1 A special dialect which has no local base:

Standard English is a dialect of English, but of a rather special kind, for it has no local base. As Crystal described, there is nothing in the grammar and vocabulary of a piece of standard English to tell us which part of a country it comes from. Crystal also says in his *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics* (1985, p.286) that "Standard languages/dialects/varieties" cut across regional differences, providing a unified means of communication, and thus an institutionalised norm which can be used in the mass media, in teaching the language to foreigners. (3)" It is apparently a kind of regional accent, but it has no local base.

5.2 The linguistic features of standard English are chiefly matters of grammar,

vocabulary and orthography, not pronunciation.

Crystal clearly says that standard English is not a matter of pronunciation. It is a matter of course that standard English is spoken in a wide variety of accents. He mentions that Quirk, Lord Randolph, also argued in April 1993 that standard English is about 'words and meanings', not accents (Crystal's Encyclopedia: p. 110, Abercrombie: p.44, Trudgill: p.17). It is indeed a tricky business to include pronunciation as one of the elements constituting standard English, since pronunciation is always concerned with communication among different countries. Here the problems of both internationalism and identity arise. These two notions conflict with each other. Internationalism implies intelligibility of English, and identity implies individuality of English, as Crystal mentioned (Encyclopedia, p.110). This is partly a political problem of international relations. However, this fact does not help JTE's who are wondering what type of English they should teach their students. It is apparent that the so-called Japanese English should be excluded from English they teach. This is a matter of pronunciation, neither grammar, vocabulary nor orthography.

It is none-the-less possible to specify a general type of pronunciation with no local base. The general type comes from major varieties of English of the world. In *Gimson's Pronunciation of English* revised by Cruttenden (1994), Gimson explains standard and regional accents, and gives information on RP, which stands for Received Pronunciation to mean a standard British English, General American, Scottish English, Cockney, Northern English, and Australian English (2). Quirk et.al.'s *A Comprehensive Grammar of English Language* also explains standards more extensively as 'national standard of English', and names countries and territories such as South Africa and West Indies. A national standard of English is described such as follows (18):

"There are two national standards that are overwhelmingly predominant both in the number of distinctive usages and in the degree to which these distinctions are institutionalized: American English and British English.

"In this book we do not attempt to represent the range of variation in pronunciation associated with different national standards. We do, however, record the major differences between RP and network English." Marckwardt's 'network standard' gives the similar notion of this. (Marckwardt: p.139,)

Various types of English are certainly spoken widely throughout the world as Standard English(es). Then, most popular and authoritative are the British and American Standards. Actually these are types Gimson and Cruttenden and other leading linguists recommend as the standard.

Contrary to the prescriptivist's view such as Gimson and Cruttenden's, Martha

Pennington takes an international perspective and the variationist's view rather than the prescriptivist's. Her comment, however, affirms acceptance of prestigious forms. She said in the "Introduction" to her *Phonology in English Language Teaching* as follows (17):

"The non-prescriptive orientation of this book means that no one variety of English is seen as inherently superior to any other. Nevertheless, it must be noted that the variety of a language which is spoken by those who are most educated and/or who hold social and political power is often viewed as the most prestigious variety and the one which non-native speakers would most like to acquire. The definition of standard language in terms of this kind of prestige is an important guidepost for many non-native speakers who want to know the most generalized prestige form of the language in the community where they live and work (or plan to live and work in the future), i.e. the one that will have the greatest social advantage for them."

5.3 Prestige goes with standard English.

Standard English is the variety of English which carries most prestige within a country. 'Prestige' is a social concept, whereby some people have high standing in the eyes of others. In sociolinguistics 'standard' or 'standardisation' is a term used to refer to a prestige variety of language used within a speech community, as Crystal said. Gimson made a clear statement about 'prestige' in relation to RP, the British Model, in his *An Introduction to Pronunciation of English* (1962, 1970, 1980, 1989, and Cruttenden's edition: *Gimson's Pronunciation of English* 1994, p.78) as follows (7) (8) (2):

"Great/some prestige is still attached to the implicitly accepted social standard of pronunciation. Often called 'Received Pronunciation' (RP), the term suggesting that it is the result of a social judgment rather than of an official decision as to what is 'correct' or 'wrong', it has become more widely known and accepted through the advent of radio/and television." [A word and a phrase after slash are Cruttenden's.]

As Gimson and others referred to the advent of radio and television by citing the BBC in creating the prestigious social standard of English, Marckwardt explained a prestigious form of American English as a standard in his 1980-version of *American English* revised by Dillard. He described it as follows (16):

"What emerged in the dialect research of the 1960's, however, was something other than a picture of regional distribution. The 'neutral' dialect concept of General American was replaced, especially in the research of certain psycholinguists, by that of Network Standard, the speech of television newscasters on the major networks and the kind of English which Americans clearly admired more than any other. They tend, however inaccurately, to form mental pictures of their own speech in terms of that

prestige form. This regionally and socially neutral dialect clearly emerged as the ideal, if not the actuality, for most of American English.”

Allan Davies, on the other hand, explains the choice of model in relation to prestige such as follows (5):

“The choice made will reflect how confident the speech community are, that their way of using English, as instantiated in the texts (both written and spoken) they produce, is the model they regard prestigious, the model for them.”

and says that the model the confident speech community chooses and regards as prestigious is the model for them. (Davies, A. (2000) *Cyber Lectures – Current Issues in Applied Linguistics, Part I*, p.45.)

Along with the notion of prestige, David Crystal suggests a notion of power, i.e., hegemony in relation to Standard English, by quoting James Sledd, a noted linguist, who once said, “ Standard English is ‘the English used by the powerful’. Prestige often tends to relate to linguistic imperialism and linguisticism, as Davies describes (6). (Davies, A. (2000) *Cyber Lectures – Current Issues in Applied Linguistics, Part II*, p.100.) It puts one into power, i.e., hegemony. “Hegemony refers to dominant ideas that we take for granted.” Standard English can be in the same position as, Professor Davies notes, “English has a hegemonic position in many former colonies, with the result that, for instance in Zambia, ‘language teaching has come to mean English language teaching’ (Chishimba 1981:169). Japan is certainly not a colony of the British Empire, but the social phenomenon looks very similar. In Japan foreign language education tends to be English language education. This is a concern of many educated people. I am not denying the importance of TESL/TEFL but we also have to aware of the importance of learning other foreign languages. Kachru put forward a similar claim about a standard model of English (1990: p.120, p.122).

5.4 A desirable educational target as the norm of communication

Standard English is recommended as a desirable educational target. It is the variety that is used as the norm of communication by the community’s leading institutions, such as its government, law courts, and media. It is therefore the variety that is likely to be the most widely disseminated among the public. Trudgill refers to educated people in connection with Standard English. (Trudgill, P. (1974) *Sociolinguistics: An Introduction*, Penguin Books. P.17) (20).

“Standard English is that variety of English which is usually used in print, and which is normally taught in schools and to non-native speakers learning the language. It is also the variety which is normally spoken by educated people and used in news broadcasts

and other similar situations. The difference between standard and non-standard, it should be noted, has nothing in principle to do with differences between formal and colloquial language, or with concepts such as 'bad language'. Standard English has colloquial as well as formal variants, and standard English speakers swear as much as other."

Davies concludes his elaborate article on standard English by giving three issues including the speech by the educated. (Davies, A. (2000) *Cyber Lectures – Current Issues in Applied Linguistics, Part I*, p.45.)(5)

1. There is a standard English (more than one) and it is the language used by the educated.
2. Given that it is the language of the educated, we have no choice but to choose or to recommend others to choose standard English in situations where learners are being educated.
3. The choice of Standard English depends on where we are geographically. The choice made will reflect how confident the speech community are, that their way of using English, as instantiated in the texts (both written and spoken) they produce, is the model they regard as prestigious, the model for them.

5.5 A 'pure' standard English such as 'BBC English' or 'the Queen's English' found in print.

This notion has already been stated with respect to the notion of prestige (cf. 5.3). Although standard English is widely understood, as Crystal said, it is not widely produced. Most people speak a variety of regional English, or a mixture of standard and regional Englishes, and reserve such labels as 'BBC English' or 'the Queen's English' for what they perceive to be a 'pure' Standard English. The same could be said about NHK Japanese. Similarly, when they write, the consistent use of standard English is required only in certain tasks such as a letter to a newspaper, but not necessarily to a close friend. Standard English is also found in print. This also refers to the notion of standard English in relation to grammar, vocabulary and orthography, not pronunciation (cf. 5.2).

In conclusion, Crystal defines, the standard English of an English-speaking country as a minority variety (identified chiefly by its vocabulary, grammar, and orthography) which carries the most prestige and is most widely understood. He also identifies two chief issues which will become immediate problems: internationalism and identity. They conflict with each other. Crystal explains (4):

"Internationalism implies intelligibility. It demands an agreed standard – in grammar,

vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, and conventions of use. Identity, on the other hand, implies individuality. If a nation wishes to preserve its uniqueness or to establish its presence, and to avoid being an anonymous ingredient in a cultural melting-pot, then it must search for ways of expressing its difference from the rest of the world. In short, in the context of English, identity demands linguistic distinctiveness – in grammar, vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, or conventions of language use.”

6 Types of Pronunciation as model

Unfortunately this discussion of standard English so far does not help us choose Standard English, especially its pronunciation, for our students. We have to make our students’ English internationally intelligible, although they might have individual unintelligible accents. In addition, we may need to make our students’ English linguistically distinct as Japanese English, if they say they want to have their own national identity in English, although I very much doubt it.

To answer these questions and to propose a compromise notion of pronunciation, Gimson raised the following questions by requiring teachers of English to answer the following questions (5th edition, pp.270-1) (2):

- (1) What form of pronunciation is to be taken as model?
- (2) What level of performance is to be aimed at?
- (3) What general principles should underlie the teaching of pronunciation?

In former editions, Gimson answered the first question as follows (7) (8) (2):

“When it is a question of teaching English as a second language, there is clearly much greater adherence to one of the two main models. Most allegiances to one or to the other tend to be traditional or geographical: thus, for instance, European countries continue on the whole to teach RP, whereas much of Asia and South America follow the American model.”

Cruttenden supports Gimson’s view. He says (7) (8) (2):

“The advantage of such choices is that these forms (in a standard variety) are without difficulty mutually intelligible. The decisive criteria in the choice of any teaching model must be that it has wide currency, is widely and readily understood, is adequately described in textbooks, and has ample recorded material available for the learner. It is clear that, if these criteria are admitted, British RP is an important candidate as a basic model which is already taught throughout the world.”

A strong objection to these viewpoints made by the native speakers with linguistic power, is made by Kachru from India. In “New Englishes without Old Models: Toward Nativization” he says (9):

“Generalizations from an American or British standpoint are dangerous, and to a large degree irrelevant. The uses have to be perceived from the consumer’s vantage point, not that of the native speaker’s linguistically secure perch.”

To answer questions 2 and 3, Gimson indicated learners’ performance targets. The first target is minimum general intelligibility, and the second, high acceptability (Gimson and Cruttenden, 1994, p.273) (2).

- (1) Minimum general intelligibility: The lowest requirement can be described as one of minimum general intelligibility, i.e., one which possesses a set of distinctive elements which correspond in some measure to the inventory of the RP phonemic system and which is capable of conveying a message efficiently from a native English listener’s standpoint, given that the context of the message is known and that the listener has had time to ‘tune in’ to the speaker’s pronunciation.
- (2) High acceptability: The learner may be said to achieve a performance of high acceptability, i.e., a form of speech which the native listener may not identify as non-native, which conveys information as readily as would a native’s and which arrives at this result through precision] in the phonetic (allophonic) realization of phonemes and by confident handling of accentual and intonational patterns.”

Kachru, one of the leading linguists who strongly rejects the notion of British and American English models, proposes a type of English with reference to communicative competence in English in terms of culture, i.e., culture-bound or culture-free (1990:p.122). Interestingly, his idea appears very close to Gimson’s idea, although he rejects the idea of having British and American models for standard pronunciation. Kachru adds the concept of culture so that ethnographic nativization of English can be established in the world of English. But he could not deny the importance of intelligibility and acceptability for communications. He said (6):

“The totality of verbal repertoire which forms part of communicative competence entails acceptability, appropriateness, and intelligibility in the context of culture. These notions are dependent on the participants in specific functions. A speech act that is appropriate and congruent for American English is not necessarily appropriate in Indian English, Nigerian English, or Singaporean English.”

“My claim is that as an international language the functions of English vary with each country. The criteria for a model will vary from one country to another. In certain

contexts the goal must be interaction with the native speakers. On the other hand, the peculiar contexts of South Asia, and West African cannot be ignored. In these areas, English functions both as an international link and a national link.”

It is noteworthy that both prescriptivists such as Gimson and variationists such as Kachru admit the necessity of general intelligibility and high acceptability, although their standpoints are completely different. Professor Kachru making a strong objection to the prescriptive ideas about the model, confirms his idea by concluding “the universality of pedagogical models is suspect.” (9)

7. Conclusion

The primary concern that Japanese teachers of English (JTE) showed about teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) is the following two points described at the beginning.

- (1) What kind of English they should teach their students in these times of global communication, i.e., what kind of English they should select as a model for their students.
- (2) What type of English pronunciation they should select when they teach their students in their classrooms? Is there any good type of pronunciation model?

Actually, many types of English have been suggested as standard: Received Pronunciation (RP), General British (GB), General American (GA), Network Standard, Network English, Estuary English, World Englishes, Transplanted English, and others. Katakana English (loanwords) might be mistakenly included, too. What type of English pronunciation should they choose?

No matter what type of Standard English it may be, it has to be the kind of English which everybody understands. According to descriptions made by Gimson and Kachru, understandable English to be applied in TESL and TEFL has to be equipped with the following four characteristics:

- (1) Minimum general intelligibility
- (2) High acceptability
- (3) Appropriateness in the context of culture
- (4) Systematic articulation

The fourth item is an addition to the former three to indicate for Japanese learners of English the importance of systematic or consistent articulation and production of English vowels and consonants.

Consequently, the following suggestions might be possible as a conclusion:

In order for you to make your English understandable as a foreign language, you need some kind of model so that you can make yourself understood internationally. This concerns intelligibility. Intelligibility comes first. It may also show the identity of your native language, but it should be admitted as your own individual characteristic. It might also prevent native speakers from understanding your utterances. In order to make your English understandable, your English has to be well-formed, as a language learned or to be learned artificially, so that it can show your education and its accomplishment while having communication with others. You have to overcome problems of *linguicism*.

If you think about a specific model for an East Asian person, according to Professor Gimson's recommendations, the American model would be a natural one, unless you choose the British model as a preference. Japan, for instance, is located in the Pacific Rim of the Pacific Ocean. Japan has been very close to the United States geographically, politically, economically as well as historically. The American influence on Japanese society has been particularly strong since the end of the World War II. Needless to say, we cannot ignore Professor Kachru's concern about power generated by native speakers' Old Models.

Katakana English (English loanwords) which came into Japan in the 19th century shows very clear American pronunciation, such as, *wara* (water), *paira* (pilot), *ramune* (lemonade), etc. Many words were sailors' vocabulary. After the Japanese government started the Ministry of Education in 1871, it introduced the British school system and promoted British type education by inviting British linguists, which lasted until the end of World War II. This is why all educated people in higher education at the beginning of the 20th century acquired British pronunciation of English. The American type of pronunciation came into Japan when World War II ended in 1945 and two years later in 1947, when the 6-3-3 American school system came into being in Japan. As Alan Maley pointed out in one of his articles, we cannot deny the influence from the USA in terms of the language of science, economy, technology and popular music which have been coming since then. (11)

You might use the American model with minimum general intelligibility, high acceptability, and appropriateness in the context of culture. Furthermore, your model has to be systematic especially with vowels, and your pronunciation has to be consistent to make it your own variety. Gimson's simplified system of the English pronunciation

might be helpful so that you can make your English pronunciation standard. (2)(8)
(July, 2000)

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references.】

An Example of Application of Linguistic Knowledge to Our Classroom Lessons

HORIGUCHI, Kanji & OYA, Masanori
Graduate School of Education, Waseda University

Abstract

Lately the grammar translation method has been considered the worst method of teaching English and not been paid attention to teaching grammar very much. We, however, should not neglect the importance of teaching grammar to students. After all, without grammatical knowledge of English, we teachers could not teach students English effectively. Here arises the question as to how much grammatical knowledge we should have. The answer to this question may depend on each specific situation. We will demonstrate our proposal of how to cope with each specific situation in teaching grammar to students by using the following examples:

- (1) a. This book is too difficult to read.
 - b. This book is too difficult for me to read (it).
 - c. This book is so difficult that I can't read it.
- (2) a. Who do you want to talk to?
 - b. Who do you wanna talk to?
 - c. Who do you want to talk to her?
 - d. *Who do you wanna talk to her?
- (3) a. This is the man who he said was his best friend.
 - b. *This is the man who he said that was his best friend.

1. Purpose of the study

1.1 Questions and the possible situation where the questions arise

To the example sentences (1), (2), and (3), here arise questions of how to teach the following: 'The arbitrariness of '(it)' in (1b),' 'The ungrammatical use of 'wanna' in (2d),' and 'The ungrammatical use of 'that' in (3b).' These three questions may not arise in primary or intermediate classes of English at the high school level. But, at least, these questions will arise in the advanced classes of grammar or writing, because the students engaged in these classes are very cautious about the grammaticality of their writing. How can we teachers teach these students at an advanced level the grammaticality or ungrammaticality of examples (1), (2), and (3)? Can we enhance the effectiveness of teaching English grammar to the students by making use of the knowledge of grammatical theories such as 'trace' of movement, 'PRO' for arbitrary

subject of infinitival complement, and ‘CT-effect’?

1.2 Purpose

The purpose of this study is to decide which method of teaching is more effective for learners to understand the grammatical structures of English, the traditional teaching method (Lecture A in Appendix A) or the new method, which we propose here, with some knowledge of grammatical theories (Lecture B in Appendix B).

Each lecture is consisted of three sections. The first section is about transcription of ‘too adjective to do’ construction and ‘so adjective that a person do’ construction. The difference between Lecture A and Lecture B here is whether we teach students the concept of ‘trace’ of movement. In Lecture B, we can clearly show the difference between ‘too adjective to do’ construction and ‘so adjective that a person do’ construction, thanks to the concept of ‘trace.’ In other words, we can clearly show that the arbitrariness of ‘it’ in ‘too adjective for a person to do’ construction is just an exceptional use.

The section is about ‘want to’ and ‘wanna.’ The difference between Lecture A and Lecture B, here, is whether or not we introduce the concept of ‘PRO’ for an arbitrary subject of an infinitival complement. Of course, in the case of ‘want to do,’ ‘PRO’ between ‘want’ and ‘to’ is co-indexed with the matrix subject of the sentence. The reason why we introduce ‘PRO’ into Lecture B is that I sometimes find the same mistake as (2) d in Abstract ‘*Who do you wanna talk to her?’ in my students’ writing.

The third section is about ‘Complex usage of relative pronouns.’ In Lecture B, we use the concept of ‘CT-effect’ in order to explain how to combine the sentence ‘This is the man’ with the sentence ‘She said that he was her best friend’ grammatically. In typical Japanese textbooks for English writing or English grammar, ‘that’ in the sentence ‘She said that he was her best friend’ is deleted in advance. In such a case, we have no need to teach ‘CT-effect.’ However, the case is not always the same. We need the knowledge of ‘CT-effect’ when we translate a Japanese sentence into an English sentence directly, or when we have to make grammatical judgement in tests such as entrance examinations of universities and so forth. Here we may have to mention that recently the number of this kind of mean, vicious, or pedantic grammatical judgement questions have been gradually reduced in entrance examinations of universities.

2. Procedure

2.1 The situation of English teaching at high-school level in Japan

The approach to teaching English to students in Japanese high schools differs in

the purpose each high school has for English instruction. Each school should have its own purpose of teaching English. Not to say each school, but there are some high schools which have the same kind of purpose to teach English according to its own characteristic such as commercial, technical, general and so forth.

As for general high schools, they can be divided into several classes. Especially for the first class private high schools, which are located in principal cities such as Tokyo, Yokohama, and Osaka, their main purpose of teaching English is to ready their students for the entrance examinations of universities. For these students, the aim of studying English is, first of all, to prepare themselves for the entrance examinations of universities.

2.2 Subjects

The participants of this study were 38 sophomores at Shiba Boys' High School, whose main purpose of teaching English seems to ready its students for the entrance examinations of universities. The English levels of the 38 students were equivalent. All of them were in the same advanced class of English Writing. In order to take this class, students had had to get the grade A in English when they had been freshmen. They were divided into two groups for this study, according to the result of the pre-test. We used the result of the mid-term examination of the first semester as the pre-test, so that the English level of each group would be equivalent. The score of each student is printed at the end column in Appendix D.

2.3 Procedure

Each group was given different lectures (i.e. Lecture A and Lecture B in Appendix A, B) separately. Each lecture was 20 minutes long. 5 days later, the grammatical judgement test (Appendix C) was conducted on all subjects. The grammatical judgement test consisted of 31 questions: 12 questions about transcription of 'too-to construction' and 'so-that construction', 11 questions about 'wanna' and 'PRO', and 8 questions about 'CT-effect'.

2.4 Result of the Grammatical Judgement Test

We used X^2 test to judge whether the difference between Lecture A and Lecture B is significant. Table 1 shows the result of the grammatical judgement test with X^2 and p score. In the first column, 'No. GJT' means the question number of the Grammatical Judgement Test on Appendix C. The numbers in columns of Lecture A and Lecture B mean the number of correct answers for each question. For example, for the question No.2 in the Grammatical Judgement Test, 18 subjects of Lecture A and

15 subject of Lecture B could answer correctly.

Table 1: the result of grammatical judgement test

No. GJT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Lecture A	19	18	19	19	18	14	8	19
Lecture B	19	15	19	18	15	12	14	18
X ²		1.4397		1.01342	1.4397	0.697982	1.97139	1.01342
p		0.149953		0.310858	0.149953	0.485188	0.04868	0.310858

No. GJT	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Lecture A	9	18	19	14	18	14	17	17
Lecture B	12	17	18	11	17	13	14	18
X ²	0.978766	0.601585	1.01342	1.02582	0.601585	0.357696	1.2554	0.601585
p	0.327696	0.54745	0.310858	0.304976	0.54745	0.720571	0.209332	0.54745

No. GJT	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
Lecture A	19	6	19	9	17	15	13	17
Lecture B	19	13	19	15	18	14	16	18
X ²		2.2711		2.01778	0.601585	0.381568	1.1447	0.601585
p		0.023141		0.043611	0.54745	0.72782	0.252332	0.54745

No. GJT	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
Lecture A	6	16	19	19	14	10	15
Lecture B	9	11	19	18	13	16	16
X ²	0.995643	1.78848		1.01342	0.357696	2.09395	0.418468
p	0.319424	0.073699		0.310858	0.720571	0.036265	0.675605

p < 0.05:

significant difference

As table 1 shows, the results of only four questions were significantly different. These four questions were all about CT-effect. Given the students' results on the four questions, we can say Lecture B is better than Lecture A. Moreover there was no evidence that Lecture A was more significantly effective than Lecture B. Let us consider all of 8 questions about 'CT-effect' here:

Table 2: the result of the grammatical judgement test only on 'CT-effect'

	Sentences of Grammatical Judgement Test	A	B	X ²	p
23*	This is the man who he said that was his best friend.	13	16	1.1447	0.252332
31	This is the man who he said was his best friend.	15	16	0.418468	0.675605
9	Who do you think loves her?	9	12	0.978766	0.327696
16	Who do you think she loves?	17	18	0.601585	0.54745
20*	Who do you think that loves her?	9	15	2.01778	0.0436114
30	Who do you think that she loves?	10	16	2.09395	0.0362647
7	Who do you think is your best friend?	8	14	1.97139	0.0486797
18*	Who do you think that is your best friend?	6	13	2.2711	0.0231409

p < 0.05:

significant difference

Comparing the results between Lecture A and Lecture B, we can clearly see that subjects of Lecture B were able to judge the grammaticality of an indirect interrogative sentence correctly if the complementizer 'that' was included in the sentence.

3 Conclusion

We thought that introducing the knowledge of grammatical theories to our classroom lessons would be helpful in order to make learners understand the grammatical structures of English. In other words, the new teaching method (i.e. Lecture B), which we proposed in this study, would be more highly effective than the traditional teaching method (i.e. Lecture A). The results of the experiment in this study support our proposal in some cases. Moreover there was no evidence that Lecture A was more highly effective than Lecture B, although there were cases that Lecture A was as effective as Lecture B. So, it is desirable for teachers to have the knowledge of grammatical theories to enhance the effectiveness of teaching English grammar to students.

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Appendix A

Lecture A

Transcription of 'too Adjective to do' construction and 'so Adjective that' construction

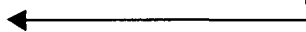
?To read this book is too difficult. -(1) (Subject is too long → using expletive 'it')

It is too difficult to read this book. -(2)

We can move 'this book' to the matrix subject position as the arrow shows below:

When we move 'this book' to the subject position of the matrix sentence, we can delete the expletive 'it' because 'it' has no meaning. :

It is too difficult to read this book.



This book is too difficult to read. -(3)

Insertion of 'for me' into (3)

This book is too difficult for me to read. -(4)

'too Adjective for a person to do' construction can be transcribed into 'so Adjective that a person cannot do' construction:

This book is so difficult that I cannot read it. -(5)

'that' of 'so-that' construction is a conjunction, so we have to put 'it' presenting 'the book' after the verb 'read' of the sentence in order to complete the that-phrase.

Let's check the grammaticality of the sentence (3),(4) and (5):

This book is too difficult to read. -(3)

This book is too difficult for me to read. -(4)

This book is too difficult ~~for me~~ to read it. -(4')

This book is so difficult that I cannot read it. -(5)

The difference between (4) & (4')

(4') means that we can put 'it' on the position after 'read' in 'too-to construction' if 'for a person' is in the sentence.

want to & wanna

I want to go there. = I wanna go there.

I want you to go there. : we cannot use 'wanna' here, because there is no space to insert 'you' in 'wanna'

Complex usage of relative pronoun : how to make the sentence 'This is the man who she said was her best friend.'

This is the man. + She said that he was her best friend.

Firstly, make the sentence : [This is the man] + [he was her best friend]. :

This is the man who was her best friend.

Secondly, insert 'she said that' into the sentence above :

*This is the man she said that who was her best friend.

There are two mistakes in this sentence:

① we have to delete 'that' when we insert the phrase such as 'she said (that)' or 'I think (that)' into the position just before wh-phrase.

② A relative pronoun has to be located in the position just after its antecedent.

Finally we can make the correct sentence :

This is the man who she said was his best friend.

Appendix B

Lecture B

Transcription of 'too Adjective to do' construction and 'so Adjective that' construction

?To read this book is too difficult. -(1) (Subject is too long → using expletive 'it')

It is too difficult to read this book. -(2)

We can move 'this book' to the matrix subject position as the arrow shows below:

When we move it to the subject position of the matrix sentence, we can delete the

expletive 'it' because 'it' has no meaning. :

It is too difficult to read this book.
←

'This book' is too difficult [to read 't']. -(3) {'t'= trace of movement : 't' has its antecedent in the same phrase and the trace and its antecedent are co-indexed. In this case: 't' = this book}

Insertion of 'for me' into (3).

'This book' is too difficult {for me [to read 't']}. -(4)

'too Adjective for a person to do' construction can be transcribed into 'so Adjective that a person cannot do' construction:

* 'This book' is so difficult [that [I cannot read 't']]. -(5)

'that' in 'so-that' construction is a conjunction, so that 't' in (5) loses its antecedent in the same phrase. In order to make the sentence grammatical, we have to use 'it' after the verb 'read'.

'This book' is so difficult [that [I cannot read it]]. -(5') (This book = it)

The grammaticality of (3),(4),(5') :

'This book' is too difficult [to read 't']. -(3)

'This book' is too difficult {for me [to read 't']}. -(4)

'This book' is so difficult [that [I cannot read it]]. -(5') (This book = it)

We don't use 'it' after the verb 'read' in (3)(4), but have to use 'it' in (5')

But there is a case we can use 'it' in 'too-to' construction as below:

'This book' is too difficult {for me [to read it]}. -(4')

As 'too Adjective for a person to do' acts just like 'so Adjective that a person cannot do', we may use 'it' in 'too-for a person to do' construction

want to & wanna

I want to go there. = I wanna go there.

I want you to go there. : we cannot use 'wanna' here, because there is no space to insert 'you' in 'wanna'

S want to do = S want PRO to do (S = PRO) : S wanna do = S want PRO to do
PRO does not appear in the sentence.

Complex usage of relative pronoun : how to make the sentence 'This is the man who she said was her best friend.'

This is the man. + She said that he was her best friend.

[This is the man] + [she said that who was her best friend]:

*This is the man who she said that 't' was her best friend.

There is a mistake in this sentence: 'that' and 'trace' must not adjoin. We call this phenomenon 'CT-effect'(Complementizer- Trace effect), because 'that', 'whether', and 'for' are called 'Complementizer' in the technical terms of grammar. In order to make this sentence grammatical, we have only to delete the complementizer 'that'.

This is the man who she said 't' was her best friend.

Appendix C

Write ○ in the parenthesis if you think the sentence is grammatically correct. Write ×, if you find the sentence ungrammatical.

example question : 0 (×) There are a books on the table.

- 1() This book is too difficult to read.
- 2() Who do you want to talk to?
- 3() I want to go there.
- 4() This book is too difficult for me to read.
- 5() Who do you wanna talk to?
- 6() This book is too difficult for me to read it.
- 7() Who do you think is your best friend?
- 8() This book is so difficult that I can't read it.

- 9() Who do you think loves her?
 10() The new computer is too expensive to buy.
 11() I don't wanna go there.
 12() The new computer is so expensive that he cannot buy.
 13() I want you to go there.
 14() Who do you want to talk to her?
 15() The suitcase was too heavy to carry it.
 16() Who do you think she loves?
 17() I don't want to go there.
 18() Who do you think that is your best friend?
 19() The suitcase was so heavy that she couldn't carry it.
 20() Who do you think that loves her?
 21() My jeans are too tight to go hiking in.
 22() Who do you wanna her to talk to?
 23() This is the man who he said that was his best friend.
 24() My jeans are too tight for me to go hiking in.
 25() Who do you wanna talk to her?
 26() My jeans are too tight for me to go hiking in them.
 27() My jeans are so tight that I cannot go hiking in them.
 28() I wanna go there.
 29() I don't wanna you to go there.
 30() Who do you think that she loves?
 31() This is the man who he said was his best friend.

Grade class number name _____

Appendix D

Lecture A	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	percentag	number
	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	e of CA	of CA
	03	32	21	38	29	09	19	22	23	24	25	31	42	06	10	17	07	12	02			
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	100%	19
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	94.74%	18
2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	100%	19
3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	100%	19
4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	94.74%	18
5	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	73.68%	14
6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	42.11%	8
7	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	100%	19
8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		

9	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0		47.37%	9
10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1		94.74%	18
11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		100%	19
12	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0		73.68%	14
13	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1		94.74%	18
14	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0		73.68%	14
15	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1		89.47%	17
16	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0		89.47%	17
17	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		100%	19
18	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1		31.58%	6
19	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		100%	19
20	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1		47.37%	9
21	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1		89.47%	17
22	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0		78.95%	15
23	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1		68.42%	13
24	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1		89.47%	17
25	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		31.58%	6
26	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0		84.21%	16
27	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		100%	19
28	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		100%	19
29	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0		73.68%	14
30	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0		52.63%	10
31	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0		78.95%	15
number	29	29	28	27	26	26	26	25	26	25	25	26	24	24	24	24	21	20	19		474	
percentage	93	93	90	87	83	83	83	80	83	80	80	83	77	77	77	77	67	64	61		80.5%	
	.5	.5	.3	.1	.9	.9	.9	.6	.9	.6	.6	.9	.4	.4	.4	.4	.7	.5	.3			
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%			
pre-test	96	90	93	98	91	86	91	63	83	76	82	89	94	47	88	88	79	79	74		83.53	

Lecture B.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5		percentage	number
	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	e of CA	of CA
	20	05	27	30	36	04	16	18	39	15	14	35	41	13	01	37	28	33	11			
	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2			
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		100%	19
2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0		78.95%	15
3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		100%	19
4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1		94.74%	18
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6	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0		63.16%	12
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9	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0		63.16%	12
10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0		89.47%	17

11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	94.74%	18	
12	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	57.89%	11	
13	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	89.47%	17	
14	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	68.42%	13	
15	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	73.68%	14	
16	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	94.74%	18	
17	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	100%	19	
18	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	68.42%	13	
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22	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	73.68%	14	
23	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	84.21%	16	
24	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	94.74%	18	
25	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	47.37%	9	
26	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	57.89%	11	
27	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	100%	19	
28	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	94.74%	18	
29	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	68.42%	13	
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31	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	84.21%	16	
number	31	30	30	30	29	30	27	26	27	20	24	26	25	22	22	23	24	20	18	484		
percentage	10	96	96	96	93	96	87	83	87	64	77	83	80	71	71	74	77	64	58	82.17		
	0	.8	.8	.8	.5	.8	.1	.9	.1	.5	.4	.9	.6	.0	.0	.2	.4	.5	.1	%		
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
pre-test	98	93	98	89	93	48	88	90	76	64	77	90	88	90	81	77	80	83	74	83.00		

CA: correct answers

A Corpora-based Study of Discourse (2):

Story-telling Elicitation Test Design

Naoko Saito

Tokyo Metropolitan Koto Commercial High School

This study analyzed spoken EFL discourse through a story-telling test design and authorized textbooks of English. The subjects were 30 third-year public high school students with elementary English speaking skills. First, the subjects were shown one set of picture-cards and asked by their teacher to narrate a story in English that was simultaneously recorded. The data were analyzed as follows: First, the most frequent words in the spoken discourse were sifted out from the data. Second, the grammatical characteristics of the bits of discourse including the two frequent words: *is* and *with* were identified. Finally, the textbooks' corpora were analyzed in connection with the frequencies of *is* and *with* in order to compare with the learners' data.

The results of this study demonstrate that students with elementary English speaking skills construct stories with very few syntactic chunks. These are bits of one or two words. The results also suggest that such characteristics of learners' speech are influenced by the contents of textbooks. Accumulating the data will be necessary in the area of interlanguage research to clarify the peculiarity of learners' corpora.

1. Existing studies

Many researchers in the area of applied linguistics have developed various studies on corpora and chunks. Granger (1998) presents Computer Learner Corpus (CLC) research. He explains one merit of a learner corpus thus: Comparing the frequency of words / structures in learner and native corpora makes it possible to study phenomena such as avoidance which were never addressed in the era of error analysis. Unlike previous error corpora, CLCs give us access not only to errors but to learners' total interlanguage (1998:6). Cook, Granger, Leech and McEnery (1998) find that adult advanced EFL learners use prefabricated expressions, and in some cases even more prefabricated patterns/ chunks than NSs. They conclude that the chunks they use:

The chunks they use

- (1) are not necessarily the same as those used by NSs,
- (2) are not used with the same frequency,
- (3) have different syntactic uses, and
- (4) fulfil different pragmatic functions.

They continue as follows: We are aware that we have only touched upon a largely

unexplored territory, but we hope that this first study will act as a spur for further research in this promising field (1998:78). Granger and Tribble (1998:199) also emphasize that corpus-informed learning materials can be usefully included in an EFL program. Leech (1997: 20) suggests that learners' language corpora may be directly relevant to the language teacher, to know which words and structures of the foreign language are typically overused, underused, or misused by non-native learners. These viewpoints and inroads point to a learner corpus as meaningful and precious for EFL research.

Hakuta (1974) compiled speech samples of a five-year-old Japanese learner of English during a 15-month period. He analyzed three types of "prefabricated patterns", namely "chunks": copula *be*, *do you*, and *how to*. He insists that the prefabricated pattern/chunk *do you* can be memorized as one segment of 'question marker' instead of being segmented. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992:1) describes a lexico-grammatical unit, the *lexical phrase*, which they believe offers a promising new direction for language teaching. They regard lexical phrases as 'chunks' of language of varying length, and as an ideal unit which can be exploited for language teaching. Lewis (1993) proposes a new methodological principle, the *Lexical Approach*, which develops many of the fundamental principles advanced by proponents of Communicative Approaches. He mentions that the Lexical Approach has positive suggestions to make about the nature and role of lexis, different attitudes to text, and strategies for 'chunking' language (1993:ix). Howarth (1998) mentions that the study of word combination (i.e., 'phraseology') has neither achieved wide recognition in applied linguistics nor is readily available to language teachers. He emphasizes the need for detailed description of collocations which are defined as word combinations such as noun or prepositional phrases or verb and object constructions. Saito (2000) shows that (1) when the subjects made stories looking at the picture cards, there were five most frequent words: *is*, *she*, *and*, *with*, and *her*, (2) the subjects constructed stories with very few syntactic chunks relative to those five words. Saito's research corpus was quite restricted. However, it defines an operational starting point for the structure of EFL discourse corpora.

All these studies declare the potential of research into "prefabricated patterns/chunks" based on corpora.

2. A case study

2.1. Purpose of the research

The purpose of this study is (1) to compile more data on learners' discourse in order to begin mapping out the structure of EFL learners' corpus, and (2) to examine how learners' corpora are related to textbooks' corpora.

2.2. Research questions

To satisfy these ends, the following research questions were posed.

Research questions:

- 1) What kinds of words or what kinds of chunks do EFL learners tend to utilize in delivering a discourse on picture cards?
- 2) Are characteristics in learners' corpus influenced by input gained through the authorized textbooks of English?

2.3. Method

2.3.1. Learners' corpus

1) Subjects

The subjects were 30 EFL students in the third year of a public high school in Tokyo. Their English abilities were low relative to the national levels. However, they had strong motivation to speak English. Hence their willingness to participate in the present study was ready.

2) Materials

The five sets of four picture cards used were the same materials as those of Saito (2000). Each subject was given one set of picture cards. In order to make the subjects familiar and comfortable with the story-telling context, the picture cards were drawn by a student from the same school. As the subjects told a story about the picture cards, their voice was recorded using a tape recorder and microphone.

3) Procedures

There were two steps in this study. First, the subjects thought for about twenty seconds about a story for the set of picture cards, which was randomly given to them. The five sets of picture cards were evenly distributed among the 30 students. Therefore, 6 students' data were collected for each set of picture cards. Second, the subjects narrated a story about the given picture cards in English as much as possible.

2.3.2. Textbooks' corpus

1) Materials

21 junior high school course textbooks and 2 high school course textbooks were utilized in this study. In junior high school, 7 kinds of English textbooks are authorized by the Ministry of Education. These are as follows:

Columbus (**cb**) textbooks published by Mitsumura Tosho,

Everyday (**ed**) textbooks published by Chukyo Shuppan,
New Crown (**nc**) textbooks published by Sanseido,
New Horizon (**nh**) textbooks published by Tokyo Shoseki,
One World (**ow**) textbooks published by Kyouiku Shuppan,
Sunshine (**ss**) textbooks published by Kairyudo,
and *New Total* (**to**) textbooks published by Shubun Shuppan.

Each textbook comprises a series of 3 courses. When the students are in the 7th grade, they use the course 1 textbooks. In the 8th grade, they study English course 2 textbooks; and in the 9th grade, the course 3 textbooks. The total number of the textbooks in junior high school is 21.

As for senior high school textbooks, we have innumerable kinds of textbooks. In this study, one textbook was chosen: *Apricot* (**ap**), published by Bun-eido. Such kind of reading textbooks as *Apricot* comprise 2 courses; *Apricot I*, and *Apricot II*. In the 10th grade, the students use course I. Then in the 11th grade, they use course II.

2) Procedures

There were two steps in this case. First, in order to make textbooks' corpus, the floppy disks of each course textbook were collected. As for the junior high school textbooks, they totaled 21 floppy disks, which were purchased at the expense of Prof. Nakano's office. On the other hand, about the floppy disks of senior high school textbooks, there were 2 (floppy) disks at the author's high school. Second, data in the floppy disks were inputted into a computer to make the data "machine-readable."

3. Results

3.1. Learners' corpus

1) the top 5 words in frequency

Table 1 is the result of the words in high frequency in 30 learners' discourse corpora.

	Picture 1	Picture 2	Picture 3	Picture 4	Picture 5	Total
is	10	11	9	13	10	53
Michiko	31					31
she	5		4	10	5	24
and	9	2	8	3	1	23
friend		5	3		11	19
Mika					19	19

Naomi				19		19
with	5	4			9	18
Yuka		17				17
her	5		3	1	6	15

Table 1: Occurrences of the most frequent words

According to the table 1, we can recognize that *is*, *she*, *and*, *friend*, *with*, and *her*, excluding the proper nouns, such as *Michiko*, *Mika*, *Naomi* and *Yuka*, were very often used by the subjects.

is	53	(9.4%)
she	24	(4.3%)
and	23	(4.1%)
friend	19	(3.4%)
with	18	(3.2%)
Total	565	(100%)

Table 2: The 5 most frequent words out of a total of 174 words in 30 students' corpora

Table 2 shows the 5 most frequent words out of a total of 174 words excluding proper nouns. According to table 2, *is* was used 53 times (9.4%), *she* 24 times (4.3%), *and* 23 times (4.1%), *friend* 19 times (3.4%), and *with* 18 times (3.2%). These five word-classes are very familiar to EFL learners, especially Japanese junior and senior high school students.

This result suggests that there is a tendency in the authorized textbooks to over-emphasize these forms. Since the subjects overused the *is*-form, however, it is thought that the word *is* was also conspicuously misused. As for *with*, it had been thought that it would be difficult for learners of English to use a preposition *with*, but, actually, the subjects could utilize this word *with* appropriately.

2) The chunks in sentences including “is” and “with”

There are “is” corpus and “with” corpus in the subjects' discourse data in the Appendix. According to the “is” corpus, we can recognize that the subjects have a

peculiar chunk related to *is*. That is a chunk ‘**subject + is**’. This pattern seems to be a basic constituent of EFL learners’ discourse abilities. However, there is a serious problem with this kind of basic pattern. The subjects used “is-form” 53 times in total for constructing stories in English. In spite of that, in 31 samples “is-forms” were overused or misused. That means about 59 % of their usage was mistaken.

As to the “with” corpus, we can understand that the pattern ‘**with + object [animate]**’ was predominantly used by the subjects. Therefore, we can consider the phrase ‘**with + object**’ as chunk of *with*. Moreover, a preposition *with* has various kinds of meanings and uses. However, almost all of the subjects used *with* as the preposition which expresses putting fellows or living organism together.

From the results of *is* and *with* corpora, we can understand that ‘subject + *is*’ and ‘with + object’ are regarded as chunks in the present study, and we can predict whether or not those kinds of outcomes originate from the contents of English textbooks.

3.2. Textbooks’ corpus

1) The frequencies of “is”

The textbooks’ corpus on “be-verbs” was examined in order to conduct a comparison among the present be-verbs: *is*, *are*, *am* in junior high school (JHS) textbooks and to know whether or not “is” is presented more frequently than the others.

According to Figure 1, in JHS textbooks, the be-verb “is” is used about twice as much as the be-verb “are”. And it is used about 3 times as much as the be-verb “am”.

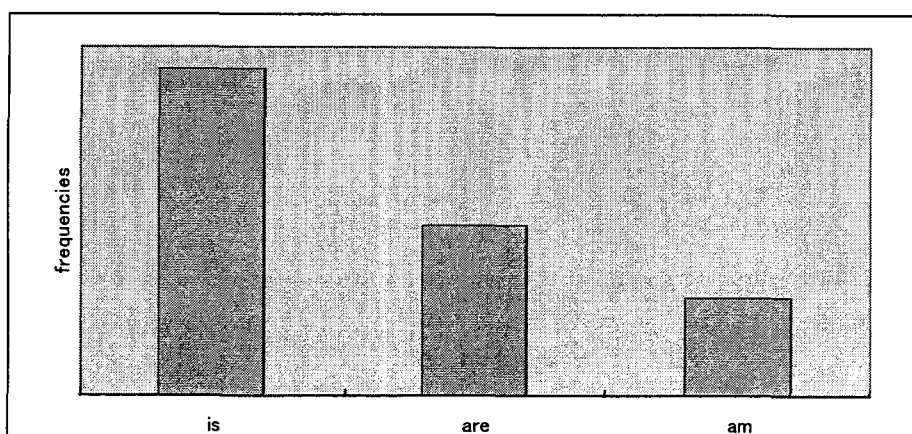


Figure 1: Frequencies of *is*, *are*, *am* in 21 JHS textbooks

Table 3 shows the frequencies of “is” in each course textbook in junior high school. For example, in the 7th grade, the numbers of “is” were 30 in *Columbus course 1*

textbook, 29 in *Everyday course 1* textbook, 71 *New Crown*, 35 *New Horizon*, 43 *One World*, 52 *Sunshine*, and 36 *New Total*.

	cb	ed	nc	nh	ow	ss	to	Total
7th grade	30	29	71	35	43	52	36	296
8th grade	20	32	48	85	34	24	44	287
9th grade	40	31	33	39	59	45	40	287
Total	90	92	152	159	136	121	120	870

Table 3: *is*: Frequencies

The total numbers of “is” were 296 in 7 kinds of course 1 textbooks. As for the 8th grade, the total 287 “is” were brought in 7 kinds of course 2 textbooks. In the 9th grade, the same figure 287 “is” appeared in 7 kinds of course 3 textbooks.

2) The frequencies of “with”

Table 4 shows the results of the frequencies of “with” in junior high school textbooks. According to the table 4, we can understand the numbers of “with” used in the 7th grade were extraordinarily smaller than those in the other two grades. That is to say, in the 7th grade, the number of “with” used in the course 1 textbooks was only 16 in total. On the other hand, in the 8th grade, it was 97 and in the 9th grade 107. The total numbers of “with” were 220 in all kinds of textbooks. That number was quite small in contrast to that of “is”.

	cb	ed	nc	nh	ow	ss	to	Total
7th grade	0	1	6	4	1	1	3	16
8th grade	18	14	14	18	7	16	10	97
9th grade	16	15	11	21	10	16	18	107
Total	34	30	31	43	18	33	31	220

Table 4: *with*: Frequencies

3) Comparing “is” to “with” on grading

From the results of frequencies of “is” and “with”, we have a question: why did the subjects make the most frequent use of “is” and “with” in the EFL story-telling despite the different frequency between “is” and “with” in the textbooks. Figure 2 indicates the percentages of “is” used in each grade textbook.

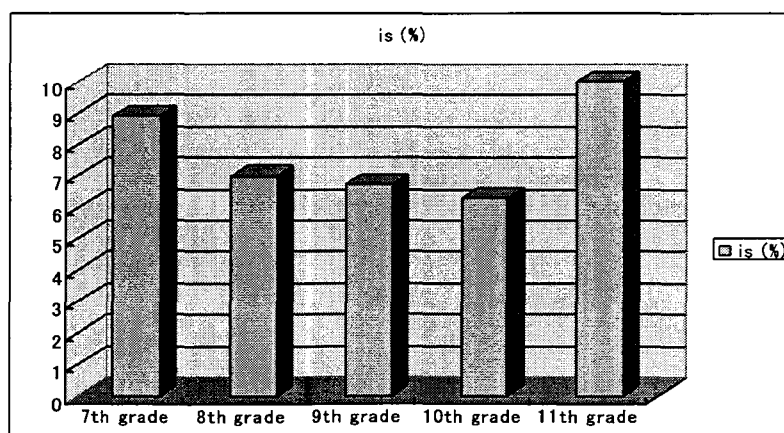


Figure 2: Grading of “is”

According to this graph, the students in the 7th grade are overwhelmed by basic and simple “is” sentences. For example, *this is...*, *it is...*, *she is...*, and so on.

This period is the starting point in that almost all the EFL students begin to study English for the first time. This period has a great influence on how to use “is” in English sentences. The frequency of “is” in the textbooks gradually decreases until 10th grade. Then, “is” sentences rapidly increase in the 11th grade.

As for the results, we can assume that the encounter with “is” in the first year in junior high school give the EFL learners a strong start on the “prefabricated patterns/chunks” such as “this is”, “it is”, “she is”, and so forth. Therefore, even if the students come into contact with “is” in the 11th grade period of senior high school, they cannot make appropriate use of “is” because of the fossilization of “is” patterns in their early days.

As for “with”, on the other hand, the EFL students meet “with” sentences step by step (Figure 3). That is to say, the frequency of “with” in the textbooks gradually increases according to the grade.

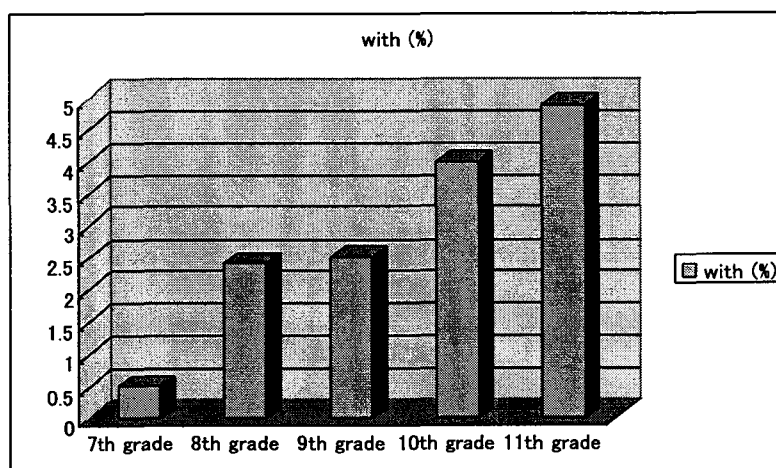


Figure 3: Grading of “with”

Table 5 shows the number and the percentage of “with + animate object” pattern in all the sentences including “with” in the textbooks. We can understand that about 57% of “with” sentences in all of the textbooks are shown as the form “with + animate object(s).” For example, ‘with my friend’, ‘with me’, ‘with many people’, and so on.

Therefore, we can guess that even if the number of “with” is small in the textbooks comparing with “is”, “with + animate object(s)” patterns are very familiar and practical for the EFL students. Consequently, the students easily learn “with” patterns as a chunk.

cb	ed	nc	nh	ow	ss	to	ap	Total
23(67.6)	14(46.7)	17(54.8)	24(55.8)	11(61.1)	16(48.5)	22(71.0)	24(53.3)	151(57.0)

Table 5: “with + obj. [animate]” pattern: occurrences and (%)

4. Conclusion

In productive activities in English, the influence of textbooks is very strong in eliciting learners’ discourse. It suggests that we should regard the learners’ corpus as fruitful data about EFL discourse. It will help researchers and teachers get more information about their students. It will also help us reconsider not only the teaching materials but also the way of teaching. However, the number of subjects was still small to generalize the results of this study. So it is important to continue to compile data.

We English teachers have to recognize the importance of the learners’ corpus and the textbooks’ corpus and to utilize such kinds of corpora effectively to help our students enhance their English abilities in spoken discourse.

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[textbooks]

Columbus, Mitsumura Tosho.

Everyday, Chukyo Shuppan.

New Crown, Sanseido.

New Horizon, Tokyo Shoseki.

One World, Kyouiku Shuppan.

Sunshine, Kairyudo.

New Total, Shubun Shuppan.

Apricot, Bun-eido.

<Appendix>

Is corpus

pic1s1: Michiko	is	wake up
pic1s1: Michiko	is	wake up at at 6:45 with with cat.
pic1s1: Michiko	is	brush her teeth with cat slowly.
pic1s1: Michiko	is	Michiko have breakfast with cat slowly.
pic1s1: And Michiko	is	late late for school.
pic1s3: Michiko	is	
pic1s3: Michiko	is	super high school.
pic1s3: Michiko	is	Michiko likes Michiko have <i>mascotte</i> .
pic1s4: So, Michiko	is	wash.
pic1s4: So Michiko	is	late in the high school.
pic2s7: Yuka	is	headache.
pic2s7: But Yuka	is	sick.
pic2s7: Yuka	is	<i>hokenshitsu</i> with friend.
pic2s8: Yuka	is	headache.
pic2s8: But Yuka	is	very headache and
pic2s9: Yuka Yuka	is	<i>haraita</i> sick.
pic2s10: Yuka	is	low tension.

pic2s11: Yuka is very bad.

pic2s11: So Yuka is very very bad.

pic2s12: Yuka is bad little bad.

pic2s12: Yuka is play basketball.

pic3s13: Movie title is *arumagedon*.

pic3s13: Yuko is very happy.

pic3s15: Kumi is popcorn,
but Yuko is cried.

pic3s16: Kumi and Yuko is friends.

pic3s16: Yuko is cry.

pic3s17: Kumi and Yuko is Kumi and Yuko go to movie.

pic3s18: Movie movie's name is *arumagedon*.

pic3s18: Yuko she is crying to movie.

pic4s19: Naomi is thinking about this problem.

pic4s19: "Here it is."

pic4s20: She is studying in classroom.

pic4s20: her's answer is bad.

pic4s21: This is
this is maybe Math class.

pic4s22: Naomi is homework.

pic4s23: Naomi is think question.

pic4s23: Naomi is answer.

pic4s23: Naomi is writing the blackboard.

pic4s24: Naomi is study.

pic4s24: Naomi is hand up.

pic4s24: Naomi is writing blackboard.

pic5s25: Mika is her lunch with friend.

pic5s26: Mika is washes her hand with her friend.

pic5s26: Mika is

pic5s26: Mika is eating lunch with her friend.

pic5s26: Mika is sleep.

pic5s26: Teacher is angry.

pic5s27: Mika is sleeping.

pic5s28: That's why she want sleep.

pic5s29: Teacher's angry.

pic5s30: She is sleeping.

With corpus

pic1s1: Michiko is wake up at at 6:45 with with cat.
pic1s1: Michiko is brush her teeth with cat slowly.
pic1s1: Michiko is Michiko have breakfast with cat slowly.
pic1s1: and and Japanese *yakizakana* with cat.
pic2s7: Yuka is *hokenshitsu* with friend.
pic2s8: but and *hokenshitsu* with my friend.
pic2s10: Yuka Yuka's friend go going to room with friend.
pic2s11: So let's go with friend teacher.
pic5s25: Mika friend with friend
Mika is her lunch with friend.
pic5s26: Mika is washes her hand with her friend.
pic5s26: pic3s13: Mika is eating lunch with her friend.
pic5s27: When Mika washing with washing hand
pic5s27: hands with a friend.
pic5s27: And we eat lunch with a friend.
pic5s29: Mika eat lunch with her friend.
pic5s30: She eat lunch with friend.

Similarities & Differences between Face-to-Face Dialogue & Computer Mediated Communication

**Michiko Nakano, Masanori Oya, Kazuharu Owada and Eiichiro Tsutui
Graduate School of Education, Waseda University**

Introduction :

Internet Chat is definitely one of the types of written text. Participants of Internet Chat environment type on the keyboard their ideas or emotions, and what they type appears on the screen as a written text. The most significant difference between Internet Chat and other types of written text is simultaneity; the response of your partner immediately comes back to your PC, and you must immediately respond to it. In this sense, Internet Chat environment resembles face-to-face communication where you must immediately respond to what your interlocutor has talked about.

In Internet Chat environment, each participant can have a unique learning experience. First, they can improve their skill to write; in Internet Chat, they must put their idea into sentences quickly, and type it quickly. Other types of writing cannot provide learners with such training. Second, the participants of Internet Chat can establish an active relationship with each other as quickly as face-to-face communication; the Internet technology makes it possible for learners in a long distance to exchange their opinions and to express their emotions.

In order to understand this aspect of Internet Chat, it is necessary to point out there are some characteristics of Internet Chat which seem to resemble face-to-face communication. We would like to present to you the examples of discourse fillers, self-corrections, and negotiation of meaning from the chat data of our project. In doing this, we can also suggest that these phenomena have some value in terms of second language acquisition.

Along with these characteristics, we have to notice the fact that Internet Chat is a form of written language with its own characteristic phenomena, such as abbreviations, 'emoticons' and overlapping. We also present to you some examples of them and argue that they are the results of the uniqueness of Internet Chat that the participant have to respond quickly to the partner's utterance, and that these phenomena are worthy of serious investigation in the field of SLA research.

Discourse fillers

In Internet Chat, each participant must respond immediately to the partner's utterance;

this is one of the most significant differences between Internet Chat and other types of written texts. Therefore, the use of words which do not carry any information would be undesirable in terms of the economy of expression. It would be better for participants to make their sentence short and to the point so that they can quickly respond to the partner's message. However, we can find discourse fillers also in Internet Chat texts. In the examples below, Korea-E#4, Waseda Edu#2, etc. mean the names of computers.

e.g.)

Inquiring the partner's hobby:

Korea-E#4: What is your hobby?

Waseda Edu#2: Well,

Waseda Edu#2: Listening to musics,

Waseda Edu#2: and watching the sports games.

Inquiring the partner's life in school:

DLS-E #2: So, what fun did you do in school?

Waseda Edu#2: Well, I enjoyed to chat with girls. They are very charming.

DLS-E #2: You also like to talk to them.

Waseda Edu#2: Yes!

DLS-E #2: Hmmmm.....makes me wonder....you already have a girlfriend right?

DLS-E #2: As for me.....not yet.

Waseda Edu#2: Really? Yes, I have a girlfriend.

Asking some questions to the partner:

DLS-E #3: Okay. What year are you now in college?

Waseda Edu#9: Mm, can I ask some questions? I am going to write graduation thesis about people behaviour between our two countries.

Waseda Edu#9: SO I am senior of my univ

DLS-E #3: okay. im doing mt thesis too so I understand. whats the question?

Waseda Edu#9: thank you for your caring

Waseda Edu#9: well very easy question

The use of discourse fillers such as 'well', 'Hmmm', 'makes me wonder', etc. suggests that they are not redundant in the Internet Chat environment, but they are playing some positive role, as they are in face-to-face communication. The use of discourse fillers suggests that the participants recognize that their discourse functions in Internet Chat are as important as they are in face-to-face communication, so the participants are trying

to imitate face-to-face communication in the Internet Chat environment.

Self-correction of errors

In Internet Chat, once one's utterance is sent to the partner's PC by pushing the enter key, he or she cannot correct it. In addition to that, unlike other types of written language, the participants in Internet Chat do not have enough time to revise their own sentences. In Internet Chat environment, if the participants find grammatical or spelling errors in his or her sentence which has been sent to the partner's PC, he or she must send additional utterances to correct them, as the example shows.

Spelling errors:

e.g.)

Waseda Edu#1: you can speak English well, Where do you study English?

Korea-#2: not at all! and i learn English in Korea.

Korea-#2: but i think i can not speak English fluently.

Waseda Edu#1: unbelievable!! I think you are bilingar.

Waseda Edu#1: bilingual(?)

Waseda Edu#7: can you mail me this script?

DLS-E #1: I haven't deleted my copy, so I'm just going to save it and send it to you via email.

DLS-E #1: Okay?

Waseda Edu#7: *****@*****.or.jp

Waseda Edu#7: thank you for your caring ; ;

DLS-E #1: I kno.

DLS-E #1: know

Grammatical errors:

DLS-E #1: Okay she's beside me again... HEEEEELLLLPPPP!!!!

Waseda Edu#7: you should talk someting like weapon

Waseda Edu#7: take

DLS-E #1: Hmmmm... weapon... nah.... I'll just bathe her in a stripsol solution.

Waseda Edu#2: With my wife.

DLS-E #3: is she a student at waseda, too?

Waseda Edu#2: She is a working girl.

DLS-E #3: same age as you?

Waseda Edu#2: Yes, she is.

DLS-E #3: what is her work?

Waseda Edu#2: She is a secretary.

DLS-E #3: how did you two meet?

Waseda Edu#2: We met in my company. I have a president of my firm.

Waseda Edu#2: I am president.

DLS-E #3: wow...nice job. what kind of firm?

Waseda Edu#2: We deal in like industrial machinery.

This type of self-correction is similar to what we can find in spoken language. The Internet Chat environment seems to allow the participants to quickly self-check their sentences. Kitade (2000: 153) argues that Internet Chat encourages learners to notice their own errors and correct them. Internet Chat, therefore, has a positive effect on the process of learning a language at its production level.

Negotiation of meaning

A learner's noticing of linguistic input plays an important role in making unfamiliar target language forms familiar. Long (1996) suggests that negotiation of meaning helps learner to make input comprehensible. In Internet Chat, negotiation of meaning sometimes occurs when a participant finds in the partner's response a linguistic form whose meaning he or she does not know or is not sure of.

e.g.)

Chatting about cooking:

DeLaSalle PC2: I like preparing adobo. that is pork mixed with salt, soy sauce, vinegar with some garlic. It is yummy.

...

Waseda Edu. #2: Can you tell me the meaning of "yummy"?

...

DeLaSalle PC1: "YUMMY" it is an experession meaning "oishi"

Waseda Edu. #2: I see. Thank you!!

We have a more complex example:

Chatting about cellular phones; there are four participants, 3 Japanese and 1 Philippino:

Waseda Edu. #3: OK. I think that for example making up in the train is a bad manner.

Waseda Edu. #1: do you have a cellar phone?

Waseda Edu. #2: And using Handy-phone in the trains is bad manner.

DeLaSalle PC1: Noriko, you mean make up?

Waseda Edu. #1: make up=けしょう

DeLaSalle PC1: 携帯電話ですか? Do you mean cellular phone ?

Waseda Edu. #3: Recently Japanese young girls often make up in the train.

Waseda Edu. #2: Yes!!

Waseda Edu. #1: yes cellular phone>ivy

Waseda Edu. #3: I mean cosmetics.

DeLaSalle PC1: 化粧- i understand.

In the examples above, the Philippine participant uses Japanese words in the negotiation of the meaning of 'make-up' and 'Handy-phone' in his Japanese partner. And the second example, we can see an example of collaborative negotiation of meaning; after the first line 'OK. I think that for example making up in the train is a bad manner.', which is written by the Japanese participant using Waseda Edu #3, the participant using DeLaSalle PC1 questions the meaning of 'make up'. Then, the other participant, using Waseda Edu#1 in the Japanese side, answers to this question in Japanese. Then, the Waseda Edu#3 also answers to the question, this time in English. This type of collaborative negotiation of meaning can have some effect on learning not only the meaning of unknown words, but learning how to deal with questions from the interlocutors, and Internet Chat provides learners with this type of learning experience.

Characteristic notations in Internet Chat

In Internet Chat, we can find some characteristic notations. First, participants sometimes use small letters where capital letters must be used.

Use of small letters:

e.g.)

Korea-#2: how are you today?

Waseda Edu#1: Fine...I can't see your face.

Waseda Edu#1: How about You ?

Korea-#2: yes, i think because of the light. and i'm very good today.

Substitution of a word with one letter or a figure

e.g.)

too → 2

Korea-#2: it's so much fun to see the soccer game no matter what the result is.

Waseda Edu#1: I like baseball games in spring !

Korea-#2: me,2!

see → c

Waseda Edu#7: You have to go?

DLS-E #1: my friends are already leaving

DLS-E #1: yes

Waseda Edu#7: ic

Waseda Edu#7: nice chatting

Omission of apostrophe

haven't → havent , don't → dont

e.g.)

Waseda Edu#2: I havent seen her for days.

DLS-J #2: yep, I havent read her mail, so I dont know how she took my only Japanese sentence.

Waseda Edu#2: I see, but I guess

Waseda Edu#2: she might not be angry at all.

I'm → im

Waseda Edu#3: I have a little time to chat today.

Waseda Edu#3: about 30-45minutes at most.

DLS-E #2: oh yah me too. im only gonna be here for about 30 minutes orso.

Waseda Edu#3: I see.

Substitution and omission:

you're → ur

e.g.)

Waseda Edu#3: How old are you?

DLS-E #2: 18. U?

Waseda Edu#3: I'm 23.

DLS-E #2: wow ur old :)

In Internet Chat, the participants must respond to the partner's utterance immediately. The usage of abbreviations above must have significance in terms of the economy of expression. However, orthography should not be discarded for the sake of the economy of expression in other types of written language. Therefore, participants of Internet Chat in educational setting need proper instruction so that they do not use these types of abbreviations in other formal written texts, such as term papers or dissertations.

How emotions are expressed in Internet Chat; emoticons

Expressing one's emotions at the moment is one of the essential factors in human communication. In spoken language, emotion can be expressed verbally or non-verbally. In Internet Chat, on the other hand, it is difficult for the participants to read the partner's emotions from his or her facial expressions. CU-SeeMe system has a CCD camera so that each participant can see the face of the person he or she is chatting. However, it is sometimes difficult for them to see the face because they concentrate on typing their sentences. Therefore, it is essential for them to express their emotional nuances in the sentence in order to establish an active and human relationship. It must be noted that they must do so as quickly as possible. In Internet Chat environment, we can find some characteristic ways of quickly expressing one's emotions. We call them emoticons in this presentation, and we take up three types of emoticons in this presentation; repetition of exclamation marks, spelling out a word with capital letters, and face marks or 'smiley'.

Repetition of exclamation marks:

Repeating exclamation marks clearly expresses the participant's emotions;

e.g.) Emphasis on gratitude:

Korea-#2: now can u see me?

Waseda Edu#1: Yes, I can see your beautiful face.

Korea-#2: oh! thank u!!!!!!!!!!!!

Spelling out a word in capital letters

Spelling out a word in capital letters can also emphasize the emotional nuances of the participants:

e.g.)

DLS-E #3: KEN!!!! KEN!!!!

Waseda Edu#2: I am here,

DLS-E #3: oh man i mised u!!

Waseda Edu#2: I am sorry for late!

Waseda Edu#2: SORRY!!!!

DLS-E #3: No. Im the one who is late. Im really sorry!

Face marks (smiley):

Face marks are often used in e-mails to express the writer's emotional nuances.

They are also used in Internet Chat.

There are many types of face marks to express various emotional nuances.

e.g.)

Happiness:

Waseda Edu#1: I had to send e-mail especially to you.

Korea-#2: ^^ * That makes me so special...^^*

Korea-#2: Thank you..

Not being angry:

Korea-E#6: have a good time with sungeun, and see you next time.

Waseda Edu#1: Are you angry?

Korea-E#6: let's talk about it through email..

Korea-E#6: Nope, i'm not angry..

Korea-E#6: ^^

Sadness:

Waseda Edu#1: but not now....??? what happened ?

Korea-#2: u know? when i have boyfriend, i just wanted to be with him all the time.

Korea-#2: that made them angry. i know i was bad...

Waseda Edu#1: Oh, I envy you!! I want to spend the such a sweet time.

Korea-#2: that's the old story, i was through him. T _T

Waseda Edu#1: Oh, I'm sorry to hear that to you, Nari chan.

Korea-#2: well, it's ok, now i'm gettig over.

Disappointment:

Waseda Edu#1: you can speak English well, Where do you study English?

Korea-#2: not at all! and i learn English in Korea.

Korea-#2: but i think i can not speak English fluently.

Waseda Edu#1: unbelievable!! I think you are bilingar.

Waseda Edu#1: bilingual(?)

Korea-#2: no... i hope i am, but i'm not -_-;;

These types of smileys can express emotional nuances quickly; by using these smileys, the participants do not have to write a sentence or sentences in order to describe how they feel at the moment. These smileys substitute facial expressions we encounter in face-to-face communication.

Overlapping utterances

In Internet Chat, each participant may start his or her utterance before the partner does. Therefore, their utterances sometimes overlap. Overlapping in this sense is one of the interesting characteristics of Internet Chat. In the examples below, the sentences in the same color state the same topic. As this example shows, the participants are talking about several topics, with the overlapped sentences (The numbers on the left of each sentence are inserted for the ease of explanation).

e.g.)

1.Korea-#2: well, do u have any topic in mind?

2. Waseda Edu#1: well.. Have you put on chimajogori(?)?

3. Korea-#2: oh, dear...

4. Waseda Edu#1: I studied Korea a bit.

5. Korea-#2: what should i say, first....?

6. Korea-#2: well, yes, it's Korean traditional clothes.

7. Korea-#2: and now i'm wearing youhuku.(sweater and skirt)

8. Waseda Edu#1: In Japan, I see some Korean students wearing chimajogori.

9. Korea-#2: anyway i'm very happy to hear u learned Korean.

10. Korea-#2: oh! really? are they south Korean or the North?

11. Waseda Edu#1: Well...I don't know, may be south.

In the example above, the sentences in the same color correspond with each other. The

line 6 written by the Korean participant is a reply to the line 2 by Japanese participant. There are 3 lines between the two lines. The Japanese participant starts the other topic (on studying Korean) in the line 4, and the Korean participant replies to it in the line 9, while the interaction on the first topic is still going on.

It can be assumed that the Korean participant took a relatively long time to respond to the Japanese participant's utterance in the line 2. The line 3 'Oh, dear...' seems to support this assumption. And, while the Korean participant was thinking about how to respond, the Japanese participant started the other topic.

In order to explore this phenomenon, we need to create a method to estimate the time when a participant started writing a sentence and when he or she pushed the enter key to send it. Because of the fact that the software we use, CU-CeeMe, does not have this function, Mr. Sasaki, one of the teaching assistants for the project, created a chat system which records the time when each participant starts writing and pushes the enter key. This system will help us investigate overlapping in detail, and its influence on language learning.

Let's look at the experimental chat between two graduate students below. In the example, the exact time when the participant started typing and when he or she pushed the enter key are shown at the left of each utterance. The leftmost time is that when the participant started a new utterance. The second leftmost time is that when the participant pushed the enter key.

2000/10/06(16:51.56),2000/10/06(16:53.00),oya,I see. Now this is an experimental chat. The topic is Hawaii. What is the most impressive experience in Hawaii this summer?

2000/10/06(16:51.58),2000/10/06(16:55.15),hori,Ok now we change the topic. I see. I thought we kept talking about drinking. My most impressive experience is above all my debut on a world conference stage. What about you?

2000/10/06(16:55.20),2000/10/06(16:58.56),oya,In my case I was surprised by the beauty of Hanauma bay. That was one of the most beautiful places I have seen in my life. I will never forget the place. I am sure I will go there again and again. And the presentation also was a good experience. I could have done better but now I think that's my best.

....

As an experiment, the pair tries not to overlap their responses. So we cannot find overlapping in the experiment. However, implementing this function into other chat programs, we will be able to investigate the overlapping in more detail.

Along with investigating overlapping, we can estimate the length of each sentence and

how long it will take by using this system.

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Error Coding and Error Analysis in Essay Writing

**Michiko Nakano, Rie Hosomura, Kazuharu Owada, Akane Watanabe, Tae Yamazaki,
Masanori Oya, and Norifumi Ueda
(Waseda University)**

University students often make common errors when they write essays in English. They also tend to either dismiss the teachers' correction or repeat their errors several times in the following essays. This is true of our students in the College called 'Global Literacy' at Waseda University. In order to enhance their noticing of errors, we devised a coding scheme consisting of 17 items. The purpose of this paper is: 1) to present our error coding scheme in essay writing, and 2) to report to what extent our coding scheme raised students' consciousness of errors.

1. Introduction

Learner errors have been considered as an indispensable device for their learning (Corder, 1967). Under this premise, error analysis has been carried out in the field of ESL in order to identify the causes of learner errors and obtain information on common difficulties in language learning (Richard, 1992). The error analysis on writing, especially on writing through a computer, is still a hot topic. Many researchers have improved systematic models to analyze the errors on the computer. As an example, there is one very detailed categorization of 41 grammatical errors in a software such as "Grammatik 5.0" for Windows.

However, when we focus our attention on the actual practice of teaching, we should not confuse our students with many kinds of error codes. Therefore, we came up with an error coding scheme which consists of indispensable 17 categories.

The purpose of our paper is two-fold. First, we will present our error coding scheme. Then we will examine which categories of errors were prone to occur and how much of them were modified after the corrections based on the coding scheme.

2. The Study

2.1. Subjects

The subjects were 43 freshmen enrolled in the College called 'Global Literacy' at Waseda University. They were required to take task-based English lessons in this

College.

2.2. Method

The students were required to write and send an essay by e-mail after reading an article or listening to a lecture in the class. All in all, there was correspondence between one student and the teacher three times per essay. After receiving the essay which the student sent for the first time, the teacher marked errors in the essay according to the 17 error categories of our coding scheme and then sent it back to the student (first correction). Then the student corrected their errors based on the code and sent back the self-corrected version for the second time. After receiving this, the teacher marked newly produced errors if there were any, and then mailed it back to the student (second correction). Then the student self-corrected their essays again and sent it for the third time. And finally, they received the right answers from the teacher.

2.3. Coding Scheme

The 17 elements of our coding scheme with their marking and typical examples are listed in Table 1. The teachers marked errors in red so as to raise the students' awareness of the errors. We marked several errors using the symbol such as [] without giving any further information.

Table 1. 17 error types with their typical examples and codes

1	incomprehensible	[deemed to difficult have] [ich language but also other thing, that is, a way] [the language is English now]	
2	Incoherent	[English, they won't be able to learn high technology]	
3	Missing	speak ^ each other not to ^ taught properly	(speak to each other) (not to be taught properly)
4	not necessary (marked as DEL)	<u>in</u> all over the world understand <u>with</u> each other	(all aver the world) (understand each other)
5	need to be revised	[some of the latest textbooks are dropping.] [But the writer is afraid that it worsens Japanese education by the decline in the level of students.]	(The quality of some of the latest textbooks dropping.) (But the author is afraid that the use of textbook might lower the level of students.)
6	wrong word choice (W)	French is proud of <u>French</u> culture	(French is proud of their culture)

7	wrong agreement (AGR)	she <u>suggest</u> these changes Japanese and Korean <u>is</u>	(she suggests these changes) (Japanese and Korean are)
8	wrong comparative (COM)	<u>more good</u>	(better)
9	wrong determiner (DET)	<u>a</u> English devise it was <u>a</u> first incident	(an English devise) (it was the first incident)
10	wrong form (F)	it <u>be</u> disappeared it was happen	(it is disappeared) (it has happened)
11	wrong number (NUM)	other <u>language</u> apples, <u>peach</u> and so on	(other languages) (apples, peaches, and so on)
12	wrong part of speech	it is <u>naturally</u> for <u>Singapore</u> teacher	(it is natural for) (Singaporean teacher)
13	wrong punctuation	For example ^ Ms ^ Hosomura	(For example,) (Ms. Hosomura)
14	wrong sentence order (ORD) <u>First of all</u> ,	(First of all,,)
15	wrong spelling (SPL)	<u>coman</u> <u>tecnology</u>	(common) (technology)
16	wrong tense (T)	Now, it <u>was</u>	(Now, it is)
17	wrong word order	[the things most unbearable]	(the most unbearable things)

2.4. Data

The data were taken from eight kinds of essays. The titles were: "My Image of Korea", "Japanese Pop Culture in Asia", "English Imperialism", "The Future of English", "English as an Official Language", "The Necessity of English Education", "The Dumping Down of Japanese Education", and "The History Textbook Issue". The first six essays were written after lectures held by guest professors. The rest were written based on the reading of the articles with the help of the teaching assistants in the College. Each essay was supposed to contain both a brief summary of the lecture (or the article) and a student's own opinion.

3. Data Analysis

3.1. Overall Error Frequency

Based on our coding scheme, the students made correct modifications in 850 out of 1,166 cases after the first correction, as in Figure 1. This indicates that about 73% of initial errors were corrected. However, it is reasonable to assume that one-time correction was not sufficient since 205 cases of errors (which accounted for about 18%

of initial errors) were further corrected after the second correction. It should be noted that the number of errors after the first and second corrections included newly made errors that the students made on the process of revising their essays.

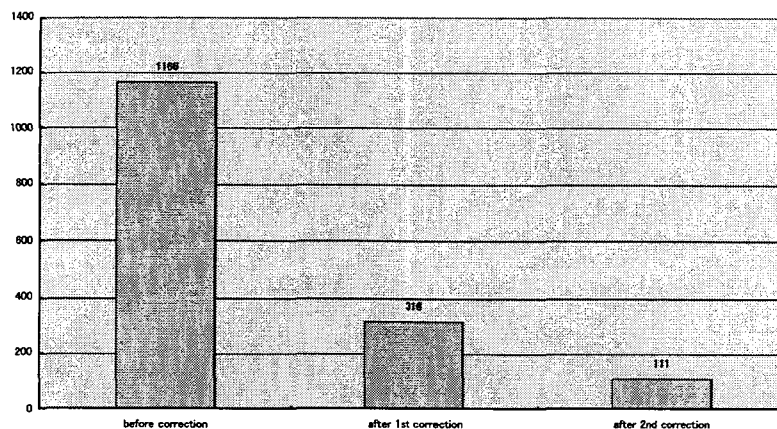


Figure 1. The number of errors at three stages

3.2. Frequency in Each Error Type

The number of errors in each error type at three stages is shown in Figure 2 (See also Appendix 1). We can see that among the 17 types, the most frequently occurred error was 'wrong word choice' (Type 6), followed by 'missing' (Type 3) and 'wrong spelling' (Type 15). This finding may be attributable to the fact that the students made careless errors frequently in typing their essays on the computer. Furthermore, we can also observe a dramatic decrease in frequency in the majority of the error types after the first correction. It indicates that our method was fairly successful in raising students' awareness of most of the error types.

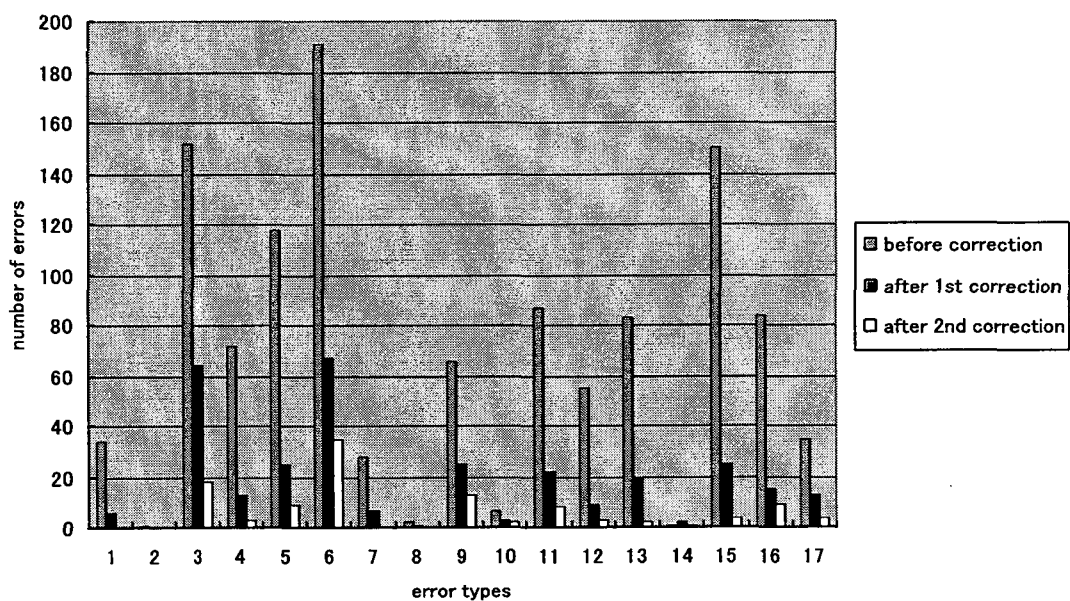


Figure 2. The number of errors in each error type at three stages

3.3. Successful Correction Rate

Figure 3 shows the percentage of successful error correction after the second correction. Although we are aware that turning the frequency into percentage may distort the whole picture because of varying degrees of frequency in error types, we still believe that we can discern some tendency in terms of percentage of successful correction. As Figure 3 indicates, some error types are not as successfully corrected as others. Leaving aside the ‘wrong sentence order’ (type 14), which produced only one instance of error before the correction, the students had some difficulty with correcting the errors of ‘wrong form’ (Type 10), which were successfully corrected only 71%.

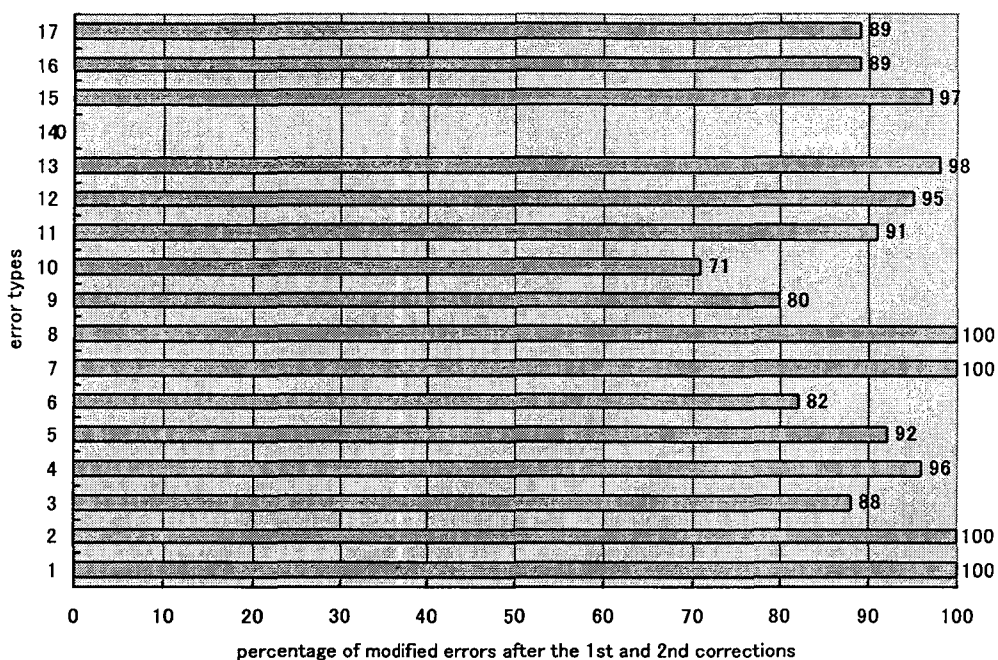


Figure 3. Percentage of errors corrected in each error type after the two corrections

4. Discussion

We have observed that our coding scheme was successful in decreasing the number of overall errors. This indicates that our method raised students' awareness of errors and lead to the correct modification in most of the cases despite the fact that the rate of error correction varied among the types

However, there are two issues that need to be addressed in further research. First, in order to compute the exact frequency at each stage, we should have distinguished three types of errors: 1) errors which remain untouched, 2) errors which remain in the same category after the students' effort to modify them, and 3) errors which are self-corrected and turned into ones of a different type. Second, although we were able to classify unsure cases in errors through discussion, our 17 categories need to be improved so that overlapping of error types might not occur in future research.

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Appendix 1. The number of errors at three stages accompanied with the percentage of remaining errors

	Before correction	After 1 st correction	After 2 nd correction
1. Incomprehensible	34	6 (18%)	0(0%)
2. Incoherent	1	0(0%)	0(0%)
3. Missing	152	64(42%)	18(12%)
4. Not necessary	72	13(18%)	3(4%)
5. Need to be revised	118	25(21%)	9(8%)
6. Wrong word choice	191	67(35%)	35(18%)
7. Wrong agreement	28	7(25%)	0(0%)
8. Wrong comparative	2	1(50%)	0(0%)
9. Wrong determiner	66	25(38%)	13(20%)
10. Wrong form	7	3(43%)	2(29%)
11. Wrong number	87	22(25%)	8(9%)
12. Wrong part of speech	55	9(16%)	3(5%)
13. Wrong punctuation	83	19(23%)	2(2%)
14. Wrong sentence order	1	2(200%)	1(100%)
15. Wrong spelling	150	25(17%)	4(3%)
16. Wrong tense	84	15(18%)	9(11%)
17. Wrong word order	35	13(37%)	4(11%)

Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake in English Speaking Tasks: A Case Study in the Japanese University Context

**Michiko Nakano, Rie Hosomura, Kazuharu Owada, and Akane Watanabe
(Waseda University)**

This paper is a replication study of Lyster and Ranta (1997) which deals with corrective feedback and learners' responses to feedback, i.e., uptake. They presented six different feedback types: recast, elicitation, clarification requests, meta-linguistic feedback, explicit correction and repetition. They also proposed five types of learner uptake: repetition, incorporation, self-repair, peer-repair (these four are categorized as repair) and needs-repair. The purpose of this paper is to compare our classes where one teacher tutors a small group of about four students with large French immersion classes in Lyster and Ranta (1997). According to their model, eight lessons for Japanese EFL learners were transcribed and analyzed.

1. Introduction

The purpose of this replication study is to 1) show what kind of feedback types Japanese EFL teachers prefer to use, and 2) to find out about the rate of student repair in response to the teacher recast, by comparing our Japanese EFL classes where one teacher tutors a small group of about four students with large French immersion classes in Lyster and Ranta (1997).

There has been a lot of research on teachers' error corrections and learners' reactions to them in language classrooms for more than two decades. For example, Chaudron (1988) introduced a model which involved teachers' corrections of errors and students' modifications of them. Doughty (1994) also presented her codification of feedback. Lyster and Ranta (1997) developed a more elaborate model of the error treatment sequence which consists of learner error, teacher feedback and learner uptake (or lack thereof), as in Figure 1. They applied this model to the analysis of 18.3 hours of teacher-student interaction taken from 14 subject-matter lessons and 13 French language arts lessons. In these lessons one teacher taught a class of 24 to 30 students in Grades 4, 5, and 6.

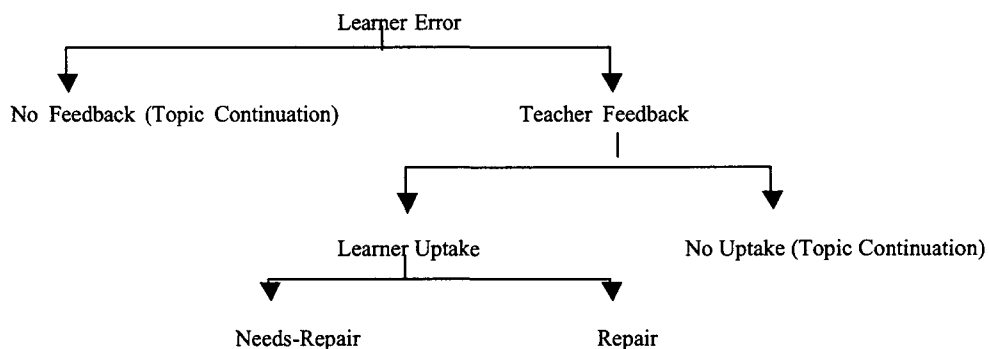


Figure 1. The gist of error treatment sequence (p. 44)

2. Lyster and Ranta (1997)'s model

2.1. Error

Errors are classified as either phonological, lexical, or grammatical.

2.2. Feedback

Feedback is categorized into six types: recast, explicit correction, clarification requests, meta-linguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. Some examples in their classes and our classes at Waseda University are shown below with the definition of each feedback type.

1. Recast: the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus error (e.g., "You mean," "You should say").

(1) St: Because he wants just him to be warm

T: Oh. Someone who wants to have the heat just for himself. [FB-recast] (p. 64)

(2) St: Just here . . . here . . .

T: In front of the house. [FB-recast]

St: Yap. Here is my friend. (our data)

2. Elicitation: there are three ways of eliciting the correct form from the students: 1) letting the students to "fill in the blank" (e.g., No, not that. it's a . . .), 2) asking the students questions (e.g., How do you say X in French?), and 3) asking the students to reformulate their utterances.

(3) St: The dog can runs.

T: The dog can runs? The dog can . . . [FB-elicitation] (p. 64)

(4) St: I bought two shoes.

T: Could you remember? Two . . . [FB-elicitation]

St: Two pairs of shoes? (our data)

3. Clarification requests: the request urging the students to make a repetition or a reformulation because their utterance has been misunderstood or is ill-formed (e.g., “Pardon me,” “What do you mean by X?”).

(5) St: Can, can I made a card on the . . . for my little brother on the computer?

T: Pardon? [FB-clarification] (p. 64)

(6)St: Japanese should more . . .

T: Japanese should more . . . What? [FB- clarification requests]

St: Luxury.

T: Sorry, I don't understand what you said. [FB- clarification requests] (our data)

4. Meta-linguistic feedback: either comments, information, or questions related to the ill-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form (e.g., “Can you find your error?” “It's masculine,” “Is it feminine?”).

(7)St: Uhm, the, the elephant. The elephant growls.

T: Do we say *the* elephant? [FB-meta-linguistic feedback] (p.64)

(8) St: I and my father take a seat and look at the menu. My father and I order some meat and some beer.

T: Sorry, please use the past tense. [FB- meta-linguistic feedback]

St: Sorry. I and my father looked at the menu and we selected some meat and we ate . . . (our data)

5. Explicit correction: the explicit provision of the correct form.

(9) St: Call the meteorologist.

T: No. Try again. Me-te-o-ro-lo-gist. [FB-explicit correction] (p. 64)

(10)St: My mother go to depart.

T: Again? [FB- explicit correction] (our data)

6. Repetition: the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance.

(11) St: . . . hum . . . can you send back a letter of re . . . a letter of return.

T: A letter of return? [FB-repetition]

St: Yes. (p. 65)

(12) St: I want to buy more bigger one.

T: Bigger one? [FB-repetition]

St: Yap. (our data)

2.3. Uptake

The concept of uptake is defined as “a student’s utterance that immediately follows the teacher’s feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher’s intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student” (p. 49). This student uptake is classified into two: repair (i.e., uptake that repairs an error), and needs-repair (i.e., uptake that still needs repair). The former includes four types: repetition, incorporation, self-repair, and peer-repair; the latter includes acknowledgment, same error, different error, off target.

2.4. Findings

Several findings which are relevant to our study are as follows:

1. There were 3,268 student turns. Of these, student turns with errors or needs-repair were 1,104. Of these, 686 received feedback. Out of these 686 cases of teacher feedback, there were 377 cases of student uptake. Of these 377, 184 were counted as repair.

Table 1. Frequency of turns with student error, teacher feedback, and student uptake (p. 52)

Total student turns	Student turns with error / needs-repair (% of total student turns)	Teacher turns with feedback (% of total errors)	Student turns with uptake (% of feedback)	Student turns with repair (% of feedback)	Student turns with repair (% of total errors)
3268 (100%)	1104 (34%)	686(62%)	377(55%)	184(27%)	184(17%)

2. Recast was the most preferred feedback type among the six types

Table 2. Distribution of feedback types (p. 53)

Recast	Elicitation	Clarification request	Metalinguistic feedback	Explicit correction	Repetition
375(55%)	94(14%)	73(11%)	58(8%)	50(7%)	36(5%)

3. Among the six feedback types, recast lead to the least percentage of uptake (31%). This indicates that the students did not seem to pay enough attention to recasts.

Table 3. Uptake following teacher feedback (p. 54)

Recast (n=375)	Elicitation (n=94)	Clarification request (n=73)	Metalinguistic feedback (n=58)	Explicit correction (n=50)	Repetition (n=36)
115(31%)	94(100%)	64(88%)	50(86%)	25(50%)	28(78%)

3. The Study

3.1. Subjects

The subjects were 43 freshmen enrolled in the Global Literacy College at Waseda

University. Each class in this College consisted of 21 or 22 students from different departments. A teacher or a teaching assistant was assigned to a small group of about 4 students in every lesson.

3.2. Method

Four lessons involving picture description tasks as well as discussions on articles from *Time* and *Newsweek* magazines were recorded. By and large, we followed the method of Lyster and Ranta (1997) in transcribing teachers' corrective feedback to students' errors. However, in this study we considered only the feedback that involved student uptake.

We added two types of feedback to their model: summarizing and gesture because these types were deemed necessary for the analysis of our student data.

Summarizing: the teacher reformulates the student's utterance by way of summarizing, often accompanied by the falling intonation

S: Two pairs of suits, one dress. Uh . . . I am satisfied.

T: O.K. You were very much satisfied with the shopping. [FB-summarizing]

(No uptake was given.)

Gesture: any gesture to indicate that something is incorrect.

S: It is very good thing for . . .

T: (point backward with the thumb meaning "past") [FB-gesture]

S: It was very good thing for his birthday present.

3.3. Data Analysis

We classified the feedback that lead to student uptake into six types and compared this data with that of Lyster and Ranta (1997) in order to find out how feedback types are distributed. It should be noted again that we are focusing our attention on the feedback that lead to uptake, excluding the feedback that did not lead to uptake (i.e., the feedback that lead to topic continuation).

The breakdown of feedback types in both groups is shown in Figure 2. Recast was the most frequent in Waseda classes as well. However, there is one big difference between the two in terms of percentage of distribution. That is, recast amounted to 71% of the feedback in Waseda classes, compared with only 31% in French immersion classes. This indicates that Japanese EFL teachers have a tendency to use recasts more frequently than French immersion class teachers.

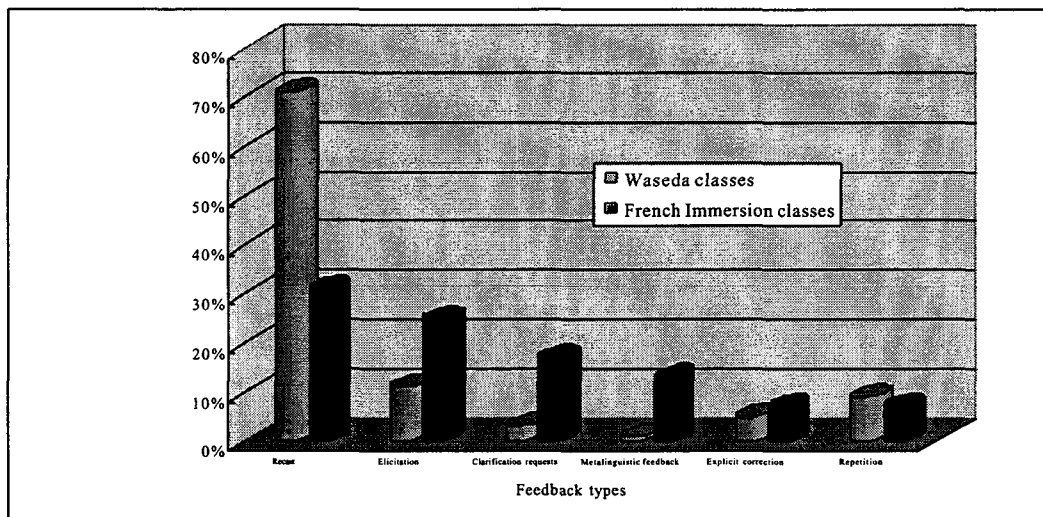


Figure 2. Percentage of each feedback type that lead to uptake in both groups

Next, we would like to look into the rate of repairs the students made in response to feedback between the two groups. Frequency of feedback types that lead to uptake in both groups is presented in Table 2. As for recasts, although the students made more repairs than needs-repairs in both groups, the students in Waseda classes were able to make more repairs than French immersion classes in terms of percentage (86% vs. 57%).

Table 4. Frequency of feedback types that lead to uptake in both groups

	Waseda University classes			French immersion classes(Grade 4 - 6)		
	Needs- repair	Repair	Total number of uptake	Needs- repair	Repair	Total number of uptake
Recast	24(14%)	149(86%)	173	49(43%)	66(57%)	115
Elicitation	10(36%)	18(64%)	28	51(54%)	43(46%)	94
Clarification request	7(87%)	1(13%)	8	44(69%)	20(31%)	64
Meta-linguistic feedback	1(33%)	2(67%)	3	24(48%)	26(52%)	50
Explicit correction	1(9%)	10(91%)	11	7(28%)	18(72%)	25
Repetition	10(48%)	11(52%)	21	17(61%)	11(39%)	28
Summarizing	None	None	None			
Gesture	0(0%)	2(100%)	2			

4. Conclusion

Several findings can be drawn from this study. First, we added our two original feedback types, i.e., summarizing and gesture, to the model of Lyster and Ranta (1997) out of necessity. Secondly, we have shown that although recast that lead to uptake

occurred most frequently in the two groups, our teachers used recasts more frequently than the French immersion teachers (71% for Waseda and 31% for French immersion classes). And thirdly, the students in Waseda classes were able to make more repairs in response to recasts than those in French immersion classes (86% vs. 57%).

5. Discussion

There are several issues that need to be addressed in further research. First, we need to transcribe all the teacher feedbacks in order to examine their distribution as a whole. Secondly, it would be interesting to see if there is any difference in preference for feedback types among teachers. And thirdly, we also need to see if there is any difference in the distribution of feedback types among various tasks. With these things in mind, we hope we can look more closely into both teacher feedback and learner uptake in speaking tasks.

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An Experimental Study on Requestive Strategies: How Do Japanese Learners Request in Japanese and in English?

Tae Yamazaki

(A Graduate Student, Waseda University)

This paper is intended as an investigation of requestive strategies used by 104 Japanese EFL learners. The research in this study consists of the two kinds of data sets: the data obtained through Situation Assessment Questionnaire and the data of Discourse Completion Test. The result shows that the Japanese EFL learners have a certain sensitivity to situational information, such as social status of interlocutors, familiarity of interlocutors, and so on, and at the same time, they can reflect such information on their actual expression in Japanese. Nonetheless, they cannot use requestive strategies relevant to situation in English. Thus, we should help learners bridge gaps between their consciousness of situational information and their actual English expressions when teaching speech act of request in classroom settings.

1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine the requestive strategies in both Japanese (L1) and English (FL), chosen by Japanese learners of English. The motivation for this study was the findings in Nakano et al. (1999). First of all, it is found that Japanese learners had limited variation of requestive expressions. They used only 5 strategies in the discourse completion test (hereafter DCT), i.e. *can you...*, *will you...*, *I want....*, *may I...*, and imperative + *please*. Among them, they were likely to use imperatives + *please* excessively. In addition, the subjects pay little attention to the degree of politeness in their English written discourse.

The present study attempts to inquire the factors causing these tendencies by examining the results of the Situation Assessment Questionnaire and the DCT data.

2 Background

The analysis of this study is carried out by partly using the data in House (1989), which is conducted as a part of the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP). It discusses the use of the marker *please* and its German equivalent *bitte*.

The DCT of the present study is also based on the one used in CCSARP.

3 Research Questions

This study presents the following three questions:

- 1) Is the Japanese learners' awareness of situational information reflected in their choice of *please*?
- 2) What kinds of requestive strategies do the Japanese learners use in the English written discourse?
- 3) What kinds of requestive strategies do the Japanese learners use in the Japanese written discourse?

4 Method

4.1 Subjects

The subjects were 104 Japanese learners of English as a foreign language. They had experience of learning English for more than 5 years in classroom settings in Japan

4.2 Procedure

4.2.1 Data Collection

I collected the two kinds of data sets. One is collected by using Situation Assessment Questionnaire; the other is collected by DCT.

In the Situation Assessment Questionnaire, the subjects were given eight situations, which appear in the next subsection, and asked to assess on the situational features below:

- the role relationships between the two participants (Dominance / Familiarity)
- the right of the requester to make the request (Right)
- the degree of obligation placed on the requestee to comply with the request (Obligation)
- the likelihood that the request would, in fact, be complied with (Compliance)
- the degree of difficulty involved in making the request (Difficulty)

The subjects weighed each situation on the five-scale basis.

Turning to the DCT data, the subjects were given eight situations, which aimed to elicit request expressions, and asked to provide their responses in English and in Japanese.

Situation 1: A student asks her roommate to clean up the kitchen the latter had left in a mess the night before.

Situation 2: A young woman wants to get rid of a man pestering her on the street.

Situation 3: A student asks another student to lend her some lecture notes.

Situation 4: A student asks people living on the same street for a ride home.

Situation 5: An applicant calls for information on a job advertised in a paper.

Situation 6: A policeman asks a driver to move her car.

Situation 7: A student asks a teacher for an extension on a seminar paper.

Situation 8: A high school teacher/ a college professor asks a student to give his lecture week earlier than scheduled.

4.2.2 Coding

The DCT data in this study was coded in order to be compared with the three different populations: British native speakers of English, German native speakers, and German EFL learners.

Concerning the English data, I followed the coding scheme presented in Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). In this study, I focused on the following 3 strategies:

- 1) Imperatives (e.g., *Leave me alone; Clean up this room*)
- 2) Query Preparatory: utterances containing reference to preparatory conditions as conventionalized in any specific language (e.g., *Could you clean up the room?*)
- 3) Hints (e.g., *You have left the kitchen in a right mess.*) On the other hand, the DCT data in Japanese were classified based on the theory Koizumi (1990) and Ide (1982) advanced. The four requestive strategies below were considered in this study.

- 1) Imperatives (e.g., *Souji site yo. [Clean up the room.]*)
- 2) Interrogatives (e.g., *Souji site kuremasuka. [Will you clean up the room?]*)
- 3) Negative Interrogatives (e.g., *Souji site kuremasenka. [Won't you clean up the room?]*)
- 4) Hints (e.g., *Kono heya kitanai yo. [This room is messy.]*)

5 Results and Discussion

5.1 Research Question 1

Table 1 shows the results of Situation Assessment Questionnaire. According to the results of Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Tests for the results in Table 1 and ones shown in House (1989), there are relationships between the judgments by the Japanese

learners (n=69) and by the German learners (n=40) with regard to Familiarity, Right and Difficulty (Table 2). In other words, the two populations have some features in common. Thus, the Japanese learners do not show a unique feature in this assessment.

I also administered Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Tests for the results in Table 1 and the frequency of occurrence of *please*, and obtained Table 3. Table 3 tells that the Japanese EFL learners show a weaker relationship between the situational information and the occurrence of *please* than the German EFL learners do. To sum up, the Japanese learners' awareness of situational information may not be reflected in the choice of marker, *please*.

Table 1 The average values in Situation Assessment Questionnaire by the Japanese EFL learners

Situation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Social Parameters								
Dominance	1.17	2.07	1.23	2.58	2.72	2.8	2.91	2.77
Familiarity	2.61	1	2.9	2.29	1.04	1.03	1.94	1.81
Right	2.68	2.78	2.17	1.28	2.74	2.9	1.41	1.93
Obligation	2.78	2.61	1.87	1.43	2.78	2.93	1.41	2.01
Compliance	2.45	1.49	2.67	2.09	2.78	2.86	1.32	2.29
Difficulty	1.65	2.49	1.57	2.45	1.59	1.28	2.72	1.97

Table 2 The results of Spearman Rank-order Correlation Test (*rho*): the German and the Japanese

Dominance	Familiarity	Right	Obligation	Compliance	Difficulty
-0.26ns	0.88**	0.69+	0.44ns	0.45ns	0.76*

+p<.10 *p<.05 **p<.01

Table3

	Dominance	Familiarity	Right	Obligation	Compliance	Difficulty
German	0.54ns	0.25ns	0.75*	0.77*	0.27ns	-0.54ns
Japanese	-0.48ns	0.98**	-0.55ns	-0.37ns	0.05ns	-0.14ns

*p<.05 **p<.01

5.2 Research Question 2

Figure 1 demonstrates the frequency of occurrence of *please/ bitte* for the four populations: 100 German EFL learners, 100 German native speakers, 100 British native speakers, and 100 Japanese EFL learners. The Japanese learners overuse *please* in the most situations (Situations 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8).

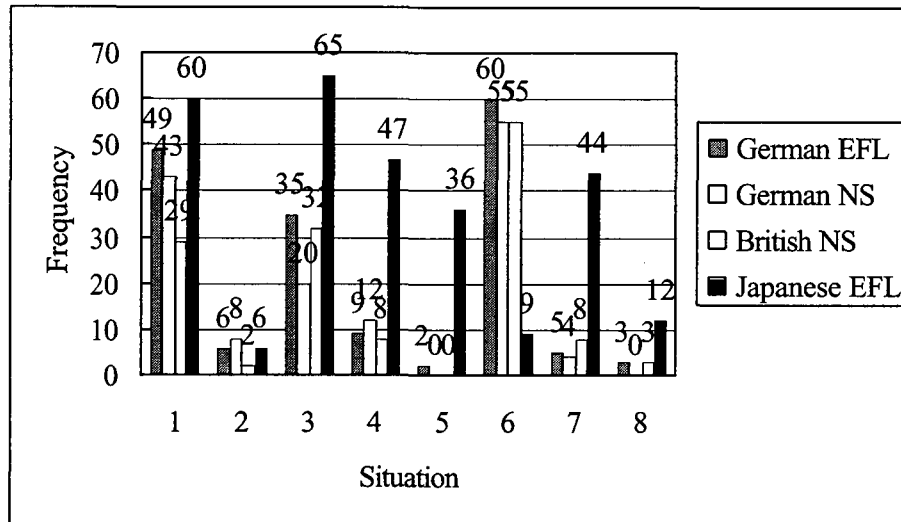


Figure 1 The frequency of occurrence of *please/ bitte*

Table 4 shows the frequency distribution of *please/bitte* by situations and 3 kinds of requestive strategies. The Japanese learners overuse imperatives in almost all the situations (Situations 1,3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8).

In the Japanese learner data, the frequency of imperative + *please* strategy is extremely high in the situations 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, and 8.

The Japanese learners overuse query-preparatory + *please* strategy in the situations 5 and 7. According to House (1989), the effect of the addition of *please* to the query-preparatory strategy is -polite, +direct in more face-threatening situations. The Japanese learners should know that *please* is not always a politeness marker.

Table 4 The frequency distribution of *please/bitte*

Situation	1			2			3		
Request Strategy	I	Q	H	I	Q	H	I	Q	H
German EFL									
Requests	9	53	5	32	4	54		88	-
<i>Please.</i> (%)	100%	75%	-	12%	50%	-	-	39%	-
German NS									
Requests	21	71	3	35	1	59		99	1
<i>Please.</i> (%)	52%	45%	-	20%	100%	-	-	20%	-
British NS									
Requests	9	76	2	46	8	21	1	99	-
<i>Please.</i> (%)	33%	34%	-	-	25%	-	-	32%	-
Japanese EFL									
Requests	71	7	9	61	0	16	61	31	1
<i>Please.</i> (%)	80%	14%	-	10%	-	-	98%	10%	-

Situation	4			5			6		
Request Strategy	I	Q	H	I	Q	H	I	Q	H
German EFL									
Requests	-	80	4	-	26	40	27	46	4
<i>Please.</i> (%)	-	11%	-	-	7%	-	85%	80%	-
German NS									
Requests	-	93	2	-	20	75	61	27	6
<i>Please.</i> (%)	-	12%	-	-	-	-	70%	44%	-
British NS									
Requests	-	85	6	-	17	51	4	90	1
<i>Please.</i> (%)	-	9%	-	-	-	-	50%	58%	-
Japanese EFL									
Requests	42	26	1	33	11	1	64	2	16
<i>Please.</i> (%)	95%	8%	-	91%	18%	-	14%	-	-

Situation	7			8		
Request Strategy	I	Q	H	I	Q	H
German EFL						
Requests	1	48	45	-	69	-
<i>Please. (%)</i>	100%	8%	-	-	4%	-
German NS						
Requests	-	50	48	2	81	3
<i>Please. (%)</i>	-	8%	-	-	-	-
British NS						
Requests	-	56	32	-	92	5
<i>Please. (%)</i>	-	14%	-	-	3%	
Japanese EFL						
Requests	33	12	5	8	7	7
<i>Please. (%)</i>	97%	17%	-	75%	-	-

5.3 Research question 3

Table 5 shows the frequency distribution of the 4 request strategies in Japanese. The Japanese learners use various strategies in their DCT data in Japanese.

The learners choose negative interrogative form most frequently in the situations 4, 5 and 7, which are more face-threatening than the others. According to Koizumi (1990), this strategy is preferred in making polite requests. Thus, the learners pay attention to the situational information, and add politeness to the expressions successfully.

Table 5 The frequency distribution of the 4 request strategies in Japanese

Situation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Strategy								
Imperative	45	40	32	18	11	55	17	5
Interrogative	5	0	43	26	17	2	11	34
Negative Interrogative	17	2	24	49	21	2	58	15
Hint	13	52	1	1	7	43	3	1

6 Conclusion

The results of the Situational Assessment Questionnaire and the DCT in Japanese indicate that the Japanese learners can recognize similarity and difference of each situation, and the recognition is embodied in their written discourse in Japanese. However, they seem to pay little attention to situational information when responding in English. Therefore, it is essential to raise learners' consciousness of the relationship between English request expressions and situational information.

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Image Schemas and Second Language Learning: A Case Study

Norifumi Ueda
Waseda University

Abstract

In this research, we conduct three experiments to examine how image schemas will give effects on understanding polysemous word meanings by use of Image Schemas. In Experiment 1, we examined how acceptability would change by image schemas. In Experiment 2, we examined how the subjects would get effects from image schemas in understanding polysemous words. In Experiment 3, we examined how the subjects would get effects from image schemas in translating polysemous words. From the results, we find that image schemas can give some effects in understanding polysemous word meaning.

1. Image schema

1.1. Characteristics of image schemas

According to Lakoff (1987), and Johnson (1987), image schemas are defined as follows:

Image schemas:

(1) Are not specific images but are abstract in another sense of that word.

(2) Represent schematic patterns arising from imagistic domains that recur in a variety of embodied domains and structure our bodily experience.

(Lakoff 1987, Johnson 1987)

1.2. Image Schema of *go* and *come*

In this study, we use deictic and polysemous verbs, *come* and *go*. We use two image schemas for each verb.

The image schemas for *go* can be defined as follows:

<Image Schemas of *go*>

(1) Someone/something moves from some domain into other, where focus is on the motion that trajector goes out of landmark.

(2) Someone/something moves from some domain into other, where focus is on the process that trajector goes out of landmark.

And in this definition of *go*, Trajector and Landmark are used in the following way:

Trajector: Someone/something which moves from some domain to other

Landmark is the domain from which someone/something moves

Image schema of go (1)

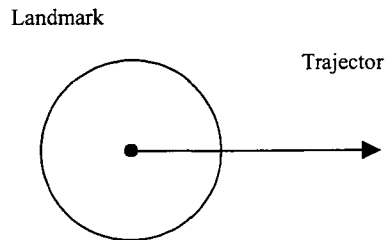
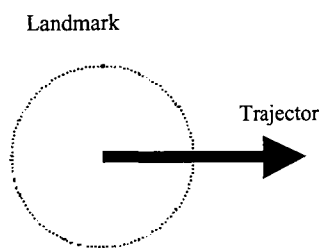


Image schema of go (2)



Next, we define image schemas of *come* as follows:

<Image Schemas of come >

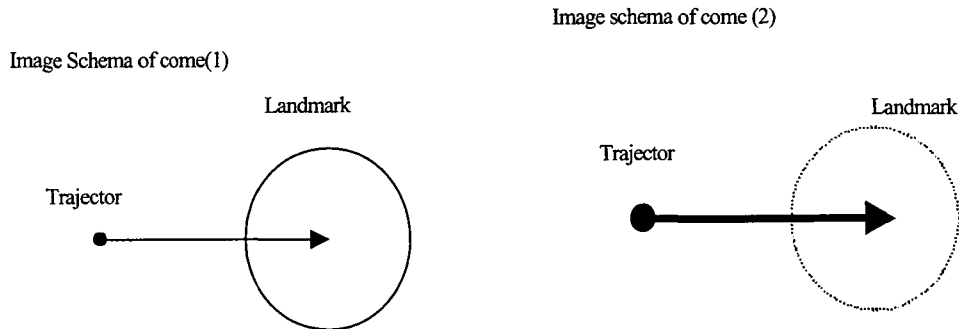
(1) Someone/something moves from some domain into other, where focus is on the motion that trajector come into landmark.

(2) Someone/something moves from some domain to other, where focus is on the process that trajector come into landmark.

And in this definition of *go*, Trajector and Landmark are used in the following way:

Trajector: Someone/something which moves from some domain to other.

Landmark is the domain from which someone/something moves.



2. Experiment

In this study, we conducted three experiments. In these three experiments, 25 first year university students participated as the subjects (Ss). Ss took two tests: pretest and posttest. And in all the experiments, the same materials were used: 10 sentences with different meanings of *come* and 18 sentences with different meanings of *go*. (See the Appendix.)

2.1. Experiment 1.

2.2.1. Aim.

The aim of Experiment 1 is To know (1) which sentences of *come* and *go* Subjects (Ss) are not familiar with, and also (2) whether Image schemas will give effects on judging the acceptability of the sentences of *come* and *go* by the Ss.

2.1.2. Method.

We conducted two tests: Pretest and Posttest. In Pretest, the Ss were asked to judge acceptability of each sentences of *come* and *go* by 7-point scaling: 1 means the least acceptable, and 7, the most acceptable. Three weeks later we conducted Posttest. In Posttest, the Ss were shown image schemas of *come* and *go*, and then asked to judge acceptability of each sentences of *come* and *go* by 7-point scaling.

2.1.3. Result.

From the result of Pretest and Posttest, we examine whether image schemas will give any effects to the Ss or not. For this purpose, we conduct t-value test by use of the results. Each result can be seen in Table1 and Table2. In the case of *go*, we can find the significant differences in the results of S 3, S 10, and S 15 ($p < .005$). (See Table2.) In the case of *come*, on the other hand, we cannot find any significant differences in the result. (See Table 1).

Table1: The results of come in Experiment 1.

		S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10
Pretest	Average	3.40	3.96	4.84	4.76	3.32	4.32	4.12	5.36	4.52	5.28
	S.D.	1.71	1.77	2.08	1.98	1.84	1.97	1.92	1.78	1.58	1.93
Posttest	Average	3.558	4.376	4.072	3.257	4.281	3.667	4.964	4.097	4.622	2.40
	S.D.	1.72	2.25	2.04	1.84	1.87	1.57	1.86	1.83	1.85	2.37

Table2: The results of go in Experiment 1.

		S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9
Pretest	Average	3.72	4.16	4.40	4.20	4.76	5.04	4.28	3.92	4.00
	S.D.	1.86	1.68	1.46	1.74	1.60	1.70	1.87	1.60	1.66
Posttest	Average	3.92	3.72	3.42	4.28	4.36	4.60	4.36	4.00	3.71
	S.D.	1.35	1.40	1.38	1.95	1.80	1.47	1.85	1.71	1.60
T-value		-0.44	1.19	*2.63	-0.20	1.11	1.29	-0.16	-0.22	0.00

S10	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	S16	S17	S18
5.16	4.24	4.88	4.60	4.20	4.17	4.80	3.96	5.76
1.79	1.56	1.92	1.65	1.63	2.06	1.49	1.42	1.92
4.36	4.24	4.08	4.20	4.04	3.16	4.52	4.08	5.84
1.73	1.36	2.16	1.94	1.30	1.49	1.26	1.53	1.99
*2.11	0.00	1.60	0.81	0.25	*2.33	0.72	-0.31	-0.13

2.2. Experiment 2.

2.2.1. Aim

The aim of Experiment 2 is to know whether Image schemas will give effects on mental lexicon of the Ss in understanding the sentences of *come* and *go*.

2.2.2. Method.

We conducted two tests: Pretest and Posttest. In Pretest, the Ss were asked to judge the similarity of each two sentences of *come* and *go* by 7-point scaling; 1 means 'identical' and 7, the least similar. In Posttest, Ss were shown image schemas of *come* and *go*, and then asked to judge the similarity of each two sentences of *come* and *go* by 7-point scaling.

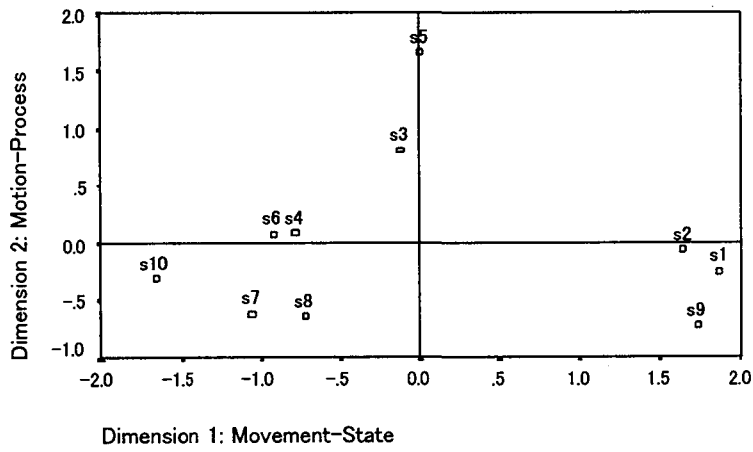
2.2.3. Result.

First, each result is examined by multidimensional scaling. Configuration 1 and Configuration 2 show the output of Posttest and Pretest of *come*, respectively. And Configuration 3 and Configuration 4 show the output of Posttest and Pretest of *go*, respectively. As can be seen in configurations, some plots representing each sentences change their position. Then, to examine how each configuration got effects, correlations were tested by Spearman's rank correlation test. The results are shown in Table 3. In both cases of *come* and *go*, dimension 1 has high

correlation rate. On the other hand, we can also say that each dimension 2 in the case of *come* and *go* has low correlation rate. This means that image schemas gave effects on dimension 2, not on dimension 1.

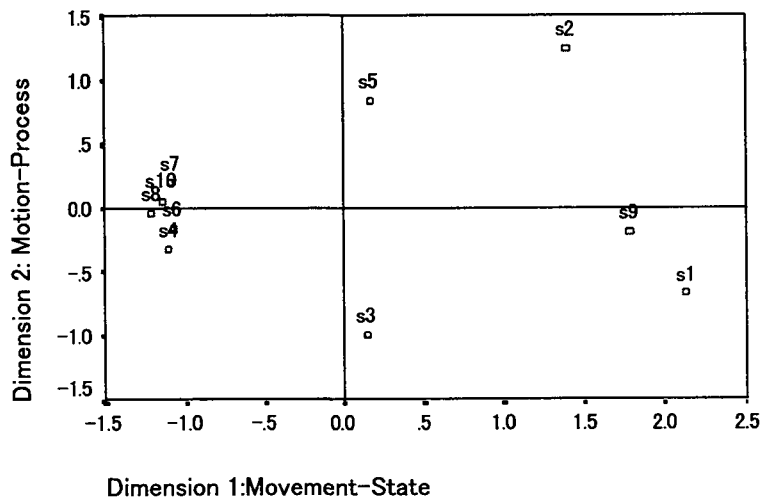
Configuration 1

The result of MDS of Come in Pretest



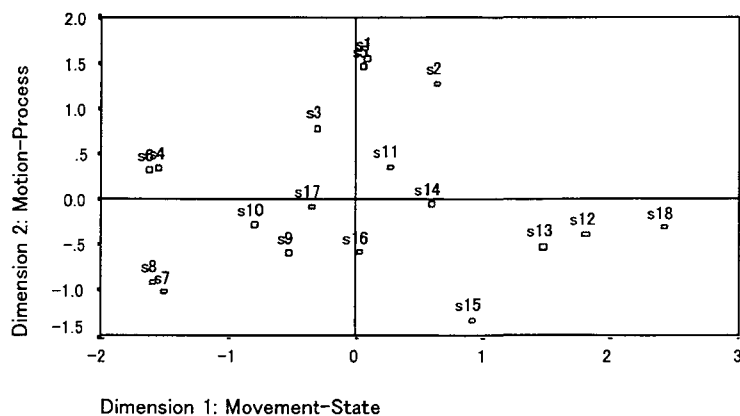
Configuration 2

The result of MDS of come in Posttest



Configuration 3:

The result of MDS of go in Pretest



Configuration 4:

The result of MDS of go in Posttest

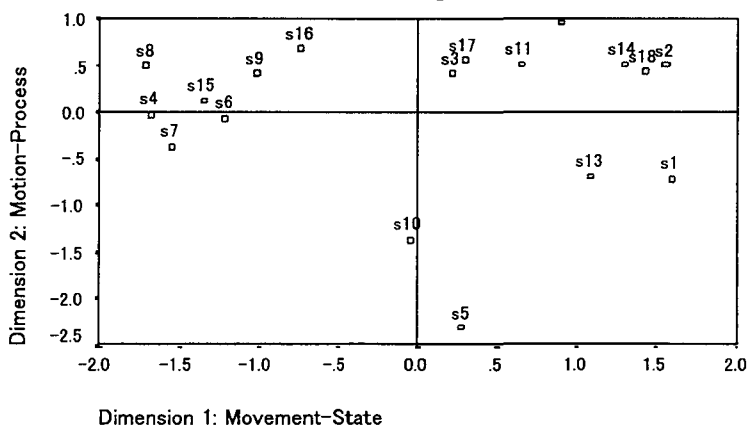


Table 3: The Results of Spearman's Rank Correlation coefficient.

Come
Dimension 1: * $\rho = 0.66$ ($p < .001$)
Dimension 2: $\rho = 0.177$
Go
Dimension 1: * $\rho = 0.607$ ($p < .001$)
Dimension 2: $\rho = 0.137$

2.3. Experiment 3.

2.3.1. Aim.

The aim of Experiment 3 is to know whether image schemas will give effects on the Ss in the translations of the sentences of *come* and *go*. From the results of Experiment 1 and Experiment 2, we only focus on S 3, S4, S6, S7, S8,S9, and S15 in the case of *come*; and

2.3.2. Method

We conducted two experiments: posttest was done three weeks after pretest. In Pretest, the Ss were asked to translate the sentences of *come* and *go* into Japanese. In Posttest, the Ss were shown image schemas of *come* and *go*, and then asked to translate the same sentences into Japanese.

2.3.3. Result.

We focus on the results of SIn both cases, the variation of the translations the Ss made gets fewer after presentation of image schemas. (The result can be seen in Appendix 2.) And also, we can find that the translations tend to become more similar to the meanings of image schemas. But statistically we cannot say there are significant differences in the results between pretest and posttest.

3. Conclusion

From these three experiments, we can say the following things:

- (1) Image schemas gave effects on mental lexicon of the Ss.
- (2) Image schemas gave a little effect on translating of *come* and *go*.

Here we can say that that image schemas can play a great important role in understanding polysemous word. And also there is some possibility that image schemas can be applied to language teaching situation.

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Appendix 1: sentences of *come* and *go*.

S1. Houses like that don't come cheap.

- S2. Cats come in many shapes and sizes.
- S3. The summer came to an end.
- S4. My family always comes first.
- S5. I've come for my book.
- S6. Help has come at last.
- S7. When is Anton coming for you?
- S8. How do you come to be so late?
- S9. The new law came into effect next month.
- S10. Nearly half the students come from abroad.

- S1. The old sofa will have to go.
- S2. A lot of credit must go to the chairman and his father.
- S3. This dictionary goes on the top shelf.
- S4. I bought some mugs because they were going cheap.
- S5. No one may leave the classroom until the bell goes.
- S6. Most of my money goes on bills.
- S7. The milk went sour.
- S8. I think you're going crazy.
- S9. This all goes to prove my theory.
- S10. Has your headache gone yet?
- S11. The roots of this plant go to deep.
- S12. Where does this road go?
- S13. Is your watch going?
- S14. His sight is beginning to go.
- S15. Only ten days to go to Christmas.
- S16. The story goes like this.
- S17. The gun went bang.
- S18. We went to Rome.

Appendix2:

The Results of Translation of *come*

iku(go)	2	1	utteiru(be selling)	1	1	iku(go)	1	ireru(put into)	2	1	iru(be)	1		
iru(be)	1		uru(sell)	3		kaeru(make change)	1	kuru(come)	1		shiteiru(be doing)	1	1	
itiranu(to out)	3	1	kau(buy)	1	2	kawaru(change)	1	3	kusaru(go bad)	2	1	shiyoutasuru(try to do)	1	
shiharau(to pay)	1		totemo(very)	1		shiharau(pay)	1	3	suru(do)		2	da(be)	1	
oku(put)	2	4	naruru(become)	14	14	tukau(use)	2		shinnkousuru(go)	1		totemo(very)	1	
toshousaru(recommend)	1		motteiku(take)	1		tugikomu(invest)	1		naruru(become)	12	16	naruru(become)	15	17
tuduku(lead to)	1		yatteiku(get along)	1		toushisuru(invest)	1		ajigasuru(taste)	1	1	no answer	3	
naruru(become)	1	5	no answer	2		naruru(become)	9	7	nomu(drink)	1		?	1	
hiku(consult)	1		suru(fo)		1	tassuru(reach)	1		no answer	4		kaeru(make change)	1	
hiraku(open)	1		tenihairu(get)		1	mukau(go)		1	kaeru(make change)		4	koudou(behave)	1	
yakunitatu(useful)	1	2	hiteiteiku(go into)		3	hiteiteiku(go into)	1					motomoto(originally)	1	
deru(come out)		2				harau(pay)	1							
mukau(go to)		1				motteiru(have)	1							
No answer	4	2				no answer	2							
						azukeru(deposit)		1						
						ugaiteru(be moving)		1						
						tuiyasu(spend)		1						
						tudukeru(continue)		1						
						deteiku(go out)		1						
						naoru(change)		1						
						ryougae(exchange)		1						

The Results of Translation of go.

S3			S4			S6			S7			S8			S9			S10			S15		
aru(be)	2	1	iku(go)	1		aru(be)	2	3	aru(be)	1		aru(be)	2	3	aru(be)	1	1	aru(be)	1	3	aru(be)	2	
iku(go)	2	1	utteiru(be selling)	1	1	kaeru(make change)	1		ireru(put into)	2	1	iru(be)	1		iku(go)	4	1	iku(go)	1	1	iku(go)	6	
iru(be)	1		uru(sell)	3		kawaru(change)	1		kuru(come)	1		shiteiru(be doing)	1	1	saranu(be done)	1		itai(want to be)	1	1	kuru(come)	2	
itiranu(to out)	3	1	kau(buy)	1	2	kawaru(change)	1	3	kusaru(go bad)	2	1	shiyoutasuru(try to do)	1		shimesu(show)	1		tuduku(continue)	1	2	sugiru(pass)	4	
shiharau(to pay)	1		totemo(very)	1		shiharau(pay)	1	3	suru(do)		2	da(be)		1	susumu(go)	1		suru(go away)	1		naruru(become)	4	
oku(put)	2	4	naruru(become)	14	14	tukau(use)	2		shinnkousuru(go)	1		totemo(very)	1		suru(do)	5	2	tuduku(continue)	3		made(up to)	3	
toshousaru(recommend)	1		motteiku(take)	1		tugikomu(invest)	1		naruru(become)	12	16	naruru(become)	15	17	naruyuki(progress)	1		tenireru(get)	1		no answer	4	
tuduku(lead to)	1		yatteiku(get along)	1		toushisuru(invest)	1		ajigasuru(taste)	1	1	no answer	3		naruru(become)	4	9	naruru(get pass)	10	10	mukaeru(see)		
naruru(become)	1	5	no answer	2		naruru(become)	9	7	nomu(drink)	1		?		1	No answer	7	3	medeki(not yet)	1	1	susumu(advance)		
hiku(consult)	1		suru(fo)		1	tassuru(reach)	1		no answer	4		kaeru(make change)			hataraku(work)			naruru(be)	1	3	azurubaki(advance)		
hiraku(open)	1		tenihairu(get)		1	mukau(go)		1	kaeru(make change)		4	koudou(behave)		1	mukau(go)		1	medeki(not yet)	1		tanoshimu(enjoy)		
yakunitatu(useful)	1	2	hiteiteiku(go into)		3	hiteiteiku(go into)	1					motomoto(originally)		1	yakunitatu(useful)		1	no answer	3		de (in)		
deru(come out)		2				harau(pay)	1								yasashikau(day's rate)		1				desu(be)		
mukau(go to)		1				motteiru(have)	1								tudukeru(continue)		1					2	
No answer	4	2				no answer	2								desu(be)		1						
						azukeru(deposit)		1							koudousuru(do)		2						
						ugaiteru(be moving)		1							houyousuru(announce)		1						
						tuiyasu(spend)		1															
						tudukeru(continue)		1															
						deteiku(go out)		1															
						naoru(change)		1															
						ryougae(exchange)		1															
						watasu(give)		1															

Negotiation of Form, Recasts, and Explicit Correction in relation to Error Types and Learner Repairs

Nakano, Michiko, Koichi Ano, Kanji Horiguchi, Eiichiro Tsutsui and Masanori Oya

(Waseda University)

This paper examines the relationships among error types, feedback types, and learner repairs among Japanese university students. We have adopted Lyster (1998)'s coding schemes that dealt with French immersion pupils in the elementary school. He classified errors into grammatical, lexical or phonological ones and indicated that while lexical errors are likely to lead to the 'negotiation of form', grammatical or phonological errors invite 'recasts'.

First, we will find out whether these tendencies are observed among adult Japanese EFL learners. Secondly, we will also compare our data with Lyster's data in order to see if there is any difference in learner repairs.

1. Previous Research

1.1. Error treatment sequence

Lyster and Ranta (1997) observed student-teacher interactions in French immersion classrooms in Montreal, and analyzed error treatment sequences. The sequence begins with learner errors. Then the teachers give corrective feedbacks in response to learner errors. And then learners respond to the corrective feedbacks.

Learner responses to the corrective feedback are coded as 'learner uptake.'

If corrective feedbacks and uptakes are not occurred, there is topic continuation.

1.2. Definitions on error, corrective feedback, and learner uptake

1.2.1. Error

Lyster (1998) suggested there are four error types coded as 'grammatical', 'lexical', 'phonological', and 'Unsolicited uses of L1'.

1.2.2 Corrective Feedback

Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified the corrective feedback given by the teachers in response to learner errors into the following six types:

1. Explicit correction: teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect.

(e.g., “You mean ‘saw him’.”)

2. Recast: teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of the student’s utterance.

(e.g., “I saw him yesterday?”)

3. Clarification request: by using phrase like “Pardon?” and “I do not understand” the teacher indicates that the message has not been understood.

4. Metalinguistic clues: teacher provides comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance.

(e.g., “You should say it in the past tense.”)

5. Elicitation: teacher directly elicits a reformulation from students asking questions.

(e.g., “How do we say that in French?”)

6. Repetition: teacher repeats the student’s ill-formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error.

(e.g., “You see him yesterday?”)

Error: “I see him yesterday.”

Unlike Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster (1998) suggested that elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition are grouped into the same group: negotiation of form.

Unlike recasts and explicit correction, negotiation of form leads to higher rates of uptake. In the case of recasts and explicit correction, teachers provide learners with correct forms clearly so learners do not have to correct errors by themselves. In contrast, learners tend to correct errors in response to negotiation of form because learners are not given correct forms.

1.2.3. Learner Uptake

Learner uptake is coded as ‘learner reactions followed by corrective feedbacks.’

It can be classified into two types coded as ‘needs repair’ and ‘repair’. The former is the uptake which still needs repair. The latter is the correct reformulation of errors. If there is needs repair, there is corrective feedback again, or topic continuation. If there is repair, there is topic continuation.

2. The Study

2.1. Subjects

43 first-year students in two EFL classes at Waseda University in Japan. They are from every major faculty.

2.2. Method

We observed and audio recorded EFL classes for about three months and transcribed them. Then we analyzed the data according to the methodology of Lyster (1998).

3. Results

Lyster (1998)'s analysis yielded a total of 558 feedback moves. Of the 558 corrective feedback moves, 186 (33%) led to learner repair. Table 1 shows that 46% of all feedback followed grammatical errors, lexical errors were 24%, phonological 19%, L1 11%. Grammatical is the highest one (Lyster, 1998). On the other hand, in EFL class, largest category is the phonological (Table 2).

Table 1. Number and Percentage of Feedback moves (French Immersion class)

Grammatical	257	46%
Lexical	133	24%
Phonological	104	19%
L1	64	11%

(Lyster, 1998)

Table 2. Number and Percentage of Feedback moves (Japanese class)

Grammatical	53	21%
Lexical	64	26%
Phonological	98	40%
L1	3	1%

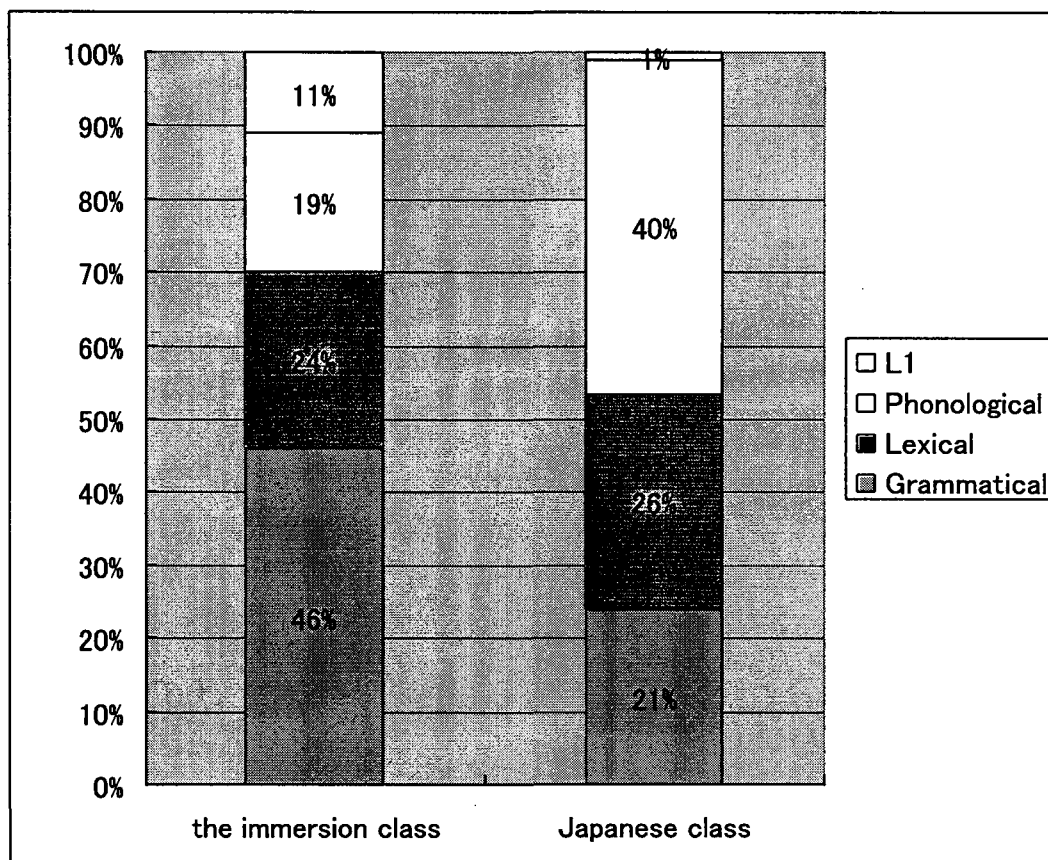


Figure 1. Percentage distribution of feedbacks per error type

Figure 1 shows a comparison of percentage distribution of feedbacks per error type of the immersion class and Japanese class. As the figure indicates, percentage of Japanese EFL class is completely different from that of the immersion class.

Table 3. Distribution of Errors Receiving Feedback (N=558) Across Feedback Types and Error Types (French immersion class)

	Grammatical (n=257)	Lexical (n=133)	Phonological (n=104)	L1 (n=64)
Explicit correction	3(1%)	10(7%)	13(13%)	8(12%)
Recast	185(72%)	50(38%)	67(64%)	32(50%)
Negotiation of form	69(27%)	73(55%)	24(23%)	24(38%)

(Lyster, 1998)

Table 4. Distribution of Errors Receiving Feedback (N=218) Across Feedback Types and Error Types (Japanese class)

	Grammatical (n=53)	Lexical (n=64)	Phonological (n=98)	L1 (n=3)
Explicit correction	4(8%)	4(6%)	0	0
Recast	28(53%)	42(66%)	97(99%)	3(100%)
Negotiation of form	21(39%)	18(28%)	1(1%)	0

Table 3 and 4 shows distribution of errors receiving feedback types and error types of the immersion class and Japanese class. Japanese EFL class is similar to the immersion class in grammatical category. They, however, have difference in lexical category. The majority of feedback moves following lexical errors was negotiation of form in the immersion class; the majority following lexical errors was recasts in Japanese class. In phonological and L1 categories, two have a similarity in the point that the majority of feedback moves were recasts.

Table 5. Percentage of Repairs of Errors with Feedback

	French immersion class	Japanese class
Phonological	62%(64)	97%(95)
Lexical	41%(55)	81%(52)
Grammatical	22%(56)	53%(28)
L1	17%(11)	67%(2)

(Lyster, 1998)

Table 5 shows percentage of repairs per error type. Phonological errors had the highest rate in both. The next highest was Lexical errors. In this point, they were also same. The 186 repairs in the immersion class and the 177 repairs in EFL class were distributed across phonological, grammatical, and lexical errors: 64, 95, 55, 52, 56, and 28. Only 11 and 2 were L1 repairs. Therefore Lyster (1998) suggested excluding these negligible L1 repairs. He also suggested excluding explicit corrections due to their rarity. Table 3 and 4 shows there were only 34 or 8 explicit corrections. Table 6 and 7, Figure 2 and 3 are distribution of errors receiving feedback across feedback types and error types.

Table 6. Distribution of Grammatical, Lexical, and Phonological Repairs Across Two Feedback Types (French immersion class)

	Grammatical repairs	Lexical repairs	Phonological repairs	Total
Recast	19(34%)	8(15%)	39(61%)	66
Negotiation of form	34(61%)	44(80%)	15(23%)	93
Total	53	52	54	159

(Lyster, 1998)

Table 7. Distribution of Grammatical, Lexical, and Phonological Repairs Across Two Feedback Types (Japanese EFL class)

	Grammatical repairs	Lexical repairs	Phonological repairs	Total
Recast	14(50%)	37(71%)	95(100%)	146
Negotiation of form	11(39%)	11(22%)	0	22
Total	25	48	95	168

In immersion class, the majority of the feedback following grammatical errors involved recasts; the majority of grammatical repairs followed the negotiation of form. The majority of lexical repairs followed the negotiation of form, phonological followed recasts. In contrast, in EFL class, the majority of all repairs followed recasts.

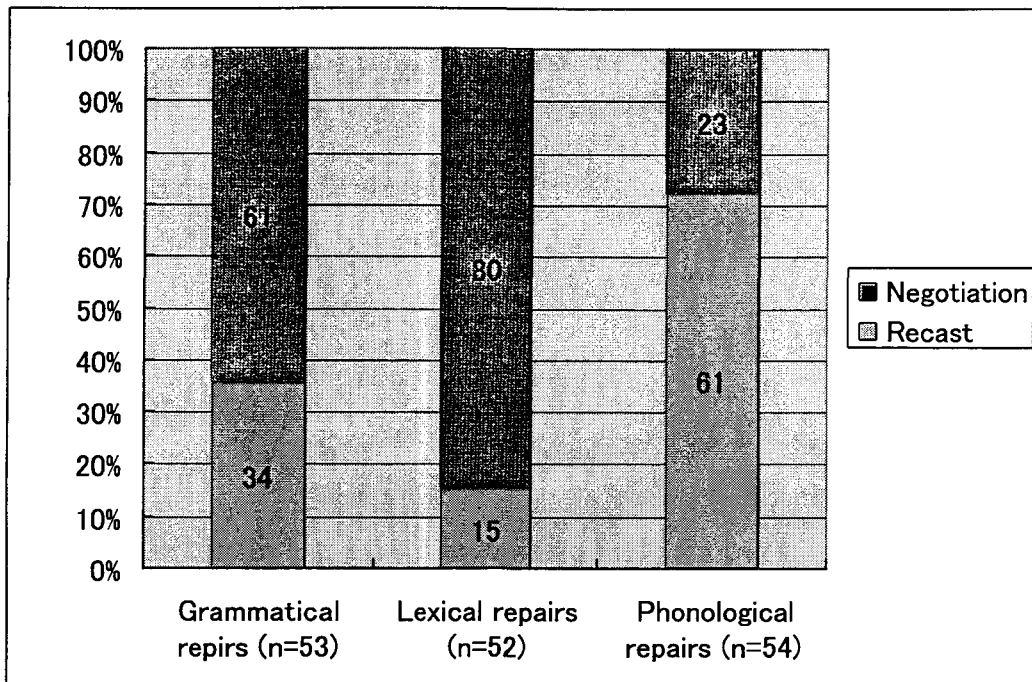


Figure 2. Percentage Distribution of Grammatical, Lexical, and Phonological Repairs Across Two Feedback Types (French immersion class) (Lyster, 1998)

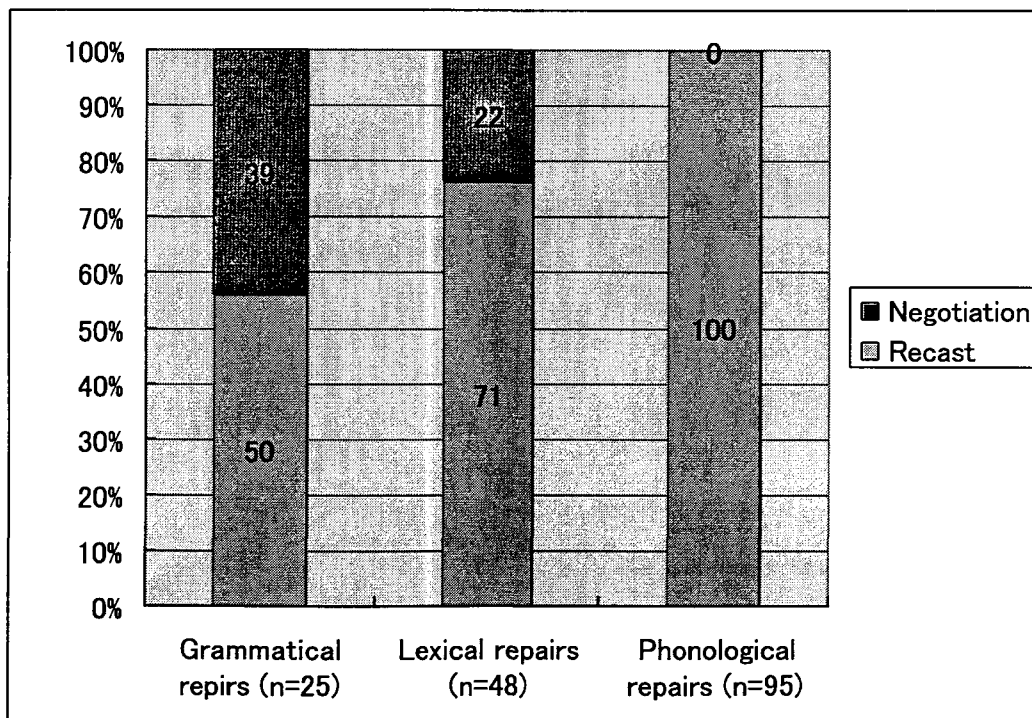


Figure 3. Percentage Distribution of Grammatical, Lexical, and Phonological Repairs Across Two Feedback Types (Japanese EFL class)

4. Conclusion

These findings can be drawn from this study.

First, the students of French immersion class tended to make grammatical errors, whereas Japanese EFL learners tended to make phonological errors. We can recognize from these results that Japanese EFL learners have poor pronunciation. One reason is their education method. In Japan, English has been taught not for communication but for the entrance examination. English language class at school is often focused on reading, writing, and grammar rather than on speaking and listening. Teachers are also not good at speaking, so the English language conversation lesson is not valued.

Secondly, the EFL teachers tended to use recasts more often than other types of corrective feedback. The reason for that is that they know recasts are the effective way to repair phonological errors from their experience and they have got used to using recasts.

Thirdly, recasts are the most effective corrective feedback type to any errors for Japanese EFL learners; whereas negotiation of form resulted in the lowest rate of repair contrary to the case of the French immersion class. Since Japanese EFL learners did not only get used to speaking English, they could repair grammatical and lexical errors following recasts.

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Can We Really Teach English As a Global Language?

Yoji TANABE, Professor of Linguistics and TEFL Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan

Abstract

How different is English as a global language from English we teach every day? What kind of changes do we have to make, so that we can guide our students to learning an appropriate English as a global language? Today, teachers of English are confronted with impending questions such as follows: (1) what type of English should we teach our students in terms of English as a global language? (2) Is English as a global language good enough to be accepted as “good English”? My presentation will include those questions among others, and I hope it will stir up discussions on the topic of English as a global language.

I. Has English as a global language (EGL) established?

Professor Guy Cook, University of Reading UK, gave a notion of English as a global language (EGL) in his presentation on “Teaching and Learning English as a Global Language” at the plenary symposium of the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET) held in Sapporo, Hokkaido, in September 2001. The following is from its proceedings.

This contribution argues that the continuing growth of English in size and distribution, with a concomitant qualitative leap in the expertise and distinctiveness of many of its non-native speakers, means that its teaching and learning must now be approached quite differently from that of other languages.

- (1) Narrow criteria of conformity to native models must be abandoned, and replaced with new ones of expertise and effectiveness in international communication.
- (2) Standards of evaluation are needed which cut across the traditional native/non-native division.
- (3) Many millions of people use English on a daily basis as an additional language, and many of them use it more effectively, articulately, and expressively than many native speakers.
- (4) In addition, their bilingualism, or multilingualism, gives them a communicative edge over monolingual English speakers.
- (5) These people should no longer be excluded as ‘foreign’ or second’ language speakers of English, but rather held up as the best models for the contemporary learner. (The parenthesized numbers added by the writer)

Professor Cook mentions that the item (1) narrow criteria of conformity to native models must be abandoned. Then, what kind of criteria should we have as broad criteria? Are broad criteria good enough to make EGL excellent?

The item (2) refers to standards of evaluation, i.e., the standard to evaluate overall English language throughout the world. What kind of standard should we establish then? Can we really make standards to cut across native/non-native division? Professor Cook says the people who use English on a daily basis as an additional language use it more effectively, articulately, and expressively than many native speakers.

Professor Cook may be right, when he said the item (3). Indeed, some people can communicate with people in English very effectively, articulately, and expressively. However, native speakers will say, “Your English is good, but your English is only a tool for communication, but our English is more than a tool, i.e., it’s our heart. Our English is innate. Sorry but you can’t feel it.” Probably you can say the same for your Korean or Japanese. Your Korean is something more than a communication tool.

To say the item (4), Professor Cook mentions that bilingual or multilingual English speakers are challenging native-speaking English speakers. It is certainly true that the number of speakers of English as a second or foreign language supersede that of native speakers of English. As far as the number of speakers, native speakers of English is cornered in a wrong place.

Finally with the item (5), Professor Cook gives speakers of English as a second or foreign language as the best models for the contemporary learner. His view is generous indeed, but do you really believe that your English has acquired the same status that Professor Cook explained? Actually Professor Cook was talking about English as a second or foreign language, but is it really applicable to EGL, as he used for his presentation title, “Teaching and Learning English as a Global Language”? If we use broad criteria of conformity to native models, as Professor Cook suggested, what kind of model should we established for EGL? This is a very interesting but difficult question to answer, because we don’t know anything about EGL yet.

We are teaching English as a foreign language, but can we really teach EGL? What is the difference between English as a second or foreign language and EGL? Furthermore, what is the difference between English as an international language and EGL? It may be a good idea if we start questioning what EGL is.

II. English as an international language, Standard English, and EGL

David Graddol quotes Gus Hooke’s comments (1) (made in 1996 when he was Director of Tertiary Studies at the Australian Academy, Sydney) in his *The future of English?* (1997:28) as follows :

“For those who don’t like change, best either to be born before 1800 or hang on to about 2050. For those who love change, the ideal time to be alive is 1995 to 2010.”

This is of course one of the native speakers view. This means that we are right in the critical stage of its development, where English is changing into a real global language, and the state of English is in a sense very unstable. The point is that EGL has not been established. Everybody talks about EGL, but actually nobody knows about it. Actually everybody is guessing its form to appear in the future by trying to gather up all the features and images foreseeable to make the ideal form of English for the world.

Graddol discusses the gravity shift of the world population of English (1997:10), where the population of L1

speakers of English and that of L2 are coming closer to the same number, i.e., 375 million. (Note. 1: In 1985 Kachru indicated the world population of English by his three concentric circles of English, where the Inner circle (L1) had 320-380 million, the Outer circle (L2) 150-300, and the Expanding circle (L3) 100-1000.) This suggests that the global language will be definitely English (2), as David Crystal says in *his English as a Global Language*.

A global lingua franca will become in reality, although it takes a little more time to be developed into a genuine one.

As Professor Crystal clearly said EGL is a global lingua franca, and it **will** become in reality, although it takes a little more time to be developed into a genuine one. It hasn't been established yet.

What about the situation of English as an international language (EIL)? The term EIL first of all reminds me of P. Trudgill and J. Hannah's book (3). This model is actually very close to the model which Professor Randolph Quirk suggested in his excellent grammar book published in 1985. He must have referred to the Trudgill and Hannah book published three years before. (4) Their standard is the national standard of English, and the models are British English, American English, Scots English, Irish English, Canadian English, south African English, Australian English, New Zealand English, and finally adds Caribbean English to them. The point is that this national standard, namely, the International English is not EGL at all. EGL should be a kind of international English, but the international English is not EGL, since the term "International English" has been established as Trudgill referred to.

Professor Kachru's idea is not really the same as EGL. As you all know professor Kachru created his concentric circles of L1, L2, and L3 speakers of English. He clearly made distinction among all the speakers of English into three different categories. He claims the independence of L2 and L3 from L1 (5). He says as follows:

One can easily demonstrate that the linguistic and contextual reasons for declaring independence from Mother English (British English) are identical for American English, Australian English and Canadian English, and also for the well-established non-native varieties such as Indian English or Singaporean English.

And then, he adds,

Generalizations from an American or British standpoint are dangerous, and to a large degree irrelevant. The uses have to be perceived from the consumer's vantage point, not that of the native speaker's linguistically secure perch.

The concept Professor Kachru holds in mind is not a human-made, artificial global language but a real living language. He claims the independence of L2 and L3 from L1, since those different varieties have exactly the same value for communication.

Professor Yano modified Kachru's concentric model, and called the Inner circle "generic English as a native language," the Outer circle "functional English as a native language" and the Expanding circle "English as a foreign language." He strongly claims the communicative function of the language is vital, and called the English as a second

language “functional native speakers (6).”

I should add another model which modified the Kachru model. It is a model structured by Dr. Ho Wa Kam, a Singaporean linguist. He drew up the Concentric Circles of English Users in the Asia-Pacific Region by putting Australia and New Zealand in the Inner Circle. Both South Korea and Japan are still in the Expanding Circle (7).

Getting back to the topic of EGL, those model samples do not seem to work out well in the model of EGL. EGL is some kind of language which does not belong to any specific languages. Is it really possible for such a language to exist as a global language? One important point we have to notice is that all the popular languages are living languages.

All the artificial languages failed to exist. This can be said to artificial languages including Esperanto, Quirk’s Nuclear English, and others.

III EGL and School Education

Here we can raise such questions as follows:

- (1) What does “English as a global language” mean to us?
- (2) How different is “English as a global language” from English we have been teaching to our students every day?
- (3) What kind of English is “good English” for us?

Is EGL good enough for school education? This is one of the vital questions we teachers of English have to ask for ourselves.

What does “global” mean? The new edition of *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* defines as follows: “covering or affecting the whole world.” *The Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture* explains “taking account of or including (almost) all possible considerations. Example: The report takes a global view of the company’s problems.” *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* says exactly the same as the above dictionary. The Random House College Dictionary, one of the American dictionaries says “Global means ‘comprehensive’.” The word “comprehensive” means “of large scope, or inclusive.” All these ideas show the word “global” clearly.

Here I tried to show the comprehensible meaning of “global” by indicating words which stand opposite to “global” to widen our interpretation. You might call them antonyms.

How should we interpret the word “Global” then?

The term GLOBAL is one of the most popular and prevailing terms the Japanese use recently in many diverse respects. It seems that it is interpreted differently depending on the cultures people have developed. In the process of finding synonyms of the adjective “global” I thought we might be able to focus on the hidden meaning of the word and find out the ideas, concepts, or feeling that the Japanese develop with it.

In fact, the concept the Japanese will have with the word is not very appealing. This doesn’t mean that the meaning of “global” is bad. The opposite terms to the synonyms of “global” reveals better impressions to the Japanese mind. It is worth noting these sets of words.

- (1) Global vs. Local
- (2) International vs. National/Identified

- (3) Open vs. Closed
- (4) External/International vs. Internal/Intranational
- (5) General/Universal vs. Specific/Professional/Academic
- (6) Holistic vs. Analytic
- (7) Common vs. Special
- (8) Practical vs. Sophisticated/Artistic
- (9) (Uneducated) vs. Educated

Let me try to interpret “global” through its synonyms.

(1) GLOBAL vs. LOCAL

The term GLOBAL is used in contrast with LOCAL, where a geographical image is clearly expressed. As professor Yano of Waseda University indicated in his “World Englishes in 2000 and beyond”, Professor Okushima, Former President of Waseda University, coined the word “glocal” to mean “having openness and internationality and at the same time having local self-identity as well.” This is actually a very unique concept that we urge general public including our students to grasp, because we think GLOBALISM is not good enough to make our world perfect as well as complete. We also need LOCALISM. We need both expansion and integration.

(2) INTERNATIONAL vs. NATIONAL/IDENTIFIED

The word “International” can be a synonym for “Global”. This set of terms, or International and National, was used by Professor Randolph Quirk, when he classified the English language of the world by his “National Standards” (8). This is also a set of terminology that Professor David Crystal used to explain “Standard English”, and it leads to another similar set of terms “internationalism vs. identity”. It goes as follows:

“Internationalism implies intelligibility. In short, internationalism demands an agreed standard – in grammar, vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, and conventions of use”. Whereas, identity implies individuality. In short, in the context of English, identity demands linguistic distinctiveness – in grammar, vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, or conventions of language use.”

This is what Professor Crystal said about internationalism (9).

(3) OPEN vs. CLOSED

The term OPEN can be synonymous with the term GLOBAL. The term “internationalism” certainly implied factual openness of English, while “identity” implies pinning English down somewhere specific. Professor Suzuki Takao used to argue the closedness of Japanese in contrast with the openness of English in his book (10).

“I feel somewhere in my mind that The Japanese might intrinsically appreciate the artistic sense of closedness in their culture rather than openness.

That’s probably one of the reasons why it is hard for us to be open and frank in public. It may be hard for them to be GLOBAL, too.

(4) EXTERNAL//INTERNATIONAL vs. INTERNAL//INTRANATIONAL

The term EXTERNAL or INTERNATIONAL can be a synonym for GLOBAL. Professor Kachru used the set of terms “external” and “internal” when he mentioned the statement resulted at the Honolulu conference in 1981 as follows (1):

“This distinction recognizes that, while the teaching of English should reflect in all cases the sociocultural contexts and the educational policies of the countries concerned, there is a need to distinguish between (a) those countries (e.g. Japan) whose requirements focus upon international comprehensibility and (b) those countries (e.g. India) which in addition must take account of English as it is used for their own intranational purposes.”

(5) GENERAL/UNIVERSAL vs. SPECIFIC/PROFESSIONAL/ACADEMIC

The term GENERAL or UNIVERSAL can be a synonym for GLOBAL in contrast with specificity. This reminds us of the set: General Purpose English(GPE) and English for Specific Purposes(ESP). This set gives us a similar idea about wideness and narrowness of a concept. Tony Dudley-Evans explains GPE as follows (1):

“GEP has grown considerably and the British Council and the American Information Services both run very successful institutes in many countries of the world,” while ESP “aims to teach specific language and skills related to different activities in academic or business life.”

It seems to me the Japanese world of management appreciates anything specific and concrete highly, and disdain anything general as is interpreted as something rough, because anything rough can be done very easily by anybody. You have to be specific. They might not appreciate something GLOBAL either.

(6) HOLISTIC vs. ANALYTIC

The term HOLISTIC can be a synonym for GLOBAL, when it is used by Professor Rebecca Oxford in the methodology of teaching, and the theory of strategies for teachers and learners in particular. She explained as follows (1):

“Global style prefers big ideas, fewer details, and does not need accuracy, can guess or predict easily. Analytic style likes detailed information, precision, accuracy, and does not like to guess unless fairly sure of being correct.” This pair of words may lead to a set of concepts such as abstract vs. concrete, emic vs. etic, or langue vs. parole, etc.

So far the concept of the terminology GLOBAL has been examined from several different points of view with reference to the ideas given by some noted researchers, and it seems the scholars and researchers I cited have clear ideas about GLOBAL and nothing emotional has existed there. However, people in different cultures might take the meaning of it slight differently.

(7) COMMON vs. SPECIAL

The Term COMMON can be synonymous with GLOBAL. When cultural value is added to the terminology, however, a certain negative or unfavorable connotation happens to be included in it, and consequently it influences the people’s manner toward using foreign languages. As English is a very common language that everybody knows in Japan, the Japanese think that it should be spoken and written very well, especially when it is used in public. For

them the English language that they use in public should not be a common English. It is never just a tool. Instead, it has to be a special and selected English. It has to be an excellent English with great fluency. In other words, you have to be brave enough to use English when you speak English (as I am doing now), because everybody is assessing my English. Your English has to be artistically excellent when it is displayed in public. Native speakers' English is supposed to be perfect as a good model, and you have to be like them if you want to be artistically really good. Believe it or not, speaking English in public is observed as an artistic performance like piano or violin performances, artistic masterpieces at art exhibitions, elegant actions in tea ceremonies and flower arrangements, etc. The learners of English believe they have to acquire excellent skills to make their performance of English esthetically exquisite. This concept, right or wrong, leads to the idea that general, holistic, and common English will never provide learners with skills good enough to make their English impressive. In other words, in their assessment, a "global" English will never accomplish their aim to learn a "good" English. Therefore, they think they have to study some special, educated, sophisticated English so that they can learn English good enough to be praised. It is kind of pity, but I feel rather strongly that, as far as 'learning of English' is concerned, the general public in our country does not assess GLOBALISM very highly.

I believe this explains the contents of the sets (8) PRACTICAL vs. SOPHISTICATED/ARTISTIC and (9) UNEDUCATED vs. EDUCATED, where to some learners GLOBAL English is a kind of English that very common people learn, and it is not good enough for educated people. It has to be a SOPHISTICATED and ARTISTIC English.

(8) PRACTICAL vs. SOPHISTICATED/ARTISTIC

A global language should be practical and used throughout the world, whereas a sophisticated language has to be learned carefully so that sophistication should be expressed appropriately in the user's speech. A sophisticated language can be a practical language too, but it has to be learned in the conscious manner so that it works at least differently from a truly practical one. An artistic language can be somewhat like a sophisticated language.

(9) UNEDUCATED vs. EDUCATED

Furthermore, they think that English has to be an EDUCATED English, since PRACTICAL English is not sophisticated or artistic/esthetic enough. English has to be learned well enough to show one's education. And this is the kind of English our teachers were trying to teach me. You had to build sentences grammatically using a good size of vocabulary. You had to memorize a lot of examples from British and American literary works and be able to read them without accent. This kind of English was the English I had to learn. People call this type of English very good and educated English.

But, wait! Isn't this a kind of English that Professor Kachru and followers of World Englishes? Isn't this a kind of English that is affected by the idea of linguistic imperialism? Does this mean that we should learn BAD English if we learn EGL?

This is in a sense true. This is the reason why I wanted to suggest that a few sets of contrastive terminologies might give quite different impressions depending on the cultures you live in. We should realize that the term GLOBAL can

mean something inferior. This happens because any term can be woven into various kinds of connotation which mistakenly bothers people with wrong concepts. The term GLOBAL is also destined to be in trouble with connotative interpretations.

As everybody agrees, the term GLOBAL has actually a good and favorable meaning. This is apparently a matter of interpretation. The crucial issue to be pointed out here is that the concept GLOBAL can be interpreted differently depending on the people with different cultures. We have to be careful that some people do not like the outgoing concepts such as being international, open, external, holistic, common, and even practical. They might interpret it as uneducated, too. Remember that many people like the proverb which goes "Silence is golden," where GLOBAL openness suggests stupidity.

It seems to me this extended concept of the term GLOBAL is challenging us. This is the conflict between pragmatism/practicism and esthetics. This is one of the very difficult problems that we have to solve, because the cultural esthetics is THE concept that our people keep deep in their hearts. Consequently, the challenge we have to meet is to find a good EGL that is international, open, external, holistic, common, and practical for all of our people, and teach it.

Here, we have to come back to the original question. Can we really teach EGL? Yes, we can definitely teach EGL, and we have to be confident about it.

(Concluding remarks)

We have to draw up a clear image about what practical/EGL is. And at the same time, we have to tell our people that the practical/FGL is GOOD and SOPHISTICATED enough to communicate with people overseas. And the EGL should actually be General-Purpose English, and it should be taught by the time when people finish their senior high schools. We have to seek for the idea so that we can establish that kind of social/ educational system in this country by cooperating with all the teachers of English in Japan, getting strongly supported by the government, business world, and all the people in general. That kind of English should be our Standard/EGL. And then, university and college students should learn their SPECIFIC, PROFESSIONAL, or ACADEMIC Purposes of English, so that they can discuss all their matters with people overseas for their common interests.

In conclusion, I would like to suggest the following four points that make EGL good English to be taught at school. (1) The EGL has to be international. It has to be intelligible and used by all the people throughout the world. (2) The EGL has to be used by educated people throughout the world. (3) Accent is no problem unless it hinders understanding. Accent is the symbol of identity to be understood worldwide. (4) The EGL must not be strongly identified Pidgin. This kind of English never works as an English as a global Language.

(PAAL 2002, Singapore)

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Communicative Competence and English as an International Language

Yasukata Yano (Waseda University)

Language is used for self-expression, verbal thinking, problem-solving, and creative writing, but it is used essentially for communication. What makes it difficult to grasp the language user's systems of representation for communication with others is the fact that the capability of individuals to interact with others through language is a unique quality and at the same time a universal human quality.

In Yano (1999), I mentioned that successful language use for communication presupposes the development of communicative competence in the users of that language and that the use of language is constrained by the socio-cultural norms of the society where the language is used. The use of English in Britain is influenced by the British socio-cultural norms which underlie individual differences. So are American English, Indian English, Nigerian English, Singaporean English. That holds true in areas where English is used daily either as a native language or as a second language.

In the use of English for international communication, however, what society's or societies' socio-cultural norms should be observed? Should they be the Anglo-American norms because speakers use American or British English as the model? Or would they be the socio-cultural norms of speakers' native societies, which are not conspicuous nevertheless inevitably ooze out? Or is there what might be called pan-human or universal socio-cultural norm(s) overarching individual societies and cultures?

In this paper, I would first review communicative competence briefly, then discuss what English as an International Language (EIL) is, and lastly argue that communicative competence, especially socio-cultural competence, of EIL speakers does not necessarily need to be that of native English speakers.

Communicative Competence

Chomsky (1965) made a distinction between 'grammatical competence' and 'performance.' The former is the linguistic knowledge of the idealized native speaker, an innate biological function of the mind that allows individuals to generate the infinite set of grammatical sentences that constitutes their language, and the latter is the actual use of language in concrete situations.

Hymes (1972) was among the first anthropologists/ethnographers to point out that Chomsky's linguistic competence lacks consideration of the most important linguistic ability of being able to produce and comprehend utterances which are appropriate to the context in which they are made. It is part of that ability to know when to use, "Would you like to start now, sir/ma'am?" and when to use, "Hey, you wanna start now, pal?" The competence that all the adult native speakers of a language possess must include their ability to handle linguistic variation and the various uses of language in the context. It should encompass a much wider range of abilities than homogeneous linguistic competence of the Chomskyan tradition.

Hymes considered Chomsky's monolithic, idealized notion of linguistic competence inadequate and he introduced the broader, more elaborated and extensive concept of communicative competence, which includes both

linguistic competence or implicit and explicit knowledge of the rules of grammar, and contextual or sociolinguistic knowledge of the rules of language use in context. Hymes viewed communicative competence as having the following four types: what is formally possible, what is feasible, what is the social meaning or value of a given utterance, and what actually occurs.

It was Canale and Swain (1980) who defined communicative competence in the context of second language teaching. Their view of communicative competence is: “a synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used in social settings to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined according to the principles of discourse (20).” Accordingly they explained the above-mentioned Hymes’ four types of communicative competence in the following way.

The first type, ‘what is formally possible’ is the interaction of grammatical system of competence. Hence the utterance, “the was cheese green” is not grammatical (4). The second type, ‘what is feasible’ is the psycholinguistic system of competence. The utterance, “the cheese the rat the cat the dog saw chased ate was green” is grammatical but not acceptable in that its multiple center-embedded clause is difficult to comprehend in terms of human information processing. To make it feasible, the utterance must be changed to the right branching structure common in English as in “the dog saw the cat that chased the rat that ate the cheese that was green.” The third type, ‘what is the social meaning or value of a given utterance’ is the socio-cultural system of competence. For example, if one says *good-bye* in greeting someone, it is inappropriate in a particular social context. And the last type, ‘what actually occurs’ is the probabilistic rules of occurrence that something is in fact done, actually performed.

Canale and Swain classify communicative competence into grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, which they soon divided into sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence, and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence means the acquisition of phonological rules, morphological rules, syntactic rules, semantic rules and lexical items. Today it is usually called linguistic competence.

Sociolinguistic competence refers to the learning of pragmatic aspect of various speech acts, namely, the cultural values, norms, and other socio-cultural conventions in social contexts. They are the context and topic of discourse, the participants’ social status, sex, and age, and other factors which influence styles and registers of speech. Since different situations call for different types of expressions as well as different beliefs, views, values, and attitudes, the development of sociolinguistic competence is essential for communicative social action.

Discourse competence is the knowledge of rules regarding the cohesion (grammatical links) and coherence (appropriate combination of communicative functions) of various types of discourse. Canale and Swain emphasize that sociolinguistic rules of use and rules of discourse are crucial in interpreting utterances for social meaning, particularly when the literal meaning of an utterance does not lead to the speaker’s intention easily.

Strategic competence is to do with the knowledge of verbal and nonverbal strategies to compensate for breakdowns such as self-correction and at the same time to enhance the effectiveness of communication such as recognizing discourse structure, activating background knowledge, contextual guessing, and tolerating ambiguity.

English as an International Language

With the globalization of human activities and societies world at large, English has spread to become one of the most widely used languages because of the political, military, scientific and technological, and cultural power that the Anglo-American nations have had. In its globalizing process, it has transformed itself into varieties of 'Englishes' and in fact communication between non-native speakers of English is far greater in frequency, amount, and significance as well as the number of speakers today (Crystal 1997, Graddol 1997). This necessitates models of English and norms of its use being modified or altered in new circumstances. Having pointed out that language is not transmitted without being transformed according to circumstances while a disease spreads from one country to another and wherever it is it is the same disease, Widdowson (1997, 139-140) characterizes EIL:

English as an international language is not distributed as a set of established encoded forms, unchanged into different domains of use, but it is spread as a virtual language....It is not a matter of the actual language being distributed but of the virtual language being spread and in the process being variously actualized. The distribution of the actual language implies adoption and conformity. The spread of virtual language implies adaptation and nonconformity.It spreads, and as it does, it gets adapted as the virtual language gets actualized in diverse ways, becomes subject to local constraints and controls.

Kachru (1985) divided the use of English into three categories: the Inner Circle, where English is spoken as a native (first) language (ENL); the Outer Circle, where it is spoken as a second or additional language (ESL); and the Expanding Circle, where it is used as a foreign language (EFL). Indian English, Nigerian English, Singaporean English and others that are categorized in the Outer Circle are Englishes which are in daily use in government, education and commerce as one of the official languages. They incline to produce their own forms and norms different from those of the Anglo-American conventions in order to express the identity and serve the needs of the respective communities. In the course of time, the forms of English and norms of language use have changed to meet the needs of the communities, which is called as "nativization," "localization," "indigenization," "domestication," and even "colonization."

However, our concern is not the intra-national use of English but the use of English as an international language for global communication, where various forms of Englishes and norms of their use must be considered. If, in such use of English, the communicative competence does not presuppose the model of English of the educated native English speakers and the socio-cultural conventions of the Anglo-American communities, what would the communicative competence of EIL users be like?

The concept of EIL was first proposed by Smith (1976) and, as the use of English for international communication increased, has developed as a research field and gained recognition in English language, English education, and related research fields. In my view (Yano, 2001), EIL has as its characteristics three features—common standards among varieties, mutual intelligibility and de-Anglo-Americanization, that is,

movement away from the Anglo-American norms of linguistic and socio-cultural thought and behavioral patterns toward socio-culturally more neutral and universal interactional norms. I would argue that EIL is comprehensive or pan-human in that it takes in elements of other languages and cultures as it develops. But it should be noted that it is the concept of English as “an” (not “the”) international language. There are other international languages such as Spanish, Arabic, Swahili and so on.

Jenkins (2002, 85) makes a distinction between EFL and EIL. EFL is to use English as a ‘foreigner’ to communicate with native speakers and the purpose of learning EFL is to gain the near-native competence. EIL, on the other hand, is to use English for international communication and the speakers are not ‘foreign’ speakers, but ‘international’ speakers of the language. Their models of English and norms of its use are not necessarily those of British English and culture nor those of American English and culture alone.

In my perspective, EIL consists of a variety of Englishes—English by both native speakers and non-native speakers—in all three Circles. Its use for international communication can be described by bi-directional arrows that go across all the three Circles as in Figure 1, whose thickness indicates the degree of frequency, volume, and functional significance of international communication.

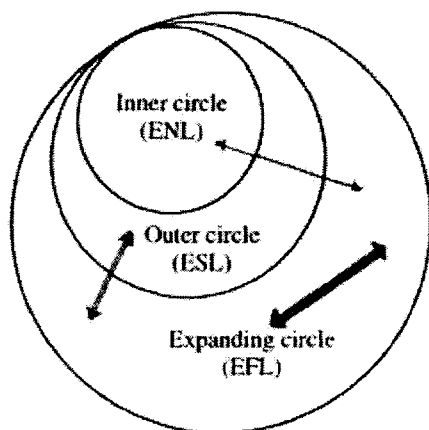


Figure 1

EIL is a means of international interactions of professionals such as diplomats, business people, medical doctors, computer engineers, educators, musicians and artists as well as academics such as scientists, linguists, sociologists, psychologists and so on. EIL’s function is more information-transactional and culturally neutral than communal involving local community identity, shared socio-cultural norms and experiences and so forth which are seen in the domestic use of the language in the Inner and Outer Circles. EIL is used, with specific purposes, for international business negotiations, collaborative researches, academic discussions, and not for everyday life nor for socializing events.

Communicative Competence in the Use of EIL

In Yano (2001), I suggested that the English language for international communication will be simple, plain, and regular in their linguistic forms and structures, and socio-culturally neutral in their interactional strategies. According to Honna (2002), textbooks used at Business Schools for MBA students in the United States suggest the students to use such English, avoiding two-word verbs and difficult structures in doing business with non-native English speakers, its purpose being to get the speaker's meaning across to the interlocutor. This English, I would argue, would accommodate any varieties as far as they are comprehensible to the educated users of any varieties, native or not. It will contribute to create, maintain, and develop the international standards of English in response to the growing demand for a means of international communication.

That the use of EIL is different from everyday social use of English in communities leads logically on to an argument that communicative competence for EIL is not the same as that for communal use of the language in Anglo-American communities or in the Outer Circle communities.

First of all, the communicative competence of the EIL users would presuppose two kinds of knowledge—knowledge of the world in general and knowledge in their fields of specialization—professional or academic that are acquired through education and professional or academic development. They will upgrade EIL users' linguistic, discoursal, sociolinguistic and strategic competencies. EIL users are assumed to have sufficient knowledge of the structure of the language and to have sufficient profession-related vocabulary items; they are expected to have good knowledge of organization of discourse in terms of cohesion and coherence; they should have enough strategic knowledge to enhance communication; and they need to have broad and denominator-like basic commonsense assumptions (universal or pan-human socio-cultural knowledge) which they share with other people. These assumptions are acquired through education and experience, but education and experience of individuals are varied and so is the knowledge. What makes it difficult is the fact that these assumptions are heterogeneous, inconsistent, and even contradictory. Nevertheless we need and do communicate internationally as well as intra-nationally.

Second, the use of EIL among professionals and academics presupposes the users' knowledge of the chosen field of specialization for successful communication. This professional and/or academic knowledge is by nature international and crosses the boundary between native speakers and non-native speakers. As Widdowson (1997, 143) refers to, these communities consist of professionals and academics who have become members through special education and professional development and are different from local ones which we belong to by upbringing and the shared socio-cultural experience of everyday life. Is the term socio-cultural competence appropriate for these specialists? Professional or academic competence, perhaps? These people learn English to use it for specific purposes, not for general purposes nor for mere socialization. While the unfair reality of having native speakers and non-native speakers of English for international communication may be reduced in these global communities of professionals and specialists, it may create the similar distinction of specialists and laymen, thus not helping increase more general intelligibility. However, since the use of EIL makes the extensive use of writing and writing works toward the standardization of grammar, vocabulary, and orthography, EIL would contribute to increase the shared

forms and norms which underlie various Englishes and norms of their use.

Finally, it must be mentioned that 'nearly a quarter of the world's population is already fluent or competent in English, and this figure is steadily growing—in the late 1990s, that means between 1.2 and 1.5 billion people' (Crystal 1997, 45). When a language reaches the state of a global language, it may follow that its speaker's communicative competence becomes too diversified to conform to that of native speakers. What norms of which society and which culture we should follow will no longer be relevant. In the use of EIL, we should not interpret people from the Islamic culture as evasive or indecisive because they say that it all depends on Allah when they are supposed to make a promise. Nor Japanese should be taken uncooperative or unpleasant when they say nothing for a longer period of time. Taking in these non-Anglo-American norms of EIL use is a natural adaptation of English use in the process of its internationalization. As a matter of fact, even in countries such as Britain and the United States, where English is the mother tongue, the socio-cultural norms are not totally shared between them and within each country due to the internationalization of societies.

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Assessing Cultural Learning: A Study of Portfolios

Kenji NAKAYAMA (Waseda University, Japan)

nakaken@waseda.jp

I have been interested in developing a course focused on cultural learning in my teaching context. In this paper, based on the literature review of intercultural competence and portfolios, I would like to come up with a course plan for next year.

Assessment cannot and should not be separate from teaching/learning, but it is the aspect that is given least attention in cultural learning. In this paper, I would like to consider the portfolio assessment, the holistic assessment integrated with classroom instruction.

1. Intercultural competence

There are various approaches to cultural learning. In this section, I would like to consider 'intercultural competence', which has become indispensable within foreign and second language setting. There are also various ways of understanding intercultural competence. I would like to introduce M. Byram's model (1994, 1997, 2000) briefly, because it answers both of the following questions: (1) What knowledge and what attitudes and skills are involved? and (2) How does one assess intercultural competence?

1.1 Intercultural competence

According to Byram (1997, 2000), intercultural competence and linguistic competence are two dimensions of intercultural communicative competence. Byram argues that, for foreign language learners, intercultural competence is composed of the following elements:

- attitudes (curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own)
- knowledge (of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocuter's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction)
- skills of interpreting and relating (ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own)
- skills of discovery and interaction (ability to acquire new knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction)
- critical cultural awareness/political education (an ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit

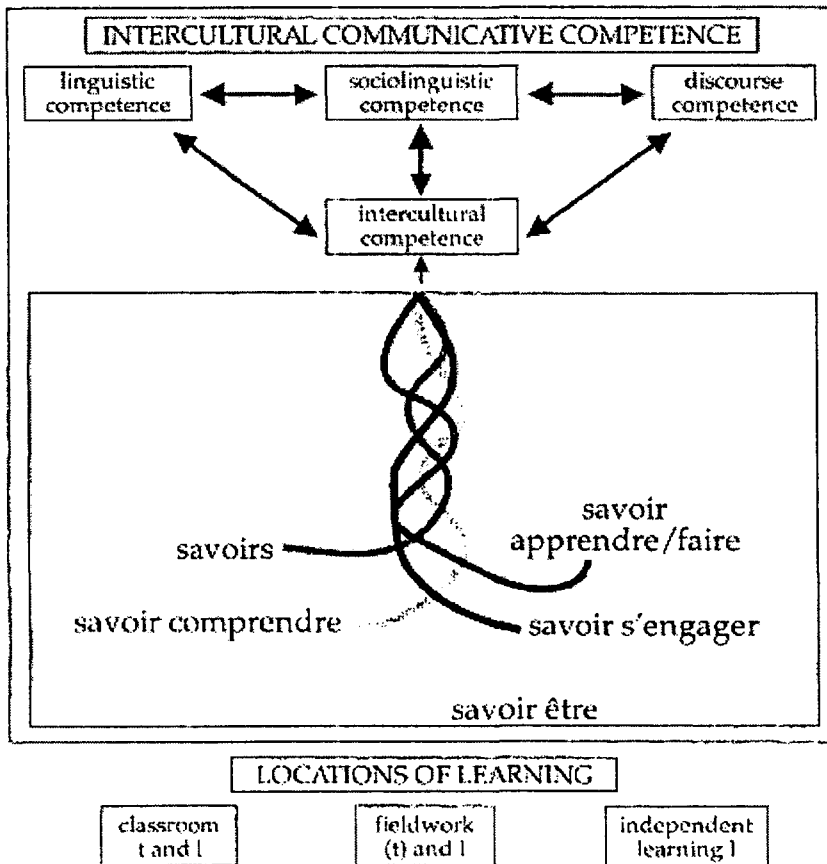
criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries)

He also argues that each component of intercultural competence is inter-related with others, as the following figures shows:

	Skills interpret and relate (<i>savoir comprendre</i>)	
Knowledge of self and other; of interaction: individual and societal (<i>savoirs</i>)	Education political education critical cultural awareness (<i>savoir s'engager</i>)	Attitudes relativising self valuing other (<i>savoir être</i>)
	Skills discover and /or interact (<i>savoir apprendre/faire</i>)	

Figure 2.1 Factors in intercultural communication³

Byram (1997: 34)



Byram's model seems to give us a lot of suggestion. It is closely connected with European Council's Common European Framework, so when we want to apply the model to our contexts, we should re-interpret it and make a better adjustment in each teaching context.

For example, as for skills of discovery and interaction, in Japanese contexts, learners have less occasions to develop their skills of interaction through actually interacting with foreign people face to face. CCDL, which many PAAL members are interested in, has great potential for overcoming this disadvantage. Also, critical cultural awareness seems to be a life-long objective and very difficult to develop in a single subject or in one course.

1.2 Developing intercultural competence

Byram (1997) shows '... three broad, overlapping categories of location for acquiring intercultural competence ... (65)' as follows:

- the classroom
- fieldwork (a pedagogical structure and educational objectives determined by the teacher often in consultation with learners)
- independent learning (can be both subsequent to and simultaneous with classroom and fieldwork; a factor in life-long learning)

It is clear that the objectives of intercultural competence are very demanding and more complex than those which usually guide the work done in classrooms. The limitations of the classroom can be overcome to some degree by learning beyond the classroom walls.

Byram (1997) suggests the following elements, some of which are overlapping, should be considered for planning a curriculum for intercultural competence:

- Stage 1. the geo-political context
- Stage 2. the learning context
- Stage 3. the developmental factor
- Stage 4. identification of objectives
- Stage 5. the ICC threshold
- Stage 6. sequence in the curriculum

I totally agree with Byram's idea that foreign language teaching is context-dependent and that language teaching has to be planned and evaluated with respect to particular contexts.

1.3 How to assess intercultural competence

By using only traditional assessments, we cannot capture many aspects of student's learning performance. The conventional assessments only for assigning a grade, done by teacher alone, conducted outside instruction, are not enough for assessing 'intercultural competence in cultural learning' described in the previous sections. We must rely upon techniques of documentation and self-assessment.

Constructivism makes us consider those kinds of questions. Constructivists think that meaning is created by the learner, not imposed or transmitted by direct instruction, which leads to the need of an authentic assessment. Based on their idea, the profiling approach to assessment called portfolio has been widely introduced in order to get over the disadvantages of traditional standardized, norm-referenced assessment.

2. Portfolio assessment

A portfolio literally means a large flat case used especially for carrying drawings, documents, and so on. Nowadays, the term is often used in educational settings. I would like to consider the significance of portfolio in cultural learning, based on literature review.

2.1 Definition

I would like to quote a very popular definition of a portfolio used in a lot of previous literature.

A purposeful collection of student work that exhibits the student's efforts, progress, and achievements in one or more areas. The collection must include student participation in selecting contents, the criteria for selection, the criteria for judging merit, and evidence of student self-reflection ... A portfolio ... provides a complex and comprehensive view of student performance in context.

(Paulson, Paulson, & Meyer, 1991)

Most of the key words for discussing portfolio assessment are included in this definition. I think that this definition implies the following main purposes of a portfolio use:

- to provide a concrete display of the learner's best work and the learner's development
- to obtain multidimensional assessment information over time
- to share a tool for student and teacher reflection on learning goals
- to encourage dialogue and collaboration among educators and between the teacher and student

2.2 Essential elements of a portfolio

I would like to show the essential elements of a portfolio, which are suggested in a lot of literature, as follows:

- cover letter (It should summarize the evidence of a student's learning and progress.)
- table of contents
- entries: core (items students have to include) & optional (items of student's choice)
- dates (on all entries, to facilitate proof of growth over time)
- drafts and revised versions
- reflections (For each item, a brief rationale for choosing the item should be included.)

For entries, students can choose to include best pieces of work, but also pieces of less successful work which gave trouble, and give reasons why. Reflections can be used for formative and/or summative purposes at different stages in the learning process.

2.3 Portfolio development process

According to Danielson & Abrutyn (1997), portfolio development process covers these stages.

1. collection (save artifacts that represent the day-to-day results of teaching and learning)
2. selection (review and evaluate the artifacts saved, and identify those that demonstrate achievement of specific standards or goals)
3. reflection (reflect on the significance of the artifacts chosen for the portfolio in relationship to specific learning goals)
4. projection (compare the reflections to the standards/goals and performance indicators, and set learning goals for the future)
5. presentation (share the portfolio with peers and receive feedback)

I would like to add the very first and most important stage, 'setting criteria', before the first collection stage. In accordance with the set criteria between teacher and student, students collect, select, reflect, project, and present their works. That's what a portfolio is. A portfolio is not just a series of works students collect.

2.4 Advantages

I would like to describe the advantageous characteristics of portfolio assessment in terms of the usefulness for cultural learning as follows:

- Portfolio assessment can match assessment to instruction.
- Portfolio assessment can be an efficient tool for demonstrating learning.
- Portfolio assessment can give a profile of various learner abilities.
- Portfolio assessment can improve motivation and involvement in learning.
- Portfolio assessment can develop awareness of own learning and independent learners.
- Portfolio assessment can provide opportunity for student-teacher dialogue.

2.5 Disadvantages

Here, I would like to discuss briefly two major disadvantages, common concerns, to consider.

(1) Time

For students, considerable time is needed to collect, share, and evaluate the information. Teachers also feel that the time needed to design and implement is a serious concern. It takes even more time for teacher-student conference.

There seem to be some ways to reduce the time involved in implementing portfolio assessment. One is to make students responsible for developing their portfolios on a regular basis. Another is to identify the contents, core and optional, and list the items on an analysis form. Of course, it depends largely on the class size.

(2) Technical

If we share the burden of assessment with peer teachers, it can cause technical problems. Lack of adequate training and difficulty in evaluating the results can also affect the validity and reliability significantly. Validity (content, systemic, face) and reliability in a criterion-assessment must be given much consideration. I would like to do more research on this topic and come up with a better solution.

For teachers who first introduce portfolio assessment, like me, it seems very difficult to establish criteria, guidelines for interpreting portfolio results, in advance of the class. With time and practice, and especially given clear assessment criteria and individual guidance, students will learn to become better evaluators of their work.

2.6 Lessons from some case studies

We should make best use of the lessons from previous case studies, though they are, to some extent, context-dependent. Guard, Richter & Waller (2002) suggest that we should consider the following points, which can be applied to most of the educational settings:

(1) balance between prescription and student choice

While clear criteria are important for students to develop their products, making choices and being creative are essential motivational factors.

(2) scaffolding as steps towards autonomous learning

A model is recommended, which starts with a high level of support and then gradually withdraws scaffolding.

(3) workload and students' responsibility for learning

Developing students' self-evaluation skills as part of learner autonomy, can be seen as way towards decreasing the teacher workload and increasing students' responsibility for their learning process.

(4) 'real world' connections

If students can choose their own topics, so that the tasks relate to the world of the students and have meaningful processes and outcomes.

3. My course plan

Taking all the contextual factors into consideration, I would like to show my course plan for cultural learning. I would like to give my students more opportunities to gain knowledge, skills and attitudes that will increase their intercultural competence, mainly through their research (field work), presentation and discussion, of course, mainly through their portfolio development. I will use portfolio assessment, not only for grading, but for promoting their autonomous learning.

April, 2003 - January, 2004
 an elective course for 3rd grade at a senior high school
 100 mins × 20 weeks
 objective: Students will have the opportunity to gain knowledge, skills and attitudes that will increase their intercultural competence. → multicultural perspective

course outline

1	introduction: study of culture, portfolio (+ rubric), research
2-7	introductory classes: How Australia has been multicultural
	student-teacher conference (interview): research topic, procedure
8-10	mini-presentation & class discussion
	summary: portfolio conference
	summer holidays (research paper → for school festival)
11-18	presentation & class discussion
	revised research paper → for course
19-20	summary: portfolio conference

rubric elements

[vertical]	
(macro)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • increase students' understanding of the diversity of cultures • increase students' ability to explain intercultural issues for their better communication • develop students' cognitive, affective and behavioural skills that improve cultural awareness, appreciation, tolerance
(micro)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develop a broad, coherent overview of the similarities and differences among international cultures • convey consideration for important figures, ideas and events which influence the values of different societies • reexamine their beliefs and behaviors about social identities (ethnicity, race, class, religion, gender)

- increase their ability to locate and evaluate information, and to gain knowledge about other peoples of the world
- see nations and cultures not in isolation, but in relation to each other
- be more sophisticated in their understanding of the nature of stereotypes and biases

[horizontal]

5--- highest level objectives attained (critical thinking, apply, evaluate & develop)

4--- next highest level objectives reached (demonstrate, illustrate, compare, analyse, objective)

3--- student reaches middle level objective only (comprehend, describe, discuss)

2---adequate levels of competency shown (basic knowledge)

1--- inadequate levels of performance

Through the portfolio conference based on students' reflection upon the following questions:

What do I want to improve in the item?

What did I learn from it?

What did I do well?

How do I feel about my performance?

What were the problems?

grading

(1) class participation (active participant: presentation, discussion)

(2) portfolio (journal, research study, self-reflection sheet, peer-assessment sheet, class notes)

4. Concluding remarks

I feel much difficulty in creating rubrics (combining criteria with rating scales to assess individual pieces of work in the portfolio and the portfolio as a whole), because this is my first experience to introduce a portfolio into my class. It is the essential first stage, so we, teachers, should set the criteria ourselves, because the students have no experience with that. Of course, at first, it should be flexible, because the students should participate in decision-making, and because it should be adjusted in accordance with the students' conditions and the teaching situation. One of my supervisors advises that the rubrics should be revised again and again over time, maybe for several years, into a reliable form.

I still have a lot of things to consider and to prepare, such as a students' manual for developing a portfolio. Taking some advice and suggestion from PAAL members at the conference, I am continuing to plan the course next year, so I hope I will talk about the practical stage at next PAAL.

Portfolios take a lot of planning before introducing them to the students. It is crucial to prepare thoroughly and spend a lot of time with students when introducing portfolios.

I would like to mention the potentials of portfolios briefly. Japanese senior high schools will establish a new subject area, 'Information Study', as a required one, next year. Digital portfolios will be introduced in many schools. And, the 'Period for Integrated Study', a new subject, will also be established to conduct interdisciplinary and comprehensive teaching. Our school is planning to introduce portfolio assessment in a large scale. Of course, there has been more and more research on the portfolio in the field of teaching reading/writing.

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A Study of English communicative competence of Japanese junior high school students as beginners of English

Junko Negishi
Waseda University

1. Introduction

English teaching in Japan has placed emphasis on its grammar for a long time. However, due to the globalization of the world and its use of English as a lingua franca, the teaching style is shifting from reading and writing to listening and speaking. Since the last curriculum guidelines in 1989, the Japanese government has emphasized improving students' communicative competence in their study of English. Junior high schools are trying to have communicative-based lessons since they are beginners in English, and also because they have listening tests for high school entrance exams.

Ibaraki prefecture, which has 243 junior high schools, discontinued the speech contest in 1998 as it is strictly memorization of English and doesn't evaluate the ability of the students to converse in English. In its place, the prefecture started the 'Interactive English Forum' to improve the students' interactive communication ability. In this Forum, the students perform five-minute oral interactions in groups of three. Students enjoy participating in this form of competition more than the speech contest. Since the Forum began, the students' overall English ability seems to have improved because of their work with Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs).

The purpose of this study is 1) to learn the crucial elements of communication that must be supplied to student to bring the communication level of L2 learners closer to that of the native speakers. An additional purpose is 2) to learn if there is a difference between the subjective, holistic results of the Forum, based on the criteria found in the Appendix, and the objective, numerically analyzed evaluation conducted through this research. Furthermore, the data will be examined 3) to discover effective methods to improve the students' communicative competence.

2. Theoretical background

Since 1965 when Chomsky put forward his claim of competence and performance in linguistic knowledge, Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) cultivated the theory of communicative competence. This wave has changed the curriculum guidelines of Japan in 1989 to regard communication as important. However, schools have been bewildered as to how to cope with this innovative idea: which is more important to teach, accuracy or fluency, or what part of communication should be taught selectively through the good utilization of AETs.

This Forum is a good opportunity for investigating junior high school students' speaking ability, because they speak rather in a vernacular style, not in a careful style, a necessary factor to study interlanguage (Labov, 1970). The other strong point of the Forum is that it has merits of group work, which enable the students to diversify on communication patterns, activate psychologically, facilitate solving the problems, evoke the interlocutors' sympathy and become conscious of conveying the meanings (Oshita, 1996).

On choosing the categories for this investigation, reference was made to the hesitation phenomena (filled pauses(fillers), repetitions, corrections) and temporal variants (speech rate, articulation rate, length of pause, and length of run) (Wiese, 1984). The 'Interactive English Forum' judging criteria seems to have referred to the criteria that Yomeyama cited (1994). The results drawn from these two sets of criteria will be compared in this paper.

Diversified claims have been made regarding the levels of communication. Young (1995) remarked that one of the differences between intermediate learners and advanced learners comes from the numbers of t-units per minute, whereas Chamber (1997) stated that becoming fluent is not about speaking faster, but about pausing less. Adams(1980) found that factors showing speaking ability are accent, comprehension, fluency, grammar and vocabulary; however, he claimed that accent is not a crucial factor for differing levels. The analysis of the participants in this study will seek to determine which of these claims is accurate in regards to the levels of communication ability.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

Two second grade students and two third grade students from every junior high school in Ibaraki prefecture participate in city or county level Forums just before summer vacation. The second grade students have studied English for at least one and a half years, and the third grade students have studied it for two and a half years by the time of the Forum. Students who have studied abroad more than 6 months cannot participate in the Forum. Only the data of third grade students is used in this paper.

According to the result of the first Forum, 180 students were selected as participants in five district Forums. Thirty-six students participated in each district level Forum. In this paper, twelve "middle level students" were extracted from this district level Forum. Four of the twelve students selected for this study were male.

From the district level Forum, 36 students were selected to participate in the prefectural Forum. The twelve "higher level students" were extracted from this Forum. Five of the twelve students selected for this study were male.

The data of twelve native speakers, who are all ESL(English for Second Language) teachers, were also used as controlled groups. Nine of them are teaching English to junior high school students in Ibaraki prefecture and three of them are teaching English to adults at an English school in Toronto, Canada. Out of twelve people selected for this study, four were male.

The students participating in the Forum were divided into groups consisting of three members, which were determined by random selection. A few minutes prior to discussion, they were given a topic that they had five minutes to discuss.

3.2. Procedure

The students participating in the Forum were divided into groups consisting of three members, which were determined by random selection. A few minutes prior to discussion, they were given a topic that they had five minutes to discuss.

All the interactions were videotaped and transcribed. The four middle level groups (12 students total) and the four higher level groups (12 students total) were extracted from the interactions, and their transcripts were compared with those of 12 native speakers (four groups) who performed the same kind of discussion as the Japanese students.

3.3. Categories of data analysis

To evaluate the students' communicative competence, four categories were selected; grammar, vocabulary, fluency and strategy.

To evaluate the students' grammatical knowledge, the number of grammatical mistakes were counted. To measure their active vocabulary, the number of words studied from their school textbooks as well as the number of words not found in their textbooks were counted. The students' fluency was evaluated by examining the rate of speech, the number of words per sentence, the length and the number of pauses that were longer than half a second, the number of sentences, and the number of repetitions and self-corrections. The number of fillers and the number of evasions, rephrases, and loan-words were counted to evaluate their strategy.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Mean values of each group

Table 1 compares the mean values of each category for all three groups. The last three lines of Table 1 indicate the relative proportion of each category when the middle level students' values are set to 1.00. The original data is in the Appendix.

In most cases, there is only a small variation in the values between the middle and higher level students, whereas the variation between the students and the native speakers is large.

Table1 Mean values of each group

category group	GRAMMAR	VOCABULARY		FLUENCY						STRATEGY		
	number of mistakes/100 words	number of words	number of non-textbook words	rate of speech (words/sec)	number of words/sentence	number of pauses	length of pauses (sec)	number of sentences	number of repetitions	number of self-corrections	number of fillers	number of evasions, rephrases, loan-words
Middle	5.41	157	3.40	1.60	4.40	16.30	14.20	36.30	2.80	2.00	18.40	1.20
Higher	5.07	209	3.70	2.10	4.40	13.40	9.80	49.00	2.90	1.40	18.90	0.90
Native	0.12	242	15.10	2.70	7.80	14.30	11.80	31.10	1.30	0.80	10.80	0.10
Middle = 1	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Higher	0.94	1.33	1.04	1.32	1.00	0.83	0.69	1.35	1.06	0.71	1.03	0.79
Native	0.02	1.54	4.42	1.67	1.80	0.88	0.84	0.86	0.49	0.38	0.59	0.07

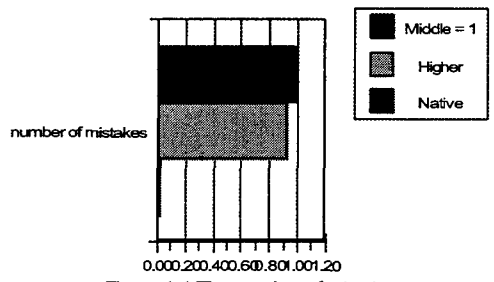


Figure 1-1 The number of mistakes

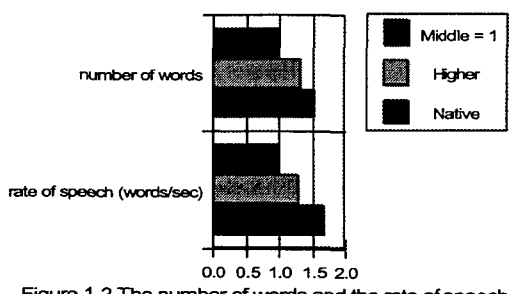


Figure 1-2 The number of words and the rate of speech

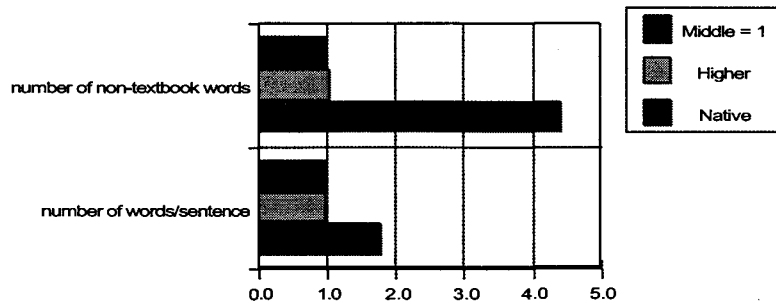


Figure 1-3 The number of non-textbook words and the number of words per sentence

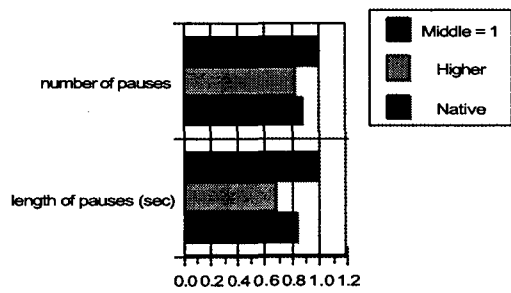


Figure 1-4 The number of pauses and the length of pauses

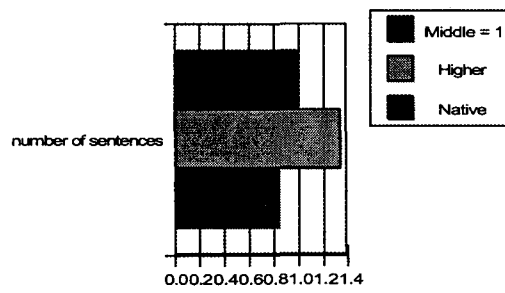


Figure 1-5 The number of sentences

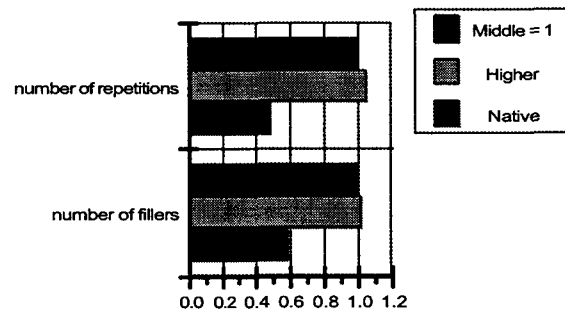


Figure 1-6 The number of repetitions and the number of fillers

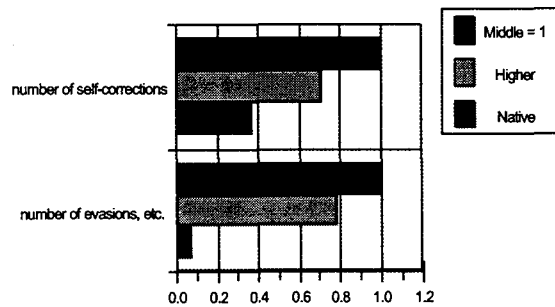


Figure 1-7 The number of self-corrections, evasions, rephrases and loan-words

1) The number of mistakes (Figure 1-1)

It appears that the more fluent the students were, the more grammatical mistakes they made. However, when comparing this to the number of words used, the possibilities of making mistakes were almost the same that middle level students made mistakes at 5.41 per 100 words while the higher level students made mistakes at 5.07.

2) The number of words and the rate of speech (Figure 1-2)

When looking at the number of words and the rate of speech for each group, Figure 1-2 shows that the proportions for each group in the two categories are relative to their level of English. The higher level students tried to use more words than the middle level students, despite the fact that they had learned the same amount of vocabulary. The comparison of the number of words and the rate of speech between three groups clearly shows the differences in their levels of English.

3) The number of non-textbook words (that is, words above junior high school level) and the number of words per sentence (Figure 1-3)

The small variation in the number of non-textbook words and the number of words per sentence for the middle and higher level students indicated that those were not primary factors in comparing their level of fluency. Both groups of students were inclined to use one-word responses to show their interest in the speaker's story. Fragments and short sentences were also common among the students. It is important to note that the native speakers used more difficult words and made longer sentences than the two student groups. This follows the description of Chamber's (1997) that the utterances and sentence segments processed by L2 learners increase in length as fluency improves.

4) The number of pauses and the length of pauses (Figure 1-4)

These categories had peculiar results. The values for the native speakers are between the values for the middle and higher level students. The higher level student sometimes paused to find the words or hesitated before responding. This clearly follows what Chamber noted: lengthy silences may be due to a very limited vocabulary (middle level students), and non-native speakers do not actually pause longer than native speakers (higher level students).

5) The number of sentences (Figure 1-5)

The higher level students spoke more sentences than the middle level students on account of the difference in the rate of speech. On the contrary, the native speakers uttered the least numbers of sentences among three groups by reason of using significantly more words per sentence.

6) The number of repetitions and the number of fillers (Figure 1-6)

Both of the student groups revealed the same phenomenon in that they used more repetitions and fillers than the native speakers in terms of responding to the speaker. This is a common technique used by Japanese people when having conversations in their native language.

7) The number of self-corrections, evasions, rephrases and loan-words (Figure 1-7)

The more fluent the groups were, the lower the number of self-corrections, evasions, rephrases and loan-words used. They were always enthusiastic to utter some words or phrases, whereas

the native speakers

4.2. Discriminant analysis

A statistical analysis was conducted to determine whether there was a clear distinction between each group, and, if so, what factors are involved in the distinctions. Since the criterion variable was based on category data and the predictor variable was based on quantity data, discriminant analysis was conducted. The results of these analyses are shown in Table 2 and Table 3.

1) Characteristic value

The larger the characteristic value was, the more discrimination there is. The small variation between the two levels of students compared with the large variation between the students and the native speakers indicated that there was less discrimination between the two levels of the students.

Table2 Characteristic value & Significance probability

	Characteristic value	Significance probability
Middle & Higher	2.62	0.056
Higher & Native	7.11	0.001
Middle & Native	8.48	< 0.001

2) Significance probability

The significance probability between the middle and the higher group was $p=0.056$, which indicated that there was not a significant probability between them. There are three possibilities to explain this result: a) The communicative competence was comparable among all the participants. b) The categories used in this numeric analysis were inadequate to measure the students' communicative competence. c) The criteria employed at the Forum was inadequate. It is necessary to determine the cause of these results.

The significance probability between the native speaker and both of the student groups was under 1% ($p=0.001$, < 0.001), which indicated that there was a definite distinction between the native speakers and both of the student groups.

4) Explanatory variable (Standardized canonical discriminant function coefficient)

The findings of the explanatory variables can be found in Table 3. The standardized canonical discriminant function coefficient shows the instances when the absolute value of explanatory variable contributes to the discrimination between the groups. Despite the fact that there was no significant probability between the middle and the higher level students, the primary factor to discriminate between them in a certain sense was the difference in number of sentences. The second and the third factors were the number of words and the rate of speech.

Table3 Explanatory variables**Standardized canonical discriminant function coefficient**

	Middle & Higher		Higher & Native		Middle & Native	
number of mistakes	-0.055		-0.698		-0.411	
number of words	-2.915	2	0.718	4	-0.549	5
number of non-textbook words	-0.269		0.195		0.889	2
rete of speech (words/sec)	1.466	3	0.596		0.787	4
number of words/sentence	1.219	4	-0.167		0.977	1
number of pauses	-0.683	5	-2.541	2	0.855	3
length of pauses (sec)	1.161		2.935	1	0.242	
number of sentences	3.434	1	-0.101		0.105	
number of repetitions	-0.096		-0.340		-0.450	
number of self-corrections	0.375		0.667	5	-0.510	
number of fillers	-0.158		-0.222		-0.017	
number of evasions, rephrases, loan-words	-0.365		-0.802	3	-0.071	

The factors that discriminate between the higher level students and the native speakers were the length of pauses and the number of pauses. As Deschamps (1980) pointed out, this suggests the importance of pauses for L2 learners.

The factors that discriminate the middle level students and the native speakers were the number of words per sentence, the number of non-textbook words, and the number of pauses.

6 Conclusion

Although there seemed to be many factors to discriminate the participants on further examination, the explanatory variables indicated that the length and the number of pauses, and the number of words per sentence played an important role for L2 learners. Students used shorter segments in their sentences as Chamber cited.

It is important to note that students must be taught to produce longer segments; that is to say, teachers should try to teach them sentence level expressions, not short phrases.

The analysis employed in this paper reveals a clear discrimination between the students and the native speakers; however, it did not work well for the discrimination of adjacent groups, that is, the middle and higher level students. Further investigation is necessary to determine whether objective, numerical analysis is effective in assessing speaking performance.

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Appendix

Interactive English Forum : Content, Judging Criteria, Marks, and Viewpoints for Judging

What to do

Each person in a group of 3 has to talk freely for 30 seconds along a keyword for the group, which will be shown just before they start to talk, then launch into free conversation with other members for 8 minutes.

Judging Criteria

Each group is given marks for the communicative performance according to the following judging criteria.

- 1) intelligibility of expressions 10 points
- 2) cooperativeness/ friendliness 10 points
- 3) appropriateness of expressions 10 points

Viewpoints for Judging

- 1) e.g.1 the degree to which you can get your meaning across to your listener
e.g.2 was not afraid of making small mistakes.
- 2) e.g.1 provided proper topics / adapted well to the flow of conversation/ rescued conversation from a lull

e.g.2 asked pertinent questions/ made pertinent comments

e.g.3 interacted with others in a balanced way (e.g. did not monopolize conversation)

e.g.4 appeared to enjoy interaction

3) e.g.1 used appropriate vocabulary and expressions

e.g.2 spoke fluently

e.g.3 did not use any Japanese word

Conversation Data

		GRAMMAR		VOCABULARY		FLUENCY						STRATEGY		
		number of mistakes	number of words	number of non-textbook words	rate of speech (words/sec)	number of words/sentence	number of pauses	length of pauses (sec)	number of sentences	number of repetitions	number of self-corrections	number of fillers	number of evasions, rephrases, loan-words	
Middle level students	GROUP1	1	4	194	9	1.78	4.22	14	8	46	6	2	12	2
		2	10	150	4	1.33	3.85	26	22	39	6	3	23	3
		3	4	116	0	1.9	4.14	9	5	28	2	2	9	0
	GROUP2	4	5	122	4	1.82	4.21	11	9	29	1	0	4	1
		5	8	212	3	1.68	5.44	26	21	39	3	3	35	1
		6	4	199	4	1.97	4.33	8	6	46	1	1	15	1
		7	8	121	1	1.34	5.5	20	16	22	2	3	21	0
	GROUP3	8	13	203	4	1.89	4.61	13	10	44	2	4	39	2
		9	13	106	3	1.08	4.24	16	31	25	1	1	3	1
		10	7	89	2	1.48	4.05	14	11	22	3	1	12	0
		11	15	246	4	1.8	4.73	21	15	52	5	3	28	2
		12	11	130	3	1.27	3.02	17	16	43	1	1	20	1
Higher level students	GROUP1	13	9	274	4	1.93	4.89	2	1	56	2	5	31	2
		14	8	167	1	2.35	5.39	4	4	31	0	0	14	1
		15	11	277	3	2.59	4.95	6	5	56	5	0	12	2
	GROUP2	16	10	174	1	2.07	4.24	14	10	41	1	1	14	1
		17	14	219	0	2.07	4.38	15	9	50	3	2	28	1
		18	10	217	2	1.89	3.5	12	8	62	4	0	17	0
		19	2	76	1	2.11	5.07	8	6	15	0	0	8	0
	GROUP3	20	7	249	10	2.39	5.19	16	10	48	6	0	9	0
		21	9	311	8	2.07	4.64	29	19	67	2	3	30	1
		22	22	217	4	1.87	3.34	22	17	65	6	2	25	0
		23	14	178	6	2.09	3.49	17	13	51	1	4	18	2
		24	11	151	4	2.01	3.28	16	16	46	5	0	21	1
Native speakers	GROUP1	25	0	314	37	3.08	7.3	10	6	43	3	1	19	0
		26	0	57	7	3.8	3.17	7	8	18	0	0	5	1
		27	3	393	47	2.6	6.78	4	4	58	1	0	6	0
	GROUP2	28	1	245	11	2.78	8.45	16	13	29	0	1	21	0
		29	1	395	15	2.8	15.8	4	3	25	0	2	17	0
		30	1	179	7	2.89	5.42	24	21	33	1	1	8	0
		31	2	186	5	2.48	4.89	17	13	38	1	0	14	0
	GROUP3	32	3	378	22	2.57	1.45	25	18	33	8	3	15	0
		33	0	163	8	3.02	7.41	14	11	22	0	0	8	0
		34	0	99	6	1.74	4.5	11	10	22	0	0	3	0
		35	4	243	11	2.17	9.72	20	19	25	2	1	10	0
		36	0	249	5	2.37	9.22	20	16	27	0	0	4	0

An LFG Account of Contrastive Particle -wa in Japanese

Masanori Oya

School of Education, Waseda University

msnry@aoni.waseda.jp

1. Introduction

This article deals with the contrastive particle –wa in Japanese in the framework of Lexical-Functional Grammar (LFG). Japanese is one of the topic-prominent languages (Li and Thompson 1976) which have some syntactic or morphological devices to specify the topic of an unmarked sentence. In Japanese, the particle –wa explicitly shows that the constituent to which the particle adjoins is the topic of the sentence. However, the same particle is also used to show that a constituent bears the contrastive focus function, and sometimes one sentence has two constituents to which the particle –wa is adjoined, each expressing the topic and the contrastive focus of the sentence. Therefore, the particle –wa does not have a unique discourse function by itself and there must be a level of representation which encodes the particular discourse function the particle –wa has in a given context. In this article, it is shown that the framework of LFG can partly account for the contrastive focus of Japanese in terms of the level of representation where discourse functions of a sentence are encoded, and also we can articulate what remains to be solved in further study.

The content of this article is as follows. The section 2 briefly deals with the architecture of LFG, especially projection from constituent structure (c-structure) to functional structure (f-structure). Then, it is shown how constituent structure is projected onto information structure (i-structure), in analogy with the projection of grammatical function from the constituent structure node. In doing this, it is suggested that we need more detailed specification of i-structure. The section 4, as a preliminary account for such specification, shows the structural difference between the particle –wa used as a topic marker and the same particle used as a contrastive focus marker.

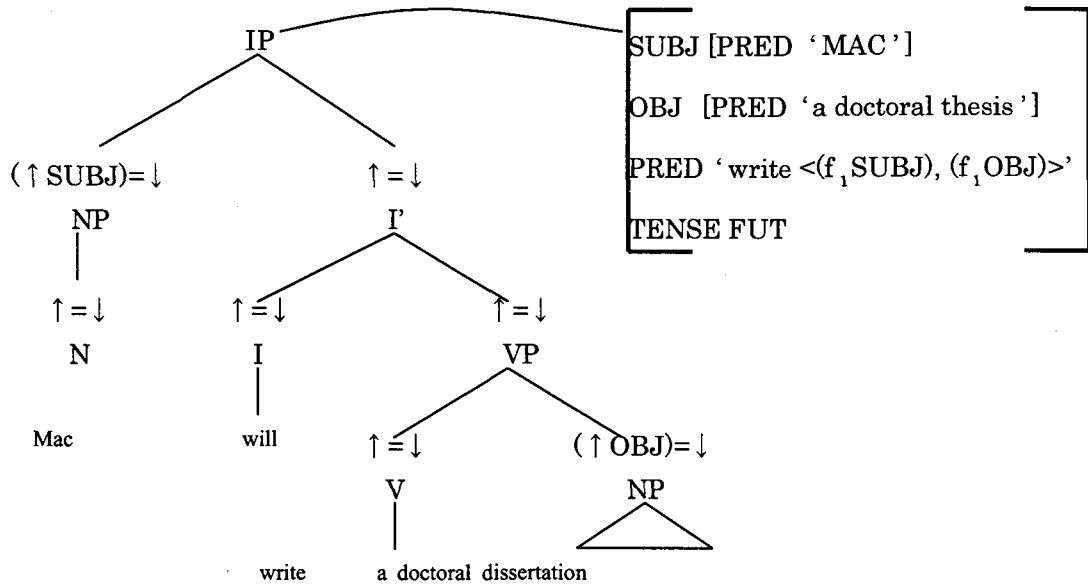
2. Correspondences among different structures

2.1 Projection of grammatical function

In LFG literature (Bresnan 1982, 2001, among others), various aspects of linguistic structures are formally represented as different levels of representations and they are related to one another by means of functional correspondences.

Grammatical functions of a sentence (subject, object, etc) are represented in an f-structure, and it functionally corresponds to a phrase structure tree annotated with functional description (c-structure). The correspondence is one-to-many: f-structure is comparatively identical cross-linguistically, while there is a variety of c-structure among various languages. The figure below shows the c-structure and the f-structure of an English sentence ‘Mac will write a doctoral dissertation’ (the details of the f-structure are omitted).

(1)



The f-structure above has the following set of information:

The SUBJ attribute of the f-structure of the sentence has the value 'Mac'; the subject of the sentence is 'Mac'.

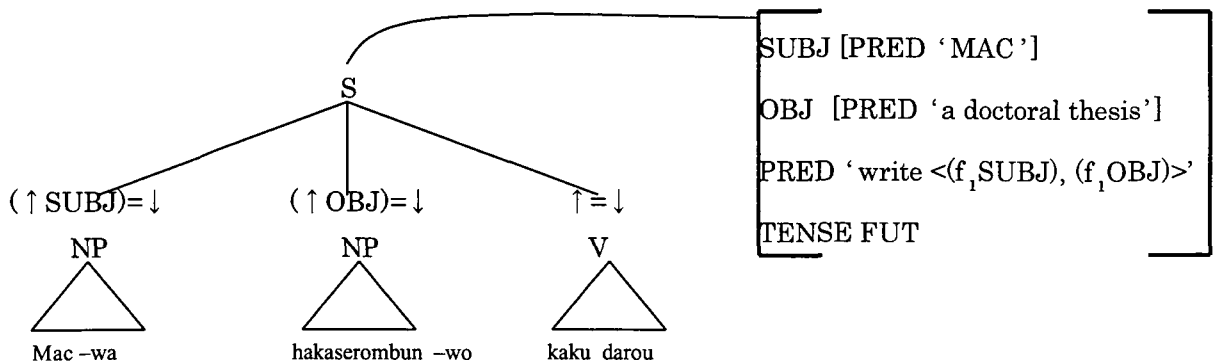
The OBJ attribute of the f-structure of the sentence has the value 'a doctoral dissertation'; the object of the sentence is 'a doctoral dissertation'.

The PRED attribute of the f-structure of the sentence has the value 'write <(SUBJ), (OBJ)>'; the verbal predicate of this sentence is 'write' which has two arguments.

The TENSE attribute of the f-structure of the sentence has the value 'FUT'; the sentence has the future tense.

The Japanese sentence that has almost the same meaning with the English sentence above has the c-structure and the f-structure below:

(2)



Notice that the sets of information these fstructures contain are almost identical with each other, while the c-structures are different¹. English is one of the configurational languages. Configurational languages have hierarchical c-structures and the structural position of a constituent determines the functional and semantic properties the constituent, and it is often the case that the word-order is comparatively free. Japanese, on the other hand, is one of the non-configurational languages. Non-configurational languages have flat cstructures and the word-order is comparatively free. The grammatical function and thematic role of a constituent of non-configurational languages are determined either by a certain morphological element on the constituent (e.g., the particles -wa and -wo in the Japanese sentence above) or by affixation on the verbal predicate. The one-to-many correspondence among structures in the framework of LFG can properly account for the difference between configurational and non-configurational languages, without ignoring the rather identical property in terms of grammatical function.

2.2 Projection of discourse function

In analogy with the projection of grammatical function from c-structure, LFG constitutes the projection of discourse functions from c-structure, and the discourse functions are represented in information structure (King 1995, 1997 among others). Before going into the detail of this projection, it is better to briefly review what the term discourse function means in the literature, and the need of a level of representation for discourse function.

There is a rich tradition of research in the field of discourse function which originated in the Prague School. Lambrecht (1994: 213), among others, defines focus expression as “(t)he semantic component of a pragmatically structured proposition whereby the assertion differs from the presupposition.” He also stresses there that focus is defined at the semantic level of proposition, and “(t)he pragmatic category ‘focus’ must be sharply distinguished from its grammatical realization in the sentence, i.e. the syntactic domain in which it is expressed and the prosodic means whereby this syntactic domain is marked, ...” In other words, focus can be expressed in many ways, syntactically or prosodically, and there might be no fixed relations among them. For example, English has several ways of focus expression. Details aside, there are three types of them: stress, cleft-sentence, and pseudo-cleft.

Stress:

(3)

Mac will soon write a doctoral dissertation.

Mac will **soon** write a doctoral dissertation.

Mac will soon **write** a doctoral dissertation.

Mac will soon write **a doctoral dissertation**.

Cleft sentences:

¹ It is often the case that two different languages have different f-structures along with different c-structures when expressing the same proposition. For example, English tends to use the active voice when Japanese uses the passive voice, or English has an expletive subject while Japanese does not, etc. This kind of structural differences seems to be a matter of preference which is conventionalized in the community where each language is used. Though this issue is of interest in other field of study, I will not discuss it since the focus here is the one-to-many correspondence among different levels of linguistic knowledge.

It is **Mack** who will write a doctoral dissertation.

Pseudo-Left:

The one who will write a doctoral dissertation is **Mack**.

Within the framework of LFG, the statement by Lambrecht above can be interpreted that, since the pragmatic or discourse category 'focus' must be distinguished from its grammatical realization in the sentence, the level of representation for grammatical functions does not contain the set of discourse information and there must be another level of representation for discourse functions including 'focus'.

Notice here that the fact that discourse functions and grammatical functions must be distinguished does not necessarily mean that there is no correspondence between the constituent structure and the discourse functions in a given sentence. Lambrecht (1994: 47) also introduces the notion of "Segmentation of information in a sentence". It is certain constituents of a sentence, in particular a subject, 'convey old information', ... , whereas other constituents, in particular the predicate, 'convey new information',"

This statement presupposes that the information that a sentence has is segmentable, in other words, it can be segmented among the various sentence constituents and each constituent has some piece of information which can be integrated into the information as a whole. Here we can see a parallelism between discourse functions and grammatical functions. Grammatical functional annotations on a c-structure node of a sentence identify the grammatical function in the f-structure of the whole sentence to which the node corresponds. In other words, the c-structure nodes of a sentence each contain the partial, segmented information of grammatical function, and they are projected onto the f-structure of the sentence as a whole. Then, in the same manner, discourse functional annotations on a c-structure node can identify the discourse function in another level of information, or i-structure. Thus, discourse functions and grammatical functions, though they are different kinds of information, can be projected from the c-structure of a sentence onto two different levels of representation, both in the same manner. In the next section, we will see how the projection of discourse function from c-structure to i-structure.

2.3 Discourse functions in LFG:

In the framework of LFG, discourse functions of a sentence are formally represented in i-structure, which functionally corresponds to a phrase structure tree annotated with functional description. Butt and King (2000) define the discourse functions as follows:

TOPIC, FOCUS, BACKGROUND, COMPLETIVE INFORMATION

TOPIC is old or known information that is relevant in the current context.

FOCUS is new and prominent information.

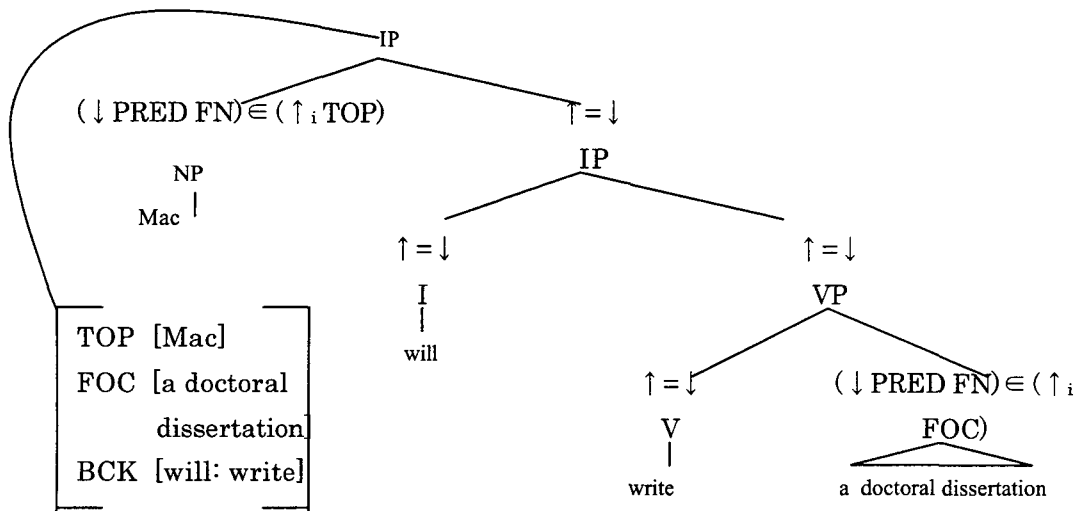
BACKGROUND INFORMATION is like TOPIC in consisting of old or known information.

COMPLETIVE INFORMATION is new information that is not prominent in the discourse.

(Butt and King 2000)

The correspondence between σ - and i -structures of the sentence 'Mac will write a doctoral dissertation' is shown below; functional equations for grammatical functions are omitted for the sake of simplicity:

(4)



The i -structure represents the segmentation of discourse information in a sentence. For the sentence mentioned above, the discourse information is segmented as follows; we can see the parallelism between grammatical functions and discourse functions:

The TOPIC attribute of the i -structure of the sentence has the value 'Mac': the topic of the sentence is 'Mac'.

The FOCUS attribute of the i -structure of the sentence has the value 'a doctoral dissertation': the focus of the sentence is 'a doctoral dissertation'.

The BACKGROUND attribute of the i -structure of the sentence has the values 'will' and 'write': the background of this sentence is 'will write'.

Notice, however, that this segmentation of information is not always as straightforward as shown above in terms of projections from a constituent to discourse function, compared with those from a constituent to grammatical function. As the examples of English above show, the same sentence can have different discourse functions. That is, the same σ -structure can correspond to different i -structures (*one-to-many correspondence*) according to the context in which the sentence is uttered. Since the formal architecture of LFG permits one-to-many correspondence among structures, it is possible how one σ -structure corresponds to different i -structures. Moreover, it is impossible to determine which constituent of a sentence has which discourse function without any contextual information; in other words, it is not a syntactic rule which determines the discourse functional equation to be annotated on the appropriate node in the σ -structure. Therefore, the issue of how contextual information is integrated into the projection of a σ -structure to

different i-structures requires a more detailed account of LFG architecture. In particular, contextual information can be expressed by the interaction of more than one i-structure, which is beyond the scope of this article.

However, some languages have some syntactic or morphological devices to show the discourse function of a sentence more explicitly than languages (e.g., English) which do not have such devices. Li and Thompson (1976) call such languages topic-prominent languages. It is possible to determine which constituent of a sentence of a given topic-prominent language has which discourse function more explicitly (but not without any contextual information, as we will see later). Japanese is one of the topic-prominent languages, and an LFG account of how syntax is projected onto discourse function in Japanese will be an appropriate step toward more comprehensive understanding of the integration of contextual information into the interstructural projection.

3. Contrastive focus in Japanese

3.1 Topicalization with the particle '-wa'

In Japanese, discourse functions such as topic or focus are expressed through the particle adjoined to a constituent of a sentence. For example, the topic of a sentence is expressed by the particle '-wa' adjoined to a particular constituent. As for the construction which contains the particle '-wa', Noda (1996) classifies it into five subcategories. In his analysis, it is assumed that the topicalized noun is moved to the initial position in the surface structure of the sentence from the base-generated position in the deep structure.

The first type of the construction is such that a noun phrase is topicalized:

(5)

Chichi wa kono hon wo kattedureta

Father TOP this book ACC bought-gave

'My father bought me this book.'

Second, an adjectival phrase for another phrase is topicalized; in the example below, the noun 'zou' modifies the other noun 'hana' in the deep structure, then moves to the initial position:

(6)

Zou wa hana ga nagai

Elephant TOP trunk NOM long

'An elephant has a long trunk.'

Namely, the sentence above is derived from 'Zou no hana ga nagai' via the movement of a noun phrase to the initial position of the sentence and the deletion of the particle 'no'.

Thirdly, an adjectival phrase for a predicative noun is topicalized: in the example below, the noun phrase 'kaki ryori'

modifies another noun phrase 'homba' in the deep structure, and it moves to the initial position. Just as like the second type of topic construction mentioned above, the sentence is derived from 'Hiroshima ga kaki ryori no homba da' via the movement and the deletion rules:

(7)

Kaki ryori wa Hiroshima ga homba da
Oyster cuisine TOP Hiroshima NOM the best place
'Hiroshima is the best place of oyster cuisine.'

Fourth, a phrase modified by an adjectival phrase is topicalized; in the example below, the noun phrase 'jisho' is modified by the adjective 'atarashii' in the deep structure and then moved to the initial position. This type of topic construction uses the -no insertion into the position where the moved element used to occupied in the deep structure; in the example below, it is derived from 'Atarashii jisho ga ii':

(8)

Jisho wa atarashii no ga ii
Dictionary TOP new no NOM good
'A new dictionary is better than an old one.'

Lastly, a clause is topicalized. As the example below shows, the topicalized clause is followed by a particle '-no', then the particle '-wa'. In this type of sentence, the constituent which is not topicalized is followed by a particle such as '-da' or '-darou' which expresses the tense and the mood of the sentence:

(9)

Hana ga saku no wa shichigatu goro da
(The) flower NOM bloom no TOP July around is
'The flower will bloom around July'

Noda (1996)'s analysis assumes that topicalization in Japanese is subject to the syntactic rules such as movement of a constituent and insertion or deletion of a particle. Oya (2002), contrary to Noda (1996)'s analysis, argues within the framework of LFG that the constituents with the particle '-wa' is actually base-generated in the initial position of the sentence and the particle lexically expresses the discourse function the constituent expresses.

3.2 Word order and contrastive focus

The analysis of the particle '-wa' in the previous section does not take into its scope another role of the particle '-wa', namely, the contrastive focus. As it has been mentioned, contrastive focus in Japanese is expressed by the particle '-wa' adjoined to the noun phrase, or other constituents such as a verb root. Since this particle is also used to

express the topic of a sentence, it is often the case that one sentence has two NPs with ‘-wa’ particles, one of which expresses the topic and the other the contrastive focus of the sentence.

(10)

- a. Watashi-wa kono hon-wo yon-da.
I-TOP this book-ACC read-PST
‘I read this book.’
- b. Watashi-wa kono hon-wa yon-da..
I-TOP this book-C.FOC read-PST
‘I read this book (but not other books).’
- c. Kono hon-wa watashi-wa yon-da.
this book -TOP I -C.FOC read-PST
‘As for this book, I read it (but anybody else didn’t).’

It has been argued in the literature of Japanese linguistics (Kuno (1983: 48), Noda (1996: 210) among others) that it is the word order that determines the discourse function of the NP with the particle ‘-wa’; in other words, syntactic constituent with ‘-wa’ near the predicate of a sentence typically bears the focus function in a sentence. This also means that the constituent with –wa in the initial position of a sentence bears the topic function. In the examples below, the sentences in the parentheses are implied via contrastive focus. The topic of the sentence, on the other hand, comes first in the sentence.

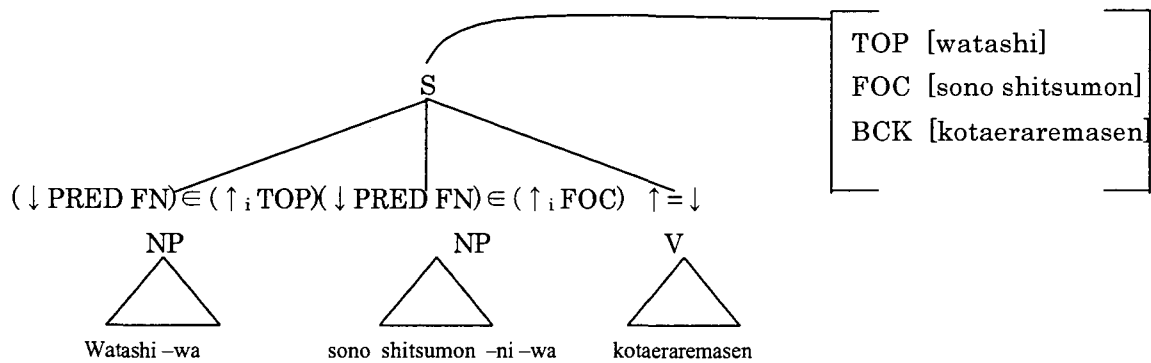
(11)

- a. Watashi-wa sono shitsumon-ni-wa kotaeraremas-en.
I-TOP the question-DAT-C.FOC answer-able-PART-NEG
‘(Though I can answer other questions,) I cannot answer the question.’
- b. Sono shitsumon-ni-wa watashi-wa kotaeraremasen.
The question-DAT-TOP I-C.FOC answer-able-PART-NEG
‘As for the question, I cannot answer it (but somebody else can).’(Ibid: 210)

Based on this observation, it seems to be possible to analyze that the discourse functions in Japanese are syntactically expressed. In other words, ‘-wa’ particle does not explicitly specify the discourse function of the constituent to which it affixes, and the discourse functional equation is annotated on the node under which the constituent with the particle is inserted, just like the grammatical functions of configurational language such as English is specified syntactically. For example, the c-structures and i-structures for each of the examples just above could be as follows:

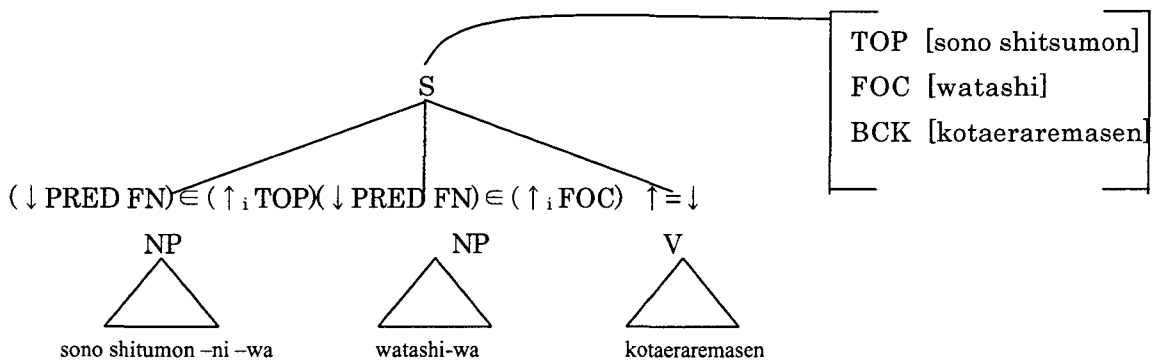
(12)

Watashi wa sono shitumon ni wa kotaeraremasen.



(13)

Sono shitumon ni wa watashi wa kotaeraremasen.



As the functional equations indicate, the node of the constituent near the verbal predicate is annotated with the FOC equation, while the other node is annotated with the TOP functions. This analysis captures the intuitive observation by researchers cited above that Japanese has a word order that is sensitive to the discourse function each constituent has.

It is important to mention here that some native speaker's intuition differs from the intuition of the researchers cited above. Some native speakers of Japanese find that the first constituents in the examples in (12) and (13) are not necessarily the topic of the sentence, since there is no context, or no sentences preceding and following the example sentence. This argument, at first sight, seems to be crucial to the analysis that Japanese has a word order in terms of the discourse function, since this argument claims in essence that the word order actually does not reflect the discourse function each constituent has. And this argument is actually worth considering when we are dealing with languages such as English in which discourse functions are not explicitly encoded in syntax; as we have already seen in Section 2, the fact that one sentence can correspond to many different i-structures necessarily leads us to explore the possibility of exploiting i-structure to represent the inter-sentential relationships. In other words, the analysis of Japanese contrastive focus seems to face the same problem as that of discourse function of English.

From the viewpoint of LFG, however, this problem is not as serious as it seems. Remember here that the framework of LFG assumes the one-to-many correspondence of each structure; it is often the case that one level of representation corresponds to several candidates of another level of representation. And among the candidates, there is a possibility that one of them is more. The logic is as follows: as far as a single sentence is concerned, the c-structure configuration of the sentence provides the default information that the constituent that is nearer to the verbal predicate than the other constituent (or constituents) has the discourse function 'focus', and the node of the constituent is projected onto the FOC value of the i-structure corresponding to the root node (in this case, S) of the sentence. However, as the correspondence between c-structure and i-structure is one-to-many, there is a possibility for the c-structure to correspond to another i-structure that is different from the default i-structure, provided that there is enough information to motivate the construction of non-default, 'marked' i-structure. The native speaker's intuition seems to capture the existence of such non-default i-structure and motivate us to formulate the correspondence to such marked i-structure, along with the default one, but it does not refute the whole essence of the parallel structures. Moreover, the very fact that there is a particle which can be used to show both the topic and the contrastive focus of a sentence leads us to assume that there is a certain kind of knowledge which ensures identification of discourse function each constituent with '-wa' has, and the i-structure can be one of the candidates of representation for this kind of knowledge.

4. Conclusion

This article analyzes Japanese sentences with contrastive '-wa' within the framework of LFG, focusing on the correspondence between a constituent structure and an information structure. It is shown that the framework can account for the phenomena without assuming the movement of focused constituents. However, there remains a problem that it is uncertain which grammatical function a constituent with '-wa' has in a sentence without a context. It is suggested that the one-to-many correspondence of different structure capture the uncertainty in structural correspondence, and the notion of markedness can partly account for the preference for a unmarked interpretation, namely, that the focused constituent comes nearer the verbal predicate than the topicalized one. The further task then is to explain the role which contextual information might play in determining the grammatical function each constituent has. Since this article deals with the projection from c-structure to i-structure, it is necessary for a grammatical theory to be able to account for the projection from i-structure to c-structure, which will be one of the main topics of further research.

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Masanori OYA

Lecturer

School of Education, Waseda University

msnry@aoni.waseda.jp

Understanding Polysemous Deictic Words by Second Language Learners

Norifumi Ueda
Waseda University

In this research, we examine whether the image schemas give effects to Subjects (Ss) when Ss translate English sentences, containing a polysemous verb, *come*, into Japanese.

1.1. Image Schemas

In cognitive semantics, the Image schemas are characterized as follows:

- (1) Image schemas are not specific images but are abstract in another sense of that word.
 - (2) Image schemas represent schematic patterns arising from imagistic domains that recur in a variety of embodied domains and structure our bodily experience.
- (Lakoff 1987, Johnson 1987)

1.2. Image Schemas of *come*

We use the concepts of Trajector, Landmark, and domain to characterize image schemas of *come*.

The concepts of trajector, and landmark are as follows:

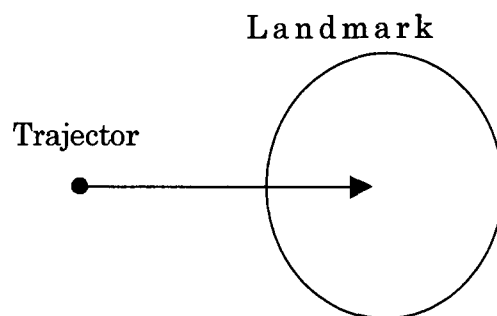
Trajector is someone/something which moves from some domain to other.

Landmark is the domain from which someone/something moves.

The followings are the characteristics of image schemas of *come*:

- (1) Someone/something moves from some domain into other, where focus is on the motion that trajector comes into landmark.

Image Schema of *come*(1)



(2) Someone/something moves from some domain to other, where focus is on the process that trajector comes into landmark.

Image schema of come (2)

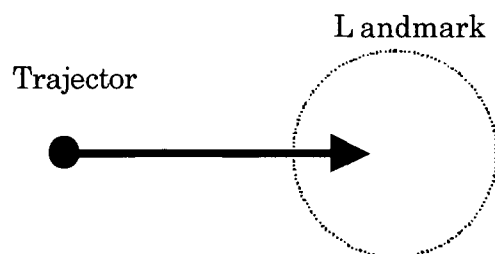


Image schema (1) shows the meaning of 'movement', and (2), that of 'change of state'.

2. Study

In the previous study (Ueda 2001), we used just the image schemas of *come*, but we could not find any effects. This would be because the meaning of the verb could be specified by other factors such the influence of the first language, and prepositions used in the sentence. Especially prepositions can play some role in specifying the meaning of *come*. Thus, we conduct the experiments by using image schemas of *come* and prepositions.

2.1. Research Questions

In this research, we would like to examine the following questions:

- (1) To what extent the image schemas can give effects to Ss in understanding the sentences including the polysemous verb, *come*.
- (2) Do Japanese knowledge give any effects to Ss in understanding the sentences or not?
- (3) What results can we get if Ss are given other information than the image schema of the verb?

We conducted 2 experiments in this research.

2.2.1. Experiment 1

The purpose of the Experiment 1 is to examine which usage of *come* is the prototype to the Ss. The Ss are 26 first year university students. In the Experiment 1, the Ss were asked to write with the verb, *come*, as many sentences as possible in two minutes. The collected data is analyzed according to the frequency.

2.2.2. Results of Experiment 1

The Ss produced 90 sentences in total, and just 99% produced meaning of come is 'to move'. This means 'to move' is prototypical meaning of *come*.

2.3.1. Experiment 2

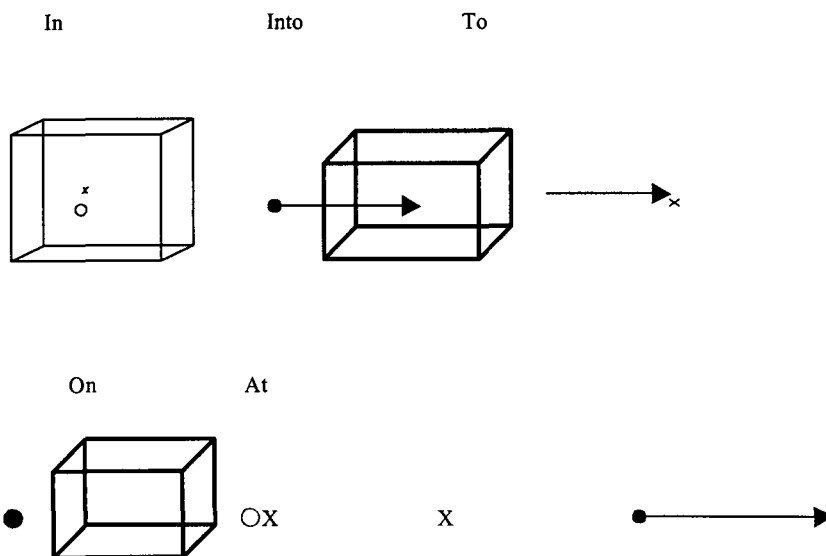
The purpose of Experiment 2 is to examine how image schemas of *come* and prepositions, mainly related with motion and change of state, give effects to the Ss in the results of translating English sentences into Japanese.

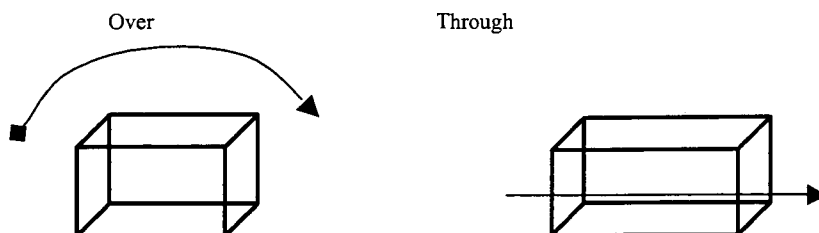
Subjects: 30 freshmen in a university participated in this experiment.

Material: 10 sentences with different meanings of come. The sentences are as follows:

1. Houses like that don't come cheap.
2. Cats come in many shapes and sizes.
3. The summer came to an end.
4. My family always comes first.
5. I've come for my book.
6. Help has come at last.
7. When is Anton coming for you?
8. How do you come to be so late?
9. The new law comes into effect next month.
10. Nearly half the students come from abroad.

And the image schemas of come and prepositions such as in, into, to, from, at, on, over and through.





Method: We conducted Pretest and Posttest. In Pretest, the Ss were asked to translate 10 English sentences into Japanese. In posttest, the Ss were shown image schemas of *come*, and some prepositions, then asked the Ss to translate 10 English sentences into Japanese. The results were examined in how the results of the translations the Ss produced could change.

2.3.2. The Results of Experiment 2

The positive and negative effects in translating the sentences are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: The positive and negative effects in translating the sentences.

Sentence No.	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10
Positive Effect	20%	20%	10%	20%	10%	13%	20%	10%	20%	17%
Negative Effect	10%	20%	10%	10%	40%	3%	10%	30%	20%	3%

3. Analysis

From the results, we can say the followings:

- (1) The Ss can make a translation correctly in the sentence including prototypical meaning in S6.
- (2) In the case of S1, the percentage of the meaning to change the state (*naru*) is higher in Pretest than Posttest (Pretest 40%, and Posttest 70%). The Ss can use image schemas effectively in translation:
- (3) In the results of Posttest in S9, the Ss tended to translate *come* into Japanese by the meaning 'change of state' (Pretest 43 % and Posttest 57%).

4. Discussion and conclusion

From the results, we can say that image schemas of the prepositions gave little effect to the Ss. It would be because prepositions such as *to*, *in*, and *from* would correspond to *ni*, *nakani*, and *kara* in Japanese uniquely. And also, Image schemas of *come* can give some effect to the Ss because, in the posttest, the Ss tend to use the meaning 'to move' in the sentences such as S4, S5, and S7.

The Ss can make a translation correctly in the sentence including prototypical meaning (S6). And also, in the case of S1 and S9, the Ss can use image schemas effectively in translation. In the case of S9, the image

schemas of *come* and *into* could give some effect to the Ss in translation.

In conclusion, we can say that image schemas would give a good effect to the translations.

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Syntactic and Semantic Information in Composition Written by Japanese L2 Learners of English

YAMAZAKI Tae
Waseda University

Abstract

This study is aimed at examining syntactic and semantic information in composition written by Japanese L2 learners of English so that we can give some accounts of process of L2 learners' sentence production. Syntactic information was analyzed by using the idea of syntactic frames, and semantic information was analyzed from the viewpoint of argument structure. The findings indicate that the learners seem to exploit not only syntactic information but also semantic information which each verb carries during their sentence production. However, there are several non-canonical expressions that cannot be explained from the perspective of syntactic frames or argument structure; it is likely that the learners are affected by characteristics of their L1.

1. Introduction

Recently, numerous attempts have been made to explore how children acquire their language. However, there is little agreement as to what kind of clues children use when they understand and produce sentences. For example, on the one hand, Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg (1995:827) claims that children acquire L1 verb meanings by attending to syntactic frames in which verbs are presented in their early stages. On the other hand, Pinker (1989:360) proposes that children analyze syntactic information in their parental utterances by using semantic information.

With these points in mind, we examined utterances of Japanese L2 learners of English (junior high school students) in terms of their syntactic frames. (Ueda, Miyasaka, and Yamazaki 1999) According to the quantitative analysis of the data, it is revealed that the sentences written by the L2 Japanese learners (i.e. their output) have almost the same kinds of syntactic frames as their textbooks (i.e. their input) have. It indicates that the learners attend to syntactic information of their input while they produce sentences. The findings, however, reveal that there are still deviant uses of syntactic frames in the learners' output; the learners can make sentences with syntactic frames which they have never encountered as input. This drives us to the question what L2 learners tend to use as a clue while they produce unacceptable sentences. In order to solve the question, it may be essential for us to make a qualitative analysis on the unacceptable sentences found in the learners' output.

Accordingly, Yamazaki (2002) examined deviant uses of syntactic frames found in another data set: essays written by Japanese high school learners of English. The analysis was made sentence by sentence with focusing on deciding whether each deviation is due to the learners' misuse of a certain verb or their misuse of other grammatical factors, such as misplacement of adverbials. Then the cases with errors related to verb use were closely examined to show

some common features among such kinds of erroneous expressions. It is demonstrated that the learners seem to attend to semantic information as well as syntactic information which each verb bears in such cases.

The purpose of this study is to probe the realization of both syntactic and semantic information in essays written by Japanese high school learners of English, and then explore the learners' strategies of sentence production. First of all, the analysis of syntactic information was carried on the basis of the framework used in Ueda, Oya, Yamazaki and Miyasaka (2002). Next, the semantic information was analyzed from the perspective of argument structure. Finally, we focus on unacceptable sentences so that we can find unique features of L2 learners' sentences.

2. Research questions

Based on the arguments above, the two research questions were posed:

- 1) Are there any cases in which the L2 learners follow canonical argument structures (i.e. semantic information) of each verb while they break syntactic rules? If there is such a case, with which verbs does the case happen?
- 2) Are there any cases in which the L2 learners deviate canonical argument structure? If there is such a case, with which verbs does the case happen?

3. Method

3.1 Data collection

The participants of this study were thirty-eight third year high school students in Japan. Each student was asked to write two essays at home; one is titled as "My memories in high school days," the other is titled as "A letter written by myself in ten years." They were allowed to refer to any kind of educational materials, such as dictionaries, textbooks, and so on. As WordSmith Tools (Ver. 2.0) computed, the data consisted of 6,753 words, the type/ token ration is 16.85, and the mean sentence length is 8.67.

3.2 Procedure

3.2.1 Analysis of syntactic frames

We picked up eleven verbs: *come, give, go, like, listen, run, see, take, think, and want*. They were chosen so that we can compare the results across the previous studies mentioned above. Sentences containing the eleven verbs were parsed into syntactic frames according to a methodology which the author developed on the basis of Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg's (1995) classification, Ueda, Miyasaka, and Yamazaki's (1999) classification, and Yamazaki's (2002) classification. Table 1 shows the new version of classification.

Table 1 Syntactic frames and examples

Syntactic frames	Sample sentences
Verb final	
#	I am just looking.
Noun phrase (NP) immediately follows the verb	

NP	We saw a very old tree.
NP P	He put it on.
NP PP	She gave everything to poor people.
NP P PP	
NP Adv	Have you seen the people yet?
NP NP	My uncle gave me a birthday present.
NP P AdvP	
NP Adj	You have to clean the room right away.
Particle (P) immediately follows the verb	
P	He ran away.
P NP	People looked for the shrine.
P Adv	Elliot fell down, too.
Prepositional phrase (PP) immediately follows the verb	
PP	She goes to high school.
PP PP	Jane is going to Hakane by car.
PP Adv	You are going to the Tokyo Disneyland tomorrow.
Sentence (S) follows the verb	
S	Do you know it's summer in Australia?
conj S	It opens when it rains.
Complementizer (COMP) immediately follows the verb	
COMP (that)	I know that it is dangerous.
COMP (what)	I don't know what I can do for you.
COMP (why)	I don't know why she is leaving now.
TO	I want to go to the zoo.
Adv	The girl never moved again.
Adj	Andy looks happy.
Gerund (G)	I like listening to radio.
Present participle (ING)	I am going there.
Imperative (IM)	Please give me good advice.
Auxiliary (AUX)	I am going to have a baby.

Insertion (INS)	Who do you think laughed at me then?
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3.2.2 Analysis of argument structures

Each sentence containing the target verbs mentioned above was analyzed in terms of its argument structure. The analysis was made according to the classification of thematic roles that the author devised on the basis of the classification of Frawley (1992). Table 2 indicates the classification, definition, and examples.

Table 2 Definition and examples of thematic roles

Thematic role		Definition/ Examples
Agent	A	Deliberate, potent, active instigator of the predicate, the primary, involved doer: Human, volition, will, intentionality, and responsibility./ Tommy drove the car., Bill floated down the river.
Author	Au	The primary executor of an act, not the direct cause of the act/ The canoe floated down the river.
Instrument	I	If an argument is the means by which a predicate is carried out, it has the thematic role instrument./ Ellen cut the salami with the knife., Bob succeeded through his father's influence.
Patient	Pa	If an argument undergoes, is changed by, or is directly affected by a predicate, it is a patient/ The boy broke the glass., John burned the book., John picked up the book.(affected)
Experiencer	E	If a predicate affects the internal state or constitution of an argument, then the argument has the thematic role experiencer. / Buddy smelled the flowers. (Only when Buddy does nothing volitionally, but experience the event.)
Benefactive	B	Benefactives are those that derive actions or entities from the actions of another. / Mary bought lunch for Bob.
Theme	T	The theme is much like the patient in that each undergoes an act, but the theme is unchanged/ Bill loaded the paper onto the cart. cf) Bob ripped apart the paper.(Patient)
Source	S	The origin of a predication/ I received a letter from Mr. Smith.
Goal	G	The desitination of a predicate/ My wife went to England last summer.
Locative	L	The spatial position of the predicate/ The cloud floated in the sky., I sat behind Sally.
Reason	R	The prior conditions of a predication/ I ran for fear.
Purpose	Pu	The result or consequence of a predicate/ I went to the doctor for a checkup.
Time	Tm	Temporal position of the predicate/ The door opened this morning.
Path	Pt	The trajectory of the theme/ I went along the river./ I went by the river.
Manner	M	The way in which the event is realized/ I am writing my thesis in a haste.
Comitative	C	Something or someone that accompany the agent of the predicate/ I went to London with my niece.

4. Results

4.1 Case 1: Learners' uses that are semantically acceptable, but syntactically unacceptable

The analysis indicates that while the learners made syntactic errors, they followed canonical argument structures with the verbs such as *COME*, *GO*, *LOOK*, and *WANT*. Some sentences with the first three verbs were syntactically unacceptable because of their lack of preposition:

COME No.10 (Be sure to *come* my house./ NP*/ [(A)_G])

GO No.3 (... wanted to *go* the class reunion today,.../NP*,ADV/ [(A)_G,Tm])

No.15 (I want to *go* Kyoto./ NP*/ [(A)_G])

No. 20 (I'll *go* back my parental home next year./ P,NP*,ADV/ [A_G,Tm])

LOOK No. 1 (We grew up with *look* the dance./ [NP*/ (A)_T])

Some sentences with the verb *WANT*, on the other hand, were syntactically unacceptable due to their redundancy of preposition:

WANT No.17 (I *want* to the story of marriage./ PP*/[A_T])

No.27 (I *wanted* to the dance./ PP*/ [A_T])

4.2 Case 2: Learners' uses that are semantically unacceptable

The learners produced sentences which were not acceptable for lack of some arguments with the verb *GIVE*:

GIVE No.1 (Please *give* me./ NP/ [(A)_B])

No. 4 (I couldn't *give* it none the less because .../ NP, ADVP, conj S/ [A_T])

No.6 (...when I *give* some milk./ NP/ [A_T])

No.7 (you must...*give* foods./ NP/ [A_T])

4.3 Case 3: Unacceptable sentences with other types of errors

Among the learners' essays, unacceptable sentences with other types of errors were found. First, they committed errors in noun phrases as follows:

RUN No.1 (I *run* for graduation trip a committee a second year./ PP,NP*,NP*/ G,Tm))

TAKE No.4 (Few we *take* a trip overseas once in one even if we are./ NP,ADV,ADVP*/ [A_T,G])

No.17(I was *took* a public official an examination,.../ NP*/ [A_T,Pu])

In addition, the following errors, which were irrelevant to the main subject of this paper, were found in the essays:

SEE No.10 (It could *see* below silent lake./ PP*/ [??])

No.24 (I shall never forget *seeing* stars in the night-watching./ NP,PP*/ [(A)_T, L*])

4.4 Case 4: Acceptable uses

The learners made no errors with the three verbs *LIKE*, *LISTEN*, and *THINK* in this study.

5. Discussion

Now we shall discuss the findings by considering the answers to each research question. On the research question 1, the results indicate that the Japanese learners follow canonical argument structure of each verb while they break syntactic rules. Concerning *COME*, *GO*, and *LOOK*, the learners place "Goal(*come*)", "Goal(*go*)", and "Theme"(*look*) immediately after each verb while they fail to place a preposition after each verb. Concerning *WANT*, on the contrary, they place a word that can be regarded as "Theme" while they use preposition "to", which is not necessary. Thus it seems reasonable to suppose that the learners do not pay attention to syntactic frames that each verb requires but exploit argument structure of verbs as a clue to sentence production with certain verbs. In addition, we reckon that the errors concerning the verb *WANT* can be attributed to the assumption that the learners might memorize the verb as a chunk, *WANT TO*, although we do not have enough evidence to prove the assumption.

It calls for further consideration on the issue of “chunk” because such errors are found in the Japanese learners’ output very frequently.

Then let us consider the answer to the research question 2. The learners deviate canonical argument structure when they produce sentences with the verb *GIVE*: they are likely to produce sentences without “Benefactive”, which are unfavorable in English. Accordingly, the learners do not necessarily stick to rules on argument structures which every verb carries although further investigation on the learners’ uses of other verbs (e.g. double object verbs) should be provided so as to generalize this claim.

Finally, we shall look into the learners’ deviant uses which are not relevant to the research questions of this study. The Japanese learners incline to place adverbials in inappropriate positions as follows: I want you always to be my friend (*WANT* No.18) There might be an effect of their L1, Japanese language, because Japanese has little constraint on word order.

6. Conclusion

Throughout this study, we have considered the Japanese learners’ process of sentence production by concentrating on the analysis of syntactic frames and argument structure. The findings reveal that the Japanese L2 learners seem to exploit not only syntactic information but also semantic information which each verb contains. However, we are not competent to discuss which information the learners tend to pay more attention to when they make sentences with a certain verb because the number of verbs we dealt with in this study is quite limited. We can say that an inquiry into the correspondence of the necessary type of information and a verb will give a fuller account of learners’ process of sentence production on the ground that such an inquiry will enable us to speculate as to why L2 learners are likely to decide to rely on either syntactic information or semantic information during sentence production. There is room for further investigation on this matter.

Besides, the analysis demonstrates that there might be an effect of L1 on sentence production with regard to the erroneous sentences with the verb *GIVE* and the misplacement of adverbials although this assumption is pure conjecture for the moment. The assumption should be verified by applying additional data collection methods such as questionnaires, which detect learners’ intention.

Finally, we should also examine larger size of data by taking developmental aspects of learners into consideration in order to illuminate their process of sentence production.

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Appendix The results of Concordancer and data coding

N	Target	Target	Syntactic	Semantic
<i>COME</i>				
1	ctice was very hard, but at last, my dream has	come	ADJ	Au_G
2	times. Be sure to come my house, when you	come	PP	A_G
3	ng. I wish you a lot of happiness in the years to	come	(TO)	(Au)_
4	ish you and us a lot of happiness in the years to	come	(TO)	(Au)_
5	dog, and live in happiness every day. Please	come	(IM)PP*,PP,PP,ADV	(A)_Pu,G,Tm
6	ow I feel the occupation is good fun. Because I	come	P,NP,NP*	Au_T
7	s raised in the yard of its own house. Doesn't it	come	PP*,PP*,ADV	A_Pu,G,Tm
8	he band formed with my friends. My dream has	come	ADJ	Au_G
9	25.I will be twenty-seven on my next birthday. I	come	P,ADV,PP	A_Tm,S
10	tell about the old days at that times. Be sure to	come	(IM,TO)NP*	A_G
11	tober of this year. when I but a thing, which it	comes	(R)PP*,PP	???
12	d I meet you in large numbers again. The day	comes	#	Au
13	ukt" in the school sports day this year. We	came	PP	A_G,Tm
14	nd a dental hygienist. We, three people, will visit you	coming	(ADJ)	-
15	you been mauma? I'm planning to go to Hawaii	coming	(ADJ)	-
<i>GO</i>				
1	memories. 16.I get up at six every morning and	go	PP	A_G
2	ks. How have you been manma? I'm planning to	go	(TO)PP,NP*,PP	(A)_G,Tm,C
3	no see! How have you been? I really wanted to	go	(TO)NP*,ADV	(A)_G,Tm
4	. We have been best friends since then. 35.I	go	PP,PP	A_G
5	which is close to the sea. It goes to the sea to	go	PP,PP,ADV	(A)_Pu,C,Tm
6	ears pierced as much. I showed a reluctance to	go	(TO)PP	(A)_G
7	al. Because it was time that I felt happy I could	go	PP	A_G
8	But my husband works in Tokyo, so I sometimes	go	PP,PP	A_G,C
9	ting whit letter during lunchtime. Well, I have to	go	ADV	A_
10	seeing her. And I want to meet you. I want to	go	(TO)P,NP	(A)_G
11	A child will be left in my parents today, and it will	go	PP,PP	A_Pu
12	So pattissiere is my calling. Some day I want to	go	(TO)PP	A_G
13	I will take a souvenir from Tokyo Disneyland, who	go	(??)PP,PP	A_G,C
14	with the large from and straight road. I want to	go	(TO)PP*,ADV	(A)_L
15	ll travel with him if I can take vacation. I want to	go	(TO)NP*	(A)_G

16	me to get marry? By the way, I'm supposed to happening every day. The best of memories is character. 25.I like this high school that I	go	in England. I'm supposed to meet my friend. on a school excursion to Hokkaido when I wa	(TO)PP*	(A)_L
17	ood character. 25.I like this high school that I	go	to it. Because I met wonderful friends. I am	(G)PP,PP,conjS	A_Pu,G
18	ce in one even if we are. This year, it intends to	go	to the Bari island. It is very pleasant. I goe	(RO)PP	A_G
19	parental home. I want to eat your cooking. I'll	go	back my parental home next year. I write a le	P,NP,ADV	A_G,Tm
20	to like my parents' thing very much too. I will	go	to the Hawaii with the family in the next cons	PP,PP	A_G,C,Tm
21	, to 5:00 p.m. on weekdays. After work, I often	go	to eating with my boy friend. We are going to	PP*,PP	A_Pu,C
22	ith mamma. How nice it would be if mamma could	go	with us. I'm terribly sorry. I didn't mean to	PP	A_C
23	ve in the wonderful house which is close to the sea. It	goes	to the sea to go for a walk of the dog with the chil	PP,PP,PP	A_G
24	o get along with it. But it is challenging. My daughter	goes	to nursery school now. It is too much trouble to	PP,ADV	A_G
25	intends to go to the Bari island. It is very pleasant. I	goes	to the live of "The Yellow Monkey" still, too, with t	PP,ADV*	A_G
26	ght years old now. Pretty and pretty already. It often	goes	to the zoo by the family. Probably, he likes ele	PP,PP*	A_G,C?
27	u did your best." after the athletic festival. 28.We	went	to Hokkaido on a school excursion. I had man	PP,PP	A_G,Pu
28	hen I went our entrance ceremony. But the more I	went	to school, the more I like high school. I was s	PP	A_G
29	st on my high school days is school excursion. We	went	to Hokkaido on a school excursion. I though	PP,PP	A_G,Pu
30	you again. 33.Dear Mama How are you mama?	went	to Tokyo Disneyland with my husband and da	PP,PP	A_G,C
31	I	went	to London and Paris for our honeymoon. An	PP,PP	A_G,Pu
32	oexist home and business. I married last year. We	went	to the Miho Pass. It could see below silent l	PP	A_G
33	are two things I deeply impressed. One is that we	went	to Hokkaido. I got on the ship and watch bir	PP	A_G
34	best school days memory was school excursion. I	went	our entrance ceremony. But the more I went	NP*	A_G
35	ories. 11.I felt uneasy about new school life when I	went	out Memanbetusu airport, we breathed fresh a	ADV*,NP*	A_L
36	p made the trip from Siretoko to Sapporo. When we	went	to Hokkaido on a graduation trip. I run for grad	PP,PP	A_G,Pu
37	. I was very happy when passed this school. 12.I	went	to the home for the aged. I am very very hap	PP	A_G
38	ix years. I had written a words too. And I voluntarily	went	in for listening to classical music. Schub	P,PP,	A_Pu
39	ing to travel Italy this summer vacation! I have	gone	to quit the job when I get married. He is at	(AUX)	-
40	finger now. No one can foretell my destiny. I am	going	to play basketball also at a university. 30.	(AUX)	-
41	practice was very hard, it was very pleasant. I'm	going	to travel Italy this summer vacation! I have	(AUX)	-
42	rk, I often go to eating with my boy friend. We are	going	to have a baby is nearly. What do YOU life!	(AUX)	-
43	d very strength power of the police woman. I am	going	on well? I am very busy, but leading a full	(ING)P,ADV	Au_
44	ause we often talk on the telephone. 5 your work	going			
RUN					
1	ool. 12.I went to Hokkaido on a graduation trip. I	run	for graduation trip a committee a second yea	PP,NP*,NP*	A_G,Tm
2	ance succeed, I didn't stop my tears. Tears of joy	ran	down my face! We were impressed with the	P,NP	T_Pt
GIVE					
1	ics. All the meal ticket had been sold at once.	give	me" said many small children who hadn't the ticket.	(IM)NP	(A)_B
2	ly give Japanese food for children. But there are limits to	give	Japanese food for children. So I am exerting onself	(TO)NP,PP*	(A)_T,B
3	o play. Children are hungry for food in Vietnam. I	give	Japanese food for children. But there are limits to g	NP,PP*	A_T,B

4	easily aid many small children who hadn't the ticket. I couldn't the best memory on the school life. I learned that	give	it none the less because the candies were remaining	NP,ADVP,conjS	A_T
5	never	give	up your hope whatever may happen. 18.It is an athl	(???)P,NP,conjS	A_T
6	when I ntly Yoshio prattles "mamma mamma" with smile	give	some milk. My baby is so cute but I suffer from ba	NP	A_T
7	walk and have a dog and you know that you must take a	give	foods. In fact, dogs are living thing, that is very very	NP	A_T
8	nts were retire. In addition, our teacher took holidays for	give	birth to a baby. It is hard to club activity, when I wa	(G)*NP,PP	(A)_I,B
9	Please baby's heat rash on the neck. What should I do?	give	me good advise, mommy. My happiness life like th	(IM)NP,NP	(A)_B,T
10	was ith the wonderful man, and met, and a wedding	given	to it in the Hawaii at the time of 20 years old at	(PA)PP,PP,PP	T_B,L,Tm
TAKE					
1	to bring up. Thank you for bearing and bringing up me. easy about my future. Though I don't teach now,	Take	good care of yourself. I wish you and us a lot of	(IM)NP,PP	(A)_I,G
2	she	take	like counseling. I don't know how to thank you. I	PP	A_T
3	nce a long time ago. I open small private ----- I plan to mush. My hobby in now is overseas traveling.	take	out the best work of the work drawn until now. I	(TO)P,NP	(A)_I
4	Few we	take	a trip overseas once in one even if we are. This	NP,ADV,ADVP*	A_T,G
5	job. stewardess. I'm looking forward to meet everyone. dog with the child every day. My present hobby is	Take	care of yourself. Good bye. From*** 35.I a	(IM)NP,PP	(A)_I,G
6	to	take	a picture. SO, it always takes a picture of the cut	(TO)NP	(A)_T
7	I	take	much interest in music and Fukushi. I play the	NP,PP	Au_T,L
8	will k you very much you were delivered of me. P.S. I	take	a souvenir from Tokyo Disneyland, who go to this	NP,PP	A_T,L
9	my goal for three years, and it was then that I began to	take	an interest in English. So I was making effort in	(TO)NP,PP	Au_T,L
10	cher. But these days I have got used to my job and I	take	pride in it. I married. My husband is a doctor. H	NP,PP	Au_T,L
11	ut the best work of the work drawn until now. I plan to	take	out not only oil painting but design drawing. The	(TO)P,NP	A_T
12	end who is as old as me. I will travel with him if I can were eager to have a dog and you know that you	take	vacation. I want to go Kyoto. Next I am intereste	NP	A_T
13	must	take	a walk and give foods. In fact, dogs are living thin	NP	A_T
14	My present hobby is to take a picture. SO, it always	takes	a picture of the cute smile of two children in the	NP,PP	A_T,L
15	ental hygienist. I've been away of this job for a while, it	takes	a time to get along with it. But it is challenging	NP,TO	_Tm
16	in 30 minutes by train. That's pretty close, because it	takes	everyone else over an hour to commute. Here's	NP,NP,TO	_E,Tm
17	ery busy everyday. I was finishing a college later, I was	took	a public official an examination, become a police	NP*	A_T,Pu
18	e of third students were retire. In addition, our teacher	took	holidays for give birth to a baby. It is hard to club	NP,PP*	A_T,Pu
19	ny. I was not able to write a letter, because I was busy	taking	care of twins my children. They both are full of	(ING)NP,PP*	(A)_I,G

LIKE								
1	please give me good advise, mommy. My happiness life	like	this is by grace of my family. I cannot possibly put	-	-	-	-	-
2	I " and "Roman Holiday". I cant's stand horror movies.	like	foreign movies rather than domestic ones. I have a p	NP,PP				E_T
3	take sy about my future. Though I don't teach now, she	like	counseling. I don't know how to thank you. I am ver	-	-	-	-	-
4	hool, a field day, a school festival, a school excursion. I	like	my school very much. I hope that this memories of	NP,ADVP,conjS				E_T
5	they idren are playing in the garden. Among other things	like	curry and rice and curry and rice is one of my favori	NP				E_T
6	I felt s a baby. 10.Dear my mother, How is everyone?	like	fight with my son and daughter every day. But their	-	-	-	-	-
7	I friend Hello. How are you? I'm fine. I live in Hokkaido.	like	Hokkaido very much. Because the clean air is a go	NP,ADVP,conjS				E_T
8	I much interest in music and Fukushi. I play the guitar.	like	listening to the music. I had been the composition	G				E_T
9	I ol. what I hate is to wake up early in the morning. But	like	school. Culture festival is the best memory on the s	NP				E_T
10	I dog is have a pet dog at home. Its name is Chiro. Our	like	a member of the family. Chiro a Shiba breed and is f	-	-	-	-	-
11	I looks ght is 185 centimeters and is very handsome. He	like	movie actor. He is a very kind person. I love him v	-	-	-	-	-
12	25.I them and I. And we know each good character.	like	this high school that I go to it. Because I met wonde	NP				E_T
13	I type or rented videos. My favorite movies are love story	like	Pretty Woman and "Roman Holiday". I cant's stan	-	-	-	-	-
14	I seem to sband. Parents love a child much too. Children	like	my parents' thing very much too. It will go to the H	(TO)NP,ADVP				(E)_T
15	And I d. 19.I had six years of Musashino Joshigakuin.	like	not so much a school life as an off- campus school l	ADVP,NP,PP				E_T
16	I s, I haven't changed. Perhaps it primary in my nature.	like	my nature to change since ten years ago. 4. Hello.	NP,PP				E_T,Tm
17	I at a restaurant as a pattissiere. I am proud of my job. I	like	to make a cake. So pattissiere is my calling. Some	TO				E_
18	I fly ssed with the to succeed the dance. 34.Three years	like	an arrow. There were many things happening every	-	-	-	-	-
19	I more I ce ceremony. But the more I went to school, the	like	high school. I was surprised at what our school is b	NP				E_T
20	I'd o to Tokyo with my children. I'd like to meet you and	like	to tell about the old days at that times. Be sure to c	TO				E_

21	I'd	okyo, so I sometimes go to Tokyo with my children.	like	to meet you and I'd like to tell about the old days at t	TO	E_
22	mother	er of one age daughter. I want to become brilliant	like	mama. Mama, I am sorry, I am always making a n	-	-
23	interest	k. My daughter is one age yet, who has shown	like	every thing. I felt mother for my to became mother	-	-
24	t of then goes to the zoo by the family. Probably, he		likes	elephant. My husband is doctor. His height is I	NP	E_T
25	my dance because I didn't fail and danced as I		liked	. Thought I thought that it was hard for me	#	E_
26	Recently I started aerobics dancing. I've always		liked	to be active. Aerobics dancing is a lot of	TO	E_
27	So I helped his store. we sell the work of ant. I		liked	drawing a picture since a long time ago.	G,PP	E_Tm
LISTEN						
1	s music. Vietnam's children love his music, too. Now		listen	here! From *** 20.Congratulations on your	(IM)L	(A)_L
2	ng to travel Italy this summer vacation! I have gone in for		listening	to classical music. Schubert and Chopin are	(G)P,NP	(A)_T
3	d in now are having piano lessons, and watching		listening	to music, and reading books. Nothing has cha	(G)P,NP	(A)_L
4	h interest in music and Fukushima. I play the guitar. I like		listening	to the music. I had been the composition for si	(G)P,NP	(A)_L
LOOK						
1	in school built up tradition this dance. We grew up with		look	the dance. Practive of the dance was very hard.	(G)*NP	(A)_T
2	Has everyone married? I really want to see you! I will		look	forward to next class reunion. Hang in there, ever	P,NP	E_T
3	ursion. I thought this trip will be something pleasant to		look	back on. My group made the trip from Siretoko	(TO)P	(A)_
4	ree people, will visit you coming long vacation. Please		look	forward to seeing us. From *** 1. I have passed	(IM)P,G	(A)_
5	He	height is 185 centimeters and is very handsome.	looks	like movie actor. He is a very kind person. I lov	PP	A
6	He	Do you remember the boy when we first met him?	looks	. He is a musician. His music is very wonderful.	#	(Au)_
7	He		looks	tired recently. He is not the active person he u	ADJ,ADV	Au_
8	a white mist lay over the lake, it seemed mystery. I		looked	down it as if I were in a dream. Another is a	ADV,NP*	A
9	the Mihoro Pass. It could see below silent lake. It		looked	nice. Because a white mist lay over the lake,	ADJ	Au_
10	me for play two my house by all means now. I'm		looking	forward to seeing you. From ***	P,G	A_
11	t. I'm planning to visit in Canada this spring. I'm		looking	forward to this plan. 33.I graduate bef	P,NP	A_T
12	a chat over a cup of tea one of these days. I'm		looking	forward to seeing you. 21.Dear *** Hi!	P,G	A_
13	three, I want to renew my job: stewardess. I'm		looking	forward to meet everyone. Take care of	P,TO*	A_
14	active person he used to be, so I was lonely. I'm		looking	forward to seeing you again. 33.Dear	P,G	A_
15	in England. I'm supposed to meet my friend. I'm		looking	forward to seeing her. And I want to m	P,G	A_
SEE						
1	time no	From *** 30.Dear friends Long	see	! How have you been? I really wanted to go the cl	-	-
2	ften has cooked when I was a child. Please for me.		See	From **	NP,ADV	(A)_T,Tm

3	to	soon be home for Japan. Then by all means I want	see	you. I want to reach you telephone, but don't kn	(TONP)	(A)_T
4		you last. How are you? But I don't feel that I haven't	see	you for a long time. Because we often talk on the	NP,PP	A_Tm
5	oliday.	From ***	see	you for a long time. How are you? I' fine. I will b	NP,PP	A_Tm
6	32.I haven't	whit letter during lunchtime. Well, I have to go now.	See	you and good luck! From *** 9. Oh, I am tire	NP	(A)_T
7	e social worker	little by little. I hope you happiness.	See	you again in the near future. Love, *** 2	NP,ADV,PP	(A)_T,Tm
8	doing now?	Has everyone married? I really want	see	you! I will look forward to next class reunion. H	(TONP)	(A)_T
9	to	ve years old. Chiro is used to me the most. Well, I'll	see	you soon. Keep well. Bye!	NP,ADV	A_T
10		ed. One is that we went to the Mihoro Pass. It could	see	below silent lake. It looked nice. Because a wh	PP*	A_L
11	on. And I have a son.	I love him very much. I want to	see	your child. And I work as a clerk at the front de	(TONP)	(A)_T
12	friend of mine	Hello. It's been a long time since I	saw	you last. How are you getting on? I'm very fi	NP,ADV	A_T
13	e ten years ago.	4. Hello. It's a long time since I	saw	you last. How are you getting along? I get al	NP,ADV	A_T
14	. Good-bye.	19.Dear *** It is a long time since I	saw	you last. Hew are you? I am always working	NP,ADV	A_T
15	.Hi, ***. How are you?	It's been a long time since I	saw	you last. I work in a home for the aged bec	NP,ADV	A_T
16	34.Dear My Friend	Hello! It is a long time since I	saw	you last. How are you? But I don't feel that I	NP,ADV	A_T
17	e sky. I found	constellation with my friends. We	saw	a shooting star. I had forgettable experienc	NP	A_T
18	o. Hokkaido's ice cream	was particularly good. I	saw	a lovely country scene in Hokkaido. My co	NP,PP	A_T,L
19	y husband. I am very happy now.	26.I haven't	seen	you for weeks. How have you been manna	NP,PP	A_T,L
20	dent in high school.	The work is worth doing. I've	seen	a lot of wonderful things. An athletic meet-	NP	A_T
21	of tea one of these days.	I'm looking forward to	seeing	you. 21.Dear *** Hi! How are you? Yo	(GNP)	(A)_T
22	opposed to meet my friend.	I', looking forward to	seeing	her. And I want to meet you. I want to	(GNP)	(A)_T
23	ed to be, so I was lonely.	I'm looking forward to	seeing	you again. 33.Dear Mama How are you	(GNP,ADV)	(A)_T
24	ially precious memory to me.	I shall never forget	seeing	stars in the night-watching. Millions of s	(GNP,PP)	(A)_T,L*
25	house by all means now.	I'm looking forward to	seeing	you. From *** 2. How have you b	(GNP)	(A)_T
26	u coming long vacation.	Please look forward to	seeing	us. From *** 1. I have passed school lif	(GNP)	(A)_T
THINK						
1	I	handsome husband and cute children and my parents.	think	that it wants one more girl!!! 7. Twenty eight ye	COMP(that)	A_
2	sounds good, but practically it is more difficult than you	hest. We will graduate from this school soon. I want	think	, still I managed to do the major. No cross, no cr	#	A_
3	to	both are full of life. I'll be twenty-seven in two month. I	think	then that it was good in this school. 2. My high	(TO)ADV,COMP(that)	(A)_
4	y both are full of life.	I'll be twenty-seven in two month. I	think	I was able to grow up till now thanks to my paren	S	A_
5	We	hat you can do it. So we allow you to have a dog.	think	it fill your heart with joy and peace. We hope that	S	A_
6	Do I	said that she had been married for two years now.	think	of marriage? DO you want me to get marry? By t	P,NP	A_T

7	you	as dancing the dance, I was very shameful. Who do	think			(INS)	
8	because I didn't fail and danced as I liked. Though I	thought	was laugh me then? The answer is my best friend		that it was hard for me to get up early in the	COMP(that)	A_
9	ma" "Papa". Two boys don't yet stand. Although	thought	this name of three children showed, I married			???	
10	e was most impressed also in the athletic festival. I	thought	that I was very disagreeable at the time of pra			COMP(that)	A_
11	en I was high school student. It made me happy, so I	thought	of an answer to the letter. Now I'm twenty-s			P_NP	A_T
12	My dream has come true because I had been	thinking	I wanted to form the band. We couldn't			S	A_
WANT							
1	I want to meet you. I want to go back my parental	want	to eat your cooking. I'll go back my parental home			TO	A_
2	ries of during the three years will be a superior memory.	want	to enjoy the rest of my school life. 37.I had belong			TO	A_
3	mily. If I had not had their help. I could not have enjoyed. I	want	to treat my friends and my family well. 9. My scho			TO	A_
4	g a full life energy. Soon my daughter will become three,	want	to renew my job: stewardess. I'm looking forward to			TO	A_
5	e don't worry. I really made every effort too much.	want	to say is, please keep good will and live a life! I add			(R)TO	A_
6	e were impressed with the large from and straight	want	to go in Hokkaido again. 27.We danced Kojo no Ts			TO	A_
7	at the highest. We will graduate from this school soon.	want	to think then that it was good in this school. 2. My			TO	A_
8	What are you doing now? Has everyone married?	want	to see you! I will look forward to next class reunion.			TO	A_
9	as old as me. I will travel with him if I can take vacation. I	want	to go Kyoto. Next I am interested in now are having			TO	A_
10	if for three years with the friend. If I don't met friends. I	want	to be by the friends with this friends throughout life.			TO	A_
11	long time, so I am glad to meet you in the next holiday.	want	to eat "Nikujaga" that my mother often has cooked			TO	A_
12	our honeymoon. And I have a son. I love him very	want	to see your child. And I work as a clerk at the front			TO	A_
13	nd I cried. This dance is best of memory on school life.	want	to dance again if there is an opportunity. It was a real			TO	A_
14	to make a cake. So pattissiere is my calling. Some	want	to go to Paris, and learn about confectionery. 23.			TO	A_
15	of my family. I cannot possibly put my thanks in	want	to make such a warm family that I have been brought			TO	A_
16	king a nuisance. But I am mother of one age	want	to become brilliant mother like mama. Mama, I am			TO	A_
17	daughter. I	want	to the story of marriage. Let's talk about it over a cu			PP*	A_T
17	ch opportunity to speak. Let's eat out tonight, shall we?	want					

18	I ften. It makes me so happy to get something in the mail.	want	you always to be my friend. 13.It is a long time.	NP,ADV,TO	A_E
19	I 's food. I'll soon be home for Japan. Then by all means I	want	to see you. I want to reach you telephone, but don't	TO	A_
20	DO you arned for two years now. Do I think of marriage?	want	me to get marry? By the way, I'm supposed to go in	NP,TO	A_E
21	And I , looking forward to seeing her.	want	to meet you. I want to go back my parental home. I	TO	A_
22	you. I , looking forward to seeing her. And I want to meet	want	to go back my parental home. I want to eat your co	TO	A_
23	you. I be home for Japan. Then by all means I want to see	want	to reach you telephone, but don't know where you c	TO	A_
24	cute children and my parents. I think that it	wants	one more girl!!! 7. Twenty eight years	NP	A_T
25	really . My dream has come true because I had been	wanted	to go the class reunion today, but I couldn't rest	TO	A_
26	thinking I m function etc. But most impressive is dance this	wanted	to form the band. We couldn't meet all the memb	TO	A_
27	year. I was best of dance. We practiced many times so	wanted	to the dance. The dance's practice was very hard,	PP*	A_T
28	that we , I'm just great! At last I'm living on my own as I've	wanted	to dance with one accord. And I'm glad to meet m	TO	A_
29	always aw you last. I work in a home for the aged because I	wanted	to do. It's small and far from the station but at leas	TO	A_
30	have aw you last. I work in a home for the aged because I	wanted	to work a field of social welfare since I was junior hi	TO	A_

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Tae Yamazaki
Research Associate, Waseda University
Tokyo, Japan
BZQ16322@nifty.ne.jp

A Comparison of Listening to Time-Compressed Speech and Normal Rate Speed -An effective teaching tool for foreign language listening

Naoko Yoshiga, Hiroaki Homma
Waseda University

1. Introduction

The purpose of this research was to see if listening to compressed speech could improve subjects' listening comprehension test scores.

We conducted an experiment with the procedure below.

- 1) pre-test
- 2) grouping
- 3) self-learning
- 4) post-test
- 5) non-parametric test

2. What is the Compressed Speech?

It is the speech spoken at twice or three times as quickly as normal speed without changing the intonational patterns or the pitch. We compressed the listening test items of STEP 2nd and Step pre-2nd test (The Society for Testing English Proficiency) which are 158 wpm. Fulford (1992) stated that average conversational speed is about 125-150wpm. Therefore We prepared the following materials which is appropriate for the experiment.

normal speed: 156 wpm

double speed: 312 wpm

triple speed: 468 wpm

3. Procedure

3.1 Subjects(Ss) : Japanese

12 university students

10 middle-aged English learners

3.2 PRETEST, POSTTEST

We used STEP 2nd Grade Test for university students, while Pre-2nd Test for middle-aged learners. Both the pretest and posttest were the same ones.

3.3 Grouping

On the basis of pre-test scores, Ss were divided into three groups by one-way analysis of variance($p=0.95$);

A: normal speed listeners Mean score 15.75

B: double speed listeners Mean score 12.75

C: triple speed listeners Mean score 15.25

3.4 Self-Learning of Ss

The scripts were selected from listening section of STEP Test which were the same grade and test form as pre-test and post-test.

Ss were given four different scripts because only one scrip is not enough if they continued listening to the same scrip for 30 times. Ss listened to one script twice a day for 3 or 4 days, totaling 30 times. Ss read the scripts as they listened to the tapes because they might not be able to follow the double and triple speed tapes. To give Ss the same experiment condition, the subjects who were given a normal speed tape were allowed to read the script as well.

4. The Results of the Experiment

From the table 2, we found that the differences were not statistically significant, but that there was a tendency that double and triple speed compressed speeches could give some beneficial effects on listening skills.

TABLE 1

The average test score, standerd deviation and variance of University Students

Normal	Pre	Post	Post-Pre
A	15	14	-1
B	16	18	2
C	18	19	1
D	14	14	0
AVE	15.75	16.25	0.5
SD	1.479	2.278	1.118
VAR	2.188	5.188	1.25

Normal	Pre	Post	Post-Pre
E	18	18	0
F	16	16	0
G	11	18	7
H	6	10	4
AVE	12.75	15.5	2.75
SD	4.657	3.2787	2.947
VAR	21.69	10.75	8.687

Triple	PRE	POST	POST-PRE
I	17	19	2
J	14	18	4
K	11	19	8
L	19	17	-2
AVE	15.25	18.25	3
SD	3.031	0.829	3.605551
VAR	9.188	0.688	13

Double& Triple	PRE	POST	PRE-POST
E	18	18	0
F	16	16	0
G	11	18	7
H	6	10	4
I	17	19	2
J	14	18	4
K	11	19	8
L	19	17	-2
AVE	14	16.875	2.875
SD	4.123	2.758	3.295
VAR	19.428	8.696	12.41

TABLE 2

The average test score, standard deviation and variance of Middle-Aged Learners

Normal	PRE	POST	PRE-POST
A	9	7	-2
B	10	17	7
C	15	13	-2
AVE	11.333	12.333	1
SD	2.624	4.1096	4.242
VAR	10.333	25.33	27

Double	PRE	POST	PRE-POST
D	13	14	1
E	11	12	1
F	12	16	4
AVE	12	14	2
STDEVP	0.816	1.632	1.414
VARIANCE	0.666	2.666	3

Triple	PRE	POST	PRE-POST
G	18	19	1
H	16	16	0
I	11	15	4
AVE	15	16.666	1.666
SD	2.943	1.699	1.699
VAR	13	4.333	4.333

Double&Trip	PRE	POST	PRE-POST
D	13	14	1
E	11	12	1
F	12	16	4
G	12	19	7
H	18	16	-2
I	16	15	-1
AVE	13.666	15.333	1.666
SD	2.494	2.134	3.036
VAR	7.466	5.466	11.066

TABLE 3

Asymptotic Value of University Students and Middle- Aged Learners. (1 vs 2 vs 3) (1 vs 2 & 3)

	University Students	Middle-Aged Learners
Normal Speed Group	0.414	1
Double Speed Group	0.18	0.713
Triple Speed Group	0.197	0.109
Double & Triple speed Group	0.058	0.307

(s<0.05)

4.2 Test Analysis

In the test analysis, we compared the double and triple groups' correct answers (CA) of pretest and posttest with the normal group to find out what kind of question items they did better.

From table 3, subjects raised their scores particularly in four questions: No 5, 9, 10, 14. In both double and triple group improved their scores at least 25% more than normal group.

TABLE 3

The Percentage Number of Correct Answer of Normal, Double and Triple Groups' Pretest and Posttest

Question Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

Normal Group	Pretest of CA	25%	50%	100%	100%	75%	75%	100%	75%	75%	50%
	Posttest of CA	75%	75%	100%	100%	50%	100%	100%	75%	75%	75%
	Improvement of CA	50%	25%	0%	0%	-25%	25%	0%	0%	0%	25%
Double Group	Pretest of CA	25%	50%	75%	75%	50%	50%	100%	50%	75%	50%
	Posttest of CA	75%	50%	100%	75%	75%	100%	100%	75%	100%	75%
	Improvement of CA	50%	0%	25%	0%	25%	50%	0%	25%	25%	25%
Tripple Group	Pretest of CA	50%	100%	100%	75%	50%	75%	100%	100%	75%	50%
	Posttest of CA	75%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	Improvement of CA	25%	0%	0%	25%	50%	25%	0%	0%	25%	50%

	Question Number	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Normal Group	Pretest of CA	100%	100%	100%	100%	75%	75%	100%	75%	50%	50%
	Posttest of CA	75%	75%	100%	100%	75%	100%	100%	50%	50%	75%
	Improvement of CA	-25%	-25%	0%	0%	0%	25%	0%	-25%	0%	25%
Double Group	Pretest of CA	75%	50%	100%	75%	75%	50%	100%	50%	50%	50%
	Posttest of CA	100%	75%	75%	100%	75%	75%	100%	75%	25%	25%
	Improvement of CA	25%	25%	-25%	25%	0%	25%	0%	25%	-25%	-25%
Tripple Group	Pretest of CA	100%	100%	100%	50%	75%	75%	100%	100%	25%	25%
	Posttest of CA	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	50%	0%
	Improvement of CA	0%	0%	0%	50%	25%	25%	0%	0%	25%	-25%

CA: correct answers

4.2.2. Wpm Analysis

We analyzed the speech rate of each test item by wpm (Words Per Minute). Table 4 shows that in all of the test items No 5, 9, 10 and 14 average wpm were larger than all the other items. Therefore, this suggests that the double and triple groups succeeded in raising their scores at a higher rate test items than the normal group.

Table 4

The Average WPM of STEP Test Items

Average WPM of all the test items	159 wpm
Average WPM of No.5, 9, 10,14	164 wpm

4.3 The Questionnaire Analysis

1. Did you develop your listening skills after listening to the compressed speech?

	yes	no	neither
University students	27%	18%	55%
Middle-aged students	43%	57%	0

2.1. Do you think you could comprehend the words which you had not been able to do so on your first listening?

	yes	no	neither
University students	56%	11%	33%
Middle-aged students	86%	14%	0

2.2. If so, how many times did you need to listen to it?

	2 times	3 times	4 times	5 times	6 times	7 times
University students	20%	60%	20%	0	0	0
Middle-aged students	32%	17%	17%	17%	0	17%

3. Do you want to continue listening compressed speech?

	yes	no	neither
University students	73%	9%	18%
Middle-aged students	43%	14%	43%

Questionnaire No1 shows that more than half of Ss are not sure about the improvement of compressed speech because the double and triple speed tapes were too fast. Even though the post-test scores were raised, Ss did not think that their listening skills were developed. The questionnaire No3 shows that university students were more positive with further listening to the compressed speech than middle aged learners because the question No 2.2. implies that middle aged learners needed much more times to get used to listening to compressed speech in comparison to the university students.

Findings from questionnaires shows that it is difficult to maintain the motivation for listening to the compressed speech and younger learners were easier to adapt themselves to such a unique device than the older learners of English.

Conclusion

Even though the asymptotic value showed no significant difference ($p=0.058$), listening to the compressed speech is an effective material for improving English listening ability because the results of only 15-day-experiment got closer to the statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) and double and triple groups succeeded in listening to the higher wpm test items in the post-test.

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高校生英語学習者の発話における 流暢さと正確さの関係

埼玉県立伊奈学園中学校 阿野幸一

1. はじめに

コミュニケーション能力の育成をキーワードに1994年から施行された高等学校学習指導要領の影響を受け、高等学校での英語教育は大きな変化を遂げてきた。鈴木・吉田・霜崎・田中(1997)は現在の英語教育はCommunicative Approachの時代にあるといい、東後(2001)も「文型・文法中心」の授業から「コミュニケーション中心」の授業に変わってきていることを指摘している。特に聞くこと及び話すことの言語活動をより一層充実させるために「オーラル・コミュニケーションA・B・C」の3科目が導入されたこともあり、高校生の発話能力、特に流暢さにおいてはそれ以前と比べて飛躍的に力を伸ばしているように感じる。

しかし、英語によるコミュニケーションに慣れ、かなり発話量の多い学習者であっても、そこには文法や表現上の誤りが多く見られる場合があり、発話の流暢さと正確さは必ずしも比例していないのではないかという疑問が持たれる。これはCommunicative Language Teachingにおいては、コミュニケーション能力を伸ばすことに主眼が置かれているために、正確さよりも流暢さの指導が優先される(田崎1995)傾向にあり、高島(2000)は「オーラルでのコミュニケーションを強調するあまりに、基礎が不確実・不安定なまま発話を学習者に求めてきている」ことを指摘している。また日本における高校英語科目の中から文法を単独で扱う科目が消え、文法指導が以前と比べて行われなくなっていることも原因の一つとして考えられる。そして、学習者によっては文法知識が定着していないために応用する力がなく、コミュニケーションそのものが十分に行えない場合もみられるのが現状である。

コミュニケーションか文法指導かという議論が今なお英語教育界においても行われることがあるが、言語知識はあくまでコミュニケーションを行うための基礎として必要なものであり、言い換えれば言語知識があつてこそより適切なコミュニケーションを行うことができるはずである。発話を行うためにはその基礎となる文法知識を学習者が備えていることが前提である(Bygate 1987, 高島 2000)にもかかわらず、今井(1998)は英語教育における言語の使用法の指導が、コミュニケーションに役立てるという目的からは極めて不十分であると述べている。このように、言語知識とコミュニケーションの指導を別の次元で考えることは不可能であり、Doughty and Williams(1998)は言語形式に焦点を当てる指導は、コミュニケーションと切り離して行うものではないと述べている。またSwain(1998)は文脈なしの文法指導は不十分であることを指摘し、Beretta(1989)は言語形式は学習者の注意が意味に向いているときに習得が起こるとしている。2003年度からの高等学校学習指

導要領（1999）では外国語科の目標として「情報や相手の意向などを理解したり自分の考えなどを表現したりする実践的コミュニケーション能力を養う」とあり、その目標達成のためには、流暢さと正確さのバランスの取れた指導が今まで以上に必要になってくるはずである。

そこで本研究では、高校生の発話から得た音声データを分析することによって、そこにみられる流暢さと正確さの関係を把握し、流暢さを備えた学習者が正確さにおいても力をつけているかを考察することで、コミュニケーション能力育成を目指した指導のあり方を再検討することを狙いとする。

2. 理論的背景

2. 1 学習者にみられる流暢さと正確さ

第二言語習得研究においても、流暢さにおいて優れた成果を見せる学習者が必ずしも正確さの面で力を伸ばしてはいないことが報告されている。Swain and Lapkin(1995)によれば、言語学習の成功例と言われているカナダのイマージョン・プログラムのもとで幼稚園レベルから第二言語の教育を受けた学習者は、目標言語における流暢さの点ではネイティブに近いレベルに達しているにもかかわらず、その発話を観察した結果、節以上での発話は 15 パーセント程度に過ぎず、正確さの点で伸び悩んでいることがわかる。また Hammerly(1987,1991)も、13 年近くイマージョン教育を受けた生徒でもその発話にはかなり多くの文法的あるいは語彙の誤りが見られ、コミュニケーション的な流暢さにおいては高いレベルに到達しているにもかかわらず、正確さにおいては成功していないと報告している。

しかし多くの言語能力測定に際しては、流暢さと正確さの両方が基準になっており、高い能力があると認められるためにはその両方において高いレベルが求められている。外国語の熟達度を測定する試験として評価を得ている ACTFL のスピーキングにおける評価基準において超級(superior)の基準に次のような記述がある。

Speakers at the Superior level are able to communicate in the language with accuracy and fluency in order to participate fully and effectively in conversations on a variety of topics in formal and informal settings from both concrete and abstract perspectives. (Breiner-Sanders, Lowe, Miles & Swender, 2000, p14)

ここでは流暢さと正確さを備えてコミュニケーションを取ることができる能力が求められているが、Intermediate や Novice の基準においてもこの 2 つの要素が基準の中に明示されている。また日本人学習者向けに ACTFL とアルクが共同で開発した SST(Standard Speaking Test)においても、流暢さと正確さが評価項目としてあげられており、高校英語教育においてもこの 2 つの側面に留意した指導を行わなければならないはずである。

2. 2 流暢さの定義

流暢さを測定するに当たり、学習者の発話にみられるどのような現象を基準にするかを

考えなければならない。流暢さに関して ACTFL の基準にみられる要素としては、ポーズ (pause) の頻度や言い換え (reformulation), 自己修正 (self-correction), 繰り返し (repetition) などがある (Breiner-Sanders et al. 2000)。SST においても母語話者との対比においてスムーズに話ができているかという基準のほかに、ポーズの表れ方と繰り返しの多さが中心的な基準になっている。中野他 (2001) は、発話データにタグ付けを行うに当たり、示唆に富む分類を試みている。まずポーズを Silent pause と Filled pause に分け、無音であるか、無音を埋めるための音声を伴っているかで区別した。さらに単語の途中まで発音して途切れる Cutoff, 単語やチャンク・句を繰り返す Repetition, 単語やチャンク・句・節が言い直され修正される Repair, さらに直前の発話が中断され、構文や統語上の変更を伴って別の文に言い換えられる Reformulation に分類し、それぞれの頻度を個人別・レベル別に比較している。

本研究ではこれらの分類を参考に次の 5 つの基準を設け、流暢さを数値化する際の基礎材料とした。

- 1) 発語数—一定の時間内に発話した総単語数。
- 2) ポーズ—思考のための沈黙の時間が観測された場合で、息継ぎのための一時的な停止は含まない。ここでは無音のポーズのみを扱い、音声を伴う場合は含まないこととした。言葉を伴った場合には、流暢さを維持するためのつなぎ言葉の利用との区別を行うことが困難なためである。
- 3) 繰り返し—単語や 2 語以上の語句、あるいは節の単位で同じ言葉を繰り返した場合。
- 4) 言い直し—被験者が自分の発話の間違いに気づいて訂正をするために、文の途中で言い直したり、文を途中から言い換えたりした場合。
- 5) 平均発話長—短文の繰り返しが流暢さを妨げる要素になりうると考え、一発話の長さの平均 (Mean length of utterance) を基準として採用した。

Cutoff と Reformulation は Repair とともに言い直しとして定義した。いずれも被験者自身がモニターを働かせ、自分の誤りに気づくことによって修正を行っているという点で共通しているためである。

2.3 正確さの定義

正確さの基準に関してもさまざまな定義がなされている。牧野他 (2001) によれば ACTFL-OPI (ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview) における正確さは、文法・語彙・発音・社会言語学的能力・語用論的能力 (ストラテジー) として判定基準を設けている。ここでの社会言語学的能力とは敬語などのスピーチレベルでのことで、主として日本語能力測定などに使われるものであり、語用論的能力とは相づち、言い換えなどの能力を指している。SST では正確さと発音は別の項目となり、主に文法レベルでの誤りを扱っている。

本研究では文法・語法上の誤りを基準として正確さを数値化することとした。発音の正確さに関しては、実際に発話された音声を基に、英語圏の地域による差も含めてどこまでを許容範囲とするかの判断が明確にならないためである。同様に語用論的能力に関しても

流暢さで計る項目と重なる部分があるため対象外とし、語彙に関しては品詞の誤りとともに文法の範疇で扱うこととした。今までの高等学校での英語指導が文法指導に偏っていた事実を踏まえ、最近のコミュニケーション重視の方向の中で文法的な正確さがどのように表れているかを考察することはきわめて意義深いことと考え、文法を主たる基準として設定した。

被験者別の正確さは、一人一人が犯した誤りの総数によって数値化するが、実際にどのような種類の誤りが多く見られるかも検証することとした。その際、文法項目を事前に立てることはせず、実際の発話データにみられる誤りを分類していく方法を取り、その際の名稱の枠組みに関しては Murphy(1994)を参照した。

3. 実験

3. 1 目的

高校生英語学習者の発話音声データに見られる流暢さを、総発語数・ポーズの頻度・繰り返しの頻度・言い直しの頻度・および平均発話長から算出して数値化する。こうして求められた流暢さと文法・語法上の正確さとの間に相関があるかを調べる。また、正確さに関して誤りの種類と頻度を考察する。

3. 2 仮説

上記目的を達成するため、次の2点の検証が必要である。

- 1) 流暢さの数値化に用いる項目間に相互の関連性があることを確認し、数値化が可能であることを検証する。
- 2) 流暢さを備えた学習者が、必ずしも正確さにおいては力を示していないのではないかという観察結果を検証する。

本実験においては、この2つの検証項目に関する以下の帰無仮説を設定し、これらの仮説が真でないことを証明することによってその妥当性を検証することとした。

仮説 1. 発語数・ポーズの数・繰り返しの数・言い直しの数・平均発話長の間にはそれぞれ負の相関がある。

仮説 2. 高校生英語学習者の発話に見られる流暢さと正確さの間には、有意な相関がある。

3. 3 被験者

埼玉県内の県立高校2年生で、オーラル・コミュニケーションAを履修している2クラス、合計58名(クラスA28名、クラスB30名)である。男子10名、女子48名で、そのうち女子1名が帰国子女(シンガポール在住2年)である。この授業では話す活動が中心となり、学習者の流暢さを伸ばすことに力を注いだ指導が行われている。被験者全員が1年次に英語Iを4単位履修し、そのうち9割がオーラル・コミュニケーションB(2単位)を平行履修していた。2年次には全員が英語IIを履修しており、英語の合計単位が最小7単

位, 最高 15 単位である。

3. 4 手順

実験は被験者が一斉に自分の声を録音することができる LL 教室において実施した。クラス A は冬季休業の開始直前に, クラス B は冬季休業終了直後に日時を設定した。手順は以下のとおりである。

- 1) 被験者全員をそれぞれのブースに着席させた。
- 2) 一人一人に録音用のテープを配布し, レコーダーにセットするよう指示した。
- 3) それぞれのクラスに次の内容について考えるように指示をし, 1 分間の時間を与えた。
 - ・クラス A-「冬休みの予定, 冬休みにしたいこと」
 - ・クラス B-「どのように冬休みを過ごしたか, 冬休みにしたこと」この結果, A は未来時制, B は過去時制を使う状況を設定したことになり, 被験者が用いる時制が偏らないように配慮した。
- 4) 次の質問に対して 2 分間英語で答えを述べるように説明し, なるべく多くの内容について話すように指示した。
 - ・クラス A-What are you going to do in your winter vacation? / What do you want to do in your winter vacation?
 - ・クラス B-How did you spend your winter vacation? / What did you do in your winter vacation?
- 5) 被験者にヘッドセットをつけてマイクを口の前にセットさせ, マスターブースから一斉に録音の操作をして, 開始の合図をした。
- 6) 上記の内容についてそれぞれの被験者が 2 分間英語で発話し, テープに音声を録音した。
- 7) 2 分間終了後, 録音を終了させテープを回収した。

3. 5 分析方法

3. 5. 1 音声データの書き起こし

被験者 58 名の音声データを, 録音テープをもとに文字に書き起こした。その際, データベース化を行うために, 以下のような記号を該当箇所の直前に挿入した。

- 1) () 無言のポーズ(silent pause)。
例 I want to () buy () shoes and clothes
- 2) <r> 同じ語句の繰り返し(repetition)。
例 <r>I have I have a lot of homework
- 3) <R> 言い直し(repair)。
例 <R> I enjoy I enjoyed winter vacation
I want to () <R> go to shop go shopping with my sister

その他、日本語を発話した場合に<J>、笑い声が見られたときに<L>、せきををした際に<C>の記号を挿入した。また、言いかけの言葉はそこまでのつづりで示し、つなぎ言葉もなるべく音声に忠実に再現した。

上記 1), 2), 3) の項目についてはその頻度を被験者ごとに算出し、それぞれの出現頻度を計る基礎データとした。

3. 5. 2 流暢さの数値化

被験者それぞれの発話における流暢さを測定するため、以下の 5 つの要素を変数として算出し、主成分分析によって主成分得点を求め、それぞれの発話に見られる流暢さとして定義した。

- 1) 発語数—2 分間における総発語数。
- 2) 平均発語長—発話に見られる平均語数。発語数/文の数
- 3) ポーズの頻度—何語に 1 回、無言のポーズが出現するか。発語数/(ポーズ数+1)
- 4) 繰り返し頻度—何語に 1 回、繰り返しがみられるか。発語数/(繰り返し数+1)
- 5) 言い直し頻度—何語に 1 回、言い直しがみられるか。発語数/(言い直し数+1)

5 つの変数のうち、ポーズの数・繰り返しの数・言い直しの数はそのままの数値をデータとした場合、流暢さの低さ(disfluency)を表すことになるため、上記の式を用いて頻度として変換し、変数とした。

分析に当たり、流暢さを表す要素として定めた上記の 5 つの変数を用いたが、これらの変数を 1 つの要素に統合することが可能な主成分分析を用いて数値化するのが適切と判断した。因子分析によってそれぞれの変数の背後にある共通因子を探り出すよりも、すべての変数を生かしながらそれらの特徴を統合し、数値化することが可能なためである。

主成分分析の結果 2 つの成分が抽出されたが(表 1)、被験者ごとのデータ(資料 1)を検討した結果、1 の成分が流暢さを表す数値として適切と判断し、これを採用した。

表 1: 主成分分析

	成分行列 ^a			
	元データ		再調整	
	成分		成分	
	1	2	1	2
発語数	34.302	-4.348	.990	-.126
平均発話	2.211	-1.424	.319	-.206
ポーズ頻	4.093	.013	.595	.002
繰返頻度	8.360	19.131	.383	.876
言直頻度	-.862	8.909	-.050	.518

因子抽出法: 主成分分析

a. 2 個の成分が抽出されました

3. 5. 3 正確さの測定

正確さの測定においては 2. 3 で記した理由により、文法・語法上の誤りのみを対象とした。

誤りを検出する作業においては、埼玉県内の県立高校に勤務する 3 名の英語のネイティブ・スピーカーに、被験者全員の書き起こされた発話データを渡してチェックを依頼した。内訳はイギリス人の ALT, アメリカ人の ALT, およびオーストラリアからの語学交換教員である。3 名中最低 1 名のネイティブ・スピーカーが文法・語法上の誤りとして認めた箇所すべてを検討対象とし、その中から、学校文法で明確に誤りとして指導している項目、およびネイティブ・スピーカー 3 名中 2 名が誤り、もしくは不自然であると認めたものを誤りとして扱った。項目の分類に当たっては現れたものを順次分類していく方法をとった。

その後一人一人の被験者ごとに 2 分間の発話に現れた誤りの総数を算出した (資料 2)。そして正確さのレベルを示すために文法的誤りがどの程度の頻度で現れるかを調べるため、何語に一回の頻度で誤りが現れるかを次の計算式によって算出した。

総発語数 / (文法的誤りの数 + 1)

こうして得られたデータをもとに、数値が大きいほど誤りの現れる頻度が低く、正確な発話をしているものと判断した。

3. 5. 4 流暢さと正確さの関係

主成分分析によって求められた全被験者の流暢さの値と、それぞれの文法的な誤りの頻度の値から相関係数を求め、流暢さと正確さの関係を調べた。

4. 結果と考察

4. 1 仮説 1 の検証

被験者の流暢さを測定する 5 つの要素 (発語数・ポーズの数・繰り返しの数・言い直しの数・平均発話長) の間の関係を検証するため、Pearson の相関係数を用い、それぞれの相関を算出した。(表 2)

表 2 : Pearson の相関係数

相関係数

		発語数	ポーズ数	繰り返し	言い直し	平均発話
発語数	Pearson の相関係数	1	.036	.362**	.624**	.329*
	有意確率 (両側)	.	.790	.005	.000	.012
	N	58	58	58	58	58
ポーズ数	Pearson の相関係数	.036	1	.126	.079	.099
	有意確率 (両側)	.790	.	.347	.558	.462
	N	58	58	58	58	58
繰り返し	Pearson の相関係数	.362**	.126	1	.469**	.267*
	有意確率 (両側)	.005	.347	.	.000	.043
	N	58	58	58	58	58
言い直し	Pearson の相関係数	.624**	.079	.469**	1	.256
	有意確率 (両側)	.000	.558	.000	.	.052
	N	58	58	58	58	58
平均発話	Pearson の相関係数	.329*	.099	.267*	.256	1
	有意確率 (両側)	.012	.462	.043	.052	.
	N	58	58	58	58	58

** 相関係数は 1% 水準で有意 (両側) です。

* 相関係数は 5% 水準で有意 (両側) です。

この結果、どの項目同士の間にも負の相関はみられず、仮説 1 は棄却され、流暢さを計る変数の間にはそれぞれに数値の差はみられるが、正の相関関係にあることがわかった。特に発語数と繰り返しの数、発語数と言い直しの数、および繰り返しの数と言い直しの数との間に有意な相関がみられた。つまり、一定時間に多くの発話をする被験者は、実際には繰り返しや言い直しをすることが原因でその発語数が多くなっているということが判明した。これは、発語数が多い学習者がそのまま流暢さが高いということにはならないことの証明であり、さらに言い直しを頻繁に行うものは同時に繰り返しの頻度も高いことがわかった。また、一つの発話の長さを示す平均発話長と発語数との間は 5% 水準で有意であり、多くの量の英語を話す被験者は個々の発話自体も長いという結果が得られた。

4. 2 仮説 2 の検証

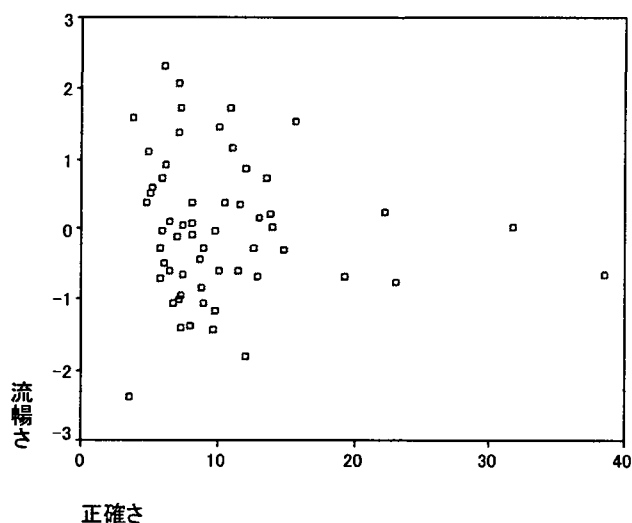
3. 5. 2 によって求められた全被験者の流暢さの値と、3. 5. 3 で求めた正確さの値を変数とし、Pearson の相関係数を用いてその関係を算出した (表 3)。

表 3 : Pearson の相関係数

相関係数

		流暢さ	正確さ
流暢さ	Pearson の相関係数	1	-.088
	有意確率(両側)	.	.513
	平方和と 積和	57.000	-31.266
	共分散	1.000	-.549
	N	58	58
正確さ	Pearson の相関係数	-.088	1
	有意確率(両側)	.513	.
	平方和と 積和	-31.266	2238.157
	共分散	-.549	39.266
	N	58	58

図1：流暢さと正確さの散布図



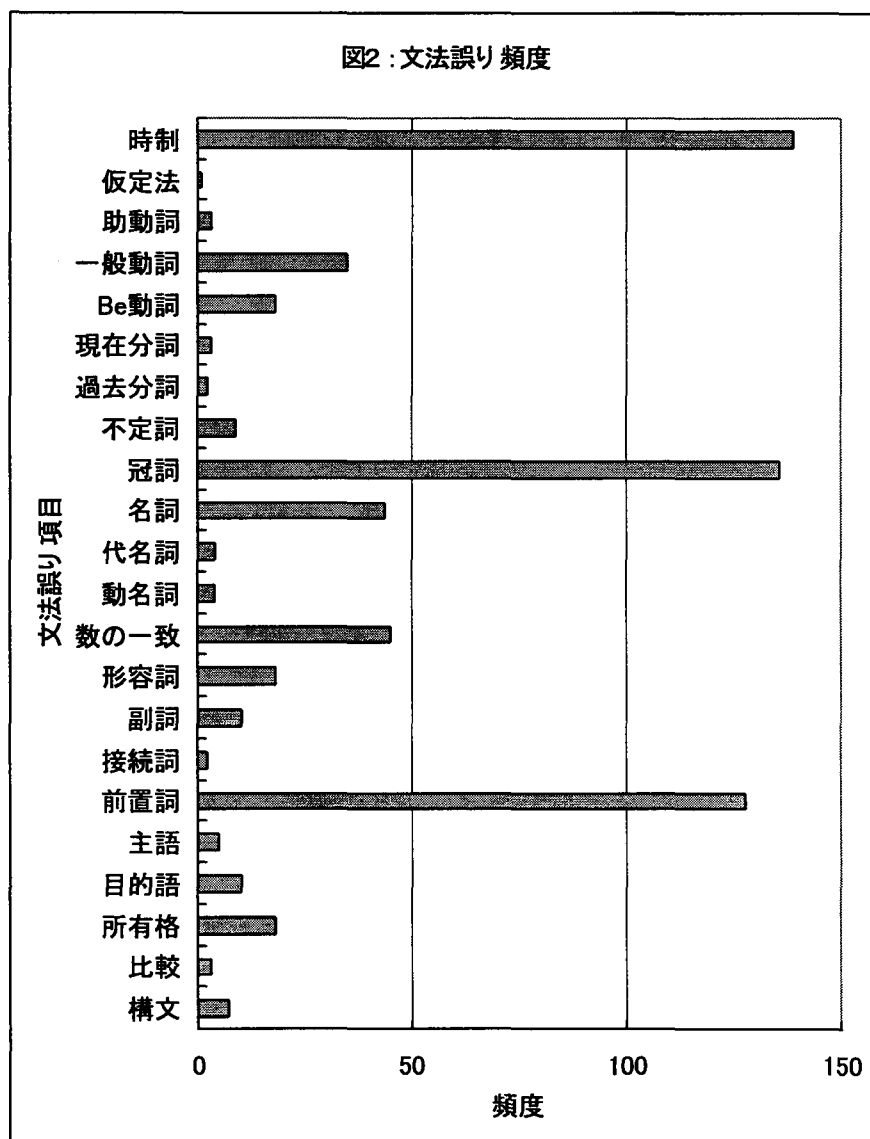
この結果、流暢さと正確さの間の相関係数は $r = -.088$ であり、両者の間には有意な相関は無いことがわかった。よって仮説 2 は棄却された。図 1 は散布図によってその関係を示したものであるが、かなり流暢なレベルで英語を話す学習者であっても正確さの面では問題を抱えていたり、逆に正確に話すことによって流暢さが制限されている場合があることも読み取ることができる。しかし、全体的には、正の相関が無いのと同時に負の相関があるともいえないため、流暢さを伸ばすことで正確さが抑えられたり、逆に正確さを伸ばしていることが流暢さのマイナス要因にもなっていると一般化することはできない。ただ、流暢さと正確さの両方において高いレベルを示す被験者がいないことは、言語能力測定で上級と認められる対象となる学習者がいないということになるため、指導上改善すべき点として検討を要するところである。

4. 3 文法上の誤りの内容の検討

被験者の発話に見られた文法上の誤りをデータに基づいて誤りの種類別に検討した結果、次の 22 項目に分類することができた。

時制・仮定法・助動詞・一般動詞・Be 動詞・現在分詞・過去分詞・不定詞・冠詞・名詞・代名詞・動名詞・数の一致・形容詞・副詞・接続詞・前置詞・主語・目的語・所有格・比較・構文

全被験者の発話において見られた誤りの総数は 644 であり、その割合は以下のグラフに示した通りである。(図 2)



誤りの種類としては時制・冠詞・前置詞の用法に関するものが圧倒的に多く見られた。

時制に関しては、クラス A の被験者は未来時制を、クラス B の被験者は過去時制を使う状況を与えられていたが、どちらのグループにおいても時制の混同がかなりの数においてあられ、現在時制を代用している場合が圧倒的に多くみられた。これは、日時を表す副詞や副詞句を使いながらも正しい時制を使っていないことが多いことから、未来や過去という意識は持ちながらも、実際の発話においては動詞を変化させたり助動詞を正しく使うまでの余裕が無いことが考えられる。また、冠詞と前置詞の誤りに関しては、被験者が話そうとする内容に意識が向いている際に、こうした機能語にまでモニターが働いていない状況がうかがえる。このことは単数・複数の使い分けに関する誤りにも共通して言えることである。前置詞の誤りには go to shopping のように go to がチャンクになっているために不必要な前置詞が入るケースも複数みられたが、流暢さを増す要素となり得るチャンクが同時に正確さの面での誤りの原因になっているのも興味深い現象である。また、名詞に関する誤りが 44 件にも上ったが、これは日にちを表す際に基数と序数の使い分けを混同している被験者が多くみられたためであり、未来の予定や過去の出来事を話す今回のテーマの設定が影響しているものと思われる。

またそれぞれの文法項目が被験者ごとにどの程度の分散を示しているかを調べたのが表 4 である。全体的には大きな差は見られないものの、頻度の高かった時制・冠詞・前置詞の 3 項目に関しては、誤りを繰り返している被験者がいることがわかる。

表 4： 文法誤り記述統計量

記述統計量

	度数	最小値	最大値	平均値	標準偏差	分散
時制	48	1	11	2.90	2.434	5.925
仮定法	1	1	1	1.00	.	.
助動詞	3	1	1	1.00	.000	.000
一般動詞	26	1	3	1.35	.562	.315
BE動詞	12	1	3	1.50	.798	.636
現在分詞	2	1	2	1.50	.707	.500
過去分詞	2	1	1	1.00	.000	.000
不定詞	8	1	2	1.13	.354	.125
冠詞	47	1	16	2.89	2.768	7.662
名詞	23	1	4	1.91	1.164	1.356
代名詞	3	1	2	1.33	.577	.333
動名詞	4	1	1	1.00	.000	.000
数の一致	24	1	7	1.87	1.361	1.853
形容詞	18	1	1	1.00	.000	.000
副詞	10	1	1	1.00	.000	.000
接続詞	2	1	1	1.00	.000	.000
前置詞	41	1	14	3.12	2.337	5.460
主語	4	1	2	1.25	.500	.250
目的語	8	1	2	1.25	.463	.214
所有格	14	1	3	1.29	.611	.374
比較	3	1	1	1.00	.000	.000
構文	5	1	2	1.40	.548	.300
有効なケースの数 (リストごと)	0					

5. 教育的示唆

本研究では、高校生学習者の発話データから流暢さと正確さの関係についての考察を行ったが、結果としてこの2つの要素に有意な相関が無いことがわかった。この研究の過程で、学習者の英語力を高めていくために、次のような教育的な示唆が得られた。

まず、一定時間内に多くの発話を行う学習者が必ずしも流暢であるとは限らないということである。つまり、同じ語句の繰り返しや誤りの修正を行っているために、結果的に発話数が多くなる場合がみられるということであり、一つの内容を述べるために必要以上に多くの言葉を要していることになる。言いたいことを簡潔にまとめて話す力を養うためには、話すスピードをある程度抑えることも指導に取り入れる必要があり、そうすることで繰り返しや言い直しが減少する訓練になるはずである。その結果、同程度の発話数の中で、より内容のある発話を行うことが可能になるはずである。

第二に言い直しの効果についてである。本研究の中では言い直しを、流暢さを妨げる要素の一つとして採用したが、同時に学習者が言い直しを行っている過程において自分の誤りに気づき修正を行っていることになる。これはSwain(1985,1995)がアウトプット仮説で述べているように、学習者が発話を行う際に言語習得を行う機会を得ていることになる。特に、本実験の被験者のほとんどが文法や語法上の誤りに気づいて正しく修正を行っていた。

るため、自分の知識を確認して試してみる機会を得ていることになる。これは正確さを伸ばすための指導の手段として活用できるものであり、流暢さと正確さを同時に指導する際の一つの手がかりになると考えられる。

第三に、文法・語法上の誤りでは前置詞や冠詞といった機能語に関するものが圧倒的に多いということである。つまり、実際の発話練習においては正しく意味を伝えようという意識が強く働いているため、話題の展開や内容語の選択には十分な注意が払われることになり、意味全体にかかわる構文や接続詞の誤り(global error)、あるいは物を描写するための形容詞や副詞の誤りは少なくなっている。したがってこのような項目に関しては流暢さの指導と連動させて行うことが可能であると思われる。しかし、全体の意味にあまり影響を与えない局所的な誤り(local error)に関しては、実際の発話練習の中で同様の誤りを繰り返し、誤りのまま定着してしまう恐れがある。このため、項目ごとに焦点を当てた指導を *focus on form* の一環として行っていく必要がある。

6. 今後の課題

本研究では流暢さと正確さを数値化してその相関を調べたが、学習者の発話にどの程度の内容が話されていたかの考察が課題として残された。流暢さの基準として採用した一つの発語数が、繰り返しや言い直しによって増えているという事実からも、実際にいくつかの話題が話されていたかを考察することは意味のあることであり、また文法的な正確さと話題の伝わり方との関係も研究対象になりうると思う。

また、発話に表れたそれぞれの誤りを改善していくために、コミュニケーション能力育成という観点でそれぞれの文法・語法上の項目に対して、どのように学習者の注意を焦点化させていくかを考慮に入れた指導法の開発をしていく必要がある。その上で、今回有意な相関がみられなかった流暢さと正確さを関連させながら指導することが可能であるかをあらためて考察することとしたい。

7. 終わりに

最後に、本研究を行うにあたり、終始適切なアドバイスを下さり、温かい励ましをいただいた早稲田大学の中野美知子教授に深く感謝の意を示したい。また、発話データの収集に関して被験者として参加してくれた埼玉県立伊奈学園総合高等学校の生徒諸君、データ分析に関して協力していただいた同校外国語科のALTや語学交換教員の先生方、さらにデータ書き起こし作業に援助いただいた高橋里美さんにもお礼の気持ちを伝えたい。そしてこのような貴重な研究の機会を与えていただいた(財)日本英語検定協会と選考委員の先生方、中でも貴重なご助言をいただいた大友賢二先生に心からお礼を申し上げたい。

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大学英語教育の脱構築: Tutorial English の挑戦

早稲田大学

遠隔教育センター所長

CCDL 研究所所長

オープン教育センター英語教育部門チュートリアル専門委員会委員

教育学部教授

中野美知子

1. Tutorial English の概要

- 講座開始の背景

- ・ 1997 年「**「**電脳空間を活用した外国語教育に関する研究部会」設置 (メディアネットワークセンター)
- ・ 1999~2001 年度「**「**ネットワーク型 Tutorial 英語学習実験プログラム」(デジタル・キャンパス・コンソーシアム)

テレビ会議システムを利用した、チューター1 対学生4 の少人数英語教育実験プログラム。

参加学生: 約 1,500 名

- ・ 2001 年度後期「**「**対面方式 Tutorial 英語学習実験プログラム」(デジタル・キャンパス・コンソーシアム)

上記実験プログラムで実証された「チューター1 対学生4」という少人数教育の手法を「ネットワーク型」から「対面方式」に移して再構築。

参加学生: 約 500 名

- Tutorial English の形態(チューター1 名 対 学生最大4 名)

・ コース構成

2002 年度に設置した Tutorial English 科目は、徹底的に「話す」能力を向上させるための「チュートリアルレッスン」(16 回)、その前後に話す力を向上するために相乗的効果のある「Essay/Business Writing」(3 回)と「Publish Speech」(3 回)の「集合授業」で構成した。また、チュートリアルレッスン期間中は、学生にライティングの課題を3 回与え、提出を義務付けた。提出された課題は、担当教員が適宜添削を行い、学生にフィードバックした。

2002 年度実施した本科目では、General Course と Business Course の2 コースを開設し、それぞれに、Basic (初級) Intermediate (中級) Advanced (上級) の3 レベルを設定した。

また、それぞれのレベルについては、下表のように設定した。

科目名	TOEIC	TOEFL	英検	目安
I (Basic)	500 点未満	450 点未満	2 級以下	高校卒業程度

II (Intermediate)	700 点未満	530 点未満	準1 級以下	大学1 年～2 年生程度
III (Advanced)	700 点以上	530 点以上	準1 級以上	大学2 年～3 年生程度

・ チュートリアルレッスンの進め方

チュートリアルレッスンは、1 人のチューターに対して学生4 人を上限としてグループを編成し、学生が選択した科目別に連続8 週間・週2 コマ(24 時間)のグループレッスンを行った(夏季休暇中に行った集中授業では、毎日2 コマずつ8 日間)。

授業開始前に TOEIC-IP の受験を義務付け、そのスコアを元に、同程度のレベルの学生を組みあわせるようグループ編成を行った。

レッスンは、早稲田大学独自開発のテキストを用い、グループのレベルや進度に合わせて、トピックなどを設定しながら、すべて英語で進められた。毎回レッスン終了後には、学生個々のレッスン中の発言に対するフィードバックや英語力を身につけるためのアドバイスが、Tutorial English 用 Web サイト (http://tes.project.mnc.waseda.ac.jp/student_site.html) にチューターより入力され、学生は、このコメントに対して、英語で返信することを奨励した。

また、各自の復習に利用できるよう、レッスン中に使用したリスニング教材を、それぞれのユニット終了後に Web サイトに掲載した。

チュートリアルレッスン期間終了後には、履修者それぞれに対して”Final Review Sheet (チュートリアルレッスンにおける学習到達度の報告書)”を、担当する2 名のチューター毎に作成し、受講生および科目担当教員にフィードバックを行った。学生は各自の英語力の優れた点や課題を客観的に確認でき、科目担当教員は、学生への評価の資料として使用した。

(Course Objectives)

General

Basic: Students will become comfortable using different functions and sentence structures to enable practical communication in everyday situations.

Intermediate: Students will become competent with a variety of different functions, with an emphasis on descriptive and explanatory language.

Advanced: Students will become competent with a variety of different functions, with an emphasis on exchanging ideas, problem solving and group discussion.

Business

Basic: Students will become familiar with daily office vocabulary and basic functions necessary for a range of working situations.

Intermediate: Students will be able to communicate effectively in real-life working situations, using a wide variety of expressions and functions.

Advanced: Students will develop fluency and become competent with higher-level functions and vocabulary for real-life working situations with an emphasis on problem solving.

・ チューターの概要

- 国籍別チューター数

	日 本	アメリカ	カナダ	イギリス	アイルランド	オーストラリア	合 計
男 性	6	8	5	4	1	2	26
女 性	34	2	1	2	0	1	40
合 計	40	10	6	6	1	3	66

- 平均年齢

平均年齢:約32歳

- 平均教歴

平均教歴:約4年

- 学歴
 - 学部卒 28 名
 - 大学院卒 38 名(TESOL,応用言語学専攻:19)
- 国籍が日本の者(40名)のうち、海外大学出身者
 - 学部卒 5 名、大学院卒 28 名、計 33 名

単位認定

箇所名		Tutorial English 科目の単位の取扱い
政治系学部	自由選択部門(卒業算入)	自由選択部門計上科目 上限 18 単位までに含めることができる(要申請)
	発展科目部門(卒業不算入)	特に申請をしない場合は、上限 20 単位までとして含める。
法学部		共通選択科目として、卒業単位に算入可能。
第一文学部		「広域科目Ⅱ(英語科目)」として卒業単位に算入する。
第二文学部		第二文学部の「広域科目Ⅱ」(英語科目)に準じて扱われる。
教育学部		外国語 B(英語)の科目として振替可能(申請により卒業単位科目に算入可能)。ただし、英語英文学科の学生は振替不可。
商学部		総合教育科目として卒業算入する。
理工学部		他学部聴講の取扱いと同様。
社会科学部		40 単位(他機関・他箇所修得認定枠)に含まれる。
人間科学部		通常の他学部聴講に準ずる。

2. 今年度の実際

- 募集人数と希望者数・登録者数

募集総定員 2,088 名 登録希望者数合計 3,156 名 登録者数 1,857 名
【別紙】参照

- 学生の効果達成

・ 学生アンケートの実施

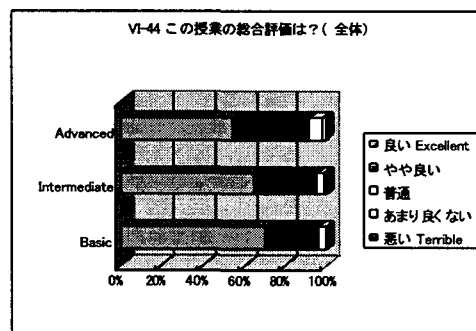
オープン教育センターが期末に行う授業評価アンケートとは別に、受講学生に対して、チュートリアルレッスン評価アンケートを実施した。チュートリアルレッスンでは、学生は原則として2人のチューターにレッスンを受けるため、担当チューターごとに実施した。

実施日	回収数(延べ)	回収率
前期 General Course グループレッスン最終週 (2002年7月1日～7月6日)	1166 通	71%
夏季集中 General Course グループレッスン最終日 (2002年8月29日)	235 通	85%
夏季集中 Business Course グループレッスン最終日 (2002年9月12日)	146 通	65%

・ 回答から見る Tutorial English の評価

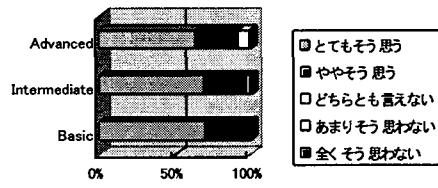
-a. チュートリアルレッスンに関する学生の評価

前期・および夏季集中授業において、このレッスンに対しての総合評価を質問したところ、全回答数(1981件)中89.83%の受講者が“良い”あるいは“やや良い”と評価している。レベル別に見ると、初級者により高い満足度が見られる。

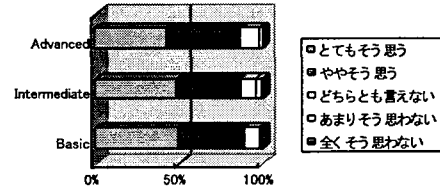


学生が実感として身についた能力については、ほとんどの受講者が、“スピーキングの向上に役立った”と回答している。また、それに次ぐ効果として、“リスニングの向上”をあげる学生が多かった。これらを裏付けるように、TOEIC-IP スコアについても、リスニングセクションでより大きなスコア上昇が見られる。

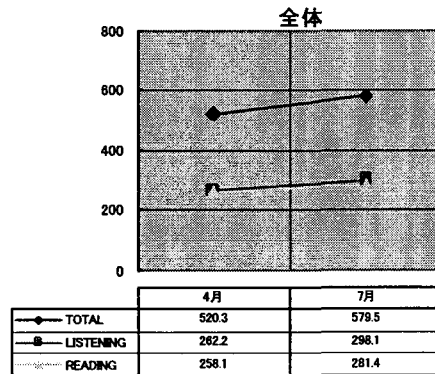
VI-38 この授業はスピーキング力の向上に役立つと思う(全体)



VI-40 この授業はリスニング力の向上に役立つと思う

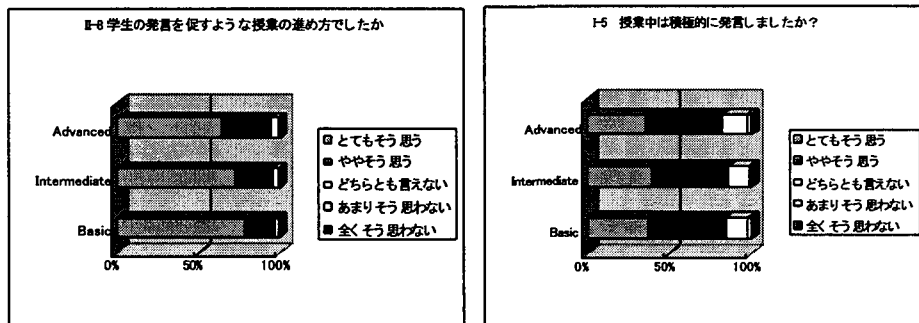


【前期実績の TOEIC スコア平均点分布全体】

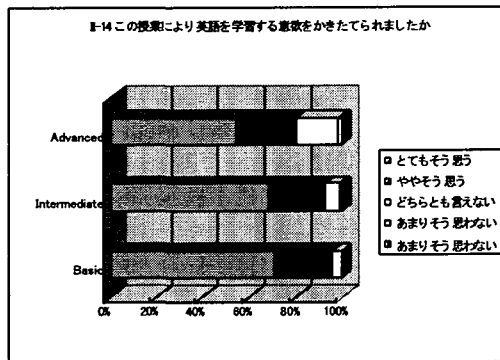
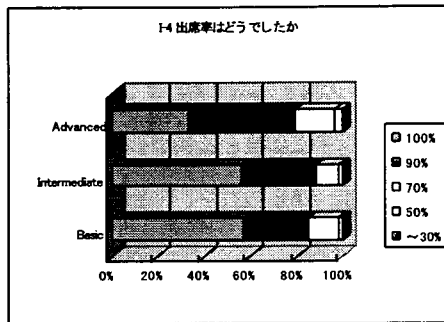
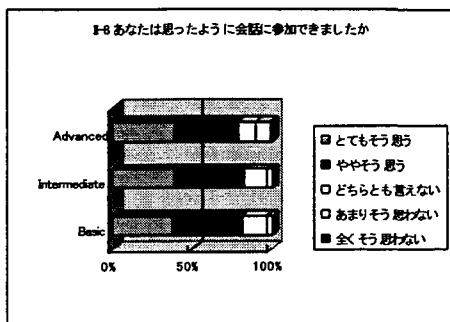


-b 学生の授業参加意識とチューター役割

チュートリアルレッスンは、少人数レッスンのメリットを活かし、各受講者が高い参加意識を保って、積極的に英語によるコミュニケーションに参加できるようにレッスンが組み立てられている。学生アンケートによると、全レベルにわたり95%前後の学生が担当チューターが学生個々の発言を促すようなレッスンの進め方をしたと感じ、85%前後の受講生は積極的に発言を試みたことが分かった。



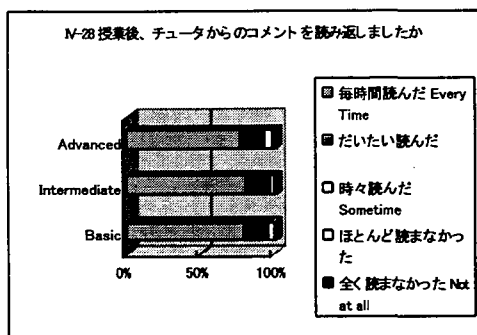
また、実際に思うように会話ができたと感じている学生は、77.97%という結果になっている。これを見る限り、このレッスン方式は学生が自分自身の意志で積極的に会話に参加させる機会を与え、結果授業への参加意欲を沸き立たせる効果があると考えられる。また、チューターは、学生が積極的に授業に参加するための環境作りに大いに役目を果たしていると言える。

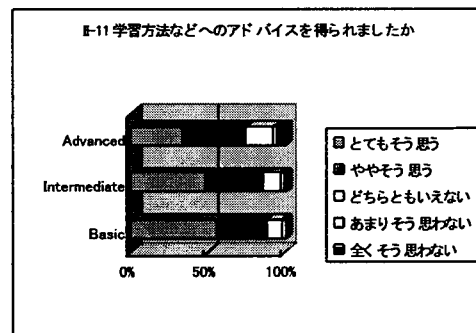
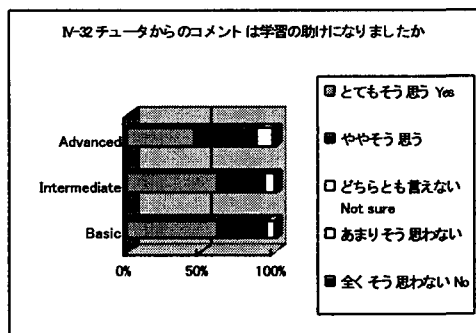
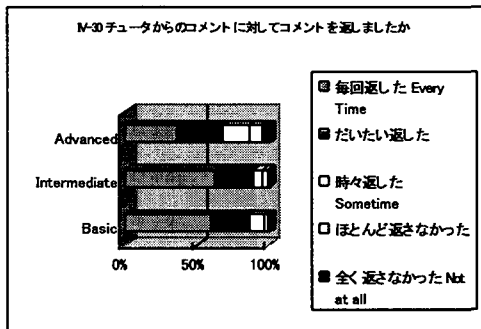


-c 受講者の発話促進者としてのチューターの役割

各レッスン終了後、各チューターは、担当する学生に対して、個別にレッスン中において見られた長所・課題についてのコメントとともに、それぞれにあった復習方法などのアドバイスを、Web サイトで行った。

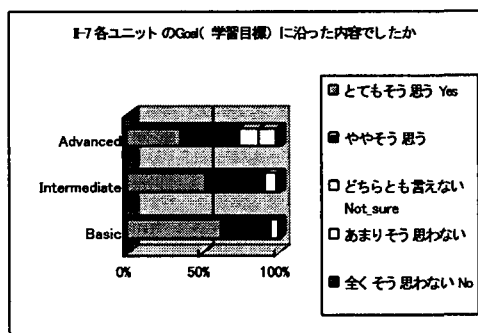
95%前後の受講生がこれらのコメントを読み、Basic・Intermediate の学生の 85%前後、Advanced の学生の 7 割弱がチューターのコメントに返信を試みている。また、9 割前後の学生が "チューターからのコメントが学習にとっても役立った" と感じている。

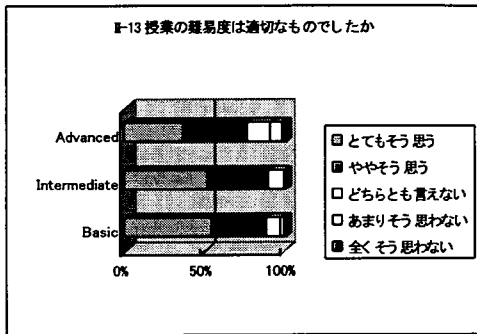




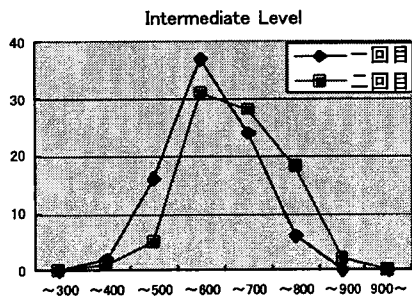
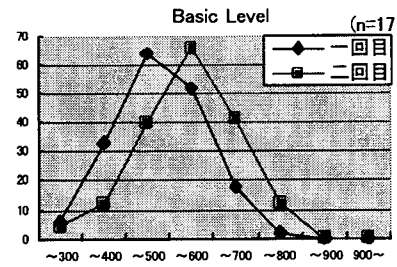
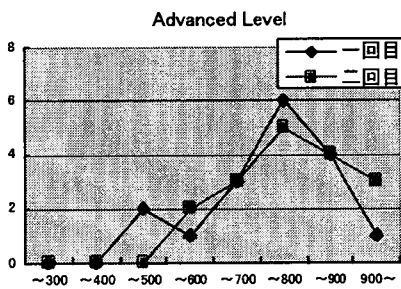
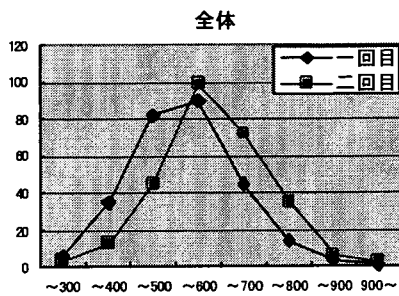
-d 授業の実施形態について

下のグラフを見ると、概ね学生は、あらかじめ設定された学習目標を適切と考え、想定していた難易度であり、理解しながら学習していたと考えられる。ただし、上級者に関しては、他のレベルと比較して、若干大きなギャップが見られる。これは、レベル別 TOEIC スコア分布に見られるとおり、Advanced レベル選択者において、比較的少人数の中に、より多様なレベルの学生が存在したことを反映していると考えられる。



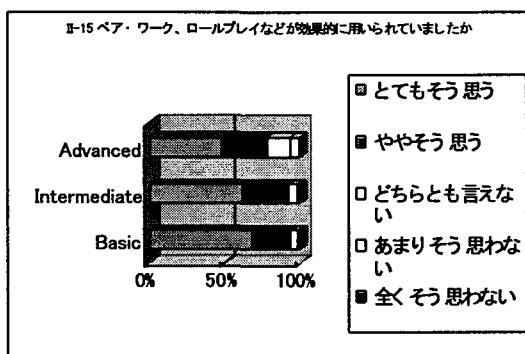


【2002 年度前期 Tutorial English 受講前後における TOEIC IP 得点分布】

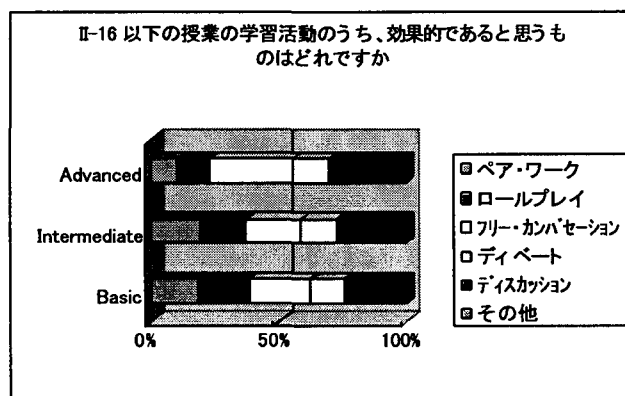


チュートリアルレッスンでは、ペアワークやロールプレイなどのアクティビティを適宜取り入れている。ここでも Advanced とそれ以外のレベルの学生で差異が見られるものの、

概ね好意的に受け止められていることがわかる。



では、実際に取り入れたアクティビティの中で、学生自身は何が効果的と考えているのだろうか。下のグラフ(II-16)を見ると、各レベルとも”ディスカッション”は効果的と考えているようである。また、Advanced クラスの学生は、ロールプレイやペアワークよりも、チューターや学生同士のフリー・カンパセーションやディスカッションなど、実践的に英語を使用するアクティビティを求めている傾向があることがわかる。



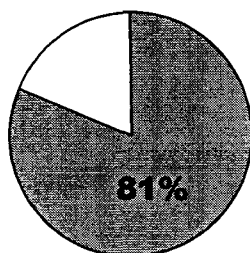
TOEIC スコアの分布・上昇分布

【2002 年度前期 Tutorial English 受講前後における TOEIC IP 得点結果】

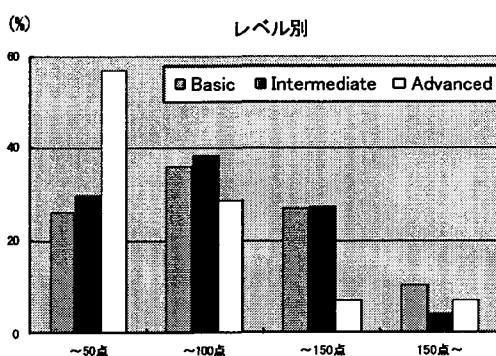
実施=1 回目:2002 年 4 月 21 日(月)・2 回目2002 年 7 月 7 日(日)

〔1 回目と 2 回目の両方を受験している学生(277 名)のみ抽出〕

得点上昇率



■ 上昇者 □ 下降者



3. 今後の課題と取り組み

2003年度は、学生の強い要望に応じて、定員を5,000名に拡大することともに、8週間16回のチュートリアルレッスンを9週間18回に延長することを計画している。また、チュートリアルレッスンの前後に実施する集合授業も、定員増にあわせた教室確保が困難であることから、ビデオ教材とCAIを活用したオンデマンド授業として再構成する予定である。

【別紙】

2002年度センター設置科目 科目登録状況

2002.4.23 現在

	General (Basic)		General (Inter-media te)		General (Advanced)		Business (Basic)		Business (Inter-media te)		Business (Advanced)		合計	
	希望者	登録者	希望者	登録者	希望者	登録者	希望者	登録者	希望者	登録者	希望者	登録者	希望者	登録者
政経	190	66	93	60	21	11	113	78	59	58	17	11	493	284
法	147	62	67	42	13	9	85	69	38	32	14	12	364	226
一文	279	100	124	75	33	26	141	103	74	67	26	23	677	394
二文	119	50	42	27	9	7	62	46	21	18	7	5	260	153
教育	130	40	84	45	19	14	71	56	52	52	7	7	363	214
商	170	70	71	43	6	3	64	48	44	39	9	9	364	212
理工	97	45	46	21	10	8	44	27	24	18	8	7	229	126
社会学	130	54	48	29	14	8	54	37	33	25	9	3	288	156
人科	48	30	15	13	3	2	25	20	11	11	1	1	103	77
大学院								8		7			15	15
合計	1310	517	590	355	128	88	659	492	356	327	98	78	3156	1857
1年	836	324	207	128	48	31	430	311	129	111	34	27	1684	932
2年	195	85	117	76	13	7	85	60	54	55	16	12	480	295
3年	200	82	180	109	35	27	91	77	99	94	15	12	620	401
4年以上	79	26	86	42	32	23	53	36	74	60	33	27	357	214
大学院								8		7			15	15
合計	1310	517	590	355	128	88	659	492	356	327	98	78	3156	1857

(ご参考) 2002年度語学教育研究所 履修状況

	一般コース		会話コース		合計	
	希望者	登録者	希望者	登録者	希望者	登録者
政経	117	70	176	66	293	136
法	78	41	134	38	212	79
一文	432	250	752	262	1184	512
二文	200	118	248	98	448	216
教育	95	64	194	61	289	125
商	40	25	63	16	103	41
理工	37	21	77	28	114	49
社会学	61	29	92	30	153	59
人科	24	18	56	11	80	29
大学院	173	103	144	54	317	157
その他	11	6	3	2	14	8
合計	1452	745	2086	666	3538	1411
1年	243	156	476	146	719	302
2年	348	152	576	182	924	334
3年	279	175	446	143	725	357
4年以上	301	153	378	139	679	292
大学院他	184	109	147	56	331	165
合計	1452	745	2086	666	3538	1411

【付録:テキスト目次】

General Basic

CONTENTS

1:	“Let’s speak English!”	1
	Greetings, introductions and classroom English	
2:	“Wow! Sounds great!”	6
	Conversation techniques and asking questions	
3:	“How do you feel?”	11
	Feelings, your week and the past	
4:	“What do you do for fun?”	16
	College life, interests and how often	
5:	“Could you give me a hand?”	22
	Daily activities, instructions and requests	
6:	“Are you free tomorrow?”	27
	Times, dates and invitations	
7:	“Do you want to leave a message?”	32
	Phone calls, messages and exchanging information	
8:	“Nice talking to you!”	37
	Review of units 1-7 and role-plays	
9:	“What’s it like?”	40
	Describing places and weather	
10:	“You’re right!”	44
	Likes, dislikes, comparisons, agreement and disagreement	
11:	“What are they like?”	49
	Describing personality and physical features	
12:	“What do you do on White Day?”	54
	Describing Japanese festivals and holiday plans	
13:	“How much is	

if?"	58
Buying things, asking for help and recommending places	
14: "Can you help me?"	64
Describing problems, giving suggestions and advice	
15: "What do you think?"	68
Pros and cons, opinions and discussion	
16: "It's your turn!"	72
Review of units 1-15 and game	

General Intermediate

CONTENTS

1:	“Tell us about yourself.”	1
	Greetings, conversation starters and communication skills	
2:	“You must have been angry!”	6
	Showing interest, experiences and conversation building	
3:	Student Life	11
	Student lifestyles, vocabulary for student life and accommodation	
4:	“I couldn’t stop laughing.”	17
	Cultural events, special interests and reviews	
5:	“She’s really cool!”	21
	Describing personalities, character traits and superstitions	
6:	Money Matters	27
	Money, large numbers and budgeting	
7:	“I want to study at a big university because ...”	32
	Academic life, universities and study abroad	
8:	“I’m not sure.”	39
	Review of units 1-7, saying no and I don’t understand	
9:	“Tell me a story.”	43
	Sequencing events, giving reasons and telling stories	
10:	Changing Places	48
	Discussion skills and cross-cultural issues	
11:	“I remember now!”	53
	Learning styles and study techniques	
12:	The Life Cycle	58
	Life stages, rites of passage and the future	
13:	“I see what you’re saying.”	63
	Group discussions, decisions and suggestions	
14:	“I’d like to talk about ...”	66
	Making and evaluating presentations	
15:	The Guests from Hell	69
	Problem solving, discussion and consensus	
16:	“Is it my turn?”	75
	Review of units 1-15 and game	

General Advanced

CONTENTS

1:	English Around the World.....	1
	Use of English in different countries	
2:	“Where are you from?”.....	7
	Cultural stereotypes and experiences overseas	
3:	“What if...?”.....	11
	Life stages, decisions and the future	
4:	“French fries are high in fat, but I love them!”.....	15
	Food, exercise and health matters	
5:	“What color is it?”.....	21
	Different styles of English, explanations and discussion	
6:	Globetrotting.....	26
	Travel priorities and planning	
7:	Volunteering.....	31
	Volunteering and charities	
8:	“Two wrongs don’t make a right.”.....	36
	Review of units 1-7 and proverbs	
9:	“Mind if I ask you a few questions?”.....	40
	Surveys and questionnaires	
10:	A Perfect World.....	46
	Ideal and alternative societies	
11:	“Don’t touch that dial!”.....	51
	Radio, newspapers and television	
12:	Surround sound.....	56
	Describing smells, sounds, tastes and feelings	
13:	“What do you do in your free time?”.....	61
	Leisure time and extreme sports	
14:	“That’s a good question!”.....	67
	Making, evaluating and asking about presentations	
15:	“Are you a technophile?”.....	70
	Attitudes towards technology	

16: “Whose turn is it?”73
Review of units 1-15 and game

Business Basic

CONTENTS

1:	“Nice to meet you!”	1
	Greetings, introductions and small talk	
2:	“What kind of job would you like?”	6
	The future, time expressions, and probability	
3:	“I had to make 100 copies!”	10
	Daily routines and everyday office activities	
4:	“How was the meeting?”	15
	Describing events at work	
5:	“May I ask who’s calling, please?”	18
	Polite telephone language, telephone calls at work	
6:	“Could we meet this afternoon?”	23
	Making appointments and invitations, times and dates	
7:	“I’d like to make a reservation.”	29
	Making reservations for hotels and flights	
8:	“I’m sorry, he’s not available.”	35
	Review of Units 1-7	
9:	“I’m here on business.”	38
	Business travel, Immigration and Customs	
10:	“I’d like to change some money, please.”	43
	Numbers, country names, and exchanging money	
11:	“It’s the best cell phone ever!”	47
	Comparing and presenting products	
12:	“How do I get to the board room?”	51
	Asking for and giving directions	
13:	“Are you ready to order?”	55
	Ordering in restaurants	
14:	“Can I borrow your pen?”	62

Permission and requests

15: “What strengths?”	67	your
Job skills and personal qualities, job interviews		
16: “It’s turn!”	72	your
Review of Units 1-15		

Business Intermediate

CONTENTS

1:	“Here's my card.”	1
	Greetings, introductions, and small talk	
2:	“We have about 4,000 employees.”	5
	Describing company structure, jobs and responsibilities	
3:	“I'll put you through.”	11
	Polite telephone English, making calls at work	
4:	“Are you available for a meeting?”	16
	Arranging appointments, times and places	
5:	“How do I get to the office?”	20
	Giving directions, describing locations, asking the way	
6:	“That's a good point.”	25
	Expressing and asking for opinions, agreeing and disagreeing	
7:	“Could you help me?”	29
	Office activities, work problems, offering help, and giving advice	
8:	“What do you do?”	33
	Review of Units 1-7	
9:	“I do apologize.”	37
	Making and handling complaints; apologizing and offering suggestions	
10:	“I can't find my suitcase.”	43
	Business trips, problems at the airport, and lost property	
11:	“Shinjuku is definitely worth a visit.”	49
	Meeting a visitor at the airport, recommending activities	
12:	“Apply ASAP.”	55
	Job advertisements and job-related vocabulary	
13:	“Tell me about yourself.”	61
	Job interviews	

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Computer-Mediated Communication in the CU-SeeMe System Between Japanese and Korean; and Between Japanese and Philippine University Students: An Interim Report²

**Kazuharu Owada, Masanori Oya, Eiichiro Tsutsui,
and
Michiko Nakano**

1. Background

As a result of recent developments in technology, a new form of communication between individuals, i.e., computer-mediated communication (CMC), has emerged via electronic media. CMC, according to Herring (1996), is “communication that takes place between human beings via the instrumentality of computers” (p. 1) and includes such modes as written text, “graphic, auditory, and/or tactile modalities” (p. 10).

Among the various forms, written text, i.e., text-based CMC is categorized into two types: “synchronous CMC” and “asynchronous CMC” (Herring, 1996, p. 1). In synchronous CMC the typed message can be read by others on the computer screen immediately, whereas in asynchronous CMC at a later time. Synchronous CMC includes Internet Relay Chat (IRC) program on the internet, and Bulletin Board Systems (BBSs), while asynchronous CMC includes E-mail and some conferencing systems.

Among the synchronous CMC, chat system is the one most widely used in the areas of discourse analysis and cross-cultural communication. To explore its potential benefits, a lot of research has been conducted especially on relay chat systems. For example, Werry (1996) examined the interactive written discourse of Internet Relay Chat (IRC) where people from over 70 countries can discuss various topics in a variety of different languages. From the standpoint of NS-NNS interactions, Ma (1996) investigated the effects of relay chat exchanges between East Asian (Chinese, Japanese, and Korean) and North American university students. Similarly, Kitade (2000) analyzed the internet chat discussion between L2 Japanese learners and native speakers of Japanese.

From the pedagogical perspective, some of the advantages of CMC can be summarized as follows.

² This is based on a paper presented at the JACET 39th annual convention held at Okinawa International University in Okinawa on November 3, 2000.

1. Students can actively engage in actual cross-cultural communication through learner-learner interaction.
2. Students who are not confident can feel more at ease with non-native speakers than native speakers.
3. Students can broach, change, expand a topic relatively easily as their discussion unfolds.
4. Students who are quiet are more expressive in CMC than during face-to-face interaction (Kitade, 2000).
5. Students can self-monitor, or focus on linguistic forms more than in face-to-face communication.

2. The study

2.1. Purpose

Following these developments in the CMC research, Waseda University launched Cross-Cultural Distance Learning Project (CCDL). As part of the CCDL project, students at the Department of Education began communicating cross-culturally with two other Asian countries: the Republic of Korea and the Republic of the Philippines through the CU-SeeMe software in 1999.³

The purpose of this report is (1) to examine whether there is any difference in MLU in words in chat exchanges between Japanese and Korean, and between Japanese and Philippine university students; (2) to look at what kind of interactions have taken place by showing some excerpts of the actual discourse the students produced. By doing so, I hope that we can explore an effective way to implement CMC in EFL classrooms in Japan.

2.2. Subjects

The subjects were twelve fourth-year students enrolled in a seminar for Applied

³ Compared with relay chat exchanges, The CU-SeeMe software developed by Cornell University has one advantage: you can see the face of your partner however small the screen might be. In the CU-SeeMe system up to eight people can participate in each session.

Linguistics at Waseda University in Japan; twelve students from Korea University in the Republic of Korea, and ten students from De La Salle University in the Republic of the Philippines.

The Waseda students participated in chat exchanges with both the Korea students and the De La Salle students inside and outside classes.

The students were usually randomly assigned to a chat group on each session. As a result, the members in each session were not kept constant. For example, two Japanese students and one Korean student in one session; three Japanese students and one Philippine student in another session.

2.3. Material

Chat data were drawn from the two-way exchanges in the CU-SeeMe system: Waseda Univ. vs. Korea Univ. and Waseda Univ. vs. De La Salle Univ. The series of sessions lasted from October 21, 1999 to December 7, 1999 for both Waseda and Korea students; July 8, 1999 to December 2, 1999 for both Waseda and De La Salle students. For this study, Waseda students were asked to save their chat data in a floppy disk and submit them for analysis.

2.4. Data analysis

2.4.1. MLU in words (words per utterance)⁴

We calculated MLU (Mean Length of Utterance) in words, i.e., words per utterance, by dividing the total number of words in each session by the total number of utterances. In this computation emoticons are counted as words because of the significant information they convey.

As for the identification of an utterance boundary, we regarded the pressing of the Return Key, or Enter Key as an utterance boundary. Therefore, one utterance can be one word, one clause, or two clauses. Two excerpts below may illustrate this point.

Excerpt 1:

Waseda Edu#1: There are other noodles but..	[One Utterance]
Korea-E#1: soba is cheaper and taste good?	[One Utterance]

⁴ This section is an extended version of Owada et al. (in press).

Waseda Edu#1: Soba is thinner than Udong. [One Utterance]
 Korea-E#1: well, in Korea, there's saying [One Utterance]

Excerpt 2:

Waseda Edu#2: And UK groups have somehow pityful sounds. [One Utterance]
 Korea-E#4: pityful...? [One Utterance]
 Korea-E#4: what do you mean? [One Utterance]
 Waseda Edu#2: Sorry I cant express well, but i think [One Utterance]
 Waseda Edu#2: their sounds are some melanchoric(is the spell right?) [One Utterance]

Since the number of times when the students participated in chat exchanges varied, we calculated the average MLU in words based on each student's contribution in each session.

Figure 1 below shows the overall mean of MLU in words among three groups; 6.05 for the Waseda, 5.08 for the Korea, and 8.23 for the De La Salle students.
 Figure 1. Average MLU in words among three groups

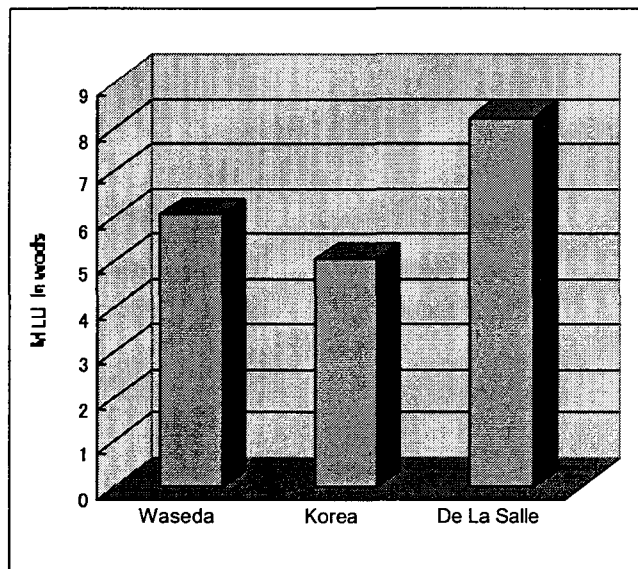


Figure 2 presents the development of overall mean of MLU in words between Waseda and Korea students. Table 1 shows all the rises and falls in the bar graphs for the two groups. A plus sign means a rise; a minus sign means a fall. The column for correspondence indicates whether signs for both groups match. There are twelve

corresponding signs and two non-corresponding signs. A binominal test revealed that there is a significant preference for corresponding signs at the alpha level of .05 ($p = .013$, two-tailed). This indicates that the MLU in words for the both groups covaried.

Figure 2. MLU in words between Waseda and Korea students

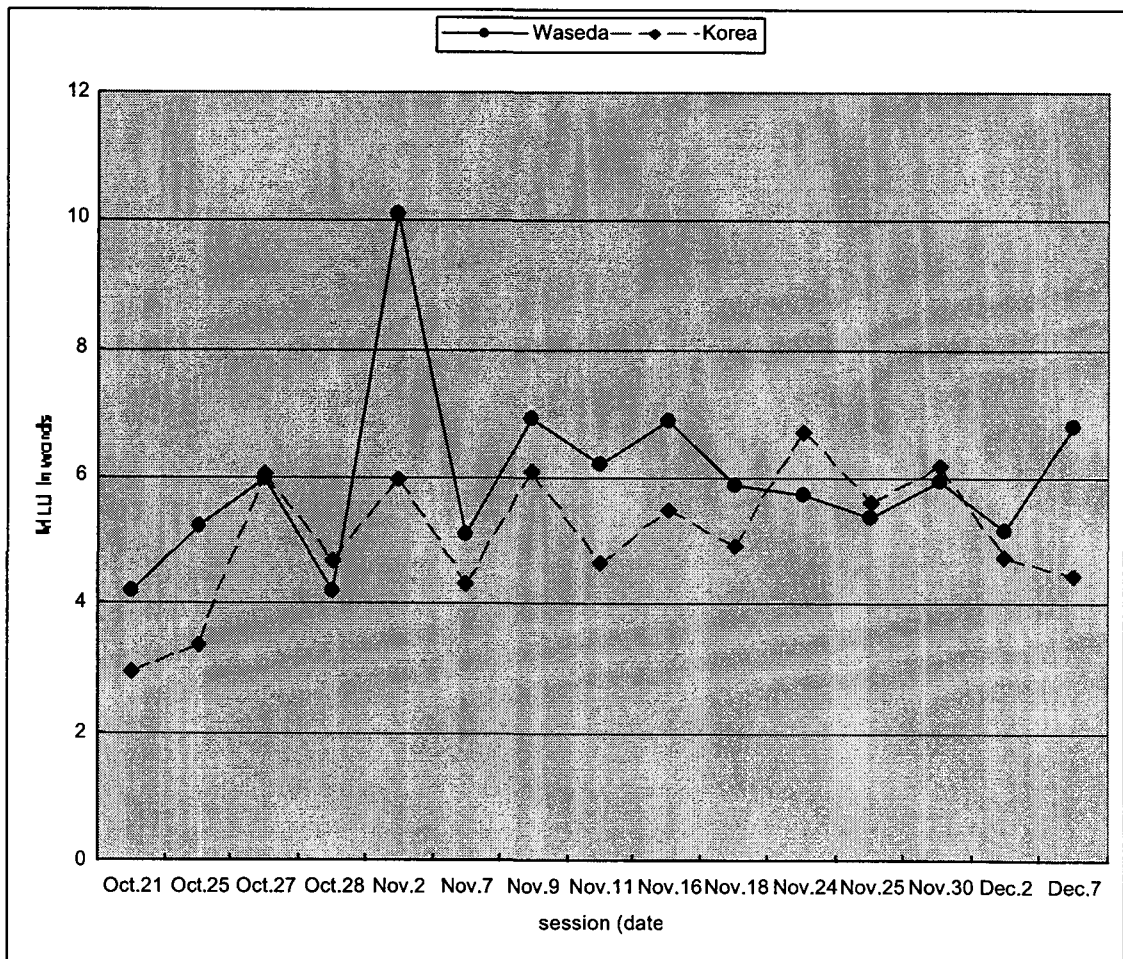


Table 1. Falls and rises between Waseda and Korea students

time period	Waseda	Korea	correspondence
10.21-10.25	+	+	yes
10.25-10.27	+	+	yes
10.27-10.28	-	-	yes
10.28-11.2	+	+	yes
11.2-11.7	-	-	yes
11.7-11.9	+	+	yes
11.9-11.11	-	-	yes
11.11-11.16	+	+	yes
11.16-11.18	-	-	yes
11.18-11.24	-	+	no
11.24-11.25	-	-	yes
11.25-11.30	+	+	yes
11.30-12.2	-	-	yes
12.2-12.7	+	-	no

Figure 3 indicates the development of overall mean of MLU in words between Waseda and De La Salle students. Although the MLU in words for the De La Salle students is higher than that for the Waseda students, especially on November 2 and December 2, the same pattern emerges. Table 2 shows that there are thirteen corresponding signs and two non-corresponding signs. A binominal test revealed that there is a significant preference for corresponding signs at the alpha level of .05 ($p = .007$, two-tailed). This indicates that the MLU in words for the both groups covaried.

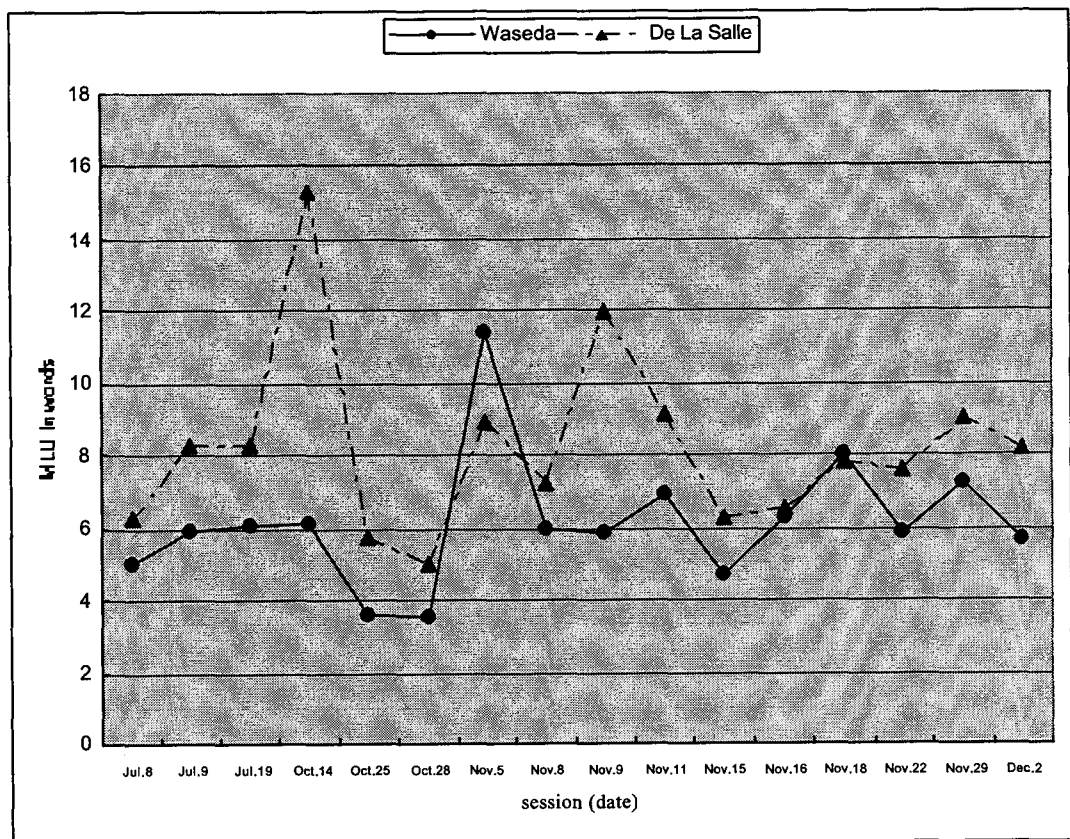


Figure 3. MLU in words between Waseda and De La Salle students

Table 2. Falls and rises between Waseda and De La Salle students

time period	Waseda	De La Salle	correspondence
7.8-7.9	+	+	yes
7.9-7.19	+	+	yes
7.19-10.14	+	+	yes
10.14-10.25	-	-	yes
10.25-10.28	-	-	yes
10.28-11.5	+	+	yes
11.5-11.8	-	-	yes
11.8-11.9	-	+	no
11.9-11.11	+	-	no
11.11-11.15	-	-	yes
11.15-11.16	+	+	yes
11.16-11.18	+	+	yes
11.18-11.22	-	-	yes
11.22-11.29	+	+	yes
11.29-12.2	-	-	yes

2.4.2. Some examples of topics

In order to find out what topics are mainly being discussed, we will show what kind of interactions have taken place by presenting some excerpts in their original forms.

Japanese vs. Korean students

1. Educational problem

A Japanese student realizes that Korea has the same educational problem as in Japan.

Korea-E#5: How is the education in Japan?

Korea-E#5: I mean the education for middle school or high school

Korea-E#5: These days the middle or high school students are uncontrollable, right?

Waseda Edu#3: Ok.3years in middle(13yrs-15yrs) in high 3years(15-18yrs)

Korea-E#5: Same here in Korea

Waseda Edu#3: Yes.I think so.In Japan,that is very big problem these days.

Korea-E#5: Korea, too

Korea-E#5: They don't have respect for their teacher

Waseda Edu#3: Really?In Japan,elementary school and junior high paticulally bad.

Korea-E#5: Not all students just some part of them

Korea-E#5: I think high school students are most impolite to their teacher

2. Entertainment

A Japanese student realizes that Korea is opening its doors to Japanese entertainment.

Waseda Edu#1: Is "LOVE LETTER" a first Japanese movie in Korea?

Korea-E#6: No...

Korea-E#6: There were many...

Korea-E#6: as you know we koreans couldn't listen to many Japanese songs so far...

3. Activities after school (*karaoke*)

A Japanese student realizes that Korean college students enjoy singing at 'noraebang' (*karaoke house*).

Waseda Edu#1: After we are drunken, we usually go to Karaoke.

Korea-E#6: Same course here..

Waseda Edu#1: It is typical Japanese students life.

Korea-E#6: drinking, drinking ,and drinking again and going to noraebang..

Waseda Edu#1: It is as same as Korea, I'm very happy to know that.

Korea-E#6: haha..

4.Military conscription

A Japanese student happens to find out that Korea has a draft system through the talk on a Korean artist.

Waseda Edu#1: No, do you know S.E.S ?

Korea-E#6: Wow... so pretty three girls..

Waseda Edu#1: The members are Korean girls.

Waseda Edu#1: They sing a song in Japan, so I know them.

Korea-E#6: Yes...they're so popular there..especially among the men who are in their military service..

Korea-E#6: I mean, so popular here...

Korea-E#6: not there.. I don't know that...

Waseda Edu#1: Their song become them song in highschool soccer championship next year.

Korea-E#6: wow...

Korea-E#6: Do you like their songs?

Korea-E#6: do they sing in Japanese?

Waseda Edu#1: So,so. yes, they sing in Japanese.

Waseda Edu#1: One of the member lives in Japan, so she can speak Japanese.

Korea-E#6: Right..

Waseda Edu#1: I wonder that the system of military service.

Korea-E#6: I thought you will...

Korea-E#6: It's compulsory.. Korean men should go to military for 2 years and 2 months.

Waseda Edu#1: 2 years and 2 months !!

Korea-E#6: as long as they're healthy enough..

Korea-E#6: Yes...

Korea-E#6: It's so sad..

5. Political issues (North Korea)

A Japanese student and a Korean student discuss the issues on the North Korea quite frankly.

Korea-E#6: Korean men should spend their the most energetic and handsome days in the military

Korea-E#6: Of course, the girlfriends of them should endure without them the days...

Waseda Edu#1: That's too bad, but what is his work or study during military service.

Korea-E#6: hm...protect us from the invasion of other countries especially from North Korea..

Waseda Edu#1: I see.

Korea-E#6: but it never happens..

Waseda Edu#1: North Korea is dangerous to Japan.

Korea-E#6: they go work for the government...

Waseda Edu#1: What do you think North Korea ?

Korea-E#6: North Korea?

Korea-E#6: They spend too much money on arms without feeding the starving people..

Waseda Edu#1: yes,

Korea-E#6: how about you?

Korea-E#6: why do you think they are dangerous to japan?

Waseda Edu#1: Last year, North Korea's Taepodong 1 launched over Japan...

Waseda Edu#1: and I think nuclear weapons are created in North Korea now.

Korea-E#6: well, but we don't have enough proof showing that they're working on nuclear power..

Waseda Edu#1: North Korea's submarine often comes ROK or Japan.

Korea-E#6: And I don't think they have enough power to threaten the world..

Korea-E#6: That's true..

Waseda Edu#1: But what they are doing if they don't have a way to solve the problems.

Korea-E#6: but if a war's broken out by North korea, the world won't let it be...

Waseda Edu#1: In Japan, the bill of Japan-US guideline is clear by the Diet.

Waseda Edu#1: it is ready for the war in the Asia area.

Korea-E#6: Even if they 're planing a war to solve their problems, they're not gonna win...and they know it, so I don't think there is a war.

6. The name system for married couples

A Japanese student and a Korean student discuss the name system for married couples in each other's country.

Waseda Edu#3: I studied some Korean culture today.

Korea-E#1: Do you find it very different from your culture?

Waseda Edu#3: I read that a person who have same familyname and who live in same place

Waseda Edu#3: is not married.

Korea-E#1: but sometimes you can find people who live together even thought they are all married..

Waseda Edu#3: Really ?

Korea-E#1: Because korean people believe that the first childs should support their parents after they get married.

Korea-E#1: The first childs --> the first sons, I mean..

Waseda Edu#3: I read husband and wife have a different family name.

Korea-E#1: Yes, it is true...

Waseda Edu#3: In Japan, it is not permitted.

Korea-E#1: but the children follow their father's last name, not mothers'.

Waseda Edu#3: They should choose husband or wife's familyname.

Korea-E#1: so, in one family, there is only one person who has differeny last name, and it is a mother.

Waseda Edu#3: Only mother is a different family name...

Korea-E#1: a mother has her last name which is same as her father's.

Waseda Edu#3: yes,but it is a little sad...

Korea-E#1: I don't think so.. why do women have to change their family name after they got married..?

Korea-E#1: if the women got divorced and got married again, they have to change their family name again?

Waseda Edu#3: ... there are the law to decide such a thing, because..

Waseda Edu#3: In Japan, it is important to gather as one family and..

Waseda Edu#3: it is difficult to name their children, I think.

Korea-E#1: In japan, sometimes husbands follow their wives' family name?

Korea-E#1: or, only wives follow their husbands' family name?

Waseda Edu#3: yes, it is the case that husband become a child-in law of wife's father...

Waseda Edu#3: husband change wife's last name sometimes.

Korea-E#1: Oh, I see..

Waseda Edu#3: I know such a thing, I was surprised.

Waseda Edu#3: because Korea is as same as Japan, I think.

Korea-E#1: I thought that way, too..

Waseda Edu#3: If you marry, you don't change your family name, Kim !

Korea-E#1: Never..!

Korea-E#1: In korea, it's never happening for husband change his family name to his wife's.

Waseda Edu#3: It is influence of ... some kind of religion....

Waseda Edu#3: I can't remember...

Waseda Edu#3: do you know?

Korea-E#1: like confucision?

Waseda Edu#3: yes, yes !!

7. Drinking in social settings

A Japanese student realizes that it is traditionally considered rude to ask Korean women to pour alcohol into your glasses if you are not their brothers or fathers.

Korea-E#1: Women can pour alcohol for their brothers or fathers' glasses,,

Korea-E#1: But many women don't follow the tradition nowadays..

Waseda Edu#3: In Japan, there is not such a way to pour.

Korea-E#1: My male friends don't want me to pour alcohol into their glasses, and luckily I didn't have to do that..

Waseda Edu#3: men usually asked women to pour in Japan.

Korea-E#1: In Korea, men do , too..

Korea-E#1: and many women do ,too..

Korea-E#1: I think I might have to do that, too..

Waseda Edu#3: I want you to pour my glass... it is rude in Korea ?

Korea-E#1: to my boss or other colleague...

Korea-E#1: Yes it is!!!

Korea-E#1: Shinichi!

Waseda Edu#3: yes !

Korea-E#1: I tell you something!!

Waseda Edu#3: what ?

8. Manners of drinking

A Korean student gets rid of a Japanese student's stereotype that Koreans do not drink in front of the older people.

Waseda Edu#3: Korean people don't drink alcoholic in front of old people.

Korea-E#1: We do!... we don't smoke a cigarette in front of old people..

Waseda Edu#3: and when old people ask 3 times, they drink without seeing.

Korea-E#1: yes,,, we should drink seeing other direction...

Korea-E#1: we shouldn't drink seeing the old people..

Waseda Edu#3: You actually do such a way ?

Korea-E#1: I learned drinking from my math teacher in my high school days..

9. Religion

A Japanese student gets informed that, roughly speaking, half of the Koreans are

Christian, and the other half are Buddhist.

Korea-E#6: For korean, we are varied to faith..

Korea-E#6: SOME belong to buddism and some turn to christian

Waseda Edu#1: I hear so, but Christian is major, I hear also.

Waseda Edu#1: I see.

Korea-E#6: i think it 's half

Korea-E#6: Because there are still many potential buddism between the people

Waseda Edu#1: in Jpn, whether you are buddist, or believe polytheism or niether they go to shrine or temples.

Korea-E#6: wow!

Korea-E#6: The temple isn't for Budda's sake?

Waseda Edu#1: yes, they are. as I said before, saying I am buddist does not mean that I am really buddist.

Korea-E#6: that's interesting

Japanese vs. Philippine students

(5) American Dream

A Japanese student realizes that most Filipinos long for an 'American Dream'.

DeLaSalle PC1: i know. but you don't have to apologetic about this craze for the united states. here in the philippines, people are dying to get to the united states!

DeLaSalle PC2: They want to go to the US .. they have this American Dream

Waseda Edu. #2: what does it mean american dreams?

DeLaSalle PC2: Chiaki, In order to get a US Visa, people here would fall in line before midnight and they will get the result the afternoon the next day

Waseda Edu. #2: it is very broad meaning

Waseda Edu. #1: But I don't like US gorvernment.

DeLaSalle PC1: if you see the line in the U.S. embassy, the line is very long! everybody wants to get visa to go there!

DeLaSalle PC2: chiaki, Do you know the movie or play AMERICAN DREAM?

Waseda Edu. #1: oh I was surprised that about visa

Waseda Edu. #2: what do they want to do, in the us?

DeLaSalle PC2:

DeLaSalle PC2: They believe that work is better and the pay is better in the US.

DeLaSalle PC2: some people go there and never comes back

DeLaSalle PC1: who does? i also do not agree with the american system, but the people there generally nice

Waseda Edu. #2: they think they can succeed?

DeLaSalle PC2: Well, I know of some who succeeded... better education for their children and got better jobs

(6) A native language and the English language

A Japanese student gets informed about what kind of feelings Filipinos have toward their native language and English.

DLS-E #1: English- it is our second language and the moment we go to school, it is being taught..

Waseda Edu#7: most of Filipino are learning english at 4 year-old

DLS-E #1: Yes. And here in the Philippines, English is becoming the main language .. It is quite sad..for me..

DLS-E #1: I love Filipino- our main language..

DLS-E #1:

Waseda Edu#7: yea it is interesting....

Waseda Edu#7: many of people among you agree with that- sad situation

DLS-E #1: When do you start to learn English?

Waseda Edu#7: when i get into junior high, so,13?

Waseda Edu#7: 9 years different...

DLS-E #1: 13? Here, it would seem so late to be taught at 13.

Waseda Edu#7: yea I think so....

Waseda Edu#7: most of your friends prefer to use Filipino?

DLS-E #1: But it is good you know..Because you get to really appreciate and love your main language.

DLS-E #1: Most of my friends prefer Filipino. I prefer Filipino but when I am angry and mad I speak in English. :)

(7) Educational system

A Japanese student is told that people enter college younger in the Philippines than in Japan.

DLS-E #2: no! two years kinder, six years of grade school, four years of high school, start at five years old. (i started at four.)

Waseda Edu#8: In japan, no one skip. How about your country?

DLS-E #2: the "smart" ones sometimes do.

Waseda Edu#8: In Japan, 6 years primary school, 3 years junior high, and 3 years high school.

DLS-E #2: Those who study in america, after studying in the philippines for a while, are usually forced to accelerate (skip) one year there.

DLS-E #2: it's because we have only four years of high school, so those who leave for america are usually advanced in studies.

Waseda Edu#8: These days, all of students with who I chat are 17. So, I thought that you all skipped!

Waseda Edu#8: sorry, I thought

DLS-E #2: no, almost all filipinos start college young (compared to other countries).

(8) Economic discrepancy

A Japanese student gets to know that a gap between rich and poor still exists in the Philippines.

Waseda Edu#7: I want to know how the difference between rich and poor effect the life in your country. That is difficult topic?

DLS-E #1: not at all..

DLS-E #1: the differences between the rich and poor are very obvious here..

DLS-E #1: (such a serious topic!)

DLS-E #1: only about 20% of the population control the wealth...

DLS-E #1: and the resources are not evenly distributed

Waseda Edu#7: 20%? That sounds very low.

DLS-E #1: imagine a triangle divided into 3 horizontally..

Waseda Edu#7: All of the poor can't go to school?

DLS-E #1: the big bottom base is that of the poor

DLS-E #1: its always a problem every year about schooling

DLS-E #1: the start of the school year, the students had schools but they didnt have tables and chairs...

DLS-E #1: so they had to study on the floor!

DLS-E #1: but the Department of education is working hard to remedy that...

DLS-E #1: there are public schools for free but most of them would rather work than

study...

DLS-E #1: may i ask why you are interested about this topic?

Waseda Edu#7: In Japan, there is no difference between rich and poor.

DLS-E #1: none at all???

Waseda Edu#7: I seldom feel it.

DLS-E #1: there are a lot of people here who dont have land to live in so they stay in other people`s land... they are called squatters.

(9) Religion

A Japanese student gets informed that the majority of Filipinos are Catholic.

Waseda Edu#7: what is your religion?

DLS-E #1: I'm a Born Again Christian.

DLS-E #1: Most Filipinos are Catholic, though.

Waseda Edu#7: And daime too? is she Christian

DLS-E #1: Diane is a Roman Catholic.

Waseda Edu#7: are you catholic?

Waseda Edu#7: do you go to church more often?

DLS-E #1: No, I am a Born Again Christian.

(10) The role of a woman in a family

A Japanese student and a Philippine student talk about a woman's role in a family.

DLS-E #1: nowadays the men dont ask their wives to quit their jobs because it is easier for the family since they have more money coming in

DLS-E #1: years ago, it was a common practice that the women stayed at home while the men worked...

Waseda Edu#7: In your country, household work is the job of wife only?

DLS-E #1: but modern families have both the father and the mother working since it gives them more money.

DLS-E #1: it is difficult for the children because they are left with the househelp. these children grow up in the care of the hired help and not of their parents.

DLS-E #1: i have some friends who rarely see their parents because both of them are working.

Waseda Edu#7: In Japan, more and more women continue working after marriage these

days. But after having a child, it gets difficult.

DLS-E #1: i thought that your culture did not allow women to work!

Waseda Edu#7: Before, there was that culture, I think.

Waseda Edu#7: But these days it changed!

(11) Gun control

A Japanese student gets to know that people can own guns in the Philippines.

Waseda Edu#7: If you are in trouble,you can kang fu skills!

DLS-E #1: sure but wouldnt it be easier to shoot a gun ha ha ha ha

Waseda Edu#7: Have you shoot gun??

DLS-E #1: no i was just kidding

DLS-E #1: but my father has a gun

Waseda Edu#7: At home??

DLS-E #1: yeah but we make sure its locked in a safe place

Waseda Edu#7: Are there guns in Phillippn homes?Is it OK??

DLS-E #1: its ok if you have a liscence but still having a gun is a big responsibility

DLS-E #1: and its better if you dont use a gun

Waseda Edu#7: Yeah.In Japan,to have guns is strictly profibbited.

DLS-E #1: even police ?

Waseda Edu#7: No.police is OK.

3. Conclusions

Three main findings can be drawn form this study. First, the Philippine students showed the highest MLU in words (8.23), while the Japanese and Korean students showed similar MLU in words (6.05, 5.08, respectively). This finding reflects the fact that English is used as a second language in the Philippines, while English is taught as a foreign language in both Japan and Korea.

Second, there is correspondence in rises and falls between Japanese and Korean students, and between Japanese and Philippine students. In other words, MLU in words covaries according to each session. This indicates that what is being talked about in each session may determine the rate of MLU in words.

Third, we observed through the excerpts that the students were actively exchanging opinions and learning about the people from other countries.

As a final note, the analysis of CMC data, being very much in its infancy, offers

some challenging features which are to be still accounted for by applied linguists in general and discourse analysts in particular. We hope that with these findings in mind, we can find more effective ways of analyzing CMC data both quantitatively and qualitatively

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Syntactic Information in Composition

Written by Japanese L2 Learners of English: A Pilot Study

Tae YAMAZAKI
Waseda University

1. Introduction

Over the past few decades a considerable number of studies have been on first language acquisition. However, there is little agreement as to the mechanism of language acquisition. For example, Gleitman(1990) proposes that children acquire L1 verb meanings by using syntactic frames in which verbs appear in their early stages. The theory is well known as “syntactic bootstrapping.” On the other hand, Pinker (1989:360) claims that “children innately expect syntax and semantics to be correlated in certain ways in the speech that they attend to, can derive the semantic representation by nongrammatical means (attending to the situation, making inferences from the meanings of individually acquired words), and can thereby do a preliminary syntactic analysis of the first parental utterances they process.” This view is called “semantic bootstrapping.”

With these points in mind we are turning to discussion of second language acquisition. Needless to say, we should not stick to the assumption that L1 acquisition and L2 acquisition have a certain process or a certain mechanism in common. However, it is also the case that we should make the best of L1 acquisition theory at hand. Accordingly, the present study takes the position that it is worthwhile examining L2 learners' output in terms of syntactic frames that the output contains.

Ueda, Miyasaka and Yamazaki (1999) observe that the written utterances of the Japanese L2 learners have almost the same kinds of syntactic frames as their textbooks (i.e. their input) have. It indicates that the learners acquire English verbs' syntactic information as well as their meaning when learning English; in other words, they do not just replace a Japanese verb by an English verb, and vice versa. However, it remains an unsettled question what leads to the learners' deviation from typical patterns in syntactic frames. L2 learners produce utterances that are deviant from typical uses, and some of them continue to use such expressions until their later stages of L2 development. That is to say, L2 learners devise some syntactic structures that they have never heard or seen before on their own. The analysis of the deviation might serve to predict the ways the Japanese learners devise their own rules by referring to their input.

The purpose of the present study is to analyze Japanese L2 learners' composition by paying special attention to deviation in the uses of syntactic frames. First, the

utterances are parsed into syntactic frames and tabulated based on Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg's (1995) classification, and then the syntactic frames used in the learners' utterances are compared to the ones used in the maternal data that appear in Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg (1995:834-835) and in the textbook data that appear in Ueda et al. (1999).

2. Method

2.1 Material

The participants were thirty-eight third year high school students in Japan. Each was asked to write two essays at home; one is titled as "My memories in high school days," the other is titled as "A letter written by myself in ten years." They were allowed to refer to any kind of dictionary, textbooks, and so on. As WordSmith Tools (Ver.2.0) computed, the data consisted of 6,753 words, the type/ token ratio is 16.85, and the mean sentence length is 8.67.

In addition to the composition data, the maternal utterances and the Japanese EFL textbooks were used.

2.2 Parsing

First, fifteen verbs were selected for this study because the syntactic information of these verbs could be obtained in all the three kinds of data. The verbs were *come, fall, give, go, know, like, listen, look, open, put, run, see, take, think, and want*. Next, the learners' sentences containing the verbs mentioned above were parsed into syntactic frames according to the parsing scheme developed by Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg (1995:829-830). The thirty-two frames were added to forty-five frames in Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg (1995); thus, they amounted to fifty-seven frames because the textbook data and the learners' data contained other frames than the maternal data had. The exact number of occurrences of each syntactic frame was not available concerning the maternal data although it was available concerning both the textbook data and the learner data. All of the syntactic frames that appeared in the three kinds of data set were shown in Appendix.

3. Results

The results of the parsing were shown in Appendix. Eleven out of fifteen verbs allowed the learners to use the unique syntactic frames, which appeared neither in the maternal data nor in the textbook data. The verbs were *come, give, go, like, listen, look, run, see, take, think, and want*. Now let us consider the characteristics of such deviation by each verb. The words in square brackets in the examples below were

added by the author in order to help readers understand the meaning of the sentences.

COME

The deviant frames were 1) PP PP Adv (*Doesn't it come for play to my house by all means now*), 2) PP AdvP PP (*We come to school early in the morning at 7:00*), 3) NP (*Be sure to come my house*), and 4) P Adv PP (*I come back now from workplace*), and 5) Adj [conj] S (*My dream has come true because I had been thinking...*). As in 1) and 3), the learners tended to fail to use prepositions correctly. The same observation applied to the sentences with the verb *go*. The discussion of the verb *go* will be presented later. Concerning 2), 4) and 5), there were not any wrong uses of frames although there were some errors.

GIVE

The deviant uses of frames were 1) P NP [conj] S (*I learned that [I would] never give up your hope whatever may happen*), 2) PP PP PP (*...a wedding was given to it in the Hawaii at the time of 20 year old*), and 3) NP Adv [conj] S (*I couldn't give it none the less because the candies were remaining*). The point to observe is that 3) had no indirect object. In fact, this tendency was found in two sentences that were classified into NP frame, for example, “*Yoshio prattles ‘mamma mamma’ with smile when I give some milk,*” and “*you know that you must take a walk and give food.*”

GO

The six kinds of frame were found in only the learner data: 1) P NP Adv (*I'll go back my parental home next year*), 2) PP PP Adv (*It goes to the sea to go for a walk of the dog with the child every day*), 3) PP NP PP (*I'm planning to go to the Hawaii this coming vacation with mama*), 4) PP PP PP (*It will go to the Hawaii with family in the next consecutive holidays*), 5) PP PP [conj] S (*The best of memories is to go on a school excursion to Hokkaido when I was the eleventh grade*), and 6) NP Adv [conj] S (*I really wanted to go the class reunion today, but...*). In the sentences 1) 3) and 6), learners dropped prepositions. Especially, the preposition *to* is a requirement in the sentences containing the verb *go* and the destination, such as the sentences 1) and 6). As mentioned in the section discussing the verb *come*, the Japanese learners have difficulty in dealing with prepositions.

LIKE

The sentences with LIKE had no deviant uses of frames but one: Adv NP PP (*I like no so much a school life*). The Japanese learners, on the whole, preferred inserting adverbials into anywhere in sentences. It may be attributed to the effect of their L1, Japanese.

LISTEN

LOC (*Now listen here!*) was found as a deviant use of frame although the rest of

the sentences with *listen* have PP frame, that is a typical use.

LOOK

There were two kinds of frame that were unique to the learner data: 1) NP (*I grew up with look[ing] the dance*), and 2) Adv PP (e.g. *I am looking forward to seeing you again*). Only 1) is problematic because of the absence of preposition *to*, which is a common error in the learner data as stated above.

RUN

Run had one unique frame, PP NP NP (*I run for [the] graduation trip [a: should be omitted] committee [when I was] a second year student in [my] high school*). Although there are a lot of grammatical errors in this sentence, the errors have nothing to do with the syntactic information of the verb *run*. Thus, little need be said on this sentence.

SEE

The deviant frames were 1) NP NP (*See you next holiday*), and 2) NP Adv PP (*See you again in the near future!*). The learner dropped preposition in front of '*next holiday*'.

TAKE

On the verb *take*, the three frames were unique to the learner data: 1) NP PP [conj] S (*I will take a souvenir from Tokyo Disneyland, who go to this...*), and 2) NP NP Adjunct (*...because it takes everyone else over an hour to commute*). On the sentence 1), the syntactic information carried by the verb *take* seems to be understood by the learners while there are some errors in terms of grammar and lexical choices. The sentence 2) has an appropriate structure and needs no further discussion.

THINK

Adv [conj] S (*I want to think then that it was good in this school*) was the only frame that was unique to the learner data. The tendency to place adverbials arbitrarily can be pointed out again with this example.

WANT

The deviant use of frame in the sentences with *want* was NP Adv NP (*I want always you to be my friend*). Again, a Japanese learner shows her preference to placing adverbials in a non-canonical way.

4. Discussion

This study has been investigating the syntactic frames used in the L2 learner data in comparison to the frames used in the maternal data and the L2 textbook data. For the present, let us concentrate our attention on three features of the learner data. First, the Japanese learners do not use prepositions even when a verb must be followed by

prepositional phrases. This feature was found in the sentences containing *come*, *go*, *look*, and *see*. Regarding *come*, *go*, and *look*, prepositional phrases are required just after the verbs in most cases. It is possible to build up two hypotheses as far as the absence of prepositions is concerned. One hypothesis is that Japanese learners are subject to the effect of their L1 because Japanese language has no prepositional phrases. The other is that learners pay much attention to argument structure of sentences during their sentence production, that is to say, learners focus upon semantic information rather than syntactic or morphological rules. Given that this hypothesis is true, we can explain why learners are hasty in placing 'a destination of an action' (in the case of *go*, for instance), just after a verb without adding any preposition to it.

Secondly, the Japanese learners tend to drop indirect object in the case of *give*. This might be explained by means of L1 transfer on the ground that *ageru*, that is a Japanese equivalent of *give*, does not necessarily require two arguments on the surface level although it has two arguments on the deep level. Assuming that there exists L1 transfer on this matter, it seems that what the findings of this study indicate corresponds with the claim that syntactic information on surface level plays important roles in language acquisition, namely, syntactic bootstrapping. There is not enough evidence, however.

Thirdly, the Japanese learners tend to place adverbials in unnatural positions. This feature seems to stem from their L1, the Japanese language, which has little constraint on word order.

5. Conclusion

This study reveals a part of detailed features of learners' output that were not clarified through quantitative studies in the past. On the one hand, the observations on the absence of prepositions indicate the possibility that the learners exploit either syntactic or semantic information, or both of them. On the other hand, the observations on the absence of indirect objects suggest that the learner should be affected by syntactic information rather than semantic one. Accordingly, the way of language processing still remain to be unsolved. As Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg (1995:836) point out, however, "With respect to verb acquisition, the claim that children use syntax to acquire verb meanings does not preclude their use of other sources of information, including the visual-spatial scene, individual lexical items, semantic biases, and pragmatic information." Viewed in this light, it might be necessary to carry out a further investigation of L2 learners' output from the viewpoint of argument structure as well as syntactic frame. This two-way analysis may shed light upon the relationship between various kinds of cues provided by syntax, semantics and so on, and each

linguistic feature. This brings even educational implications into being.

As a final remark, limitations of this study will be mentioned. First, the number of the participants was quite few. Secondly, the parsing scheme was to be reexamined because some of the syntactic frames used were identified based on the mixture of syntactic and semantic information. Besides, the frame called 'adjunct' should be applied to more syntactic categories so that the total number of frames decreases. To be precise, categories such as adverb, adjective, locative and [conj] S should be labeled as adjunct. Finally, this study did not take into consideration developmental aspects. Comparison of data obtained by learners at various stages of language development may give us a fuller account of language acquisition.

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Abbreviation for Appendix

= utterance final; Wh = *who*, *what*, and *which* questions; NP = noun phrase; P = particle; LOC = locative; Adv = adverb; conj = conjunction; S = sentence; PP = prepositional phrase; Adj = adjective; SVI = subject-verb inversion; Frames in parentheses indicate moved element, when frame-final, for example, S(Wh-NP). Frames in brackets indicate occasional element, when frame-internal, for example, NP [conj] S. (Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg 1995:834-835)

mat. = maternal data; text. = textbook data; learn = learner data

A Study of EFL Discourse Using Corpora : An Analysis of Discourse Completion Tasks with Reference to Speech Functions

Nakano, M., Miyasaka, N., Yamazaki, T., and Saito, T.

The purpose of this study is to analyze the discourse completion data collected through the Japanese EFL learners with reference to four speech functions (thanking, apology, request, and offering). First, we compare Japanese learners' expressions with expressions obtained by the native speakers of English stored in London-Lund Corpus of Spoken English. The result shows that the Japanese learners use limited variation of the four speech functions mentioned above. Secondly, we compare Japanese learners' expressions with expressions found in 12 English textbooks used in junior and senior high schools in Japan. The findings indicate that they have a lot of features in common.

1 Introduction

Over the past few decades a number of studies have highlighted the importance of communicative competence in language learning. The number of textbooks aiming at enhancing communicative competence has been growing.

While the importance of communicative competence seems to be widely acknowledged, it is doubtful whether EFL learners actually have such competence. We, then, investigate EFL learners' uses of speech functions in order to know if they communicate in appropriately.

The purpose of this paper is to outline the use of speech functions concerning data collected from Japanese EFL learners. The four speech functions, i.e. thanking, apology, request, and offering, are dealt with. We analyze the data from the following two points of view: 1) the comparison between the EFL data and native speaker corpus, and 2) the comparison between the EFL data and the Japanese EFL textbooks.

These two comparisons might lead to clarification of the Japanese learners' uses, and give some pedagogical implications for teaching of the speech functions.

2 Background

2.1 Thanking

A thanking is the speech function that expresses gratitude to someone.

Aijmer(1996:35) gives a good account of this function as follows:

...the act for which the speaker expresses gratitude must be a past act done by the addressee, which benefits the speaker; the speaker feels grateful for the act (or behaves as if he does), and the utterance counts as an expression of gratitude

Thanking is realized in various strategies. The strategies are classified according to directness/ indirectness and motional/ non-emotional. They appear in Appendix 1.

2.2 Apology

Olshtain and Cohen (1990:46) defines the speech function of apology as follows:

An apology is a speech act which aims to provide support for the hearer(H) who was actually or potentially mal-affected by a violation(X) for which the speaker(S) is at least partially responsible. When apologizing, the S is willing to humiliating him/ herself to some extent and to admit to fault and responsibility for X. Hence, the act of apologizing is face-saving for the H and face-threatening for the S,...

Opinions vary as to the classification of apology strategies. We will, however, follow the classification proposed by Aijmer (1996) in this study. Like the thanking strategies, the classification is based on the directness and emotionality. It is shown in Appendix 2.

2.3 Request

The word "request" is defined in Suh (1999:195) by using Brown and Levinson's (1987) terms as follows:

...requests are face- threatening acts (FTAs) which threaten the hearer's negative face (i.e., right to act freely without being interrupted by others). So those who perform a request need to reduce the level of imposition created by an act being requested in order to save the hearer's face and, at the same time, get his/her compliance with a request.

As Aijmer (1996) points out, a speaker makes a request in various ways: by asking a question, making an order, suggesting something, and so forth. Although scholars disagree in opinion about the number of the requestive strategies, we analyze the data based on the 18 strategies proposed by Aijmer (1996:132-133) (See Appendix 3).

2.4 Offer

A number of strategies are used in expressing offers (Aijmer 1996:189). She refers to the fact that “a speaker may use a stem with commissive rather than directive function (p.189),” such as *I will* VP. She also presents other strategies and expressions, such as “asking a permission question (*can I, may I* etc.),” “asking if the hearer wants the speaker to do something (*shall I, shall we* etc.),” *let me, let’s, do you want, do you need, will you, would you like to*, and so on.

A clear classification, however, is not found in Aijmer (1996).

3 Method

3.1 Subjects

The subjects for this study are 378 Japanese university students who attend four different universities. They are in the first year or the second year.

3.2 Material

We analyzed the following three resources:

1) Discourse completion tasks’ data

The discourse completion tasks (hereafter DCT) consisted of 62 questions. They were extracted from three randomly selected junior high school textbooks. We drew expressions of thanking, apologies, requests and offers by using *Concord* involved in *WordSmith Tools* (Ver.3.00), and then selected discourses that were thought to be suited for DCT.

The subjects were asked to fill out a short background questionnaire and then to answer DCT (see Appendix 4). All the answers were stored in a computer and were processed by *Concord* of *WordSmith Tools*. Each speech function was analyzed separately.

2) Native speaker corpus

The native speakers’ data was extracted from Aijmer (1996), that was based on the London-Lund Corpus of Spoken English (hereafter LLC).

3) EFL textbooks

The data concerning EFL textbooks was based on Owada et al.(1999) and Ano et al.(1999). The former investigated 7 kinds of EFL textbooks developed for junior high school students (from first through third year). They covered all kinds of textbooks for junior high school students distributed in Japan. The latter analyzed 5 different textbooks used in oral communication courses in Japanese high schools.

3.3 Procedure

We carried out the following two investigation:

First, we compared the DCT data with the LLC data. The analysis is carried out based on thanking strategies, apologizing strategies and requestive strategies presented in Aijmer (1996).

Then we compared the DCT data with the EFL textbook data.

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Comparison of the DCT data with the LLC data

4.1.1 Thanking

We pick up the answers that are appropriate to the context, and then classify them into eight categories according to Aijmer (1996:37) (See Appendix 1). Besides, the items that are not appropriate to the context are also considered afterward.

Table 1 Types of thanking strategies in DCT

Strategies	Raw	Percentage
A	5418	87.1
B	1	0.0
C	28	0.5
D	455	7.3
E	0	0.0
F	2	0.0
G	303	4.9
H	13	0.2
Total	6220	100

Table 1 shows that the frequency of each thanking strategy. This indicates that the thanking strategies used by Japanese learners of English are limited. They use strategy A for the most cases (87.1%), and sometimes use strategy D and G (7.3 % and 4.9% respectively).

We listed the distribution of the items belonging to strategy A in Table 2. This indicates that almost all gratitude expressions used by the Japanese learners consist of *thank you*, *thank you very much* and *thanks* (99.8% combined), while the NS use various types of expressions.

Table 2 Relative frequency of (direct) thanking expressions in the LLC and the DCT

Realization		LLC	%	DCT	%
(A)THANK YOU	<i>thank you</i>	134	45.1	4605	85.0
	<i>thank you very much</i>	73	24.6	401	7.4
	<i>thank you very much indeed</i>	17	5.7	0	0.0
	<i>thank you so much</i>	2	0.7	10	0.2
Subtotal		226	76.1	5016	92.6
(B)THANKS	<i>thanks</i>	33	11.1	390	7.2
	<i>thanks very much</i>	28	9.4	1	0.0
	<i>thanks very much indeed</i>	5	1.7	0	0.0
	<i>thanks awfully</i>	2	0.7	0	0.0
	<i>thanks a lot</i>	2	0.7	11	0.2
	<i>many thanks</i>	1	0.3	0	0.0
Subtotal		71	23.9	402	7.4
Total		297	100.0	5418	100.0

(our data)

Among the answers that are not appropriate to the context, there are three features. First, Japanese learners often use *you are welcome* instead of *thank you*. Secondly, Japanese learners tend to just respond to the offer (e.g. *Yes, OK* and *All right* etc.) instead of expressing gratitude. Thirdly, Japanese learners are likely to express how they feel to the act offered by someone in order to express gratitude (e.g. *I'm happy to hear that* and *I'm glad* etc.).

4.1.2 Apology

The selected answers that are appropriate to the situations are classified into thirteen categories according to Aijmer (1996:83) (See Appendix 2).

Table 3 shows the frequency of each apologizing strategy. It tells us that the percentage of occurrences is significantly higher in strategy D, expressing regret, and strategy E, demanding forgiveness (42.9% and 54.2% respectively). We could say that Japanese learners use quite limited variation of apologizing expressions. Table 3 clearly shows this tendency.

Table 3 Types of apologizing strategies in DCT

Strategies	Raw	Percentage
A	0	0.0
B	0	0.0
C	0	0.0
D	681	42.9
E	862	54.2
F	0	0.0
G	7	0.4
H	0	0.0
I	1	0.1
J	39	2.5
K	0	0.0
L	0	0.0
M	0	0.0
Total	1589	100

Table 4 Relative frequencies of (direct) apology expressions in the LLC and DCT

Realization		LLC	%	DCT	%
(A) (I AM) (WE'RE) SORRY	<i>Sorry</i>	107	49.8	329	21.3
	<i>very sorry</i>			4	0.3
	<i>I'm sorry (I am sorry), we're sorry</i>	57	26.5	343	22.2
	<i>I'm terribly sorry</i>	4	1.9	1	0.1
	<i>I'm very sorry</i>	4	1.9	1	0.1
	<i>I'm awfully sorry</i>	1	0.5	0	0.0
	<i>I'm so sorry</i>	7	3.3	3	0.2
Subtotal		180	83.7	681	44.1
(B) (I BEG YOUR) PARDON	<i>I beg your pardon</i>	8	3.7	0	0.0
	<i>beg your pardon</i>	1	0.5	0	0.0
	<i>Pardon</i>	8	3.7	0	0.0
Subtotal		17	7.9	0	0.0
(C) EXCUSE (ME)	<i>excuse me</i>	10	4.7	862	55.9
Subtotal		10	4.7	862	55.9
(D)APOLOGIZE(APOLOGIZES)	<i>I apologize</i>	2	0.9	0	0.0
	<i>I owe (you) an apology</i>	2	0.9	0	0.0
	<i>give one's apologies</i>	2	0.9	0	0.0
	<i>present one's apologies</i>	1	0.5	0	0.0
	<i>pass on one's apologies</i>	1	0.5	0	0.0
Subtotal		8	3.7	0	0.0
Total		215	100.0	1543	100.0

(our data)

Table 4 tells us that the Japanese learners seldom use intensifiers (e.g. *terribly*, *very*, *awfully*, and *so*). It is possible that they recognized *I'm sorry* as a chunk, and hesitate to put intensifiers between *am* and *sorry*. There is room for further investigation.

When we look through the answers that are not appropriate to the situations, we can find the following two salient features.

1. It seems that two apologizing expressions, *I'm sorry* and *excuse me* are easy to be confused. We can find many learners who use the apologizing expression *I'm sorry* even in the situation in which *excuse me* seems to be proper (e.g. opening of conversation). The confusion might be caused by the negative transfer from Japanese. In Japanese, we use a phrase, *sumimasen*, for both the opening of conversation and apologizing. The learner, therefore, might use this expression in both cases.

In addition, when we consider the fact that few learners use *excuse me* in the situation in which *I'm sorry* seems appropriate, it is likely that the Japanese apologizing expression *sumimasen* closely links to the English expression *I'm sorry* for the Japanese learners.

2. Some learners suddenly explain their own things or situations (e.g. *I'm lost* in Test item No.28) without using any apologizing expression. This tendency is also found in the analysis of the occurrence of thanking ('expressing their feelings').

4.1.3 Requests

The answers appropriate to the contexts are classified into eighteen categories according to the criteria appearing in Aijmer (1996:132-133) (See Appendix 3).

Table 5 lists the frequency of each requestive strategy used by the native speakers and the Japanese learners. As a whole, the Japanese learners use the limited types of strategies (Strategy A, C, E and K, 99.4% combined).

The Japanese learners seldom use strategy D, while the native speakers use it frequently. This may be explained by considering Aijmer's (1996:141) subclassification of request markers. Request markers are classified into three types: assertive (e.g. *I want you to...*, *I want...* etc.), unmarked (e.g. *can you...*, *will you...* etc.) and tentative (e.g. *you haven't go...*, *is it possible for you to...* etc.). The Japanese learners prefer unmarked ways of requesting, whereas the native speakers seem to use assertive and unmarked types equally.

Table 5 Types of requestive strategies in the LLC and DCT

LLC	JPN
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	RAW	Percentage	Raw	Percentage
A	132	29.3	340	35.7
B	9	2.0	2	0.2
C	37	8.2	309	32.4
D	80	17.7	2	0.2
E	5	1.1	90	9.4
F	17	3.8	1	0.1
G	3	0.7	1	0.1
H	9	2.0	0	0.0
I	18	4.0	0	0.0
J	6	1.3	0	0.0
K	80	17.7	208	21.8
L	12	2.7	0	0.0
M	15	3.3	0	0.0
N	5	1.1	0	0.0
O	5	1.1	0	0.0
P	14	3.1	0	0.0
Q	4	0.9	0	0.0
Total	451	100.0	953	100.0

(our data)

Among the answers that are not classified into eighteen categories, there is a remarkable feature. The Japanese learners use the combination of imperatives and *please* frequently. This can be attributable to L1 transfer. In Japanese, we can increase the degree of politeness by adding lexical devices such as *dohka...shite-kudasai* to imperatives. The Japanese word *dohka* can be interpreted as *please*. Thus, the Japanese learners tend to use the combination of imperatives and *please* for requesting politely.

4.1.4 Offers

Criteria for classifying offering strategies are not found in Aijmer(1996). We will, then, pick up ten frequently used expressions in DCT, which are shown in Table 6.

We can find that the offering expression *let's* is used most frequently. This tendency can be a reflection of the fact that the DCT includes four questions in which *let's* is most appropriate. However, even after taking this into account, we can say that they tend to overuse the expression *let's* for the following two reasons. First, compared to other questions that require other offering expressions, the percentage of answering *let's* in the questions for which *let's* is obligatory is relatively higher (284 out of 378 respondents answer *let's* in Test item No.34). Secondly, the learners use *let's* even for the test items with question marks.

Table 6 Relative frequency of (direct) offering expressions in DCT

	Raw	Percentage
let's	474	45.9
Shall we	175	17.0
May I	160	15.5
Shall I	102	9.9
Can I	57	5.5
Would you like	30	2.9
Do you want	19	1.8
Imperative	7	0.7
How about	6	0.6
Do you want me to	2	0.2
Total	1032	100.0

4.2 Comparison of the DCT data with textbook data

4.2.1 Thanking

Table 7 shows the percentage of thanking strategies in the textbooks and the DCT. According to Table 7, the percentage of using *thanks* in the DCT data is lower (7.4%) than that in the textbooks (24.1% in the junior high school textbooks and 31.4% in high school textbooks).

Table 7 Comparison of thanking strategies (%)

	HS textbooks	JHS textbooks	DCT
THANKS	31.4	24.1	7.4
THANK YOU	68.6	76.0	92.6
TOTAL	100	100	100

4.2.2 Apology

Table 8 shows the percentage of apologizing strategies in the textbooks and the DCT. Expression using the word *apologize* is not found in all three data above. While textbooks include expressions with the word *pardon*, the DCT data has no such expression. This means the Japanese learners fail to acquire that expression.

Table 8 Comparison of apologizing strategies (%)

	JHS textbooks	HS textbooks	DCT
SORRY	59.7	44.7	44.1
PARDON	5.2	18.4	0
EXCUSE	35.1	36.8	55.9
APOLOGIZE	0	0	0

TOTAL	100	100	100
-------	-----	-----	-----

4.2.3 Request

Table 9 shows the percentage of requestive strategies in the textbooks and the DCT. The high frequency strategies used in the DCT data are also found in textbooks. Apart from the strategies suggested by Aijmer(1996), the word *please* are used frequently in the DCT data. This can be the reflection of the expressions in the textbooks.

Table 9 Comparison of requestive strategies (%)

	JHS textbooks	HS textbooks	DCT
A	14.1	14.8	23.5
B	0	0	0.1
C	13.5	13	21.4
D	0.5	0	0.1
E	5.9	3.7	6.2
F	8.6	0	0.1
G	0	0	0.1
H	0	3.7	0
K	0.5	16.7	14.4
please	56.8	48.1	34.1
Total	99.9	100	100

4.2.4 Offers

Tables 10, 11 and 12 show the offering expressions that are used frequently. We can find that the offering expression *let's* is most frequently used in the textbooks as well as in DCT data. Besides, other commonly used expressions in the DCT data are also found in the textbooks.

Table 10 High frequency order of offering expressions

(junior high school textbooks)

	Total	Percentage
let's	86	77.5
May I	8	7.2
Can I	4	3.6
Would you like	4	3.6
Shall I	3	2.7
What shall I	2	1.8
Do you want NP	3	2.7
You can V	1	0.9
Total	111	100

Table 11 High frequency order of offering expressions (high school textbooks)

	Total	Percentage
let's	16	40.0
May I	8	20.0
Can I	3	7.5
Shall we	2	5.0
Do you need any help?	2	5.0
Would you like	3	7.5
Do you want me to V ?	1	2.5
Do you want to V ?	1	2.5
How can I help you?	1	2.5
Want a NP ?	1	2.5
What shall I do?	1	2.5
Won't you have one?	1	2.5
Total	40	100

Table 12 High frequency order of offering expressions (DCT data)

	Total	Percentage
let's	474	45.9
Shall we	175	17.0
May I	160	15.5
Shall I	102	9.9
Can I	57	5.5
Would you like	30	2.9
Do you want	19	1.8
Imperative	7	0.7
How about	6	0.6
Do you want me to	2	0.2
Total	1032	100.0

5 Conclusion

Through this study, we arrive at the following conclusion.

First, the Japanese learners use limited variation of thanking, apologizing, requestive and offering expressions—all four speech functions focused on in this study. This tendency may arise from an influence of the textbooks widely used in junior and senior high schools on the ground that the frequency order of expressions in the DCT data are

similar to that in the textbook data.

Secondly, the Japanese EFL learners answer inappropriately in specific situations concerning thanking and apology. These cases might cause communication breakdown. Further discussion on a reason for these errors and a remedy is necessary.

In the present study, we limit our focus to the variation of actual expressions; we do not pay attention to situational information, such as a required gravity of speech functions and a social status of interlocutors. Situational information affects the choice of realization and strategies of speech functions. Thus, a further investigation into the DCT data concerning the learners' awareness of situational information needs to be made.

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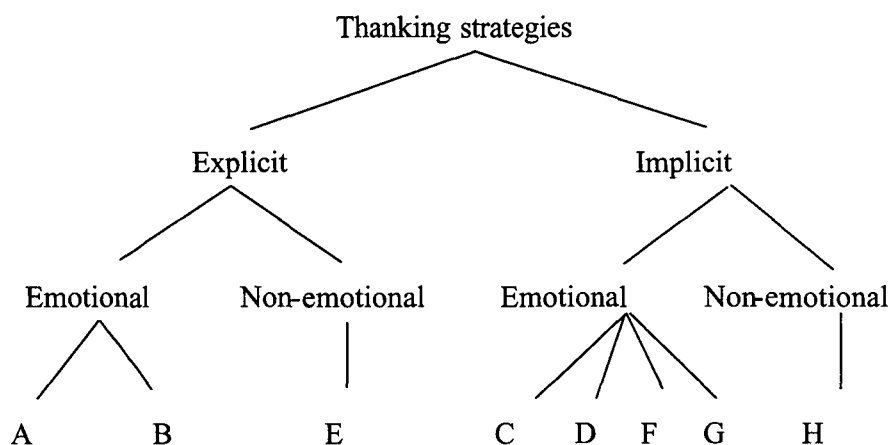
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Appendix 1 Strategies of thanking (Aijmer 1996:37)

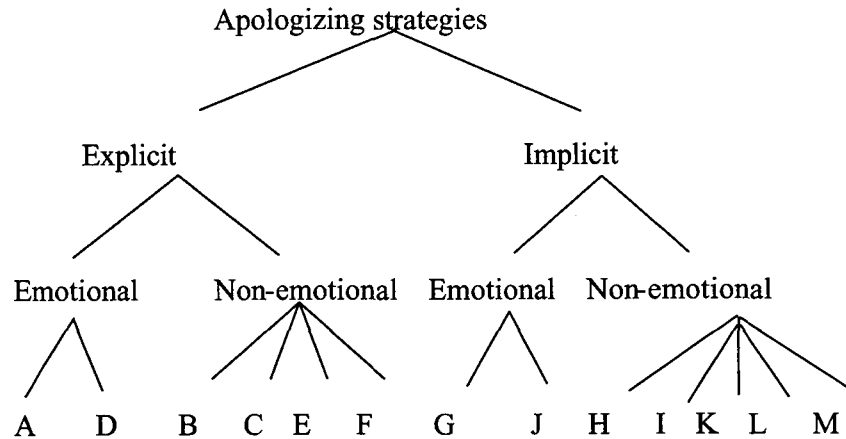


Code to strategies:

(A) thanking somebody explicitly	e.g. <i>thank you, thanks</i>
(B) expressing gratitude	e.g. <i>I am grateful</i>
(C) expressing appreciation of the addressee	e.g. <i>that's kind of you, it's nice (of you)</i>
(D) expressing appreciation of the act	e.g. <i>that's lovely, it's appreciated</i>

(E) acknowledging a debt of gratitude	e.g. <i>I owe a debt of gratitude to...</i>
(F) stressing one's gratitude	e.g. <i>I must thank you</i>
(G) expressing emotion	e.g. <i>oh (thank you)</i>
(H) commenting on one's own role by suppressing one's own importance (self-denigration)	e.g. <i>I am an ingrate, I'm so careless</i>

Appendix 2 Strategies of apologies (Aijmer 1996: 83)



Code to strategies:

(A) explicitly apologizing	e.g. <i>I apologize (for)</i>
(B) offering (giving, presenting) one's apologies	e.g. <i>I present my apologies</i>
(C) acknowledging a debt of apology	e.g. <i>I owe you an apology</i>
(D) expressing regret	e.g. <i>I'm sorry, I'm afraid</i>
(E) demanding forgiveness	e.g. <i>pardon me, excuse me</i>
(F) explicitly requesting the hearer's forgiveness	e.g. <i>I beg your pardon</i>
(G) giving an explanation of account	e.g. <i>(I'm sorry) it's so unusual</i>
(H) self-denigration or self-reproach	e.g. <i>how stupid of me, how awful, I ought to know this</i>
(I) minimizing responsibility	e.g. <i>I didn't mean to ..., I thought this was ..., I was thinking it was...</i>
(J) expressing emotion	e.g. <i>oh (I'm so sorry)</i>
(K) acknowledging responsibility for the offending act	e.g. <i>that was my fault (Fraser 1981: 263)</i>
(L) promising forbearance from a similar offending act	e.g. <i>I promise you that that will never happen again (Fraser 1981: 263)</i>
(M) offering redress	e.g. <i>please let me pay for the damage I've done (Fraser 1981: 263)</i>

• **Appendix 3 Types of requestive strategies in the LLC (Aijmer 1996: 132-133)**

A	ABILITY	Asking about the hearer's ability to do something (e.g.) <i>can you...</i>
B	CONSULTATION	Asking about the possibility of the desired act happening (e.g.) <i>is it possible..., you haven't got..., would you mind..., have you...</i>
C	WILLINGNESS	Asking whether the hearer is willing to do something or has any objection to doing something (e.g.) <i>will you..., would you (like)...</i>
D	WANT	Expressing a wish that the agent should do something (e.g.) <i>I would like you to</i>
E	NEED	Expressing a need or desire for (non-verbal) goods (e.g.) <i>I want..., I need...</i>
F	OBLIGATION	Stating that the hearer is under the obligation to do the desired action (e.g.) <i>you must..., you have to...</i>
G	APPROPRIACY	Stating that it is appropriate that the hearer performs the desired action (e.g.) <i>you should...</i>
H	WH-QUESTION	Asking an idiomatic wh-question (e.g.) <i>what about..., why not..., how about..., why don't you...</i>
I	HYPOTHESIS	Referring to a hypothetical action (e.g.) <i>if you would..., perhaps you would...</i>
J	APPRECIATION	Expressing that one would appreciate, be pleased, feel gratitude if a hypothetical desired action were realized (e.g.) <i>I would be grateful if you would..., I would be glad if...</i>
K	PERMISSION QUESTION	Asking for permission to do something (e.g.) <i>may I..., let me...</i>
L	POSSIBILITY	Asserting that it is possible for the hearer to do something (e.g.) <i>you may..., you can...</i>
M	PREFERENCE	Referring to the speaker's opinion that something is preferable (e.g.) <i>you had better ..., the best thing to do ...</i>
N	PERFORMATIVE	Referring explicitly to the act of requesting (e.g.) <i>I was going to suggest ...</i>
O	STATE	Referring to a state of the world which needs to be changed (e.g.) <i>There are (some scented rushes)</i>
P	NAMING	Naming the object requested (e.g.) <i>(the next slide) please</i>
Q	EXISTENCE	Checking the availability of the desired object, etc (e.g.) <i>is (Mrs Davy) there</i>
R		Other (e.g.) giving a justification for a request

Appendix 4 DCT

- Have you ever been overseas? (Yes / No)
- Which country were you in? ()
- How long were you there? ()
- Have you ever learned English outside junior /senior high school? (Yes / No)
- Which textbook did you use in your high school?
Hello There Select Expressway Interact Echo Progressive Evergreen
Speak to the World Crown The New Age Dialog Mainstream Birdland
- Which textbook did you use in your junior high school?
Sunshine New Horizon Everyday English New Crown One World
Columbus Total
- Fill in the blanks.

At School

Ted: (1) . Are you Mrs. Ito?
Miss Ogawa: No, I'm not. That's Mrs. Ito.
Ted: Oh, (2) .

Mrs. Ito:Hello.

Ted: Hello.
Mrs. Ito:Are you Ted Baker?
Ted: Yes, I am.

Mrs. Ito:I'm Mrs. Ito.
Ted: Nice to meet you, Mrs. Ito.
Mrs. Ito:Nice to meet you, too, Ted. Come this way.
Ted: (3) .

In the classroom

Mika: Here you are, Ted.
Ted: What's this?
Mika: It's your school badge.
Ted: Oh, (4) .

On the Way Home

Mika: Do you play the guitar, too?
Ted: No, I don't. But I play the drums.

I have drums at home. Come over sometime.

Mika: Really? (5).

Mrs. Baker: Mika, which do you prefer, juice or soda?

Mika: Juice, please.

Mrs. Baker: Here you are.

Mika: (6).

Mrs. Baker: You're welcome. This is for you, Ted.

Ted: (7).

Ted: This is my room. And these are my drums.

Mika: Hey, great! Play something for me.

Ted: OK.

Mika: Hey, you're really good, Ted.

Ted: (8).

Jiro: Hi, everyone. (9) I'm late.

Mika: Oh, that's all right, Jiro.

The door bell rings.

Mika: There's someone at the door. (10).

Mika: Where's Mr. Baker?

Mrs. Baker: He's getting some drinks for us.

Mika: (11)! I'm really thirsty.

"One evening, the Saitos invite Ms. Wilson to dinner."

Ms. Wilson: You're a good cook, Mika. It's delicious.

Mika: (12).

Judy: Did you make this tempura, too?

Mika: No, I didn't. Dad made it.

Judy: You cook very well, too, Mr. Saito.

Mr. Saito: (13).

Judy: Does anyone want some more food or drink?

Jiro: (14). I'm full.

Ted: So am I.

“One Sunday afternoon, Mika knocks on Judy’s door.”

Mika: (15) come in?

Judy: Sure, Mika.

Mika: Are you busy?

Judy: No, I was just reading a letter from my mother.

Mika: Any news?

Judy: Yes, my sister had a baby boy.

Mika: Oh, congratulations! I’ll send a card to her.

Judy: Oh, (16), Mika. I have to send one, too.

A Class with Ms. Wilson

Ms. Wilson: Do you have any questions?

Jiro: Ms. Wilson, (17) tell us about sports in Canada?

Ms. Wilson: Sure.

“Mika arrives in London. She’s met by the Bakers at the airport.”

Mika: (18) for coming to meet me.

Mr. Baker: Our pleasure.

Mrs. Baker: Welcome to London!

Ted: Did you have a nice flight?

Mika: Yes, it was very good.

Ted: Give me your suitcase. I’ll carry it for you.

Mr. Baker: The car’s outside. (20) go?

Ted: Yes, let’s.

While you were going sightseeing...

Mika: (21) take a picture.

Ted: OK.

Mika invited Ms. Smith to her school festival...

Mika: Welcome to our school. It’s very nice to see you again.

Ms. Smith: Nice to see you again, too. (22) for inviting us.

Mika: Jiro, Toshio, and Keiko are going to show you around.

Ms. Smith: (23).

A: How do you say *sukoshi* in English?

B: A little.
A: (24)?
B: *Sukoshi* is “a little.”
A: A little.
B: Good.
A: (25).
B: You’re welcome.

At a fast food restaurant...

Clerk : Here you are. That's six hundred and forty yen, please. (26).

At an airport...

Officer: Show me your passport, please.

Yuki: Sure. Here you are.

Officer: What's the purpose of your visit?

Yuki: Sightseeing.

Officer: How long are you going to stay?

Yuki: One week.

Officer: O.K. Enjoy your stay.

Yuki: (27).

Yuki: (28). (29) tell me the way to the cable car stop?

Woman: Sure, it's over there. Just in front of that building.

Yuki: (30).

A Phone Call

Brian's mother: Hello.

Koji: This is Koji. (31) speak to Brian, please?

Mother: (32), but he's out right now. (33) take a message?

Brian: I'm home.

Mother: Oh, here he is now. Brian, Koji is on the phone!

Brian: Hi, Koji.

Koji: Hi, Brian. Listen. I got two tickets for the concert tomorrow.

Can you come?

Brian: I'm free tomorrow. Sure.

Koji: Great ! (34) go together.

(35) meet at my house at five.

Brian: Fine.

Koji: Good. See you then.

Brian: O. K. Goodbye.

At a store...

A: May I help you?

B: No, (36). I'm just looking.

At a store...

Clerk: (37) show you another one?

Customer: Yes, please.

Clerk: What size do you wear?

Customer: I wear a size seven.

Clerk: What color are you looking for?

Customer: Do you have this in yellow? May I try it on? How much is that?

Clerk: It's eighty dollars.

Customer: O. K. I'll take it. Here's a hundred.

Clerk: Here's your change. (38). Have a nice day.

Customer: (39). You, too.

Koji: Make yourself at home.

Beth: This is a beautiful home. How long have you lived here?

Koji: We've lived here since I was seven. (40) a piece of cake?

Beth: Yes, (41).

You speak to a station officer at a station..

(42). I don't know how to buy a ticket. (43) help me?

You invite your friend to a party...

Sue: Say, I'm having a pajama party at my house this Friday.

(44) come?

Pat: Sure.

Ms. Oka: That is your seat, Mary.

Mary: (45)

Sam: Hi! You have nice eyes. I like you.

Emi: (46)

Koji: Is that a ship?

Girl: Well, it's a spaceship.

Girl: (47) ---What will you say if you want to come in?

Girl: (48) ---What expression will you add if you really want to come in?

You answer the letter...

Dear Koji,

(49) It arrived there days ago. I enjoyed it very much...

Nancy: What do you want with it? A cup of tea or a glass of water?

Koji: Tea, please. (50)

Koji: (51)

Mother: The TV's too loud. Turn it down a little. **TURN DOWN THE TV, RIKIMARU!**

Rikimaru: Mom! (52). I can't hear the TV.

Dick: When are you leaving for England, Emi?

Emi: The day after tomorrow.

Dick: Well, have a nice vacation, and (53).

Emi: I will. Will you write back?

Dick: Sure. It's a promise.

Mary: I'm going to make a special card just for Koji.

Mary: (54)

Emi: Sure. What shall I do ?

Mary: Well, let's see... I have several ideas, but maybe this is the best. Will you cut this red paper into a heart ? The heart is the most important part of all. Then cut a moon and stars out of this yellow paper. I'll draw a picture of a boy and a girl.

Urashima: Excuse me, Mr. Turtle. (55)

Turtle: Why are you in such a hurry ?

Reporter: Please be on our TV show. It's tomorrow at three.

Urashima: (56)

Reporter: Don't be shy. You'll like our show. Come on.

Uerashima: I ... (57)

The stationmaster sounded worried. When Kiki got to the station, the stationmaster said, "Some famous musicians just arrived. They're going to give a concert in the park. But we forgot to take their instruments off the train! Their concert begins at three o'clock this afternoon!"

The stationmaster: (58) Can you catch up with the train and bring their instruments back?

Kiki: I'm not sure. But (59).

Becky: What a strange garden! No trees, no grass! But it looks cool.

Koji: Shh! Don't talk so loud.

Becky: (60)

Koji: The rocks in the garden stand for islands.

Emi: The white sand is the sea. Don't you see the waves in the sea.

Becky: Wow! Wonderful!

Becky: (61)

Teacher: After you speak, someone may say something that hurts you. Just smile and say, "Thank you for your advice."

Student: When I finished, they all rose and gave me a big hand.

Teacher: Good! I'm glad that your speech went well. Now, aren't you looking forward to your next chance to speak?

Student: Well...anyway, (62).

Appendix 5 Speech functions and target answers

Item No.	Speech function	target answers
1	apology	hi excuseme
2	thanking	apology thank you
3	thanking	thank you
4	thanking	thank you
5	thanking	thank you very much
6	thanking	thank you
7	thanking	thanks
8	thanking	thanks
9	apology	sorry
10	apology	excuse me
11	thanking	oh, good !
12	thanking	thanks
13	thanking	thank you

21	request	offer	let's
22	thanking		thank you very much
23	thanking		thank you
24	apology		pardon
25	thanking		thank you
26	thanking		thank you
27	thanking		thank you
28	apology		excuse me
29	request		would you
30	thanking		thank you
31	request		may I
32	apology		sorry
33	offer		can I
34	request	offer	let's
35	request	offer	let's
36	thanking		thanks
37	offer		shall I
38	thanking		thank you very much
39	thanking		thanks
40	offer		would you like
41	thanking		thank you
42	apology		excuse me
43	request		could you
44	offer		why don't you
45	thanking		thank you
46	thanking		thank you
47	request		let's go
48	request		let's get into the spaceship
49	thanking		thank you for your letter
50	thanking		thank you
51			this is good
52	request		your voice is too loud !
53	greeting		write to me sometime
54	offer		will you help me, Emi ?
55	request		can't you go faster ?
56	refusal		no, I...
57	refusal	apology	I can't stand this bad smell
58	request		please, please help us
59	offer		I'll do my best
60	apology		oh, I'm sorry.!
61	apology		...sorry
62	thanking	request	thank you for your advice

Standard Speaking Test (SST) と TOEIC、TOEFL、英検との回帰分析

早稲田大学・教育学部

中野美知子

1.0 はじめに

アルク社の Mervyn Lewis 氏を中心として開発された SST は早稲田大学で 1998 年から 2001 年度まで実験されてきた On-line 英語チュウトリアルで、プレイスメント・テストと英語プロフィシエンシーの測定に使用されてきた。この報告では、多くの受講生が TOEIC-IP、TOEFL、英検のスコアを報告していたので、SST とこれらのテストの関係を回帰分析で示そうとした。

2.0 方法

アルク社の平野氏から渡されたデータは合計スコアであったので、各テストの部門別に比較するということはせず、SST のスコアからその他のテストがどの程度説明できるかに焦点をしばった。データは5種類に分類できた。

1 SST と TOEIC を両方受験したもの— 2303 人

2 SST と TOEFL を両方受験したもの— 541 人

3 SST と英検を両方受験したもの— 595 人

4 SST と TOEIC、TOEFL の 3 種のテストを受験したもの— 239 人

5 SST と TOEIC、TOEFL、英検の 4 種のテストを受験したもの— 95 人

いずれの場合も単回帰分析の場合は SST を説明変数とみなし、プロフィシエンシー・テストとしてはすでに標準化されている TOEIC、TOEFL、英検を目的変数として扱った。回帰分析には、重相関係数、決定係数、自由度修正済み決定係数、Y 評価値の標準誤差、ダービン・ワトソン比、回帰式の有意性を検定するための分散分析、回帰係数の検定と信頼区間を計算した。

2.1 結果 1 : SST と TOEIC の単回帰分析

以下の表では重相関係数は実測値と回帰式から得られる予測値との相関係数を示している。後で分かるように、この SST と TOEIC の相関係数は高い方である。ここでのデータセットの中で最も高い相関をしめしたのは、§ 2.5 の結果 5 で、SST と TOEFL から TOEIC スコアを予測すると想定した場合である。決定係数は全データの変動のうち回帰式で説明できる割合を示しているが、この結果 1 では 47%のデータが回帰で説明できることが示されている。

Table 1. 単回帰分析 (SST-TOEIC)

データ数	2203
------	------

重相関係数R	0.685591
決定係数R ²	0.470035
自由度修正済み決定係数	0.469794
Y評価値の標準誤差	103.707658
ダービン・ワトソン比	0.134906

Y評価値の標準誤差は実測値と予測値の差の標準誤差を示しているが、約104点くらいの変動がある。ダービン・ワトソン比は残差を時系列としてみたときに周期性があるかランダムであるかを測定するもので、ランダムであれば、2に近く、正の相関があれば、0に近く、負の相関があれば、4に近い値が出ることになっている。このデータでは0.135であるので、正の相関があることになる。これは、SSTのスコアがあがるにつれTOEICのスコアも周期的に上がっていることを示している。

Table 2. 分散分析表 (SST-TOEIC)

要因	偏差平方和	自由度	不偏分散	F値	P値	F(0.95)
回帰	20995407	1	20995407.19	1952.103	8.5E-306	3.845685
残差	23672367	2201	10755.28			
計	44667775	2202				

表2はSSTのスコアからTOEICのスコアを予測する回帰式の有意性を検定するための分散分析表を示している。危険率は0.05%に設定した。F値はF(0.95)の値をはるかに超えており、P値も0.05%よりはるかに小さいので、SSTのスコアからTOEICのスコアを予測する回帰式についての帰無仮説は棄却でき、回帰直線は予測に役立つことが示されている。

Table 3. 回帰係数の有意性の検定と信頼区間 (SST-TOEIC)

	回帰係数	標準誤差	標準回帰係数	t値	P値	t(0.975)	95%下限	95%上限
定数項	310.5328	8.328554	310.5328	37.28532	2.8E-236	1.961043	294.2002	326.8655
SST	76.8842	1.740147	0.6856	44.18261	8.5E-306	1.961043	73.4717	80.2967

表3は回帰係数の有意性の検定と信頼区間を示している。両側検定で危険率を5%とした場合のt値は1.96で、この値はt値37.29と44.18より小さく、P値も5%以下なので、回帰係数は回帰に必要な係数であるといえる。また信頼区間に0が含まれないので、回帰係数は有意であると判断できる。

以上のことから、次の回帰式

$$\text{Toaic score} = 76.8842 * (\text{SST score}) + 310.5328$$

は受験者数の約半数に限り、SSTスコアからTOEICのスコアを予測できる。

念のため、回帰関数と散布図、予測値と残差、実測値と予測値、実測値と残差を示すグラフを掲載する。

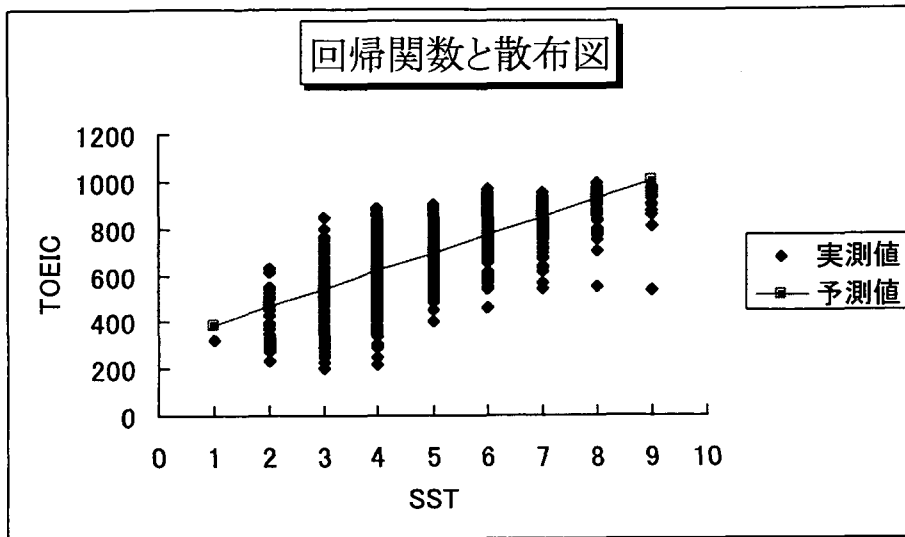


Figure 1.

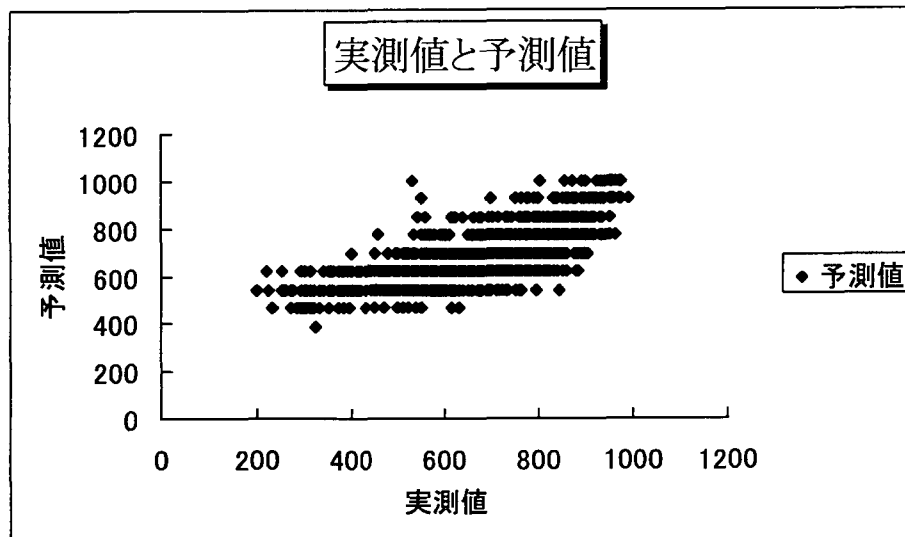


Figure 2.

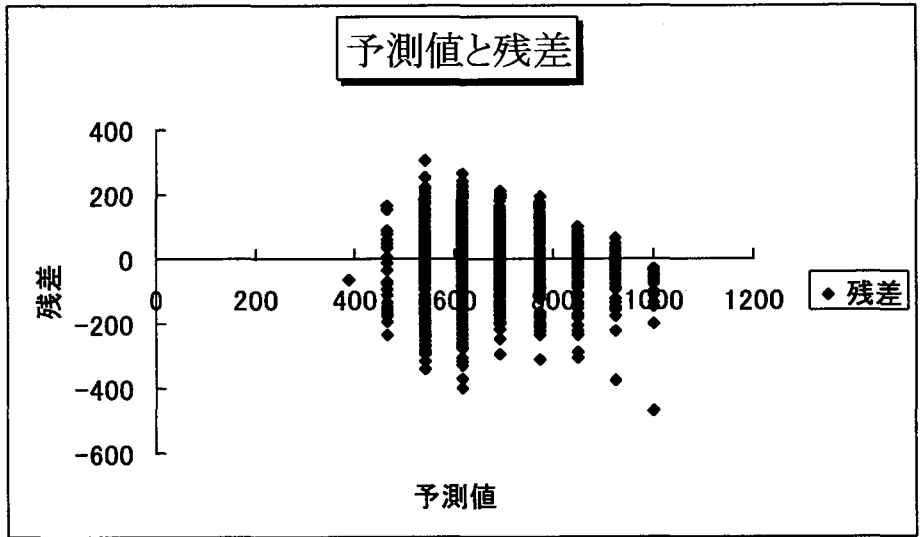


Figure 3.

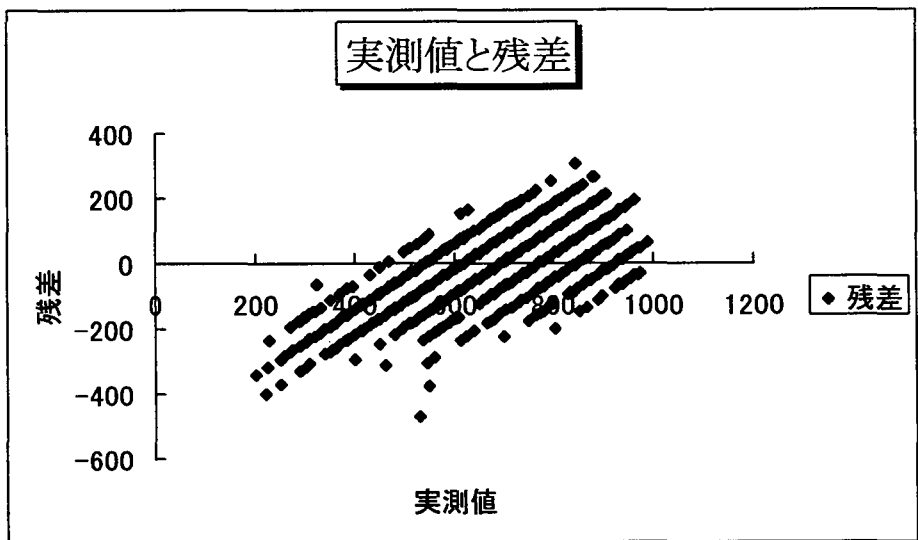


Figure 4.

2.2 結果2 : SST と TOEFL の単回帰分析

予測値と実測値の相関を示す重相関係数は 0.49 と低く、全データの変動のうち回帰式で説明できる割合も 24%と低い。ただし、残差の標準誤差は TOEIC の場合よりの約半分であるから、回帰式で予測できる場合は当てはまり率が高いことになる。ダービン・ワトソン比も TOEIC の場合よりも周期性がみられず、どちらかといえばランダムとなっている。

Table 4. 単回帰分析 (SST-TOEFL)

データ数	541
重相関係数R	0.4903
決定係数R ²	0.2404
自由度修正済み決定係数	0.2389
Y評価値の標準誤差	59.7183
ダービン・ワトソン比	1.2368

しかし、表5の分散分析表に寄れば、SSTスコアから TOEFL のスコアを予測する回帰式の有意性は得られている。

Table 5. 分散分析表 (SST-TOEFL)

要因	偏差平方和	自由度	不偏分散	F値	P値	F(0.95)
回帰	608203	1	608203.38	170.543	4.65E-34	3.858759
残差	1922223	539	3566.28			
計	2530426	540				

また、表6により、回帰係数も有意である。

Table 6. 回帰係数の有意性の検定と信頼区間 (SST-TOEFL)

	回帰係数	標準誤差	標準回帰係数	t値	P値	t(0.975)	95%下限	95%上限
定数項	405.0981	9.45678	405.09809	42.83679	1.2E-175	1.964377	386.5214	423.6748
SST	22.9162	1.75479	0.49026	13.05921	4.65E-34	1.964377	19.46915	26.3633

従って、つぎの回帰式

$$\text{TOEFL Score} = 22.9162 * (\text{SST Score}) + 405.0981$$

は、受験者数の4分の1にかぎり、SSTスコアから TOEFL スコアを予測できるといえる。

§2.1と同様、4種のグラフを以下に掲載する。

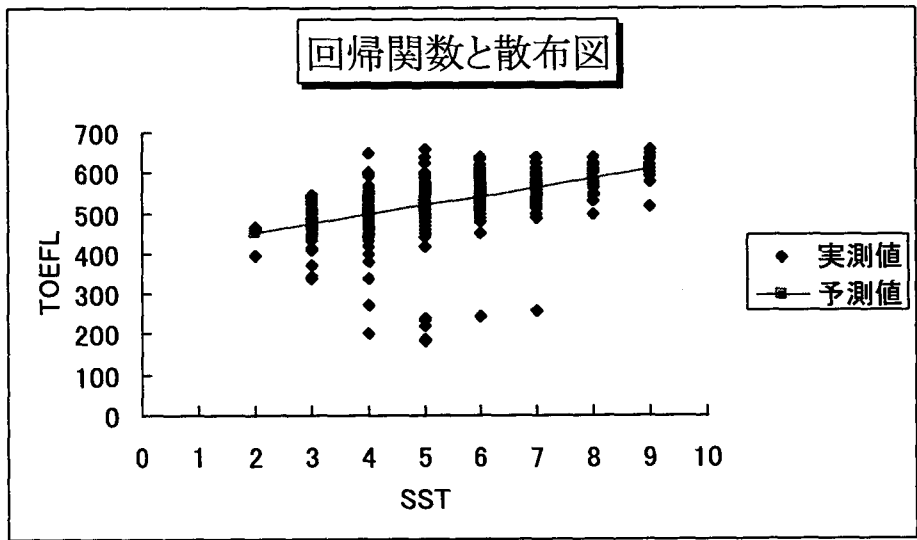


Figure 5.

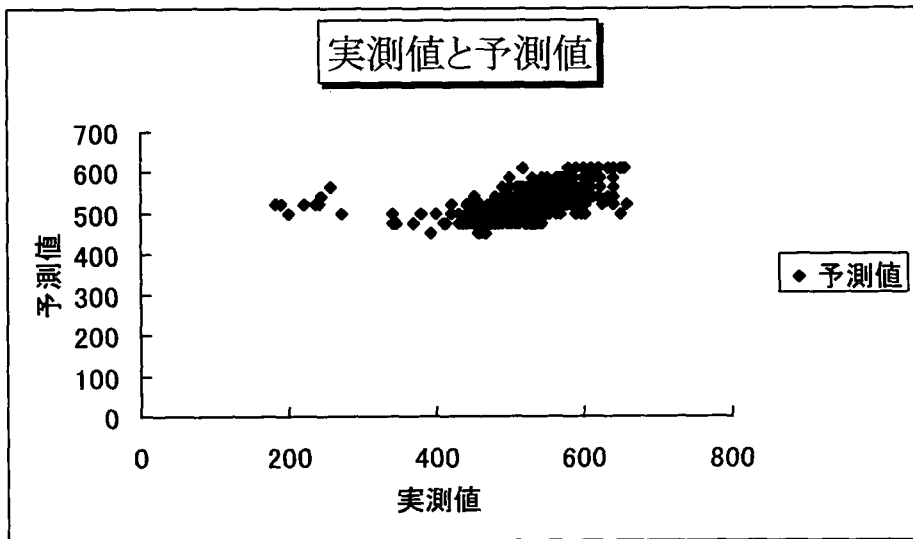


Figure 6.

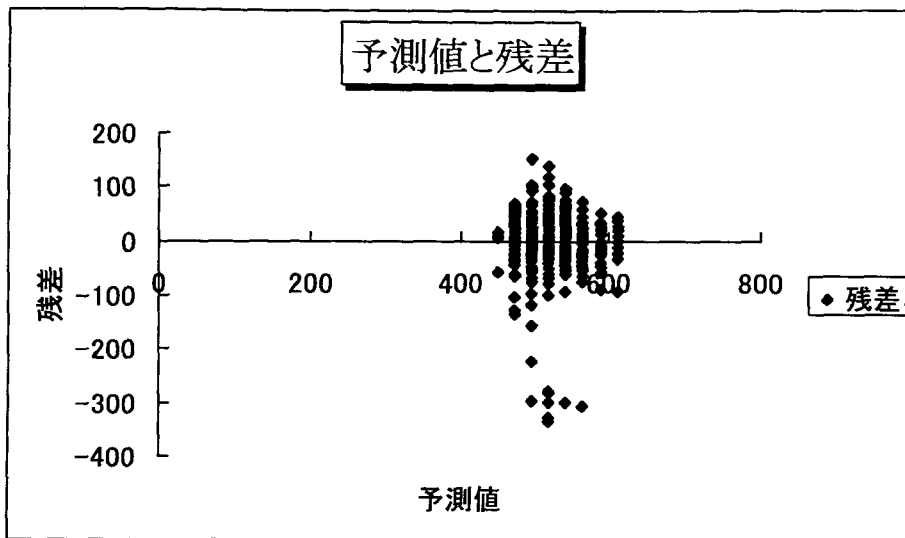


Figure 7.

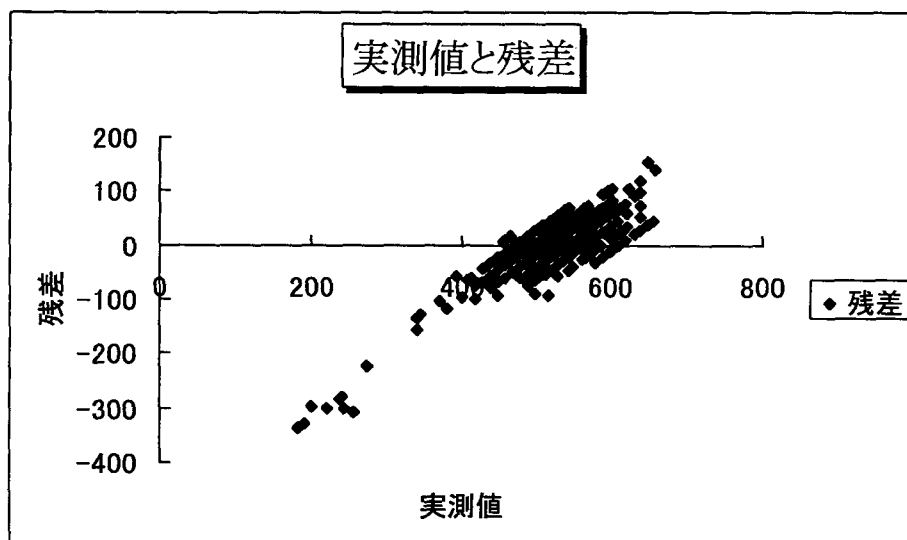


Figure 8.

2.3 結果 3 : SST と英検

ここでは、英検の5級を1、4級を2、3級を3、準2級を4、2級を5、準1級を6、1級を7とコード化し、SSTの1から9までのレベルわけとの相関を考えている。SSTのレベル9はネイティブ・スピーカーレベルの会話力の段階であるので、英検での1級はSSTの7または8になると考えられ、SSTの1は中学1年生が受験する英検5級、SSTの2は中学2年生が受験する英検4級、SSTの3は中学3年生が受験する英検3級というように対応関係があるようにも思える。そこで、SSTのスコアから英検のレベルが予測できないかを回帰分析で行った。

表7からわかるように、予測値と実測値の相関は0.48で、回帰で説明できる割合は0.234とあまりよくない。残差の標準誤差は0.76で、ばらつきは少ない。ダービン・ワトソン比が示すように、データからは周期性は検出されていない。

Table 7. 単回帰分析(SST-英検)

データ数	595
重相関係数R	0.48364
決定係数R ²	0.23391
自由度修正済み決定係数	0.23262
Y評価値の標準誤差	0.76080
ダービン・ワトソン比	1.41954

しかし、回帰は有意で、SSTから英検のレベルを予測する回帰直線は予測に役立つことが表8より理解できる。

Table 8. 分散分析表(SST-英検)

要因	偏差平方和	自由度	不偏分散	F値	P値	F(0.95)
回帰	104.8027	1	104.8027	181.0623	3.29E-36	3.857195
残差	343.2410	593	0.5788			
計	448.0437	594				

回帰係数も有意で、説明変数は目的変数の予測に必要であることが示されている。

Table 9. 回帰係数の有意性の検定と信頼区間(SST-英検)

	回帰係数	標準誤差	標準回帰係数	t値	P値	t(0.975)	95%下限	95%上限
定数項	3.756193	0.116426	3.756193	32.2626	1.3E-132	1.963972	3.527536	3.98485
SST	0.300859	0.022359	0.483644	13.4559	3.29E-36	1.963972	0.256947	0.34477

従って、回帰式 英検のレベル = 0.300859*(SST Score) + 3.756193 は受験者の4分の1の割合で成立する。このことが起こる確立は非常に高い。

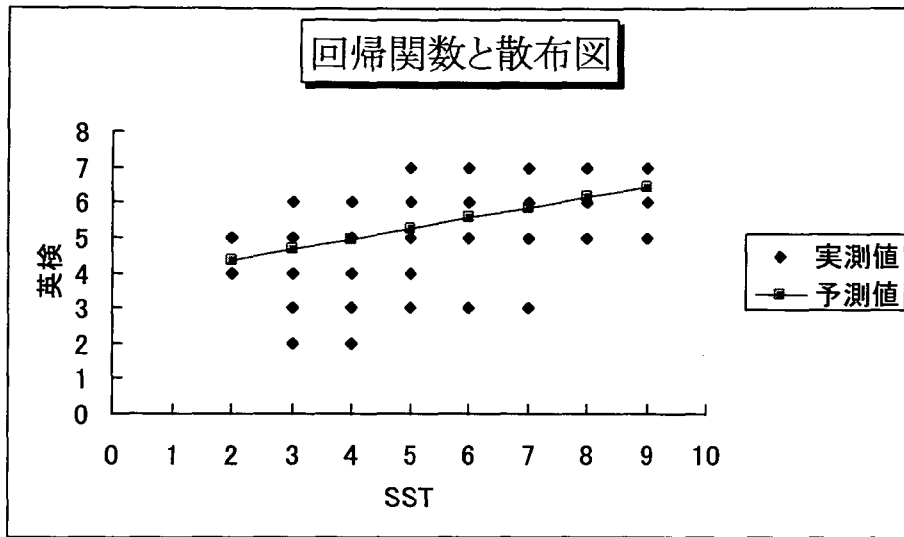


Figure 9.

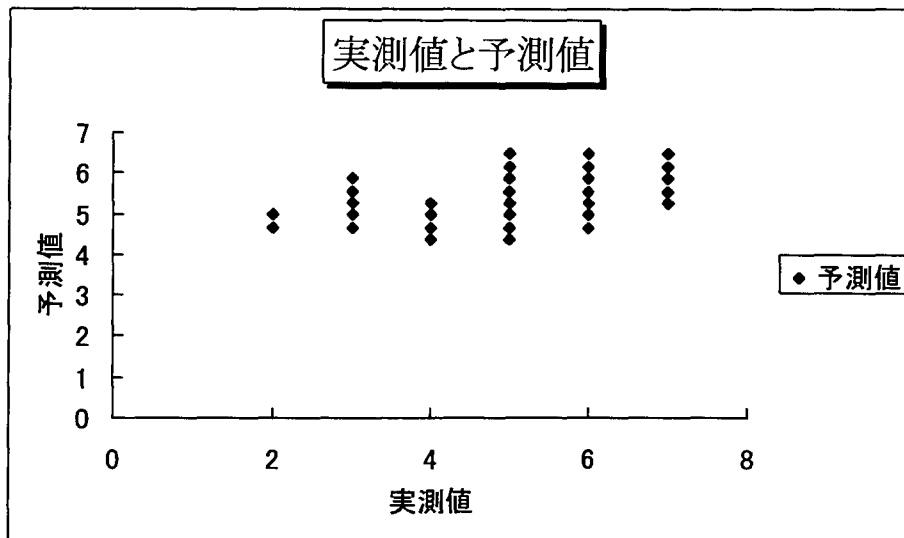


Figure 10.

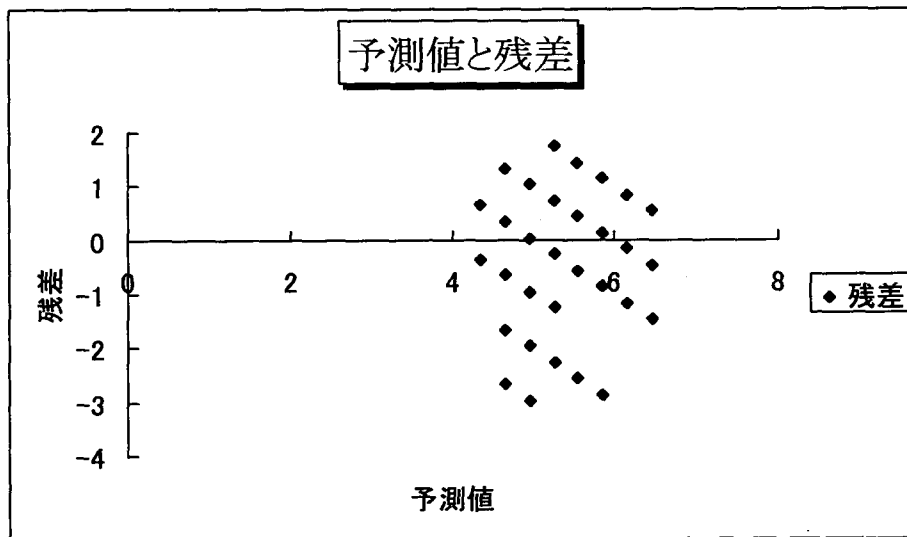


Figure 11.

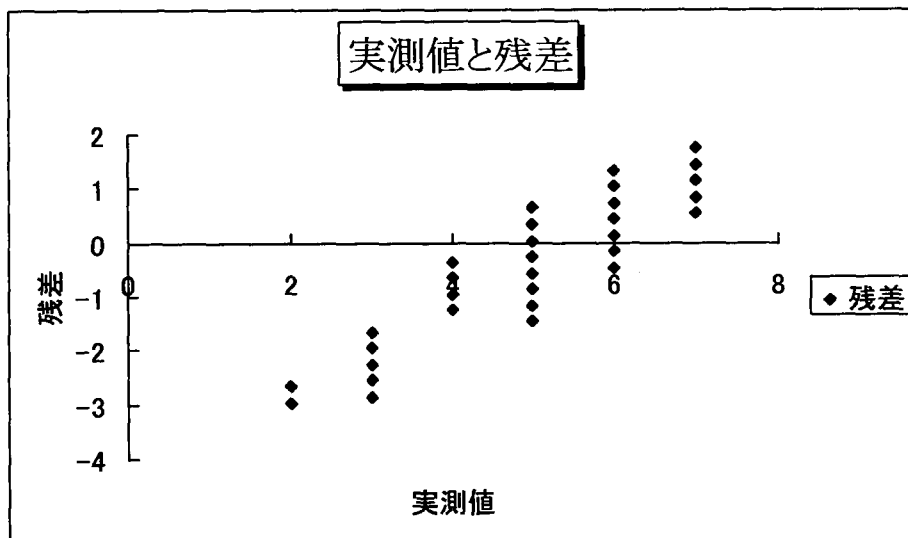


Figure 12.

2.4 結果4： SST と TOEFL,TOEIC の重回帰分析

ここでは、SST と TOEFL,TOEIC の重回帰分析の結果を報告する。SST は Picture

Description, Story-Telling, Role-Play という3種のタスクを学生に行わせ、評点者は文法力、話の進め方、発音、言語機能にわたって多角的に判定していく。一方、TOEIC や TOEFL ではこのような能動的な発信力を調べるのではなく、受身的に文法力、聞き取り、読解、語法、会話パターンの知識、語彙力をテストしている。英語を第二言語や外国語として学習している学習者では、能動的な発信力は受身的な知識に依存しているが、発信力が言語知識に等しいということはまずない。そこで、この重回帰分析では TOEFL で試される英語力と TOEIC で試される英語力を説明変数にし、SST を目的変数として扱うことにした。

Table 10. 重回帰分析 (SST-TOEFL-TOEIC)

データ数	239
重相関係数R	0.68874
決定係数R ²	0.47436
自由度修正済み決定係数	0.46991
Y評価値の標準誤差	1.05682
ダービン・ワトソン比	0.39890

観測値と予測値の相関を示す重相関係数は高く、全データの変動のうち回帰で説明できる割合も 0.47436 とまずまずである。残差の標準誤差を示す Y 評価値の標準誤差を SST の 1 レベル分であるし、ダービン・ワトソン比も周期性を示す結果になっている。しかも、表 11 で分かるように、回帰直線は予測にやくだつという結果を示している。ところが、表 12 でわかるように、TOEIC 変数の示す回帰係数は有意であるが、TOEFL の回帰係数は有意ではなく、TOEFL のスコアは SST の予測に必要ではないことになる。そこで、次の § 2.4.1 と § 2.4.2 では、SST と TOEFL、SST と TOEIC との単回帰分析を行った。

Table 11. 分散分析表 (SST-TOEFL-TOEIC)

要因	偏差平方和	自由度	不偏分散	F値	P値	F(0.95)
回帰	237.8682	2	118.9341	106.4895	1.1E-33	3.034089
残差	263.5795	236	1.1169			
計	501.4477	238				

Table 12. 回帰係数の有意性の検定と信頼区間 (SST-TOEFL-TOEIC)

	回帰係数	標準誤差	標準回帰係数	t値	P値	t(0.975)	95%下限	95%上限
定数項	-1.47356	0.57854	-1.473561	-2.54702	0.011501	1.970066	-2.61333	-0.33379
TOEFL	0.00245	0.0013	0.110528	1.8868	0.060414	1.970066	-0.00011	0.00502
TOEIC	0.00752	0.00071	0.617482	10.54093	1.54E-21	1.970066	0.00612	0.00893

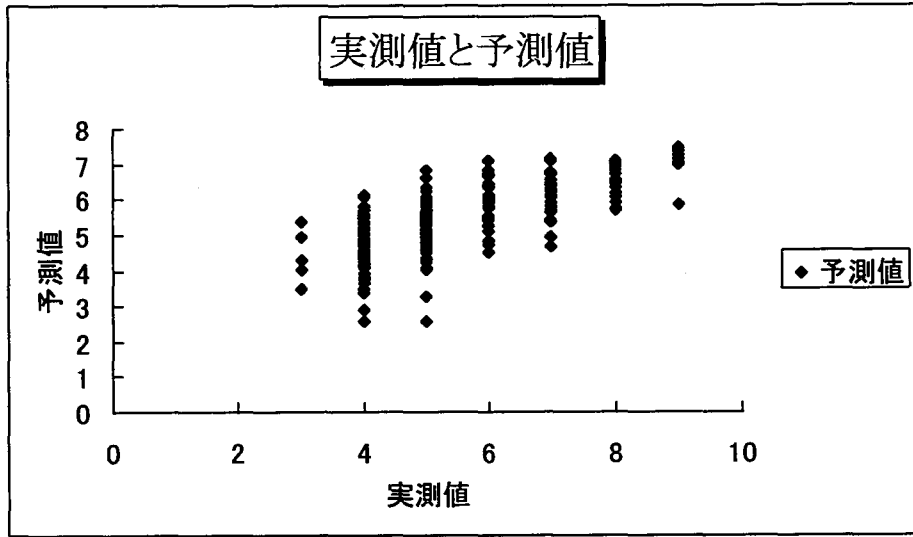


Figure 13.

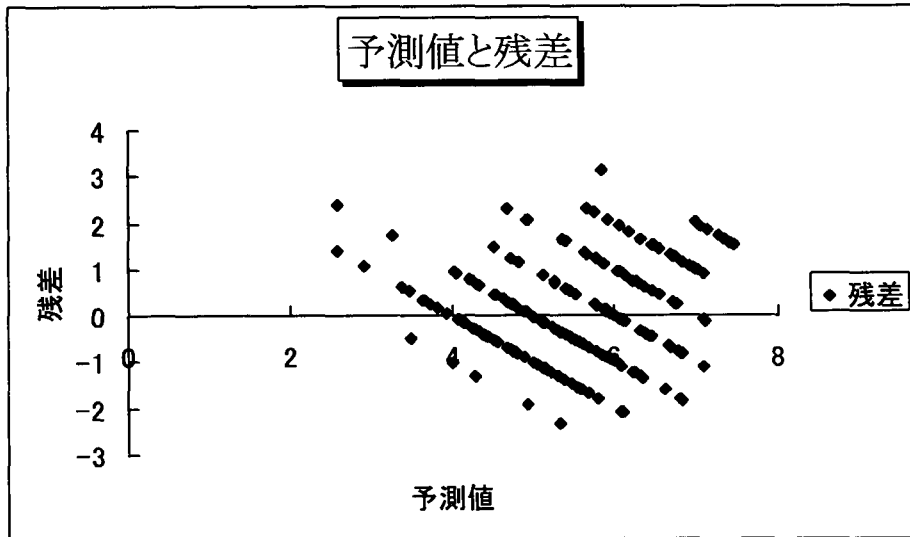


Figure 14.

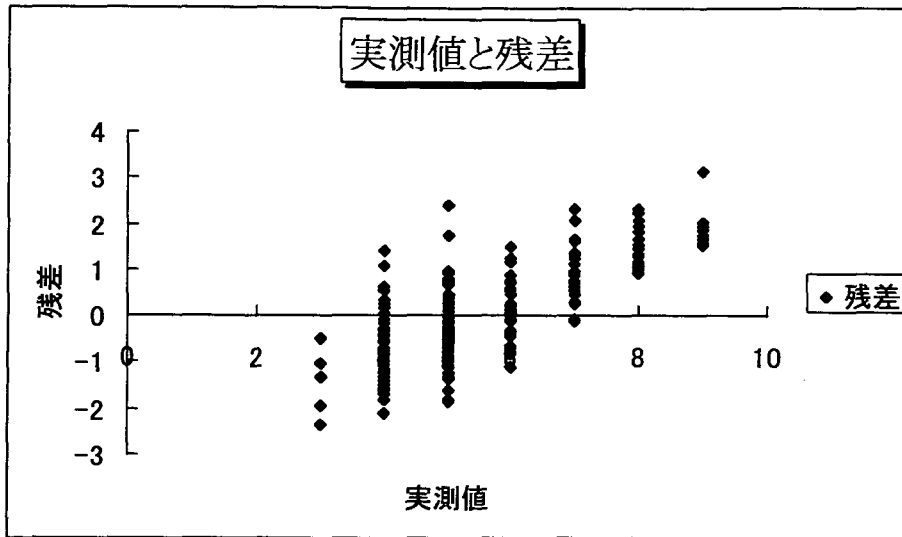


Figure 15.

2.4.1 結果4-1：SSTとTOEFLの単回帰分析

この単回帰分析では、SSTからTOEFLを予測できるかを調べた。表14から分かるように、回帰式は予測に役立ち、表15で説明変数(SST)は目的変数(TOEFL)の予測に必要であることがわかる。ただし、決定係数が0.226であるから、回帰直線はデータにあまりよく当てはまっているわけではない。また、ダービン・ワトソン比が1.87であることは、観測値と予測値との残差を時系列としてみたとき、周期性がなくランダムであることを示唆している。

Table 13. 単回帰分析 (SST・TOEFL・TOEIC)

データ数	239
重相関係数R	0.47633
決定係数R ²	0.22689
自由度修正済み決定係数	0.22363
Y評価値の標準誤差	57.61256
ダービン・ワトソン比	1.87406

Table 14. 分散分析表 (SST・TOEFL・TOEIC)

要因	偏差平方和	自由度	不偏分散	F値	P値	F(0.95)
回帰	230861	1	230861.194	69.55311	6.12E-15	3.880984
残差	786652	237	3319.207			
計	1017513	238				

Table 15. 回帰係数の有意性の検定と信頼区間 (SST・TOEFL・TOEIC)

	回帰係数	標準誤	標準回帰係	t値	P値	t(0.975)	95%下限	95%上限
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		差	数					
定数項	415.58914	14.72135	415.58914	28.23037	9.10737E-78	1.970024641	386.58772	444.59056
SST	21.45669	2.57279	0.47633	8.33985	6.12302E-15	1.970024641	16.38823	26.52515

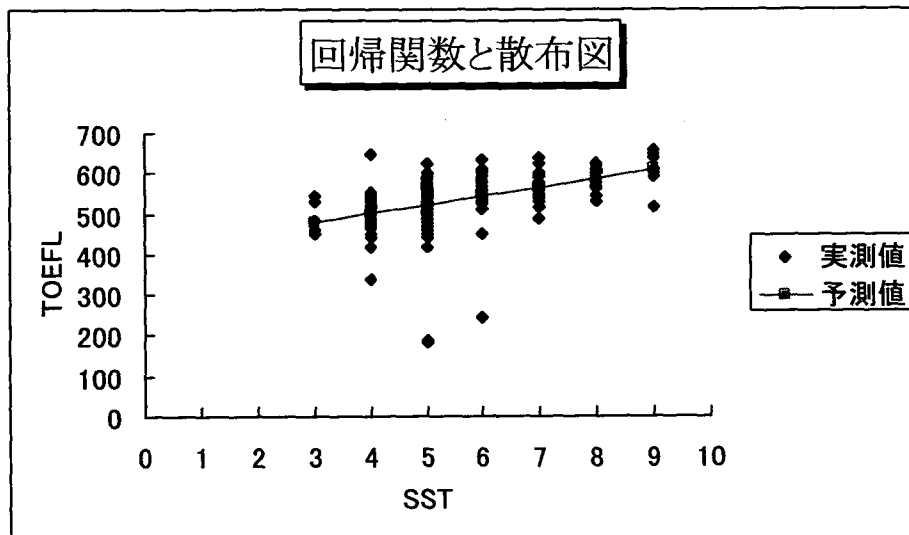


Figure 16.

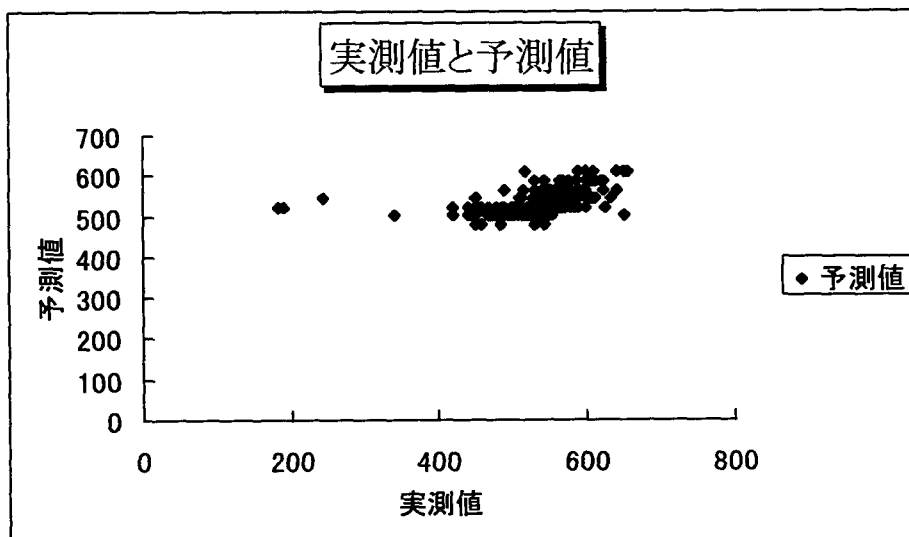


Figure 17.

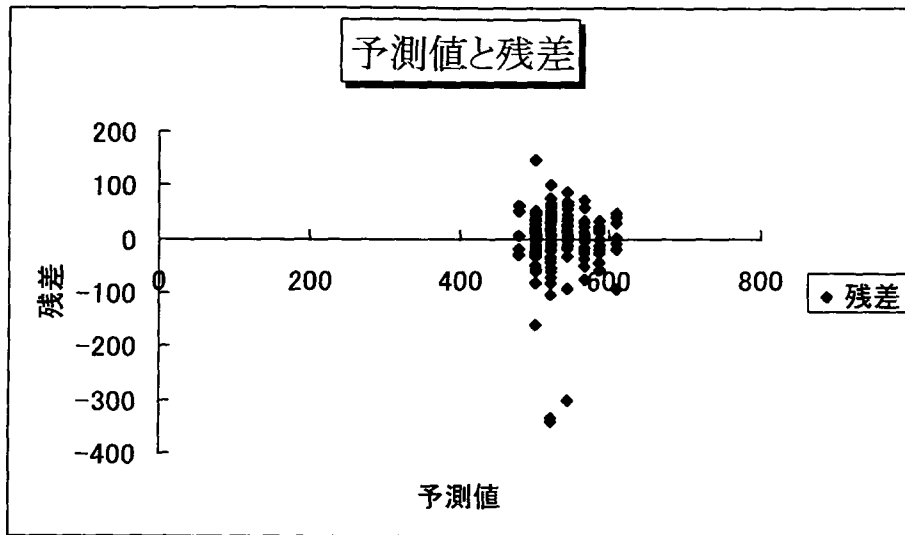


Figure 18.

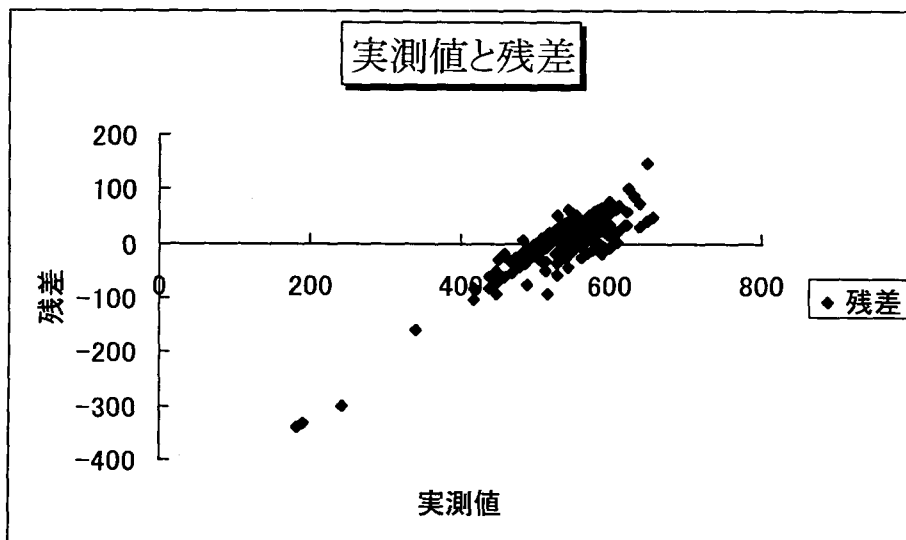


Figure 19.

2.4.2 結果 4-2 : SST と TOEIC の単回帰分析

ここでは、SSTを説明変数にして、TOEICのスコアを予測できるかを考えた。§2.1で2203人を対象にして回帰分析をしたが、ダービン・ワトソン比以外は同様な結果を得た。重相関係数も高く、回帰直線の当てはまり方も0.47で同様であり、表17によれば、回帰直線は予測に役立つことが示されており、表18でわかるように回帰係数も有意で説明変数としてSSTは有効であることが示されている。

Table 16. 単回帰分析 (SST-TOEIC)

データ数	239
重相関係数R	0.68296
決定係数R ²	0.46643
自由度修正済み決定係数	0.46418
Y評価値の標準誤差	87.23390
ダービン・ワトソン比	0.65456

Table 17. 分散分析表 (SST-TOEIC)

要因	偏差平方和	自由度	不偏分散	F値	P値	F(0.95)
回帰	1576597	1	1576597.09	207.1811	3.54E-34	3.880984
残差	1803511	237	7609.75			
計	3380109	238				

Table 18. 回帰係数の有意性の検定と信頼区間 (SST-TOEIC)

	回帰係数	標準誤差	標準回帰係数	t値	P値	t(0.975)	95%下限	95%上限
定数項	447.22380	22.29029	447.22380	20.06362	5.31E-53	1.970025	403.3114	491.1362
SST	56.07219	3.89558	0.68296	14.39379	3.54E-34	1.970025	48.3978	63.7466

§2.4のまとめとしては、TOEFLとTOEICのスコアを二つとも説明変数と考え、SSTのレベルを予測することは正しくないが、SSTのレベルから、TOEFLのスコアは4分の1の受験者の予測には役立つし、また、TOEICの受験の場合は半数程度のスコアが予測できることになる。しかし、2種類のデータは異なる回帰直線を指示していることは注意する必要がある。

$$\text{§ 4.2 TOEIC Score} = 76.8842 * (\text{SST}) + 310.5328$$

$$\text{§ 4.2.2 TOEIC Score} = 56.07219 * (\text{SST}) + 447.2238$$

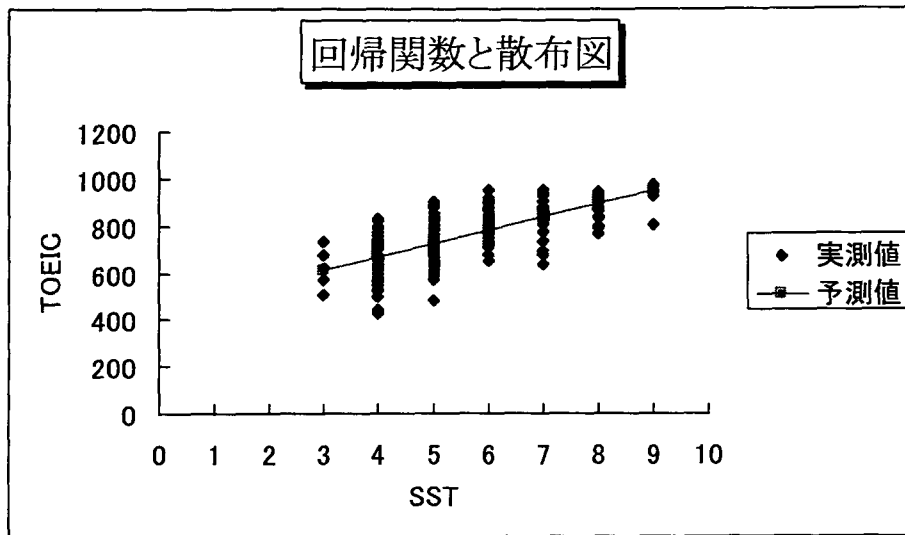


Figure 20.

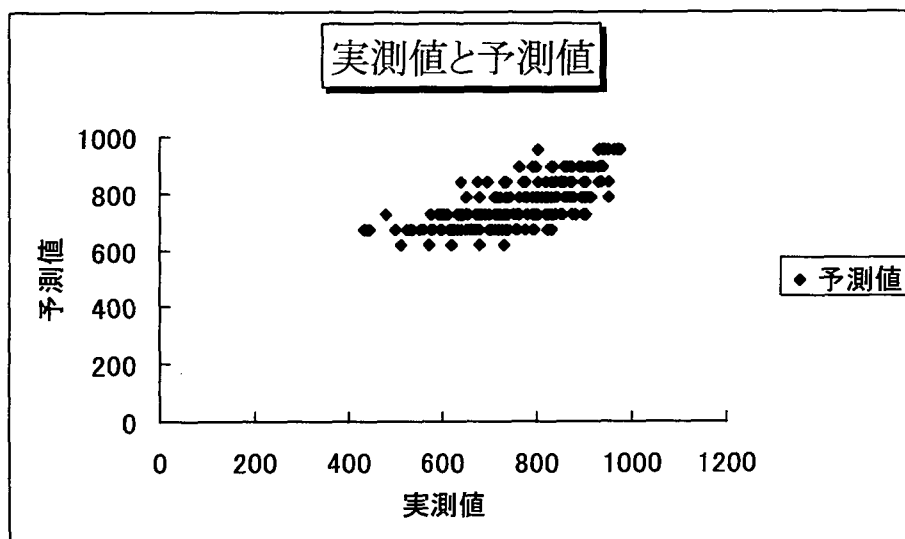


Figure 21.

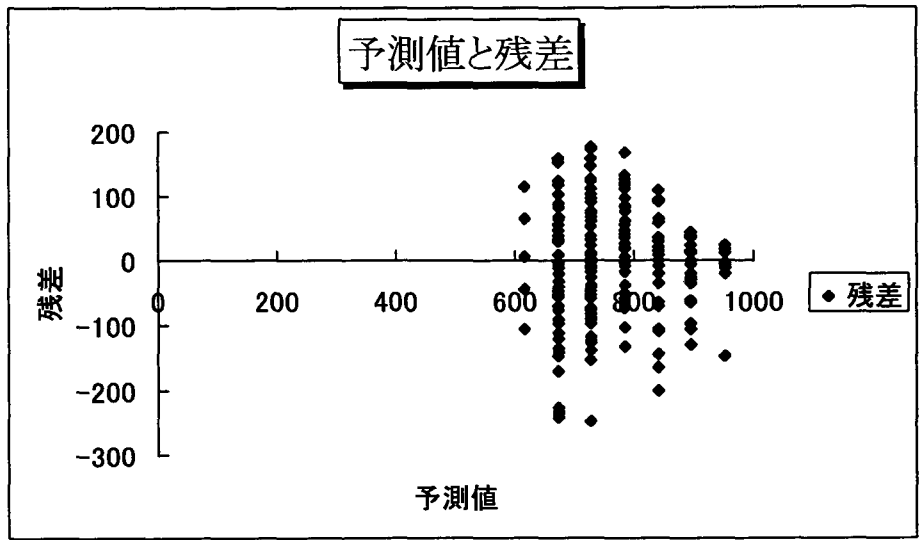


Figure 22.

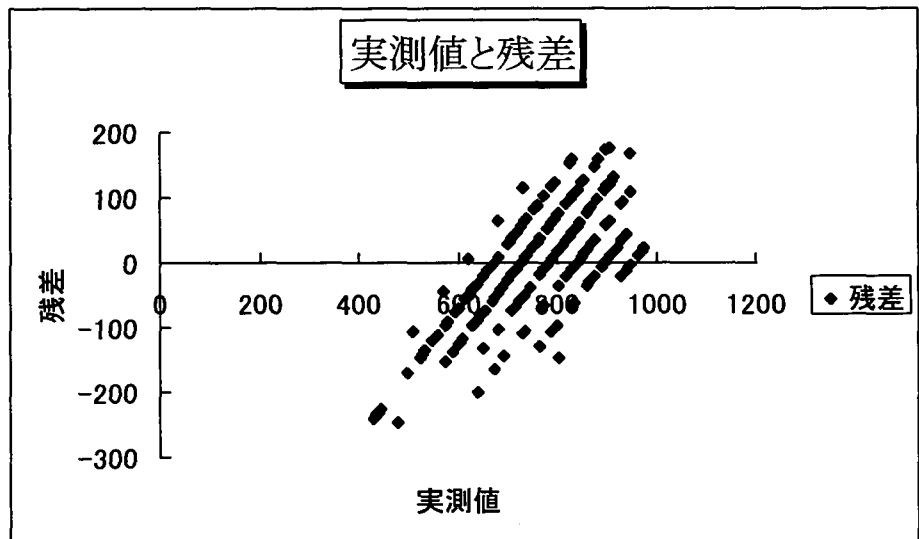


Figure 23.

2.4.3 結果 4-3: TOEFL と TOEIC の単回帰分析

TOEFL スコアから TOEIC スコアが予測できるのかを手持ちのデータで考えてみた。実測値と予測値の相関もたかく、表 20 で回帰式は予測に役立つことは分散分析からあきらかであり、表 21 では回帰係数も有意であるから TOEFL のスコアは TOEIC のスコアを予測するの必要である。しかし、SST と TOEIC ほど決定係数が高くないことは注目に値する。TOEFL は留学した場合、英語で大学での授業についていけるかをテストするものであるが、TOEIC は米国で社会人として英語で仕事をしていけるかどうかを確かめるというテストの主たる目的の差でもあろう。SST は日常生活英語より発話のタスクが選択されているから、TOEIC との相関が高くなっていると解釈できるだろう。

Table 19. 単回帰分析 (SST-TOEFL-TOEIC)

データ数	239
重相関係数R	0.59240
決定係数R ²	0.35094
自由度修正済み決定係数	0.34820
Y評価値の標準誤差	96.21274
ダービン・ワトソン比	0.92071

Table 20. 分散分析表 (SST-TOEFL-TOEIC)

要因	偏差平方和	自由度	不偏分散	F値	P値	F(0.95)
回帰	1186225	1	1186225	128.1451	4.94E-24	3.880984
残差	2193883	237	9257			
計	3380109	238				

Table 21. 回帰係数の有意性の検定と信頼区間 (SST-TOEFL-TOEIC)

	回帰係数	標準誤差	標準回帰係数	t値	P値	t(0.975)	95%下限	95%上限
定数項	180.64840	51.34681	180.6484	3.51820	0.000521	1.970025	79.49392	281.80287
TOEFL	1.07973	0.09538	0.5924	11.32012	4.94E-24	1.970025	0.89182	1.26763

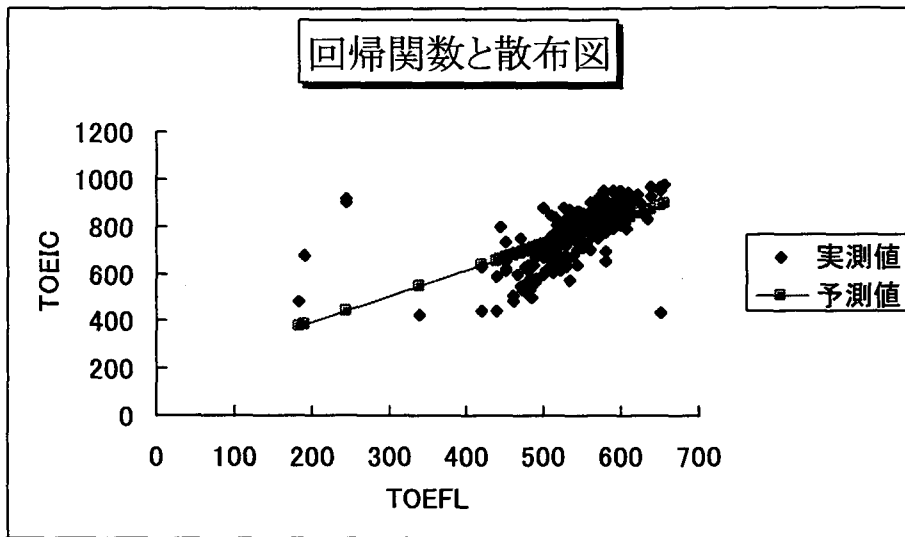


Figure 24.

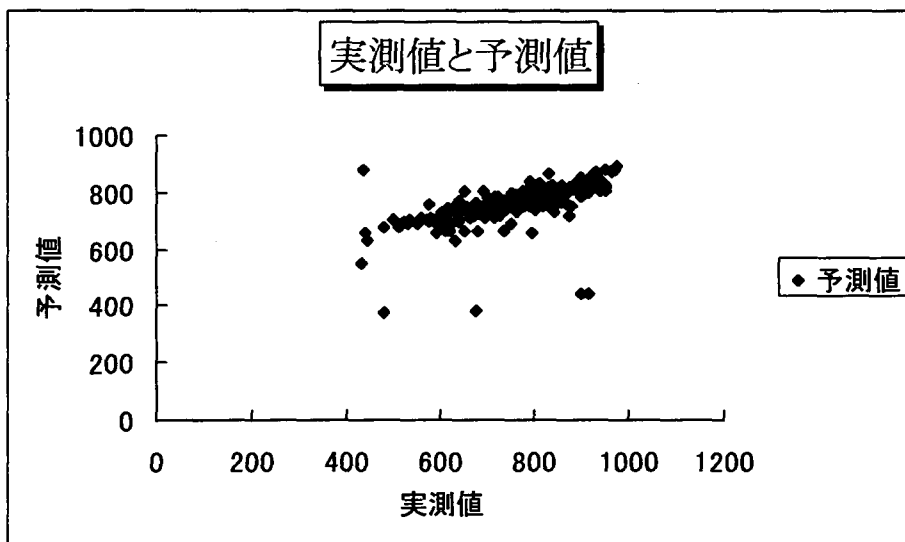


Figure 25.

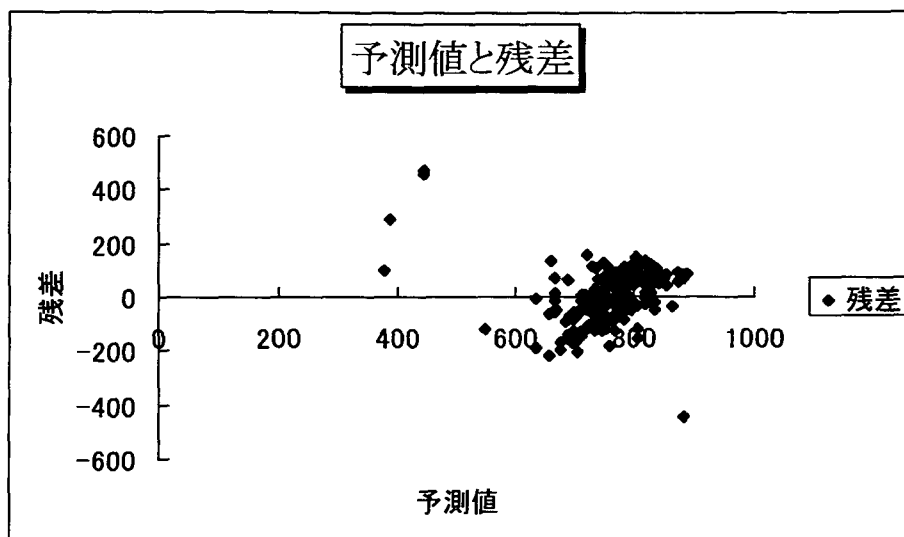


Figure 26.

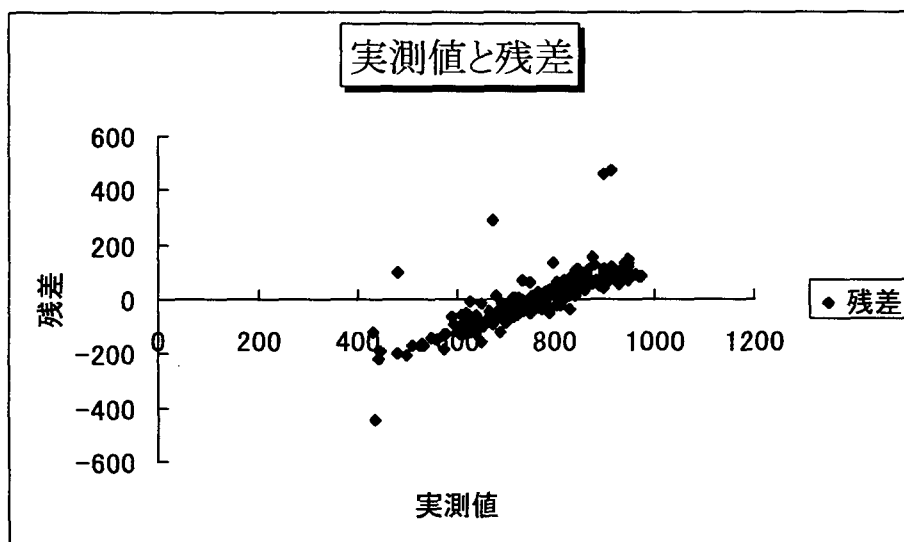


Figure 27.

2.5 結果5 : SST, TOEFL, TOEIC の重回帰分析

§ 2.4 の結果 4 では、TOEFL、TOEIC を説明変数にして、目的変数の SST を予測できるのかを検定した。その結果、TOEFL の回帰係数は予測に必要でないことがわかった。ここでは、SST と TOEFL を説明変数とし、目的変数の TOEIC を予測できるかを確かめた。被験者は § 2.4 と同一の人たちである。

表 22 でわかるように、実測値と予測値の相関はいままでのどの相関よりも高く、データと予測との当てはまり方も最も良い結果となった。表 2 3 の分散分析の結果も回帰直線は予測に役立つという仮説が指示されている。また、SST と TOEFL の回帰係数も有意で、目的変数の TOEIC スコアを予測するのに、SST も TOEFL も必要な変数となっている。ただし、ダービン・ワトソン比は結果 4 の場合より低い周期性を示している。

Table 22. 重回帰分析 (SST-TOEFL-TOEIC)

データ数	239
重相関係数R	0.74747
決定係数R ²	0.55871
自由度修正済み決定係数	0.55497
Y評価値の標準誤差	79.50097
ダービン・ワトソン比	0.86779

Table 23. 分散分析表 (SST-TOEFL-TOEIC)

要因	偏差平方和	自由度	不偏分散	F値	P値	F(0.95)
回帰	1888493.3	2	944246.6385	149.3966	1.2E-42	3.034089
残差	1491615.3	236	6320.4039			
計	3380108.6	238				

Table 24. 回帰係数の有意性の検定と信頼区間 (SST-TOEFL-TOEIC)

	回帰係数	標準誤差	標準回帰係数	t値	P値	t(0.975)	95%下限	95%上限
定数項	185.53939	42.43061	185.53939	4.37277	1.84E-05	1.970066	101.94831	269.13046
SST	42.56154	4.03774	0.5184	10.54093	1.54E-21	1.970066	34.60693	50.51615
TOEFL	0.62967	0.08964	0.34548	7.02478	2.28E-11	1.970066	0.45308	0.80626

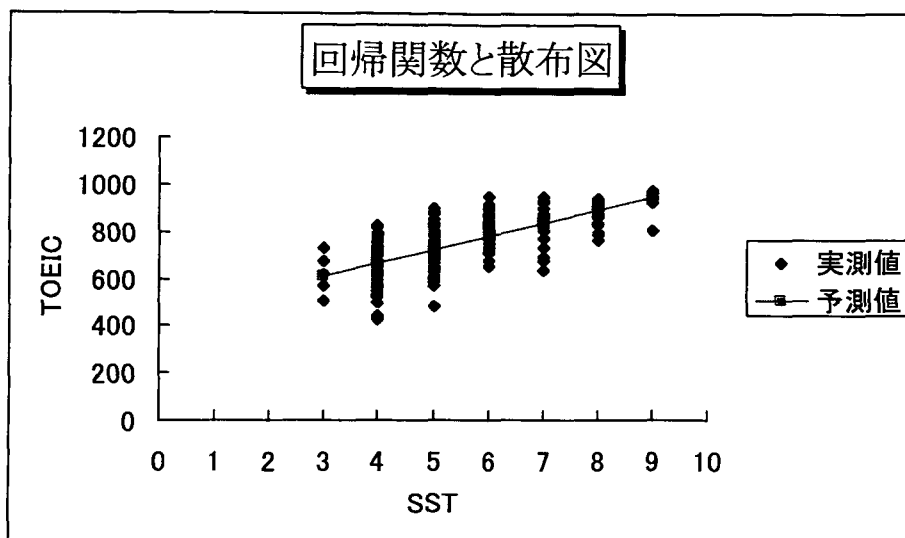


Figure 28.

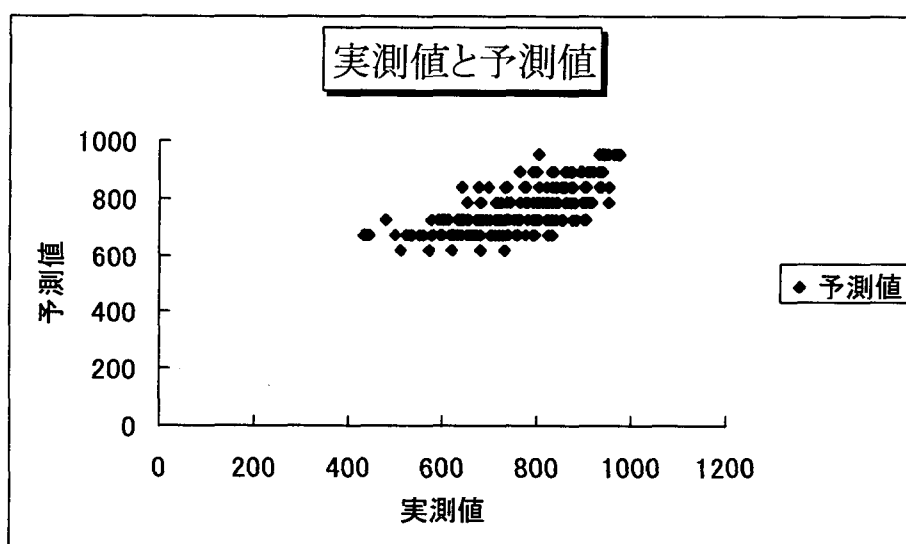


Figure 29.

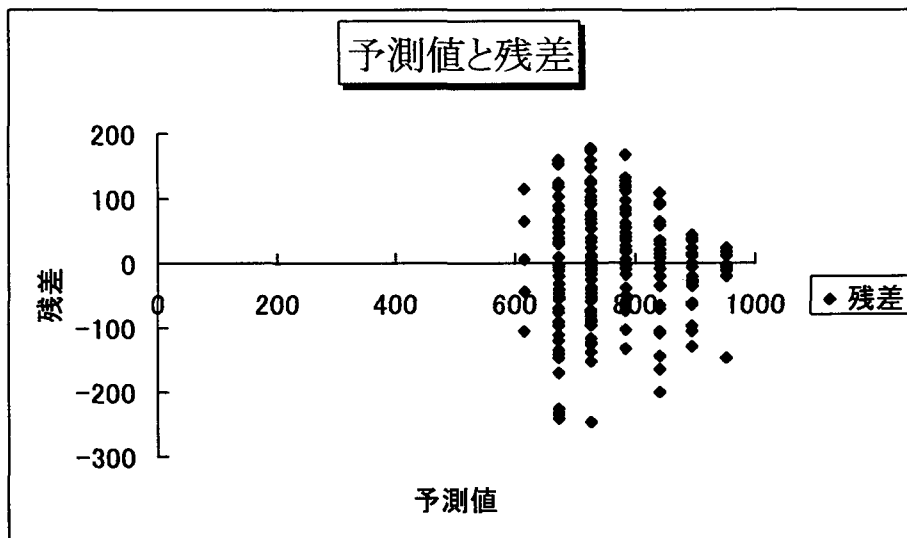


Figure 30.

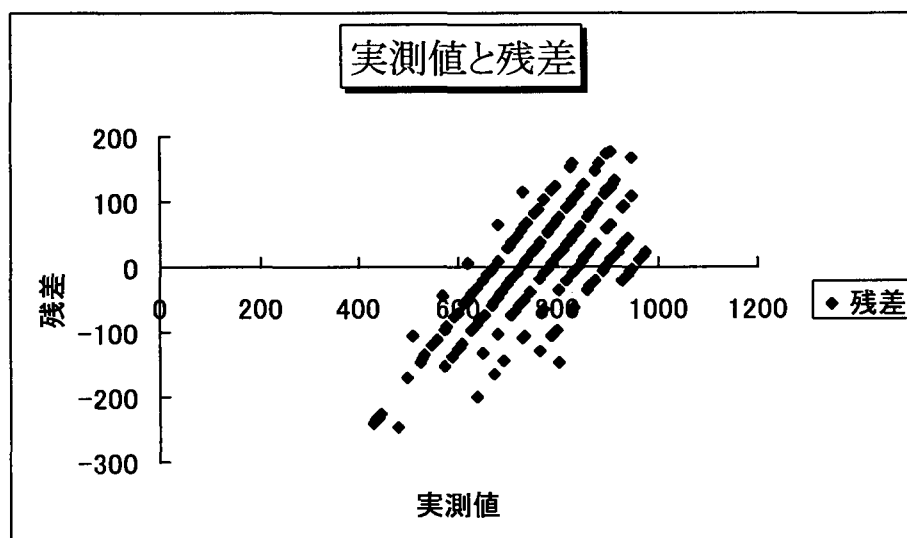


Figure 31.

2.6 結果6 : SST、TOEIC、TOEFL と英検の重回帰分析

再びここでは SST を目的変数とし、TOEIC、TOEFL と英検を説明変数として重回帰分析を行ってみた。相関係数も決定係数も結果 4 と同じくらい高く、表 26 により回帰式は役立つことが分散分析より示された。しかし、表 27 が示しているように TOEFL と英検の回帰係数は有意ではなく、TOEIC のみが SST の予測に必要な変数であることが示された。

Table 25. 重回帰分析 (SST・TOEFL・TOEIC・英検)

データ数	95
重相関係数R	0.74081
決定係数R ²	0.54881
自由度修正済み決定係数	0.53393
Y評価値の標準誤差	1.04731
ダービン・ワトソン比	0.79551

Table 26. 分散分析表 (SST・TOEFL・TOEIC・英検)

要因	偏差平方和	自由度	不偏分散	F値	P値	F(0.95)
回帰	121.4076	3	40.4692	36.8958	1.08E-15	2.704702
残差	99.8135	91	1.0969			
計	221.2211	94				

Table 27. 回帰係数の有意性の検定と信頼区間 (SST・TOEFL・TOEIC・英検)

	回帰係数	標準誤差	標準回帰係数	t値	P値	t(0.975)	95%下限	95%上限
定数項	-4.04856	1.41628	-4.04856	-2.85859	0.00528	1.986377	-6.86183	-1.23529
TOEFL	0.00486	0.0039	0.14734	1.2477	0.21534	1.986377	-0.00288	0.01261
TOEIC	0.00642	0.00168	0.4864	3.82082	0.00024	1.986377	0.00308	0.00975
英検	0.40019	0.20744	0.17967	1.92917	0.05683	1.986377	-0.01187	0.81224

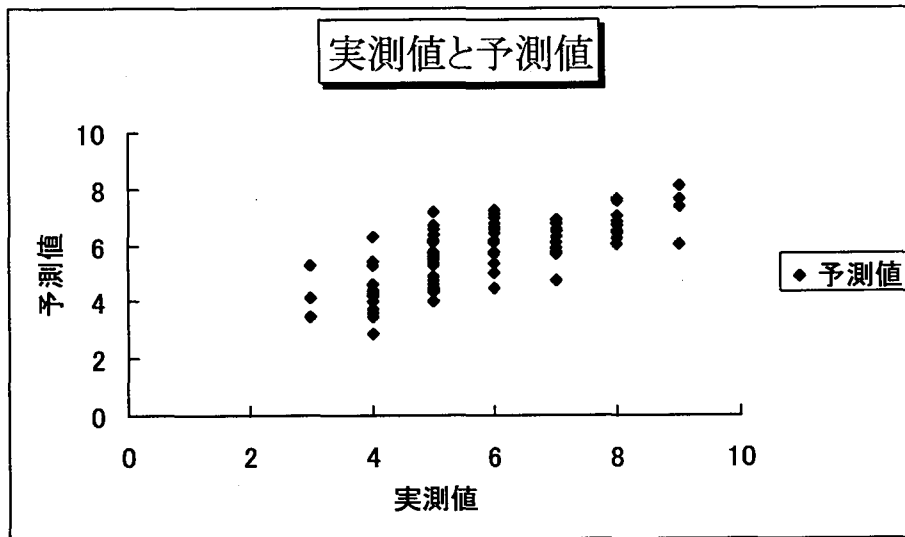


Figure 32.

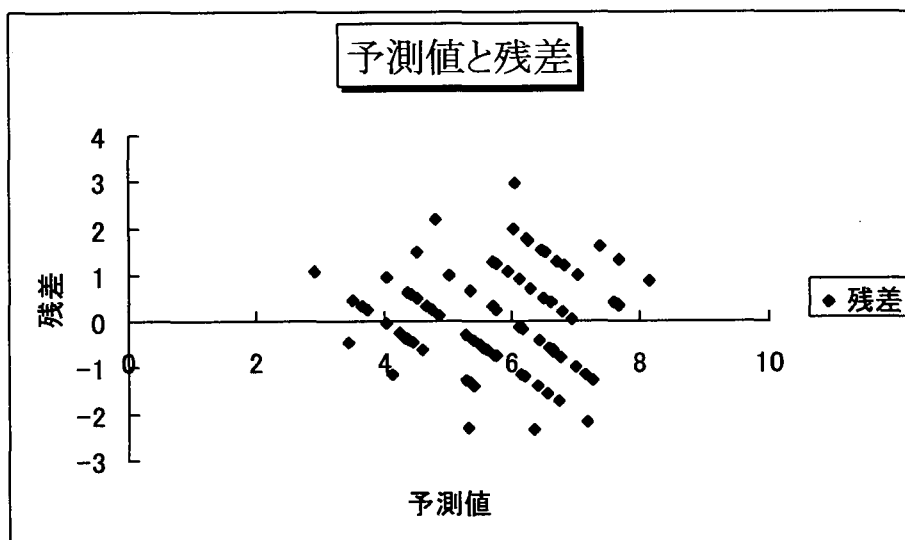


Figure 33.

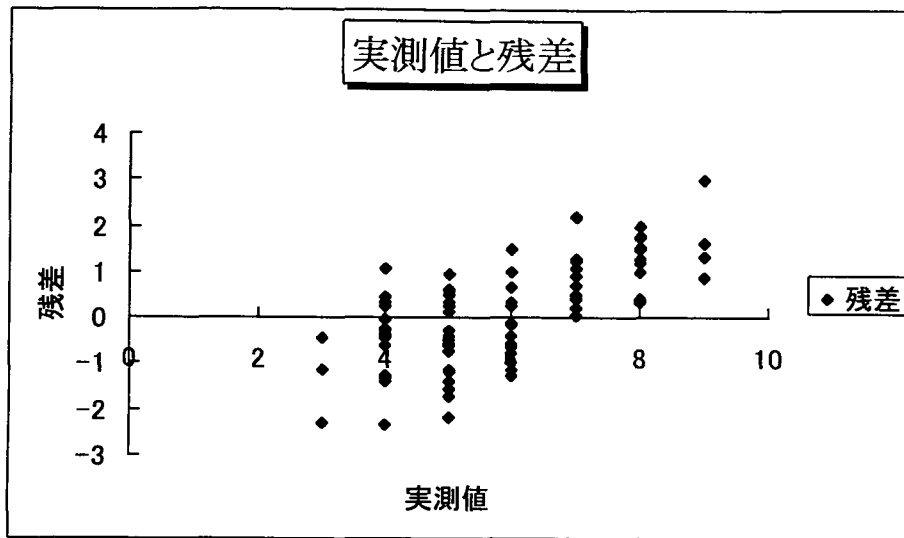


Figure 34.

3.0 まとめ

以上、3種の重回帰分析と6種の単回帰分析をした結果を小数点2位で四捨五入し表にまとめてみた。回帰式そのものは分散分析の結果有意であったが、回帰係数が有意でなかったものは取り消し線で示した。また、分かりやすさのために表一行目は略号を用いているので表の下の凡例を参照されたい。相関(重相関係数)がどれだけか、データと観測値の一致度を示す決定係数、観測値と予測値の残差の標準誤差がどれだけか、ダービン・ワトソン比が示す周期性が見られるかで最も良い回帰が決定できる。

TABLE 28 Summary

	目的変数	説明変数	相関	一致度	標準誤差	周期性
結果1	TOEIC	SST	0.69	0.47	103.71	0.13
結果2	TOEFL	SST	0.49	0.24	59.7	1.24
結果3	英検	SST	0.48	0.23	0.76	1.42
結果4	SST	TOEIC & TOEFL	0.69	0.47	1.05	0.40
4-1	TOEFL	SST	0.48	0.22	57.61	1.87
4-2	TOEIC	SST	0.68	0.46	87.23	0.65
4-3	TOEIC	SST	0.59	0.35	96.21	0.92
結果5	TOEIC	SST & TOEFL	0.75	0.56	79.5	0.87
結果6	SST	TOEFL , TOEIC & 英検	0.74	0.55	1.05	0.80

相関：重相関係数

一致度：決定係数

標準誤差：Y 評価値の標準誤差

周期性：ダービン・ワトソン比

表 28 で分かることは、結果 5 が最も実測値に当てはまりがよい結果で、次に結果 1、第 3 位は結果 4・2 となる。どれも、TOEIC が目的変数となっている場合である。以上を踏まえて、次のことが指摘できる。

1. SST を目的変数とした回帰式は無効になりがちである。このことは他の 3 種のテストに比べ、SST がスピーキング能力に焦点を絞った独特のテストであり、他の 3 種から説明がつかない側面を持つことを示唆している。
2. TOEIC を目的変数とする重回帰式は有効である。ことに結果 5 は注目に値する。アメリカ社会で使用する英語力を試す TOEIC は SST のような日常会話能力を試す試験と TOEFL のようなアメリカの大学で就業可能かを試す試験の両方で説明がつくということを示唆している。従って、対面チュートリアル英語でのプレイスメント・テストに TOEIC を用いたが、この調査によって TOEIC 選択の妥当性が示されたようにも解釈される。
3. TOEIC を SST から予測することはできる。これも対面チュートリアル担当者には喜ばしい結果である。SST のように直接受験者に話させて会話力を計測することが望ましいが、時間と熟練した評点者による労力がかかる SST には費用がかかり、学生に全員受験させることは難しいからである。

「コーパス研究：コーパス言語学と辞書学」

中野美知子

早稲田大学・教育学部

辞書学でもコーパスが用いられるという意味で、コーパス言語学と辞書学が本応用言語学事典では同一分野で扱うこととなったが、この分野のまとめはコーパスとの関連においてのみ辞書学を扱う。

I 背景：過去

現在(2001 年度)では、コーパスとはタグ付けされ、構成をもつ電子化された大規模なテキスト(言語資料)の集合をさしている。従って、テキストアーカイブはコーパスとは言えない。しかし、1961年にブラウン大学で開発された通称ブラウン・コーパスが世界で最初のものであったが、テキストアーカイブに近いものであった。2000語のテキスト500本が入力され、1964年には総語数100万語のコーパスがマグネティックテープに収録され、配布された。このように、当初は新聞、雑誌、小説など書き言葉が中心であった。日本でも国立国語研究所が1952年に現代新聞用語の語彙調査や1953年の婦人雑誌の用語調査結果が報告され、1970年から1973年まで毎年発表された電子計算機による新聞の語彙調査はテキストアーカイブ型のコーパスによる語彙研究の先駆けとなるものであった。また国立国語研究所では1968年から1980年までの10年間毎年電子計算機による国語研究が報告されたが、これはコーパス言語学の先駆的な試みであった。次第に、ラジオ、テレビ放送、演説、自然な場面で録音された話し言葉も収録されるようになった。上記のBrown Corpus以外の主な英語コーパスを以下に示す(詳しくは本文参照)。London-Lund Corpus of Spoken English(LLC Corpus)は1953年から1988年に録音されたイギリス英語の話し言葉のコーパスで、約5000語の転写テキスト100個を収録している。The Lancaster-Olds-Bergen Corpus of British English(LOB Corpus)は、1961年にイギリスで出版された書物、雑誌、新聞から2000語のテキスト約500が収録されている。The Helsinki Corpus of English Textsは古期英語、中期英語、初期近代英語の通時的言語資料と方言を収録した157万語のコーパス。Bank of Englishは4億語のコーパスでイギリス英語のほかにアメリカ英語も含む。British National Corpus(BNC)は1億語の現代イギリス英語のコーパスで90%が書き言葉で10%が話し言葉を含む。Child Language Data Exchange System(CHILDES)は幼児の発話資料をコーパスとして集めたもので、母語の発達の調査に用いられる。世界中の研究者の収集したデータを参照できる。最近では第2言語の発達にも用いられている。

1990年代になって、Bank of English, British National Corpus(BNC)などの言語の多様性を満たすコーパスが登場すると、話し言葉か書き言葉か、ジャンル、書名、発信者の国籍、性別、年齢、地域、読者対象などの分類情報がコーパスにヘッダーとして付記され、特殊コーパス(サブコーパス)として調査対象を絞りこむことが可能になってきている。

Mode	medium genre	region	domain
話し言葉本	小説	北部	科学
書き言葉新聞	短編	中部	政治
	雑誌	戯曲	南部
			ライフスタイル等

小学館が開発した Corpus Query System(CQS)での画面をここで引用する。

<input type="checkbox"/> Spoken	<input type="checkbox"/> Demographic	Resident Age	<input type="checkbox"/> 0-14 <input type="checkbox"/> 15-24 <input type="checkbox"/> 25-34 <input type="checkbox"/> 35-44 <input type="checkbox"/> 45-53 <input type="checkbox"/> over 60	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Resident Social Class	<input type="checkbox"/> AB <input type="checkbox"/> C1 <input type="checkbox"/> C2 <input type="checkbox"/> DE	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Resident Sex	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Interaction type	<input type="checkbox"/> Monologue <input type="checkbox"/> Dialogue	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Region	<input type="checkbox"/> South <input type="checkbox"/> Midlands <input type="checkbox"/> North	<input type="checkbox"/> none
	<input type="checkbox"/> Context-Governed	Domain	<input type="checkbox"/> Educational/Informative <input type="checkbox"/> Business <input type="checkbox"/> Public/Institutional <input type="checkbox"/> Leisure	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Interaction type	<input type="checkbox"/> Monologue <input type="checkbox"/> Dialogue	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Region	<input type="checkbox"/> South <input type="checkbox"/> Midlands <input type="checkbox"/> North	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Medium	<input type="checkbox"/> Book <input type="checkbox"/> Pamphlet <input type="checkbox"/> Miscellaneous published <input type="checkbox"/> Miscellaneous unpublished <input type="checkbox"/> Tape-speech	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Domain	<input type="checkbox"/> Imaginative <input type="checkbox"/> Natural and pure sciences <input type="checkbox"/> Applied science <input type="checkbox"/> Social science <input type="checkbox"/> World affairs <input type="checkbox"/> Commerce and finance <input type="checkbox"/> Arts <input type="checkbox"/> Belief and thought <input type="checkbox"/> Leisure	<input type="checkbox"/> none
<input type="checkbox"/> All	<input type="checkbox"/> Written	Age of Author	<input type="checkbox"/> 0-14 <input type="checkbox"/> 15-24 <input type="checkbox"/> 25-34 <input type="checkbox"/> 35-44 <input type="checkbox"/> 45-54 <input type="checkbox"/> over 60	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Gender of Author	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/> Mixed <input type="checkbox"/> Unknown	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Type of Author	<input type="checkbox"/> Corporate <input type="checkbox"/> Multiple <input type="checkbox"/> Solo <input type="checkbox"/> Unknown	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Age of Audience	<input type="checkbox"/> Child <input type="checkbox"/> Teenager <input type="checkbox"/> Adult	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Gender of Audience	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/> Mixed	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Level of Audience	<input type="checkbox"/> Low <input type="checkbox"/> Medium <input type="checkbox"/> High	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Genre type	<input type="checkbox"/> Whole text <input type="checkbox"/> Beginning sample <input type="checkbox"/> Middle sample <input type="checkbox"/> End sample <input type="checkbox"/> Composite	<input type="checkbox"/> none
		Reception Status	<input type="checkbox"/> Low <input type="checkbox"/> Medium <input type="checkbox"/> High	<input type="checkbox"/> none

Fig 1 サブコーパス指定のための分類階層

II 現在：語彙検索を中心に

現在のコーパスには品詞タグ (POS Tags)、統語解析結果を示したもの(Treebank)、意味注釈、ディスコース注釈、韻律注釈、語用注釈などの情報がタグ付けされている。ことに品詞タグはコンピュータプログラムで自動的にタグ付けが可能になっている。と統語注釈もパーザーの進歩によりかなりの部分が自動化している。このようにタグが整備されると、語彙検索もかなり複雑なことが可能になってくると思われる。

コーパスが開発された当初は語彙検索は Unix の Grep などを用いていたが、Oxford Concordance Program や WordSmithTools のような専属のソフトウェアが開発された。現在では、語彙分析をするには、単純に頻度数の高い単語上位 100 を頻度順に並べた表を得るというような単純なものから、MI スコア (特定の語と共起する傾向がたかい単語)、T スコア (きわめて高頻度で使用される語) LogLog スコア (MI スコアと T スコアの情報を加味したもの) を指定して検索ソートすることができる。また、調べたい目標語の右何個目までまたは左何個目までを検索するか指定することもできる。CQS の検索プログラムでは、サブコーパスのうち何パーセントの共起率となっているかを計算する。以上のことを実際の例により示したい。まず、単語検索とレマ検索の違いを見ていく。

1271 HFI Alright, is that significantly different from zero or you could go to a pie squared tables, I
1272 HFI confidence coefficient price elasticity demand significantly different from zero right, non is everybody happy interlocking
1273 HFI asking whether this parameter row, right, is significantly different from zero right, non if this is, if row is signific
1274 HFI is that significantly different from zero right, well you just go down the right han
1275 HFI lity values or which are that test statistic is significantly different from zero right so if we are looking at that series o
1276 HFI y right, are F statistic three point nine but significantly different from zero that's a six percent level, right, so exa
1277 HFI 0.87 to 0.88, though only one of these ten is significantly different from zero with only four degrees of freedom (for ten
1278 HFI systems, but I mean if your saving a pass would n't be any different than a coin you could devise an entrance, so that it
1279 HFI records, the electronic material are quantitatively different than a copy printed out in paper form and, therefore
1280 HFI So a thirty year old service might be entirely different than a person with ten years service deferring his or
1281 HFI New Order (an Paul Blaxton, Burg, About Morrissey is no different than any other pop star.
1282 HFI It was no different than anything else, but the minute you get inside
1283 HFI The emphasis may be different than of Forest but the essentials are the same.
1284 HFI physically regenerates its area, which looks dramatically different than of its initial designation.
1285 HFI inner — other than its worthiness — was this fate different than being slaughtered on one's home world?

Fig 4 時代による用法変化の例

3 新しい定型表現の検索

If I were you という定型表現を学校文法では学習するが、ネイティブスピーカーは If I was you と言うこともコーパスでは観察できる。200万語レベルの BNC で検索すると、46 例文中 36 例が If I was であることが検索できる：Dr Hugh Trappes-Lomax 2001 年 12 月 12 日の遠隔授業での発言。

4 語彙の文体的な特徴と社会学的な分析

サブコーパスを比較すると、社会学的な分析も可能である。例えば、get a picture of を BNC の口語サブコーパスで 38 例あり、書き言葉サブコーパスでは 28 例ある。100 万語あたりの頻度では、口語が 3.68 で、書き言葉では 0.32 となるから、10 倍以上の差があることがわかる。また、abandon で同様の検索をすると、口語では 30 例、書き言葉では 1264 例検出され、100 万語ごとの頻度では、2.90、14.39 となるから、abandon は書き言葉ということになる。

5 共起関係 (コロケーション) の研究に適している。

Fig 5 は price と prices にどのような形容詞が共起するか、左 5 語でソートしている。このように語彙分析では検索語の複数指定、共起範囲、共起語の品詞の指定、共起語のソート方法を選択できる。このような語彙の統計資料は英語教育に活用できる。すなわち、頻度の高いコロケーションを教材として優先できる。

Rank	-5	..	-1	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0				
1	high	490	available	34	available	35	available	40	high	34	high	348	price
2	higher	368	other	31	new	31	general	40	higher	81	retail	298	prices
3	retail	314	new	29	higher	29	high	22	average	73	higher	220	28952
4	low	288	good	27	sharp	29	higher	21	current	69	low	195	
5	lower	277	best	19	willing	21	lower	21	low	65	lower	180	
6	current	237	able	18	good	20	other	20	lower	51	reasonable	140	
7	average	227	high	18	able	16	current	19	minimum	32	current	130	
8	available	180	british	17	other	16	good	18	special	31	average	129	
9	good	152	higher	17	greater	15	new	16	full	27	relative	117	
10	reasonable	151	further	14	lower	15	average	15	original	24	fair	90	

Fig 5 コロケーションソート

Fig 6 の LogLog ソートを使用すると、目標語(price/prices)の直前位置で慣用表現が上位にランクされることがわかり、Fig 7 の MI スコアソートでは、専門的な表現が上位にラン

クされることが理解できる。このように、種類のソートを使い分けることでコロケーション研究に貢献できる。

Result: 100 Sort by Loxlex score Page: 1 - 20

Rank	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0
1	retail	marginal	sharp	average	retail	price
2	average	competitive	downward	competitive	recommended	wholesale
3	higher	available	affine	available	higher	rising
4	lower	unfavourable	higher	expected	minus	relative
5	high	agricultural	marginal	lower	current	reasonable
6	low	obliged	upward	flexible	low	inflated
7	competitive	higher	equal	general	lower	affordable
8	relative	positive	leap	downward	high	high
9	wholesale	negative	available	upward	expected	higher
10	current	domestic	rapid	constant	soaring	lower

Fig 6 LogLog ソート

Result: 100 Sort by MI score Page: 1 - 20

Rank	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0
1	duty-paid	boxed	high-value	anticompetitive	rocket-fueled	duty-paid
2	farm-rate	unleashed	meteoric	constant	non-exchange	farm-rate
3	futures-forward	saleable	inelastic	weighted	economy-wide	futures-forward
4	memory-chip	precipitous	downward	closing	realized	memory-chip
5	tax-inclusive	unfavourable	no-arbitrage	downward	falling	tax-inclusive
6	net-of-tax	exercisable	second-class	predatory	rising	net-of-tax
7	piece-rate	inverse	weighted	upward	non-gil	piece-rate
8	subsidy-free	massachusetts-based	neo-classical	expected	lubling	subsidy-free
9	tax-induced	privileged	upward	average	recommended	tax-induced
10	knock-down	oriental	bone-fide	competitive	no-arbitrage	knock-down

Fig 7 MI スコアソート

6 コリゲーション (Colligation) 研究への応用

ある単語のあとに出てくる品詞別の頻度数を調べることをコリゲーションといい、Fig 8では、動詞 advise について左 1 語目から 5 語目までにどんな品詞のものが共起しているかを品詞別の頻度表にまとめてあり、前置詞 (PRP) をクリックして、下段に前置詞別の頻度数の表が掲載してある。この表によると、動詞 advise には前置詞 on が 31.16% 使用されていることがわかる。

Result	69	Sort by	Total frq.	Page : 1 - 20	Prev.	Next	Download	Do																	
Rank	-5	-1	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	1..5											
1	PNP	1681	ATO	346	ATO	362	ATO	340	PNP	567	T00	765	advise	PNP	946	T00	467	ATO	388	ATO	338	PRP	329	ATO	1981
2	ATO	1190	PRP	220	PNP	192	PNP	318	VM0	305	AV0	527	advise	T00	586	ATO	441	PRP	273	PRP	261	ATO	327	PRP	1624
3	VM0	1145	CJC	139	PRP	189	VM0	214	NN1	245	PNP	474	advise	PRP	495	VY1	438	T00	259	NN1	159	NN1	163	T00	1603
4	CJC	955	PNP	130	NN1	175	CJC	186	CJC	186	VM0	452	4731	ATO	487	NN1	288	NN1	211	PRF	158	PRF	144	PNP	1407
5	T00	935	NN1	108	CJC	180	NN1	155	VBI	146	CJC	284		CJT	258	PRP	268	VY1	193	T00	159	T00	128	NN1	865
6	AV0	785	PRF	88	VM0	121	PRP	130	ATO	139	VBD	250		PRP_AVP	184	PNP	119	PNP	130	PNP	121	CJC	121	VY1	760

Collocates 31 File Download

Rank	Frq.	Rate	Collocates
1	506	31.16	advise advise advised * on
2	209	12.87	advise advise advised * by
3	198	12.19	advise advise advised * in
4	167	10.28	advise advise advised * to
5	128	7.88	advise advise advised * for
6	90	5.54	advise advise advised * against
7	75	4.62	advise advise advised * with
8	59	3.57	advise advise advised * about
9	44	2.71	advise advise advised * at
10	36	2.22	advise advise advised * from

Fig 8 Colligation ソート

III 未来: 今後の課題と展望

言語学の主流は言語学者の直感(Intuition)や内観により、構文や語法の規則を考えていた。しかし、コーパスが世界各地で作成されている現在、内観を唯一の根拠とする研究法は減少すると思われる。シンクレア、スタップ、ミルロイはネイティブスピーカーの内観や直感は客観性がなく、最もよく用いられている用法が内観によって抽出されるとは限らないこと、すべてのコロケーションやコリゲーションが内観や直感で網羅できないことを指摘している: Sinclair(1991), Stubb(1996), Milroy(1987)。言語規則や意味の根拠を個人の内観に求めるのではなく、言語を共有する共同体に求めるという言語哲学者も多い: Kripke(1980, 1982, etc.), Quine(1960, 1963, 1969, etc.), etc. 言語研究における哲学者のいう「共有する共同体」や Inter-subjective agreement の必要性はコーパスに基づく言語研究の正当性の根拠になっていると思われる。21世紀では情報処理技術も進展すると思われるので、統語タグ、語用タグなど各種のタグ付けの自動化が進み、EAGLES や TEI の提唱するタグの標準化が進展し、世界共通のタグによる言語解析の共同化が進展していくだろう。しかし、ここで問題となるのは、コピーライトである。今、EAGLES では、ノンバーバルな情報を含めたコーパスを作成中であるが、個人の肖像権の問題がクリアされていないので、公開されていないし、American National Corpus もコピーライトの問題により進展していない。コーパスは言語研究に有用な手段であるが、共通の利益にどこまで協力するか、自分の権利をどこまで守るべきか、民主的で倫理的な解決をさぐることが今後の課題である。

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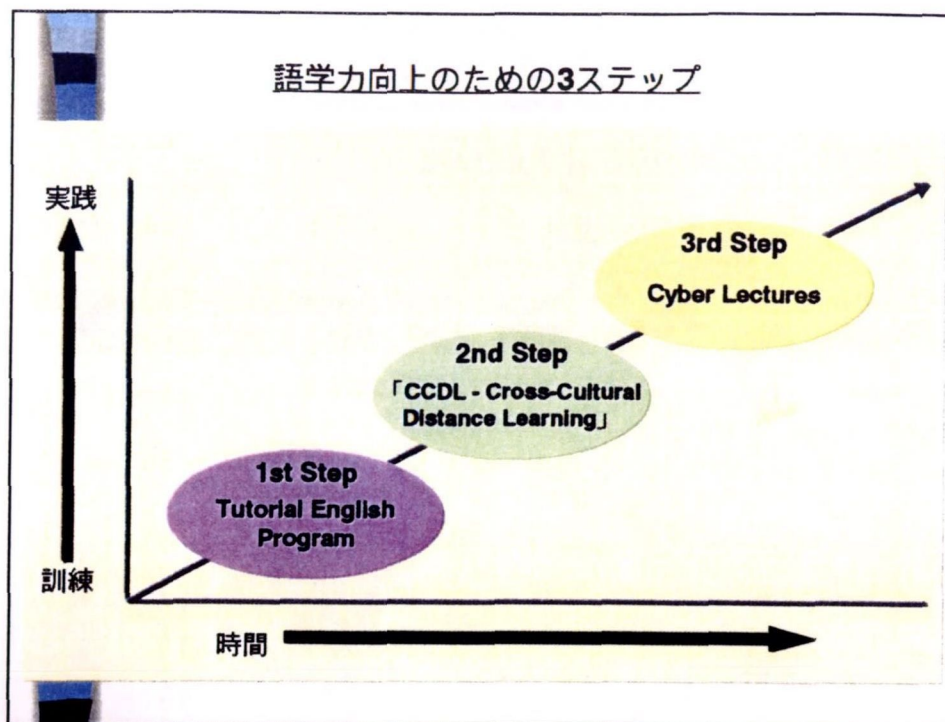
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Cross-Cultural Distance Learning

Michiko Nakano
School of Education
Waseda University

Today's Workshop

- An Introduction to CCDL Project at Waseda University
- CU-SeeMe Sessions
with Japanese Students
- Basic Analysis of CMC Data




Three Kinds of Cyber Learning

Medium of Communication


--English, Japanese, Chinese, Korean

- Cross-Cultural Distance Language Learning (CCDL): CU-SeeMe
- Cyber Seminars: Polycom
- Cyber Lectures: Polycom



CCDL Universities Participating 2000 1st Semester

- Korea University
- Kangwon National University
- De La Salle University
- University of Malaya
- University of Essex
- Stanford University
- National University of Singapore
- Ina Comprehensive High School



CCDL Participating Universities New Members

- **RELC**
- **University of Hawaii at Manoa**
- **Capital Normal University in China**
- **Taiwan National Normal University**
- **University of Edinburgh**
- **Brunei University**
- **Chulalongkorn University**
- **Thammasat University**
- **University of Michigan—Waseda High School**
- **Monash University**
- **University of Hawaii at Hiro**

Our Home Page

<http://www.project.mnc.waseda.ac.jp/ccdl>
<http://pc171115.pc.waseda.ac.jp/ccdl>


Students' Tasks

- Profile Registration in HP
- appoint-making by e-mail
- weekly chatting
- 200-word summary in HP
- face-to-face dialog by video-conferencing
- final report at the end of each term

http://www.project.mmc.waseda.ac.jp/codi/pt_wsls_krea/park_nakano/park_nakano.html

country. I also want to improve my English skill through this communication. I'm looking forward to talking with you ☆

Tue Wed



Name	Mr. Yosuke Maezawa
E-mail	06e-1-3418n@waseda.ac.jp
Residence	Yokohama, Japan
Interests	listening and playing the music, internet, soccer, reading books
Major	English education
YSE	10 yrs
SEEP	Intermediate
BOF	2nd son

Hello I am a student of Waseda University, the School of education, the Department of English language and literature. My major is English education, and I want to be an English teacher. I am very interested in the way of education in other countries. My hobby is music. I am a kind of musician. I like composing, singing, playing the guitar and listening various CD's. And I like to talk, or chat in the cyberspace. I am looking forward to chat with you

Thursday

http://www.project.mmc.waseda.ac.jp/codi/pt_wsls_krea/park_nakano/park_nakano.html

An Undergraduate course

Korea University
Department of the English language and literature

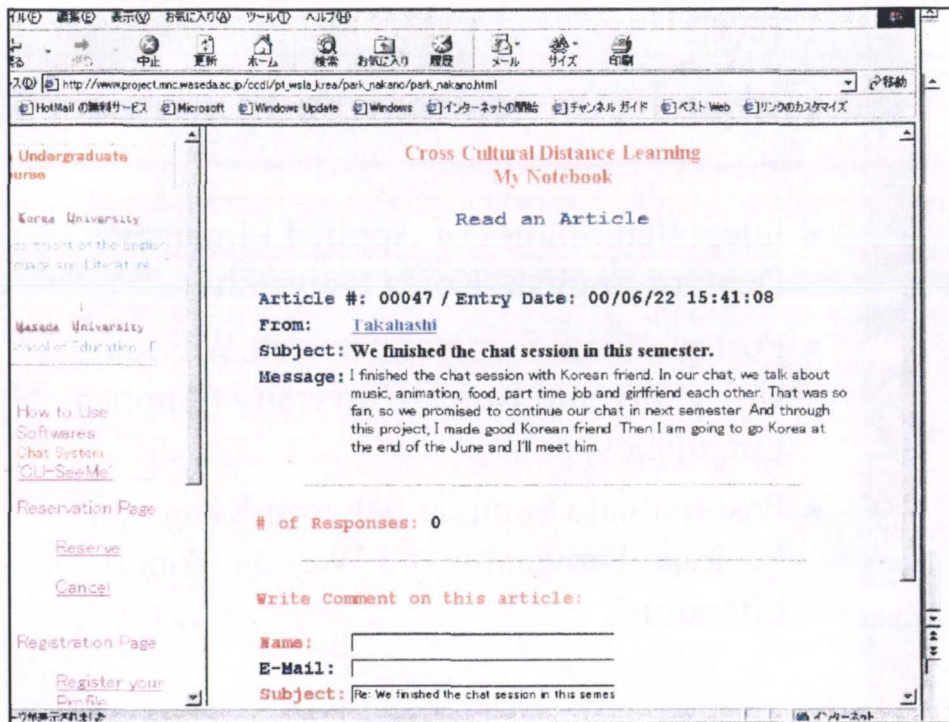
Waseda University
The School of Education

How to Use Softwares
Chat System
CU-SeeMe

Reservation Page
Reserve
Cancel

Registration Page
Register your Profile

- Chatting with May About four - from May (00/06/10 16:07:20 JST) # 00036
- The under graduate course culture - from Mitsuru (00/06/08 16:02:16 JST) # 00029
- First chat - from Mitsuru (00/06/01 16:13:09 JST) # 00020
 - o Re: First chat - from Sakurabara (00/06/14 10:36:21 JST) # 00039
- Mayumi Mimenura's Notebook [Post] [Delete] [Browse]
- my introduction to the world about korean culture - from Mimenura (00/06/08 16:03:36 JST) # 00032
- introduced each other and talked about my hobby - from Mimenura (00/06/01 15:37:13 JST) # 00012
 - o Re: introduced each other and talked about my hobby - from Midori Asano (00/06/01 15:54:31 JST) # 00016
- Takashi Murayama's Notebook [Post] [Delete] [Browse]
- 1st chat - from Murayama (00/06/14 11:49:17 JST) # 00040
- About a korean devot korean culture - from Murayama (00/06/08 16:01:51 JST) # 00028
- Teppi Ogawa's Notebook [Post] [Delete] [Browse]
- video about Korea - from Ogawa (00/06/08 16:02:41 JST) # 00031
- Keiichi Ogawa's Notebook [Post] [Delete] [Browse]



Cyber Lectures

- Professor Alan Davies
 - Department of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, University of Edinburgh, “Current Issues of Applied Linguistics”
- Professor Ian Neary
 - Department of Government, University of Essex, “Human Rights and Japanese Values”

Cyber Lectures and Seminars

- Integrated Studies of Applied Linguistics, Dept. of English, Korea University
- Post-graduate Seminar between Waseda University and Korea University (Applied Linguistics)
- Postgraduate Seminar between Kangwon National University and Waseda (American Literature)

The screenshot shows a web browser window with the following content:

Department of Government University of Essex
Professor Ian Neary

Summary of Teaching Programme

- * 1 What are human rights?
What is the international human right regime?
[Human Rights and Asian values](#)
- * 2 Japan and Human Rights 1
- the post-war political structure and human rights
rights protection
[handout \(pdf file\)](#)
- * 3 Japan and Human Rights 2
Minority Rights: Burakumin, Koreans and Ainu
- * 4 Japan and Human Rights 3
Children's Rights
- * 5 Japan and Human Rights 4
Patients, Prisoners and Lawyers
- * 6 "The Tattooer by Junichiro Tanizaki"
Shuji Chiba, School of Education, Waseda University
[handout \(pdf file\)](#)
for reference: [pictures of tattoos](#)

Course Outline : Human Rights and Japanese Values

http://pct171115pc.waseda.ac.jp/ccdl/cl_korea.html

Applied Linguistics

orary Topics and Schedule (Mondays 9:15~10:30 14-515 and 10:40~12:10 16-605)

- 19 Prof. Park Kyung-Ja (Korea University)
Introduction of the Course, Lecturers, Participants
The Significance of Interlanguage in EFL
Question and Answer Session
[Handout \(pdf file\)](#)
- 20 Prof. Jang Young-Joon (Chang-ang University)
Minimalist Approach
Question and Answer Session
[Handout \(pdf file\)](#)
- 21 Prof. Cho Kyu-byung (Korea University)
How to Read Rawen's ?
Question and Answer Session
[Handout \(pdf file\)](#)
- 22 Mr. Seung-Wan Ha
Processing of Idioms in L2 Learners of English
Question and Answer Session
[Handout \(pdf file\)](#)
- 23 Dr. Kang Sung-Woo: Testing
Question and Answer Session
[Handout \(pdf file\)](#)
- 24 Dr. Bang Young-Joo: English Education
Question and Answer Session
- 25 Prof. Seong-Chan Kim (Seong Kong Hye University)
Language Acquisition
Question and Answer Session
[Handout \(pdf file\)](#)
- 26 Prof. Chung Tae-Goo (Korea University):
Chomsky's GB
Question and Answer Session
[Handout 1 \(pdf file\)](#), [Handout 2 \(pdf file\)](#)
- 27 Prof. Do-Seon Eui (Korean University):
English Language Acquisition through English Poetry in ESL/EFL
[Handout \(pdf file\)](#)
- 28 Prof. Chun Jeon-Taek
Orms and English Language Teaching
[Handout \(pdf file\)](#)

インターネット

http://pct171115pc.waseda.ac.jp/ccdl/cl_edinburgh.html

essor Alan Davies

Wednesday 6:15-7:45, Bldg. 14 RV-Room(503)

course explores some of the basic issues on which applied linguists are divided. The aim is to convince you that one side or the other is right, but if my own position appears clear, as it will be in some cases, then it is to encourage you to weigh the opposing positions in an informed and judicious way, engage in debate and reach your own conclusions.

reading(s) for each session should be done in advance.

- 01 Introduction
- 02 What is Applied Linguistics?
 - 1: Applied Linguistics and Linguistics Applied
Davies, Alan 1999, Chapters 1-2 of Introduction to Applied Linguistics: From practice to theory Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press
 - 2 Linguistic Imperialism
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- 03 The Native Speaker and Second Language Acquisition
Davies, Alan 1991 'Introduction' and 'Who is the Native Speaker?' Chapters 100 (pp1-23 and 140-151) of The Native Speaker in Applied Linguistics, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
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- 05 Prescription and Folk Linguistics
Milroy, James and Lesley Milroy 1985 'Prescription and Standardisation', Chapter 1 (pp1-20) of Authority in Language, London: Routledge

ページが表示されました


インターネット

Language in Use

Hugh Trappes-Lomax
Wednesdays 18:00-19:30, Bldg. 14 AV-Room(503)

Course Objectives
The purpose of the course is explore what we mean by 'language in use' - its environment, its scope, its data, its discourse characteristics - and to consider various ways in which we can describe it. The course will give participants plenty of opportunity to look at and discuss samples of language in use from a wide variety of genres and situations.

- 01 Week 01 The environment of language in use
Har Jour, Data, Intertext
- 02 Week 02 The language of language in use
Har Jour, Data, Appendix
- 03 Week 03 The data of language in use
Har Jour
- 04 Week 04 Action and interaction
- 05 Week 05 Meaning and message
- 06 Week 06 Consistency and cohesion
- 07 Week 07 Aims and accomplishments (1)



SLA lecture program by Michael Long in University of Hawaii

1. Thursday, October 26, 6-8 p.m. (= Tokyo, Friday, October 27, 1-3)
Mike Long: Age differences and the sensitive periods controversy in SLA
2. Thursday, November 9, 6-8 p.m. (= Tokyo, Friday, November 10, 1-3 p.m.)
Dick Schmidt: Motivation and SLA
3. Thursday, November 30, 6-8 p.m. (= Tokyo, Friday, December 1, 1-3 p.m.)
Catherine Doughty: The effects of instruction on SLA
4. Thursday, December 7, 6-8 p.m. (= Tokyo, Friday, December 8, 1-3 p.m.)
Mike Long: Theory change in SLA

RELC Lecture Series

Dr. Les Bell. Leading Educational Change. 15 Nov 2000.

Dr. Jack C. Richards. Current Trends in Language Teaching Today. 6 Dec 2000.

Dr. Jack C. Richards. Exploring Teacher Expertise in Language Teaching. 16 Jan 2001.

Mrs. Goh Chi Lan, RELC Director. The Education System of Singapore. 14 March 2001

Dr. Gopinathan, Dean National Institute of Education, Singapore. The Bilingual Society. 28 March 2001.

Dr. Ronald Carter, university of Nottingham. Grammar for the future. 23 April 2001.

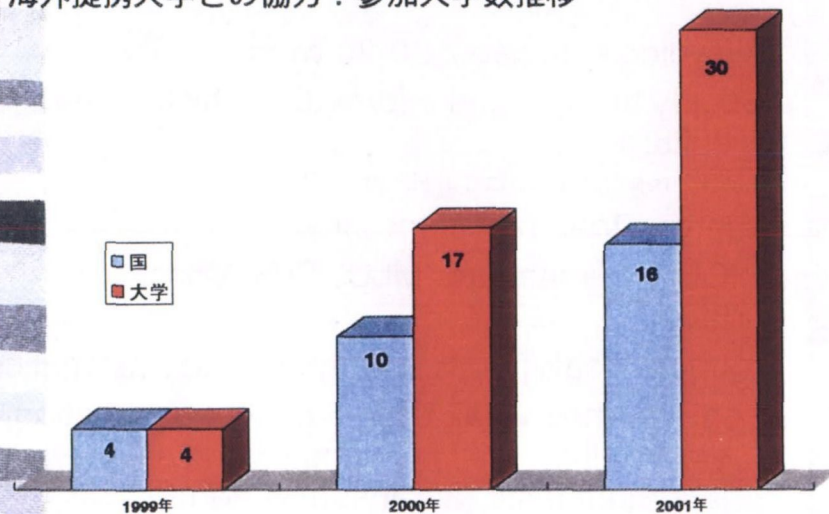
Dr. Tony Han, Hongkong Baptist University. What can linguistics contribute to the teaching of Grammar. 23 April 2001.


Dr. Joseph Foley, RELC Adjunct Professor. Critical Literacy in the Southeast Asian Context. 16 May 2001.

Thomas Khng, RELC Deputy Director. The Role of SEAMEO RELC in Language Education in the Region. 30 May 2001

2nd Step: CCDL - Cross-Cultural Distance Learning

- 海外提携大学との協力：参加大学数推移






Merits of CMC (Students' Chatting)

- Get to know each other personally
 - visit each other
- Create a kind of Asian Community
- But CCDL has to be a targeted integral part of the language course




Teacher's Preliminary Tasks

- Typing exercises: 20-30 wpm
- Supply background information– history and culture
reading materials in HP and cyber lectures
- Improve their proficiency level
- Over-all measure: MLU, TTR, Vocabulary level
- Local weak-points: Grammar and Pragmatics
- FonF for their weak points: picture description, story telling, roll plays and grammaticality judgment tests (aural and written)



Some Basics: the nature of CMC

- Chatting is between speaking and writing – satisfying some aspects of interactive everyday dialog
- in terms of **vocabulary level**, **sentence length**, **turn-taking** (overlapping and butting-in observable), **conversational features** in their lexical use and delivery speed (if their typing speed matches with their speaking speed, particularly in intermediate level)




Conversationality 1 from lexemes (conversation fillers)

Korea-E#4: What is your hobby?

Waseda Edu#2: **Well,**

Waseda Edu#2: Listening to music,

Waseda Edu#2: and watching the sports games.



Conversationality: Example 2 (exclamatory remarks)

DLS-E #2: So, what fun did you do in school?

Waseda Edu#2: Well, I enjoyed to chat with girls. They are very charming.


DLS-E #2: You also like to talk to them.

Waseda Edu#2: Yes!

DLS-E #2: Hmmmm.....makes me wonder.....you already have a girlfriend right?

DLS-E #2: As for me.....not yet.

Waseda Edu#2: Really? Yes, I have a girlfriend.



Self-Correction (similar to rephrasing in speech)


**Waseda Edu#1: you can speak English well,
Where do you study English?**

Korea-#2: not at all! and i learn English in Korea.

**Korea-#2: but i think i can not speak English
fluently.**

**Waseda Edu#1: unbelievable!! I think you are
bilingar.**

Waseda Edu#1: bilingual(?)



For the sake of speedy delivery, abbreviations

Korea-#2: well, do u have any topic in mind?

Waseda Edu#1: well.. Have you put on chimajogori(?)?

Korea-#2: oh, dear...

Waseda Edu#1: I studied Korea a bit.

Korea-#2: what should i say, first....?

Korea-#2: well, yes, it's Korean traditional clothes.

Korea-#2: and now i'm wearing youhuku.(sweater and skirt)

Waseda Edu#1: In Japan, I see some Korean students wearing chimajogori.

Korea-#2: anyway i'm very happy to hear u learned Korean.

Korea-#2: oh! really? are they south Korean or the North?




Frequent Abbreviations for the sake of speedy delivery

■ non-capitalization

■ you u

■ are r

■ too 2



Emoticons to express feelings to simulate a face-to-face-interaction

Korea-#2: now can u see me?

Waseda Edu#1: Yes, I can see your beautiful face.

Korea-#2: oh! thank u!!!!!!!!!!!!

Waseda Edu#1: I had to send e-mail especially to you.

Korea-#2: ^^ * That makes me so special... ^^*

Korea-#2: Thank you..



Disappointments

Waseda Edu#1: you can speak English well, Where do you study English?


Korea-#2: not at all! and i learn English in Korea.

Korea-#2: but i think i can not speak English fluently.

Waseda Edu#1: unbelievable!! I think you are bilingar.

Waseda Edu#1: bilingual(?)

Korea-#2: no... i hope i am, but i'm not -_-;;



More examples

Korea-E#6: have a good time with sungeun, and see you next time.

Waseda Edu#1: Are you angry?

Korea-E#6: let's talk about it through email..

Korea-E#6: Nope, i'm not angry..

Korea-E#6: ^^



In brief,

Chatting can be characterized as “conversational writing”.

Therefore, it is Good for production exercises and for cross-cultural understanding



Sample Analysis

- 12 Waseda University students, 12 Korea University Students and 11 De La Salle University students
- Data collected in July 7th till 7th of December



Methods of Analysis

1. Vocabulary Level using JACET4000 Level1–Level5
2. Type/Token Ratio; TTR
3. Mean Length of Utterance in words; MLU in words

Type/Token Ratio

- To measure lexical density

Eg I am a student. I am studying English.
I like studying English.

7 types/ 12 tokens(total words)=0.58

I am a student interested in English,
which is my favorite subject.

12 types/12 tokens= 1.0

Excerpt 1:

Waseda Edu#1: **There are other noodles but.** <Return> [1utterance]

Korea-E#1: soba is cheaper and taste good?

Waseda Edu#1: **Soba is thinner than Udong** <Return> [1utterance]

Korea-E#1: well, in Korea, there's saying

Excerpt 2:

Waseda Edu#2: **Yea its given name. So** <Return> [1utterance]

Waseda Edu#2: **please call me Kentaro.** <Return> [1utterance]

Waseda Edu#2: **OK?** <Return> [1utterance]

Type/Token Ratio of each level

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5	Others	Total
Waseda	Tokens	41645	3122	3285	1281	680	9985	59998
		69.41%	5.20%	5.48%	2.14%	1.13%	16.64%	100%
	Types	468	318	363	229	178	3044	4600
		10.17%	6.91%	7.89%	4.98%	3.87%	66.17%	99.99%
Korea	Tokens	14948	1123	1031	475	228	3873	21,678
		68.95%	5.18%	4.76%	2.19%	1.05%	17.87%	100%
	Types	424	235	231	156	102	1411	2559
		16.57%	9.18%	9.03%	6.10%	3.99%	55.14%	100.01%
DeLaSalle	Tokens	34456	2484	2570	1215	619	8516	49,860
		69.11%	5.64%	5.15%	2.44%	1.24%	17.08%	100%
	Types	488	317	441	248	182	3058	4734
		10.31%	6.70%	9.32%	5.24%	3.84%	64.60%	100.01%

Type/Token Ratio

	overall	Waseda	Korea	De La Salle
bytes	766,679	338,996	122,762	304,921
Tokens	140,033	62,620	22,018	55,395
Types	6,744	4,006	2,339	4,136
Ratio	4.82	6.40	10.62	7.47

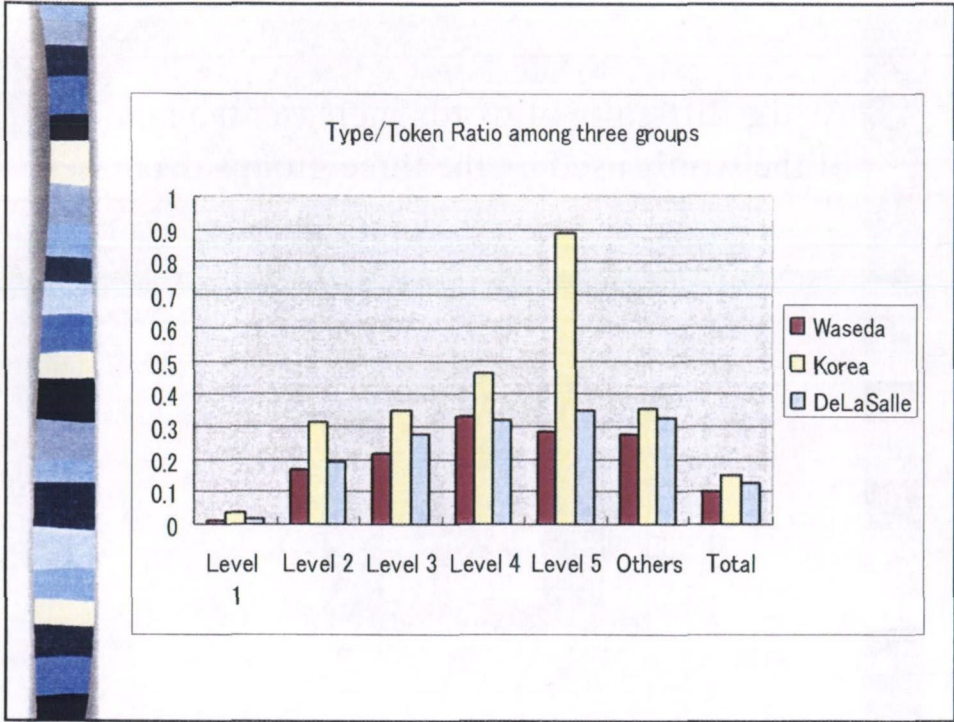
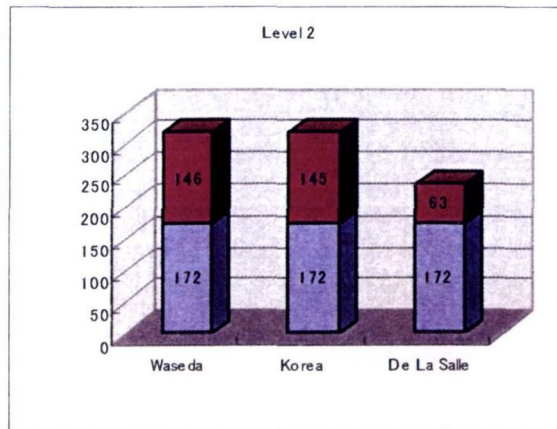
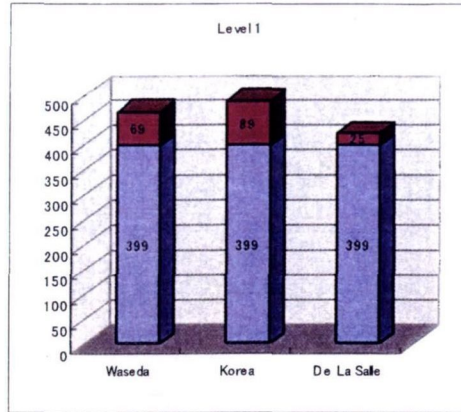
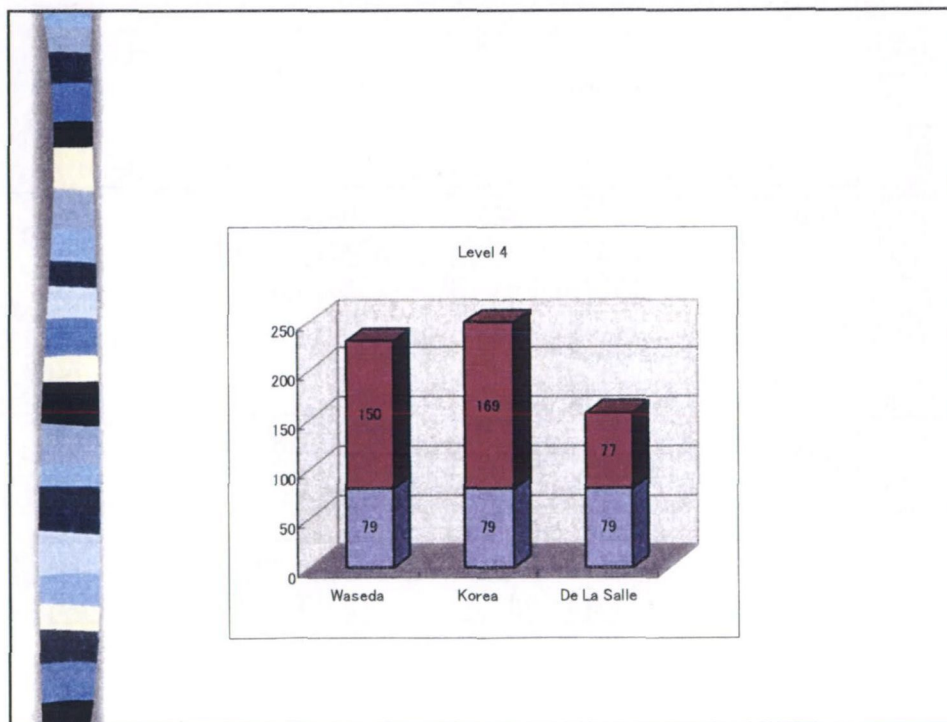
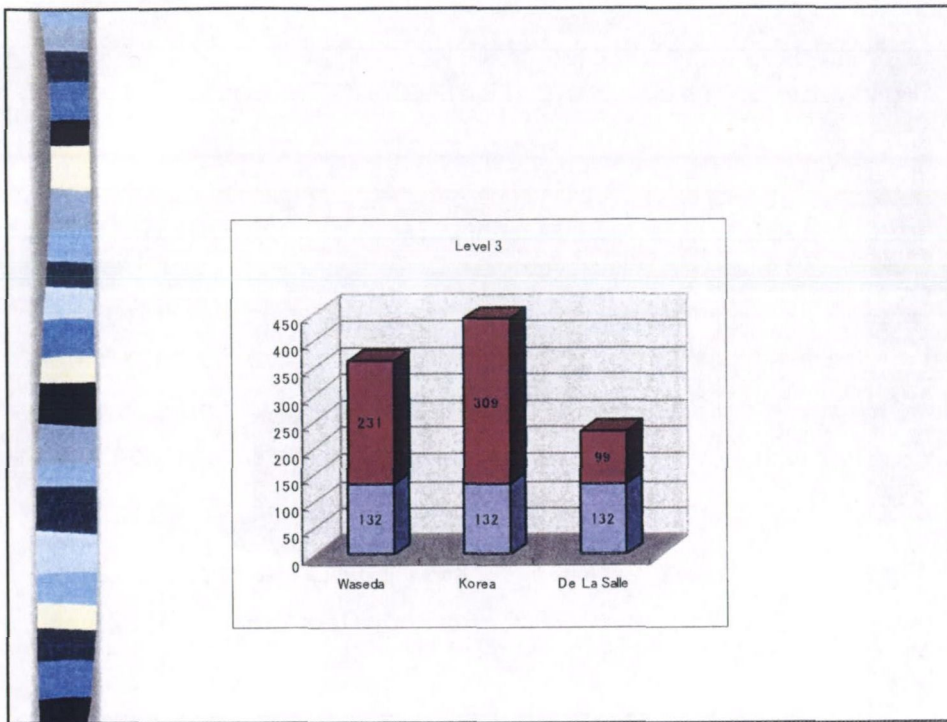


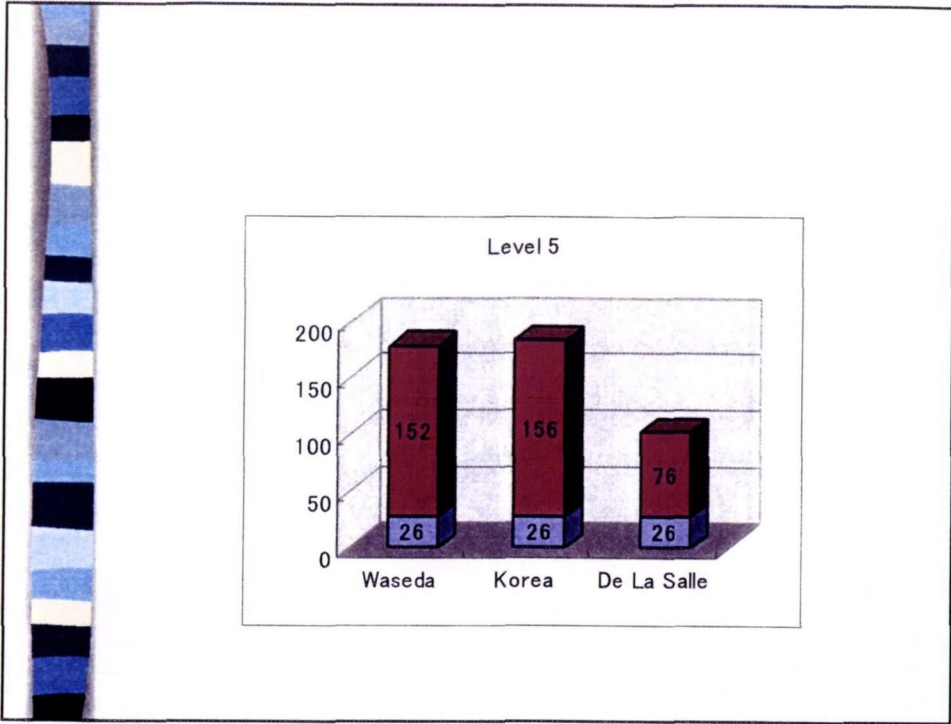
Table 3. The top 10 words in Level 1

Waseda		Korea		DeLaSalle	
I	3142	I	1072	I	1946
you	2750	you	807	you	1625
is	1689	to	561	the	1276
to	1634	the	482	to	1195
in	1223	is	382	is	1053
the	958	in	338	a	905
do	772	it	335	in	721
have	771	and	304	are	663
a	730	have	258	have	620
are	718	of	233	and	603
of	640				
Total	41645	Total	14943	Total	34456

As the difficulty of words increase, the number of the words used by the three groups decreases.







The top 10 words in Level 2

Waseda		Korea		DeLaSalle	
thank	167	student	63	nice	106
student	152	nice	41	student	82
please	138	major	24	guy	76
nice	116	pretty	24	please	72
anyway	68	drink	22	thank	42
university	62	army	21	language	40
major	61	please	21	kid	39
fine	54	language	19	dance	37
kid	50	thank	19	someone	37
language	49	anyway	18	actually	35
Total	3122	Total	1123	Total	2484

The top 10 words in Level 3

Waseda		Korea		DeLaSalle	
thank	150	OK	79	OK	189
student	70	Japanese	74	sorry	125
please	53	sorry	73	Japanese	104
nice	48	movie	60	hey	95
anyway	30	Japan	48	Japan	84
university	18	exam	30	computer	54
major	17	popular	30	popular	49
fine	16	computer	20	Christma	43
kid	15	let's	17	camera	37
language	14	TV	13	female	37
Total	1145	Total	418	Total	2570

The top 10 words in Level 4

Waseda		Korea		DeLaSalle	
hello	167	hi	59	hello	143
hi	143	literature	20	hi	141
thanks	54	thanks	19	graduate	41
senior	38	later	16	thanks	33
literature	35	graduate	13	male	22
graduate	31	senior	13	rice	20
rice	31	hello	9	August	19
junior	30	luck	9	celebrate	18
later	16	singer	9	later	18
abroad	15	culture	8	excuse	16
Total	421	Total	475	Total	1215

The top 10 words in Level 5

Waseda		Korea		DeLaSalle	
chat	138	chat	41	chat	151
elementar	43	basketball	6	monitor	19
hobby	35	actress	5	basketball	16
ate	22	alcohol	5	might	14
appreciat	14	invade	5	rainy	14
might	14	careless	4	rock2	12
romantic	13	fantastic	4	classmate	11
trend	12	intelligent	4	licence	11
fond	11	lecture	4	fond	10
ours	11	rival	4	ate	9
Total	680	Total	228	Total	319

Some examples in 'Others'

Waseda		Korea		De La Salle	
yea	143	korean	88	philippines	98
korea	110	korea	86	bye	93
bye	108	yeah	48	yeah	84
yeah	94	univ	36	filipino	64
korean	81	bye	34	ay	63
waseda	53	wow	33	waseda	63
e-mail	45	u	30	yuuki	58
tomo	38	umm	24	ayako	53
tyo	35	^^	21	chatting	49
ayako	35	waseda	17	keiko	45
chatting	33	email	14	chiaki	43
philippines	31	shinichi	13	-	36
j	29	chinese	13	yep	33
chiaki	28	chatting	13	u	31
philippine	27	tes	11	yup	31
eiichiro	27	soccer	11	eiichiro	30



1. Background

- Computer-mediated communication (CMC)
 - 'communication that takes place between human beings via the instrumentality of computers' (Herring, 1996)
 - e.g. , written text, graphic, auditory, and tactile modalities




Two types of Text-based CMC:

- Synchronous CMC
 - Internet Relay Chat (IRC), Bulletin Board Systems (BBSs)
- Asynchronous CMC
 - E-mail, COSY(COnferencing SYstem)



Previous studies:

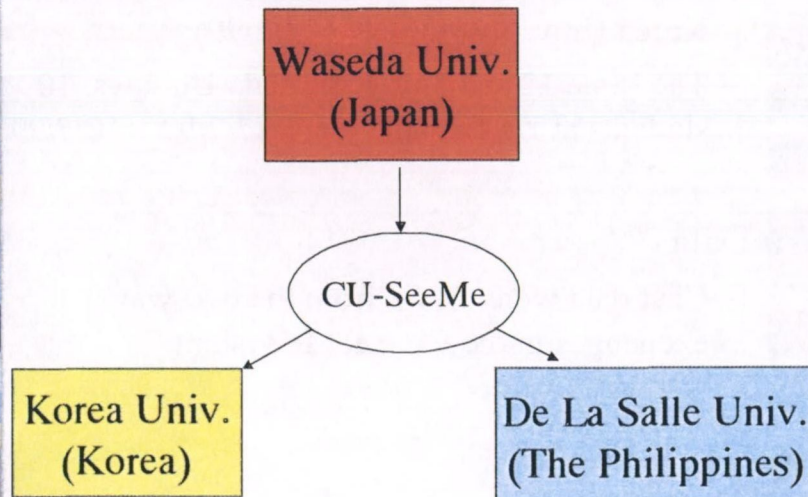
- The written discourse of Internet Relay Chat (Werry, 1996)
- Relay chat exchanges between East Asian (Chinese, Japanese, and Korean) and North American university students (Ma, 1996)
- Internet Chat (IC) discussions between L2 Japanese learners and native speakers of Japanese (Kitade, 2000)



2. The study

- The overall objective:
 - To report on some methods of analyzing text-based CMC data in the CCDL project. By doing so, we hope that we can explore a more effective way to implement CMC in English language teaching.

Cross-Cultural Distance Learning Project (CCDL)



Purpose:

1. To examine whether there is any difference in MLU in words in chat exchanges between Japanese and Korean, and between Japanese and Philippine university students
2. To look at what kind of interactions take place by showing some excerpts of the actual discourse the students produced

Subjects

- 12 Students at Waseda Univ. vs. 10 Students at Korea Univ. (10/21/99 – 12/7/99)
- The same 12 students at Waseda Univ. vs. 10 students at De La Salle Univ. (7/7/99 – 12/7/99)

Data

- Chat data were drawn from the two-way exchanges in the CU-SeeMe system

3. Data analysis

3.1. MLU in words

= The number of total words / the number of total utterances

Excerpt:

Waseda Edu#1: There are other noodles but..<Return>[One Utterance]

Korea-E#1: soba is cheaper and taste good?<Return>[One Utterance]

Waseda Edu#1: Soba is thinner than Udong. <Return> [One Utterance]

Korea-E#1: well, in Korea, there's saying<Return> [One Utterance]

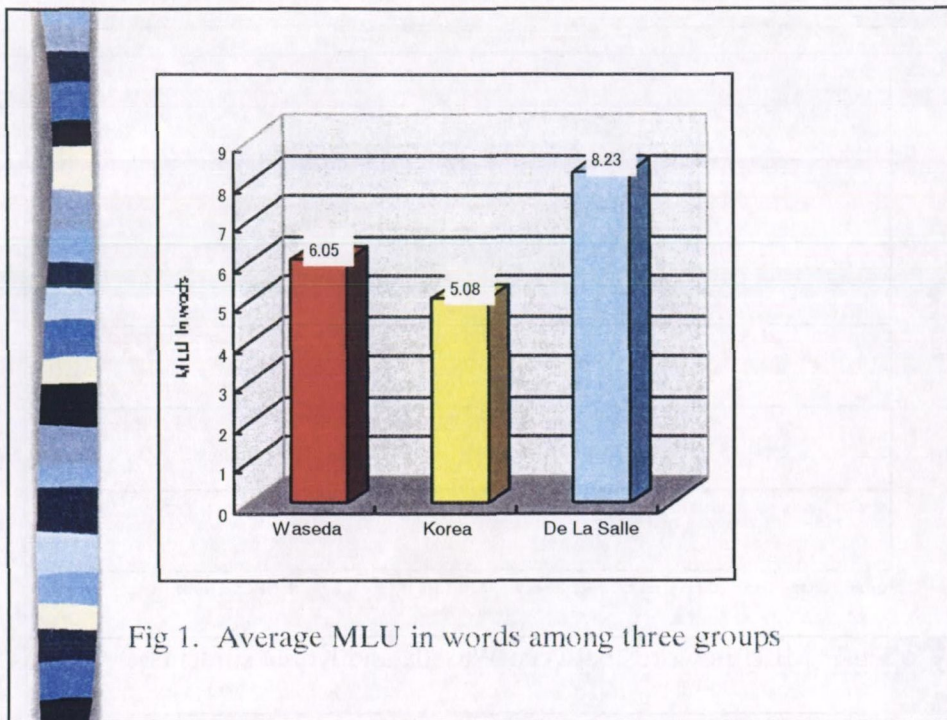


Fig 1. Average MLU in words among three groups

MLU in previous Studies

- French 1st year univ. students of English--- 17.25
- French 3rd and 4th year university students --- 19.08
- Dutch 3rd and 4th year university students ---17.59
- NS of American English --- 18.26
- NS of British English --- 22.36
- Waseda Students (e-mails) --- 15.08
- Waseda Students (CMC) --- 6.05
- This suggests CMC is regarded as conversational rather than written form of exchanges

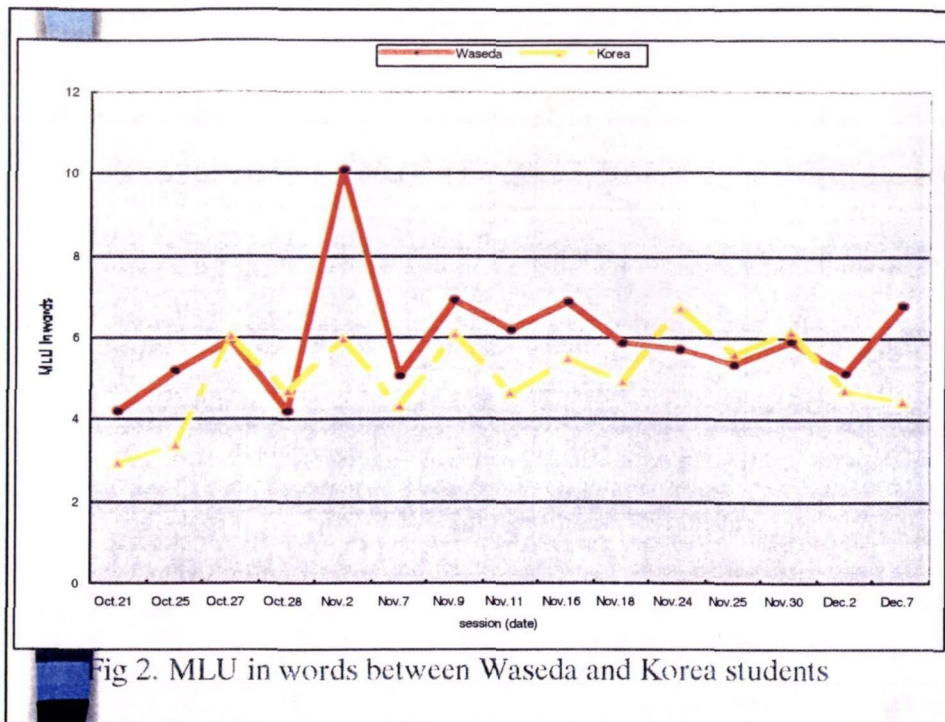


Fig. 2. MLU in words between Waseda and Korea students

Table 1. Falls and rises between Waseda and Korea students
Suggests strong interactivity

time period	Waseda	Korea	matching
10.21-10.25	+	+	yes
10.25-10.27	+	+	yes
10.27-10.28	-	-	yes
10.28-11.2	+	+	yes
11.2-11.7	-	-	yes
11.7-11.9	+	+	yes
11.9-11.11	-	-	yes
11.11-11.16	+	+	yes
11.16-11.18	-	-	yes
11.18-11.24	-	+	no
11.24-11.25	-	-	yes
11.25-11.30	+	+	yes
11.30-12.2	-	-	yes
12.2-12.7	+	-	no

Matching

12

Non-matching 2

TOTAL 14

(Binominal Test,
p = .013, two-tailed)

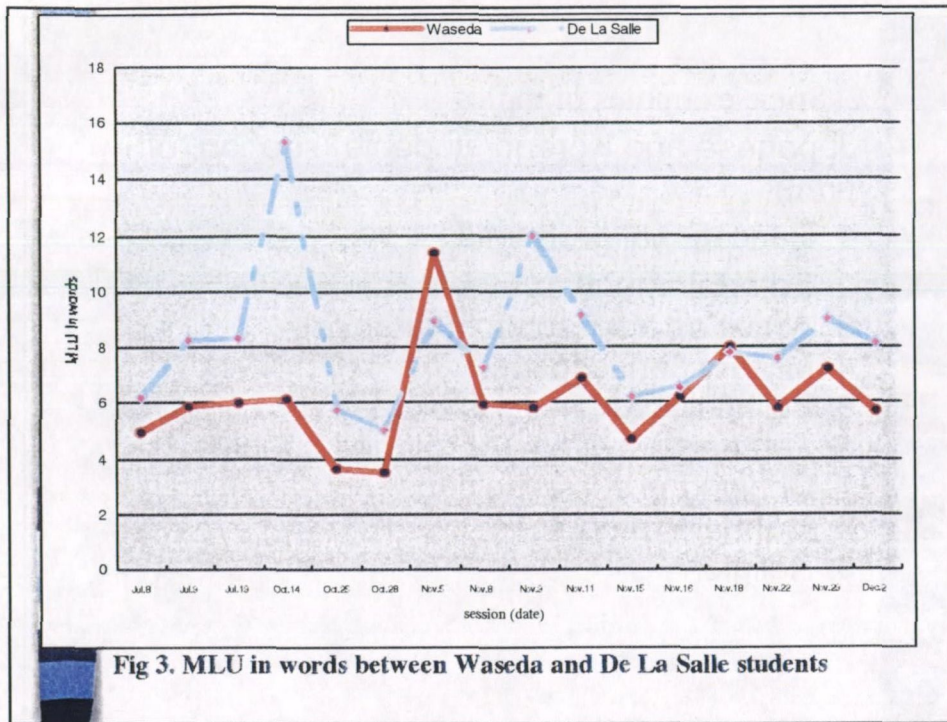



Fig 3. MLU in words between Waseda and De La Salle students

Table 2. Falls and rises between Waseda and De La Salle students, suggesting strong interactivity

time period	Waseda	De La Salle	matching
7.8-7.9	+	+	yes
7.9-7.19	+	+	yes
7.19-10.14	+	+	yes
10.14-10.25	-	-	yes
10.25-10.28	-	-	yes
10.28-11.5	+	+	yes
11.5-11.8	-	-	yes
11.8-11.9	-	+	no
11.9-11.11	+	-	no
11.11-11.15	-	-	yes
11.15-11.16	+	+	yes
11.16-11.18	+	+	yes
11.18-11.22	-	-	yes
11.22-11.29	+	+	yes
11.29-12.2	-	-	yes

Matching 13
 Non-matching 2
 TOTAL 15


(Binominal Test,
 p=.007, two-tailed)



3.2. Some examples of topics

■ Japanese and Korean students (see our off-print)

1. Educational problems
2. Entertainment
3. Activities after school (karaoke)
4. Military conscription
5. Political issues (North Korea)
6. The name system for married couples
7. Drinking in social settings
8. Manners of drinking
9. Religion



■ Japanese and Philippine students (see our off-print)


1. American Dream
2. A native language and English
3. Educational system
4. Economic discrepancy
5. Religion
6. The role of a woman in a family
7. Gun control

4. Some Comments

- The Philippine students showed the highest MLU in words (8.23), compared with the Japanese students (6.05) and the Korean students (5.08).
- There is correspondence in rises and falls between Japanese and Korean students, and between Japanese and Philippine students.
- We observed through the excerpts that the students were actively exchanging opinions and learning about the people from other countries.

5. Potential benefits for CMC

- Students can actively engage in meaningful cross-cultural communication through learner-learner interaction.
- Students who are not confident in their English oral communication skills can feel more at ease with non-native speakers than with native speakers.
- Students can broach, change, expand a topic relatively easily as their discussion unfolds.
- Students who are quiet are more expressive in CMC than during face-to-face interaction (Kitade, 2000).
- Students can self-monitor, or focus on linguistic forms more than in face-to-face communication.



CMC time measurement

16:46.16—16:49.21

Oya: Hello, How are you?

16:48:53—16.49.43

Hori: Hello how are you doing? I'm not so fine.
I have a serious stomach ache.

16:49.48—16:50.49

Oya: I see. Now this is ...

16:49.59—16:51.53

Hori: OK now we change the topic, I see...



Turn-takings similar to Dialog

- CMC1 3cases (overlapping:OL)
- CMC2 25cases (OL or butting-in)
- CMC3 9 cases
- Overlapping or Butting-In are difficult to distinguish in CMC as in interactive dialogs



After CMC sessions

- Students write 200-word summary of their CMC.
- Students save their CMC data and submit to the teachers.
- Students measure their MLU and Readability for the two assignments.
- Teachers check their grammatical and pragmatic errors.



Proactive FonF after chatting

- Elicit a similar utterance from the student orally and recast during Warm-up).
- Picture Description exercises (see our HP) describes objects in relation to the other objects
- Story Telling exercises (see our HP) Tense
- Role-Playing exercises (see our HP) Requests, Apology, Complaints, Offer, Refusal, Thanking and Negotiation
- If errors persist, we give an FonFS: written grammaticality judgment test and then oral grammaticality judgment test.

Intercultural Cyber Education: "Collaborative Courses over the Network"

Michiko Nakano
Waseda University, Japan
Distance Learning Centre
Digital Campus Consortium

What's DCC (Digital Campus Consortium)?

- DCC is a consortium of corporations aiming to realize a new model of university education for the 21st century, founded by Waseda University. Two key elements; "*Digitalization*" and "*Information Network*"
- Our Mission: educating "**Global Citizens**"
= "**Active & International Intellectuals**"

DCC Phase 1 (1999.4-2002.3)

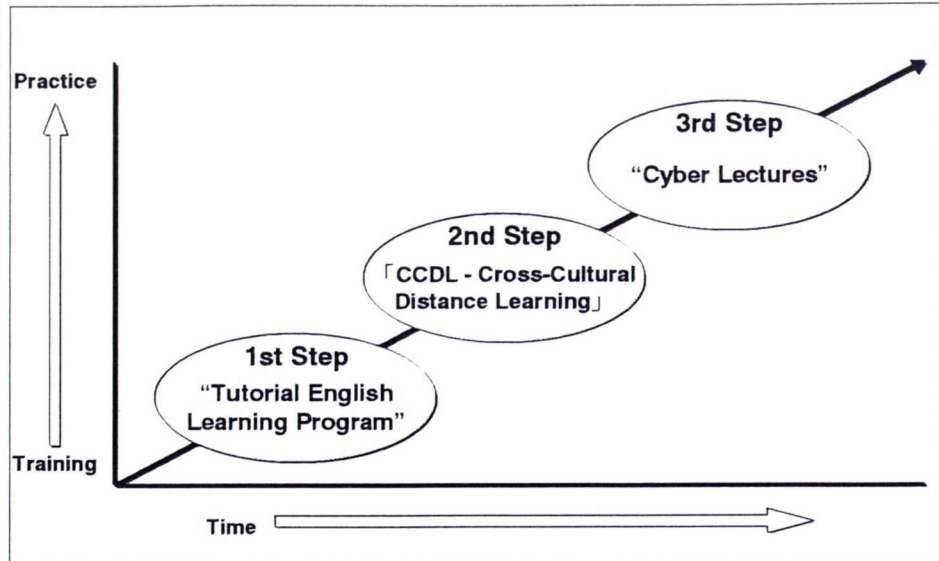
- DCC developed the following projects for expanding education and research through the network.
 - "Lectures over the Network" (On-demand lectures)
 - "Joint Seminars over the Network" (CCDL)
 - "Language Learning over the Network" (Tutorial English)
 - "Online Academic Databases"



DCC Phase 2 (2002.4-2005.3)

- DCC aids in the creation of CUC (Cyber University Consortium).

3 Steps for Promoting Language Ability



- 3 -

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1st Step: Tutorial English Learning Program

- Acquiring Basic Communication Skills -

- Small-class lesson (1 tutor for 4 students)

=> Creating "environment in which students have to speak"

2000 students enrolled in 2002

(3451 applicants)

5000 students expected in 2003

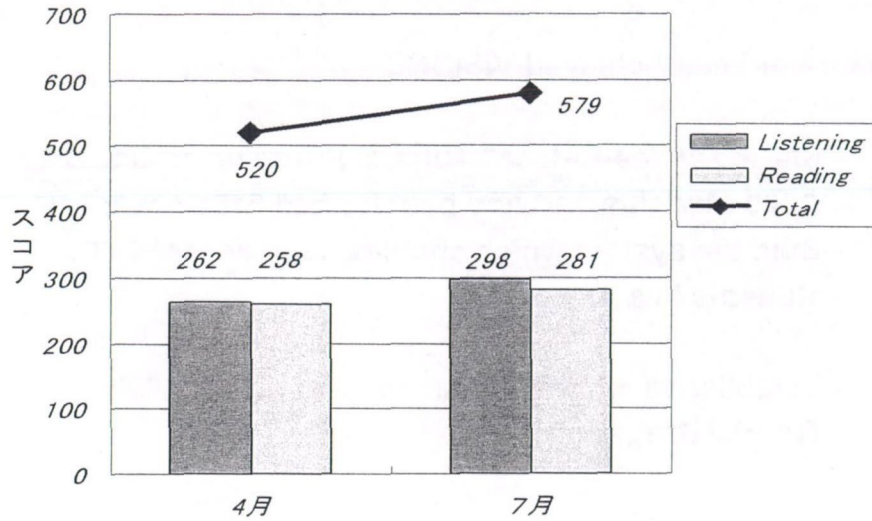


- Intensive learning: 16 lessons in
8 weeks (total: 24 hrs)
18 lessons in 2003 (27 hrs)

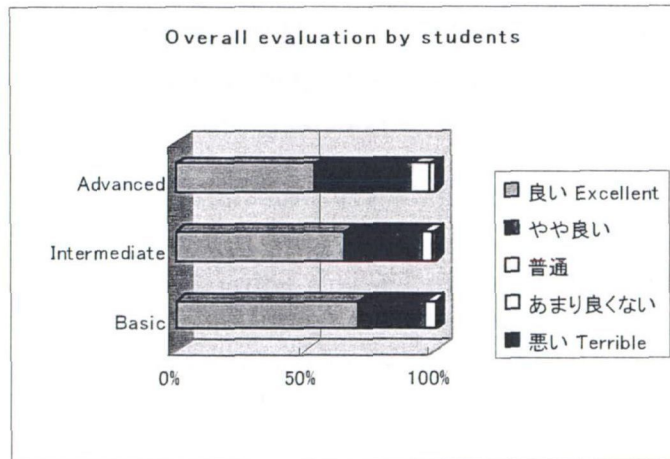
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図1. 4月と7月のTOEICスコアの平均値
(n=277)



Overall evaluation by students



1st Step: Tutorial English Learning Program

- More or Less Achieved VISIONS

- Started "Face-to-face" Tutorial Program" in Oct., 2001
2000 students enrolled but we had 3451 applicants
- Built the system which enables us to accept 5,000 students in a year

- Established credited course based on "English Tutorial Program"

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2nd Step: CCDL - Cross-Cultural Distance Learning

**- Authentic International Communication by
Common Foreign Languages: English, Korean, Chinese,
Russian, Japanese, etc. -**

- Enhance Students' Motivation to Study More -

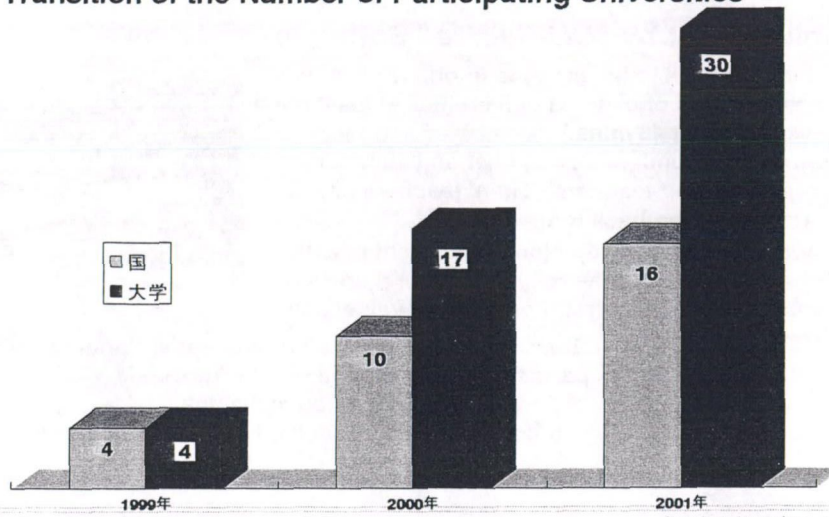
- **Figures on CCDL Projects at Waseda University**
 - The number of classes introducing CCDL: about 30 in 2001
 - The number of teachers involved in CCDL: 14
 - The number of students participating in CCDL: about 1,580
 - 3400 students participating in 2002

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2nd Step: CCDL - Cross-Cultural Distance Learning

- Cooperation with Oversea Partner Universities:
Transition of the Number of Participating Universities



2nd Step: CCDL - Cross-Cultural Distance Learning

- Participating Universities in 2001

- | | |
|--|--|
| Korea University (Korea) | Nottingham Trent University (U.K.) |
| Kangwon National University (Korea) | University of Edinburgh (U.K.) |
| De La Salle University (Philippines) | University of Essex (U.K.) |
| University of Malaya (Malaysia) | University of Kiel (German) |
| National University of Singapore (Singapore) | University of Utah (U.S.A.) |
| SEAMEO RELC (Singapore) | University of Hawaii at Hilo (U.S.A.) |
| Thammasat University (Thailand) | University of Hawaii at Manoa (U.S.A.) |
| University of Peking (China) | University of Colorado (U.S.A.) |
| Hong Kong Baptist University (China) | Syracuse University (U.S.A.) |
| Capital Normal University (China) | Laffayette University (U.S.A.) |
| Tamkang University (Taiwan) | Far Eastern State University (Russia) |
| National Taiwan Normal University (Taiwan) | Japan Foundation (Australia) |
| University of Brunei (Brunei) | Monash University (Australia) |
| Zaid University (UAE) | University of New South Wale (Australia) |
| | University of Auckland (New Zealand) |

2nd Step: CCDL - Cross-Cultural Distance Learning

- Various Types of Communication

1) Online Chat by "CU-SeeMe" Software

- Students have to be engaged in online chat with their partners of oversea universities at least once a week (about 45 mins.)

(Students submit record of chat and summary report to their teachers. Then, teachers check them and feed-back to them.)

- Students exchange opinions on current events, trends, customs, university life, culture, sports, education, religion, traditions, social values, etc.

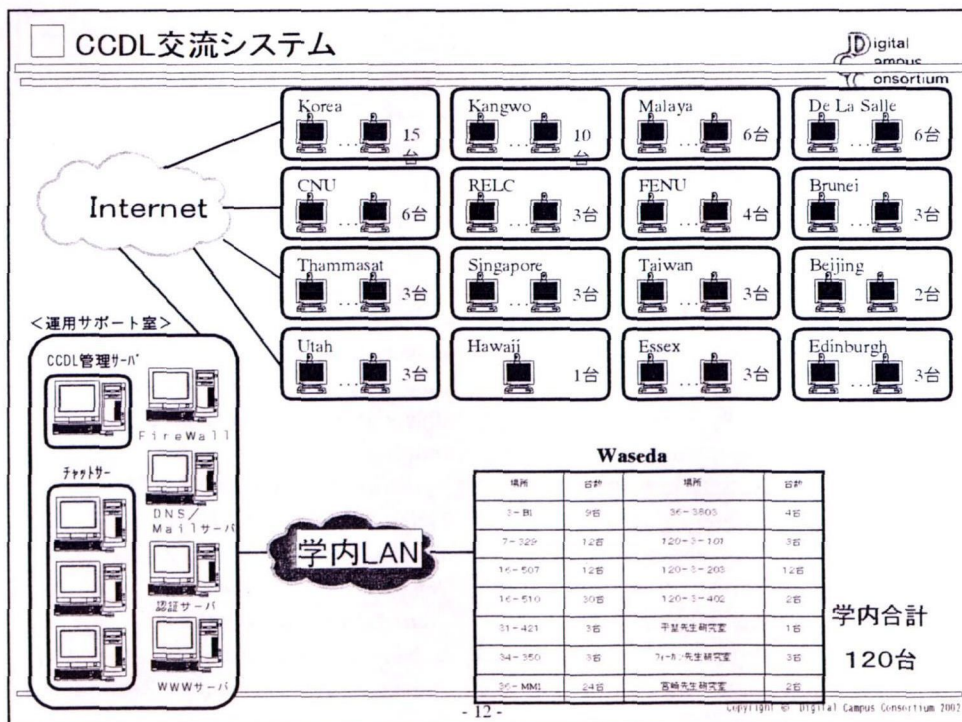


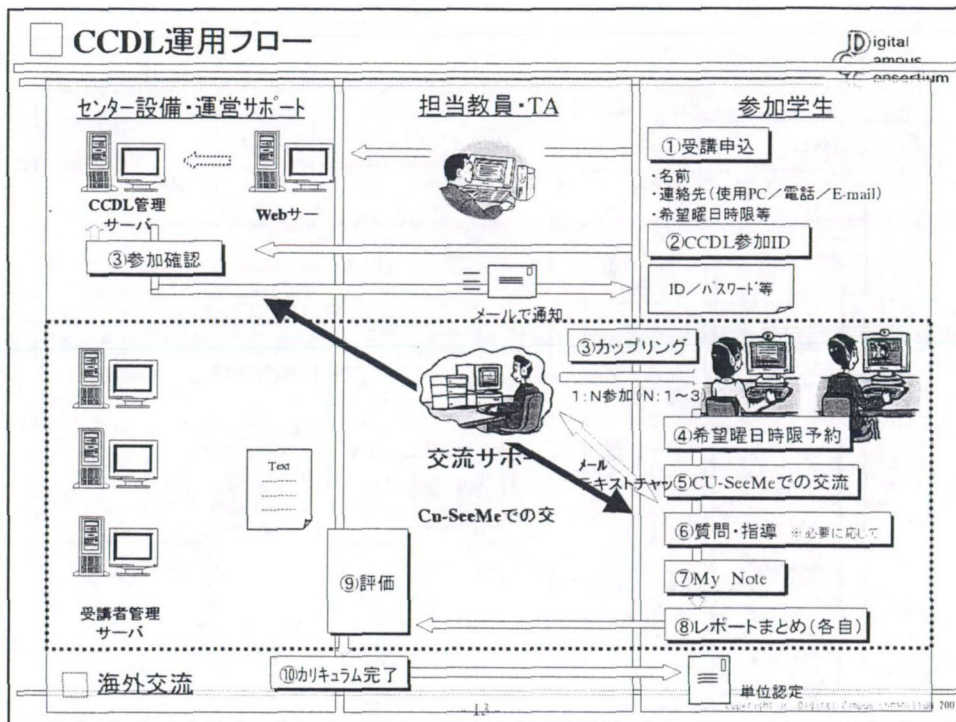
- Efforts to acquire cross-cultural understandings with partners who have different backgrounds

- Acquiring presentation skills
- Increasing MLU (Meaning Length of Utterance)

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2nd Step: CCDL - Cross-Cultural Distance Learning

- Various Types of Communication

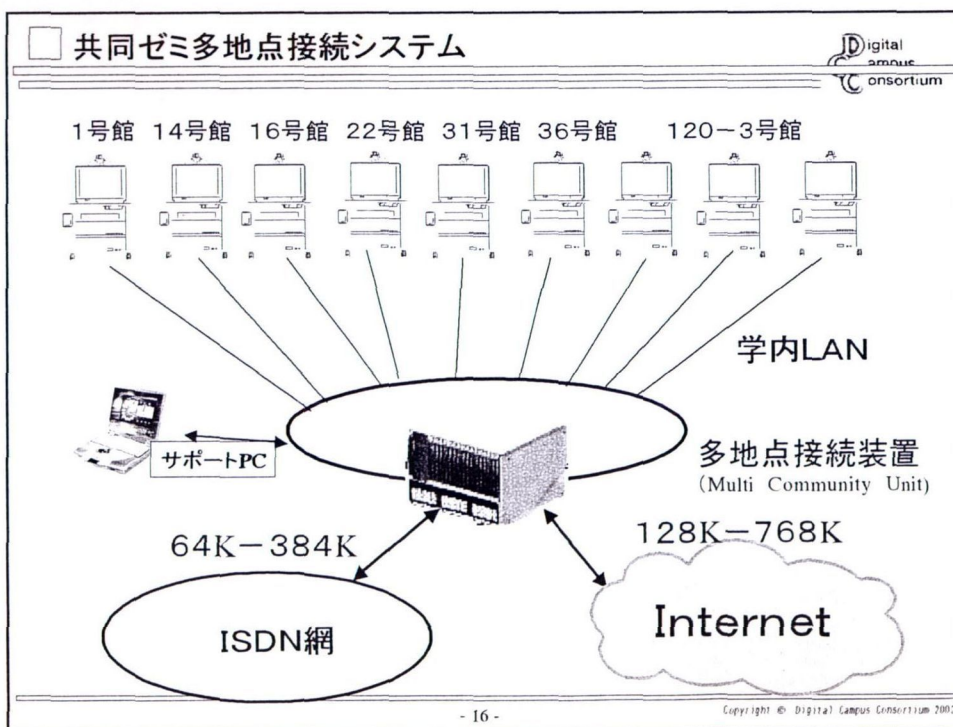
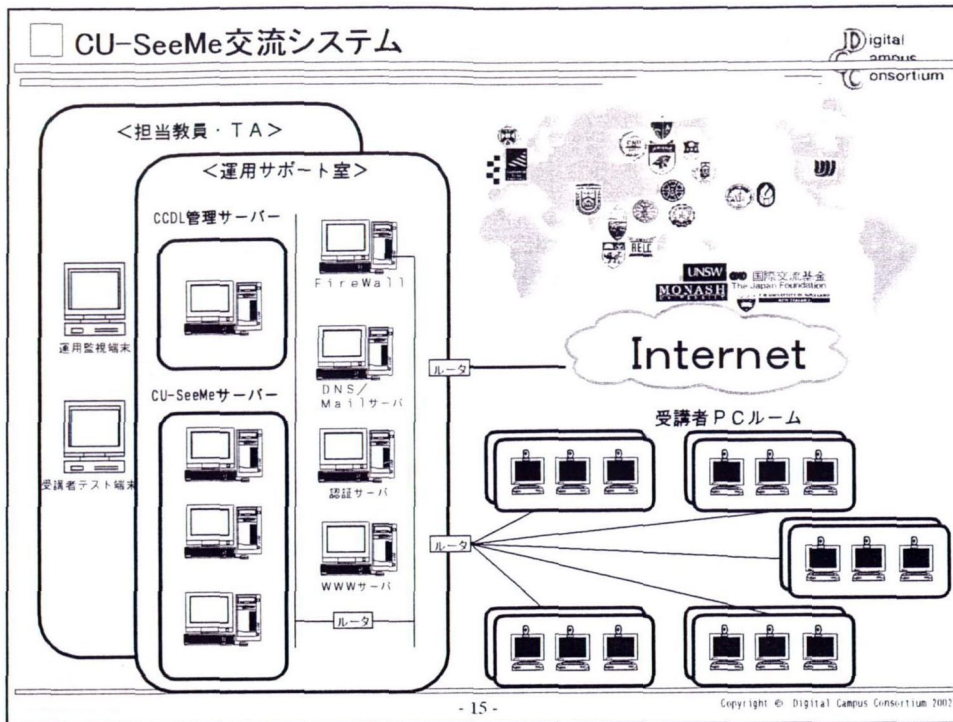
2) Cyber Seminar

- Real-time and interactive on-line seminars by videoconferencing system
- Exchanging cultural information via Real Audio (Web Radio Station)
- Discussions on specialized themes

- Partners for cyber seminars

- Korea University (Korea)
- Kangwon National University (Korea)
- Hong Kong Baptist University (China)
- National University of Singapore (Singapore)
- etc...





Development of Lectures over the Network



■ On-demand lectures

All digitalized lecture materials – with audio, visuals, and text – are shared through a system of distribution of on-demand internet broadcasting, etc.

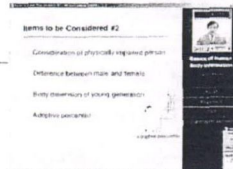
The courses can be interactive. The system provides these functions: Q & A sessions, discussion, testing, and report assignment.

On-demand courses conducted by Waseda University (2002)

Full on-demand:	17
Hybrid:	28
BBS:	43

88 courses in total

Lecture materials



BBS (Bulletin Board System)



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CCDL (Cross-Cultural Distance Learning)



■ CCDL (Cross-Cultural Distance Learning) refers to courses providing practical opportunities for international communication in English, Chinese, Russian and Japanese.

"Cyber Lectures" and "Cyber Seminars" were realized through CCDL by using videoconferencing system, chat, e-mail and BBS.

"Cyber Seminars"



CCDL courses conducted by Waseda University (2002)

Courses in total:	41
Participating students:	3,339
Participating universities and institutes:	38 in 18 countries

"Tutorial English"



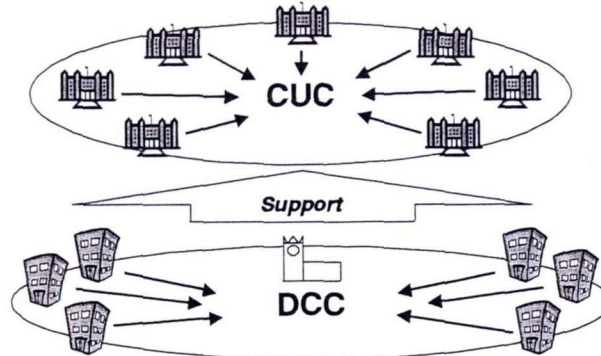
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DCC Phase 2 Goals



- DCC aims to create a rewarding educational environment through the development of distance education.
- DCC supports Waseda University in the creation of a mutual communication consortium, called the **CUC** (*Cyber University Consortium*), among universities mainly in the Pan Pacific region.



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Member corporations of DCC



- DCC Phase 2 consists of 26 corporations below.

➤ *Member corporations (as of October 23, 2002)*

NTT Comware Corporation	ASTEC Inc.
IBM Japan, Ltd.	CAC Corporation
Matsushita Electric Industrial Co., Ltd.	Dai Nippon Printing Co., Ltd.
NEC Corporation	EVERGREEN Digital Contents Inc.
NEC Soft, Ltd.	Itochu Techno-Science Corporation
Sony Broadband Solutions Corporation	Japan Broadcast Publishing Co., Ltd.
Yokogawa Electric Corporation	JTB Corp.
	Kinokuniya Company LTD.
	Microsoft Corporation
Sun Microsystems K.K.	Nippon Telegraph and Telephone East Corporation
Towa Engineering Corporation	NNA Japan Co.,Ltd.
	NTT Broadband Initiative Inc.
	NTT Facilities, INC.
	Space ALC Inc.
	SV Interactive Communication Inc.
	Totsu Sangyo Co.,Ltd.
	Uchida Yoko Co., Ltd.

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The aims of the Joint Experiment

- The Evaluation of the courses offered by several universities
 - Review of the possibility of offering one course linking schools with different cultures and calendars
- Evaluation of the 'network,' 'system,' and 'operation' of distance courses
 - Review of the possibilities of international operations
- The determination and supply of the necessary functions of CUC while carrying out the experimental course
 - Review of steps leading to the beginning of regular courses

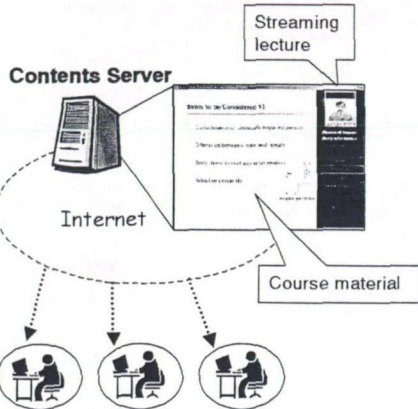
Screen image of on-demand lectures

- a.) Log in.
- b.) Select a course from course list.
- c.) Select a lecture or BBS from the lecture list.



Outline of the lecture: On-demand Lecture

- All digitalized lecture materials – with audio, visuals, and text – are shared through a system of distribution of on-demand internet broadcasting, etc.

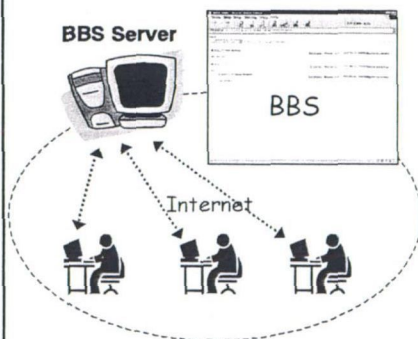


Merit of On-demand lecture

- While materials are online, students will be able to deepen their understanding of lectures by reviewing them as often as they like, in whatever setting they like.
- Quizzes (tests) will be administered to measure how well lectures are understood.

On-demand Lectures (Q&A)

- Learning can be interactive. The system provides these functions: Q & A sessions, discussions, testing, and report assignments.

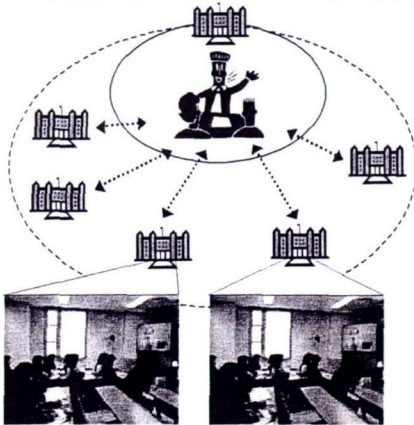


Merit of BBS

- In that BBS is not live, it is possible for students to learn more by rethinking their own opinions, and reviewing the opinions of other students in the group.
- Since it is not necessary for everyone to work at the same time there is no need to adjust schedules.
- * Faculty will monitor the BBS responding to questions and making suggestions.

Live Lectures

- Live lectures are conducted by transmitting lectures among participating universities using a videoconferencing system via the Internet at designated times.
- Students will attend lectures at sites provided by each university.



Merit of Live Lecture

- Using a videoconferencing system, we can provide interactive communication with audio and visual among universities.
- Since videoconferencing is live, it is possible to provide students with real, practical discussions.

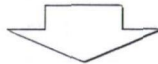
Contribution of Participating Universities (including Waseda Univ.)

- 1) Assignment of lecturer
Assign a faculty member as a lecturer.
- 2) Preparation of lectures
Three lectures (two on-demand lectures, one live lecture) and related course materials.
 - *On-demand lectures*
Prepare two lectures, each approximately 60 minutes (broken into four periods of 15 minutes each).
Prepare course materials using PowerPoint and a video recorder.
 - *Live Lectures*
Provide one 60-minute lecture to be delivered at multiple locations using videoconferencing system.

Cyber University Consortium Projects
- Possibilities of Training Programs based on CCDL -

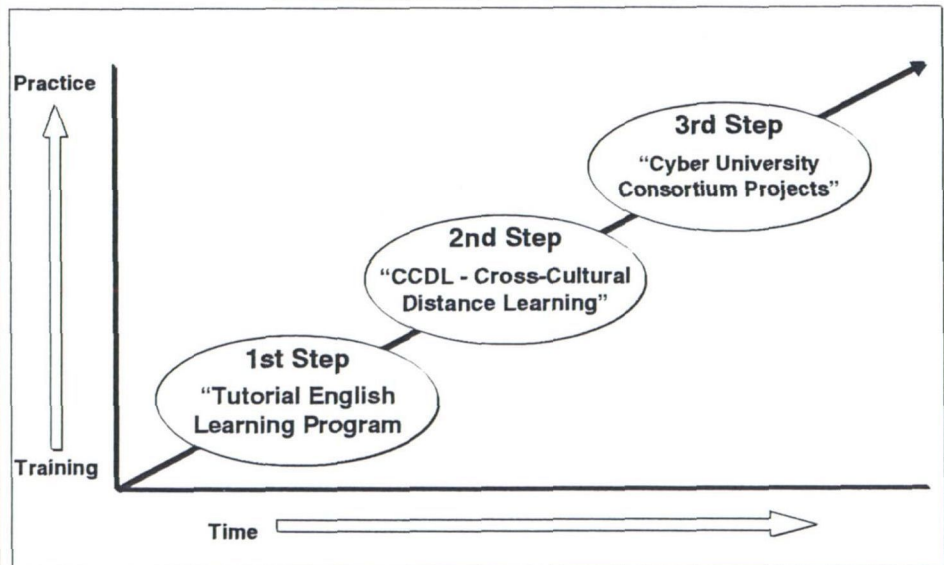
**- Making Cross-Cultural Exchanges as
a Part of Student Life -**

- Practical training for "Global Citizens" = "Active & International Intellectuals"
 - Acquiring practical business skills which are globally adaptable
 - Creating diverse, and yet firm human network
 - Establishing Asian-oriented original education paradigm (language, customs, religion, Asian idealism, etc...)
 - Acquiring Global Mind-Set (Positive-Mind, Can-Do Spirit, Readiness for Cross-Cultural Differences)
 - Development of Knowledge-based and Specialized Education



- Establishing CUC (Cyber University Consortium)


3 Steps for training "Global Citizens" = "Active & International Intellectuals"



**Let us collaborate with each other,
In order to develop Asia-Pacific-oriented education**



Thank you...



A Proposal of a Tag-set for Learner Corpus (1)

Michiko Nakano, Masanori Oya,
Kazuharu Owada, Norifumi Ueda,
Tae Yamazaki, Kouichi Ano, and
Minako Sunaga



Part 1. A set of tags to characterize a spoken learner language

- In this presentation, we propose two types of tagset:
 - syntactic error tags
 - speech dysfluency tags
- We will illustrate that these two types of errors interact each other in the process of speech production.




Part 2. Experiments

- We will also show how to make use of tagged data, i.e., the frequency of error types can be used as guidelines for a focus-on-form teaching method



Part 1. A set of tags to characterize a spoken learner language

- Eight categories of syntactic error tags
 - noun number, agreement, tense, aspect, lexical choice, omission, addition, word order, and unclear
- Four categories of dysfluency tags
 - cutoff, repeat, repair, and reformulation



Part 2. Experiments:

A part of the corpus used for frequency analysis

- Subjects: 30 adult EFL learners
- Oral interviews (15 mins.): warm-up, picture description, role play, story telling, and wind-down
- ACTFL 4-9 levels



Noun number

- `<+pl> </+pl>`
 - `a<+pl>men</+pl>` 25 cases
- `<-pl> </-pl>`
 - `two<-pl>hour</-pl>` 132 cases



Agreement

- `<agr>` `</agr>` 93 cases
my sister `<agr>go</agr>` to
`<delart>A</delart>` university in Osaka.
she `<agr>enjoy</agr>` her life,



tense

- `<prs>` `</prs>` 21 cases
- `<pst>` `</pst>` 150 cases
- `<fut>` `</fut>` 8 cases
- And my father and mother, `<F>ah</F>`,
also `<prs>` didn't `</prs>` drink,
- and if I `<prs>` could `</prs>` go, I will go.



aspect

- <ing> </ing> 16 cases
- <perf> </perf> 6 cases
- <ing> I'm belonging </ing> to,
<F>urm</F>, Waseda University,
- And the lion in front of them
<repair>is</repair> <./> seems to be
<ing>smile</ing> to
<repair>hi</repair> them.



Lexical choice errors (15 types)

- 1 article errors: <eart> </eart> 71 cases
- 2 possessive pronoun errors: <epos>
</epos> 0 case
- 3 demonstrative pronoun errors: <edem>
</edem> 9 cases
- 4 adverb errors: <ead> </ead> 8 cases
Yes. Can be quick. <A> But not for you.
<./> <eadv>Yes</eadv> Never mind.



Lexical choice errors (15 types)

- 5 conjunction errors: <econj> </econj> 16 cases

<A>What do you mean 'maybe third year'?

Because I have many reports about Japanese literatures
<econj> or </econj> some education classes, **because** I
wanna be a teacher

This error was often difficult to identify, unless we can faithfully reconstruct a learner's intention (meaning and message), involving stylistic issues as well.

eg <A> How do you like living alone? Ah, <econj> but
</econj> I, I lived alone <econj> until </econj> when I was a
high school student.



Lexical choice errors (15 types)

- 6 adjective errors: <eadj> </eadj>
27 cases

<A>How much is your textbook?

This book is <eadj> high </eadj>.

This error was difficult to identify, particularly for subjective adjectives, unless we can trace back a learner's subjective evaluation.



Lexical choice errors (15 types)

- 7 verb errors: <everb> </everb> 4
I always <everb> maintenanced
</everb> the computer.
- 8 prepositional errors: 86 cases
<eprep> </eprep>
I went to the movie theatre <eprep>
from </eprep> the afternoon.



Lexical choice errors (15 types)

- 9 morphological errors: 36
<emorph> </emorph>
- 10 interjection errors: 1
<einter> </einter>
- 11 pronoun errors: 1
<epron> </epron>
- 12 modal auxiliary errors: 1
<emda> </emda>



Lexical choice errors (15 types)

- 13 indefinite pronoun errors: 1 case
<eindpro> </eindpro>
- 14 noun errors: 1 case
<enoun> </enoun>
- 15 lexical choice errors: 136 cases
<elex> </elex>



An example of Lexical choice error

- choose <eart> the </eart> tie <F>
mm </F> and <./> so the <F> mm,
mm </F> the <F> mm </F> <elex>
buyer </elex> <F> mm </F>
recommended <F> mm </F>
<repeat> one </repeat>, one tie <F>
mm </F> the tie <F> mm </F> <cut>
li </cut> <pst> looks </pst>

(redundant)15 Addition errors

- 1 redundant articles: 34 cases

<redart> </redart>

Will you have **a** lunch? Will you have **the** dinner?

- 2 redundant prepositions: 33 cases

<redprep> </redprep>

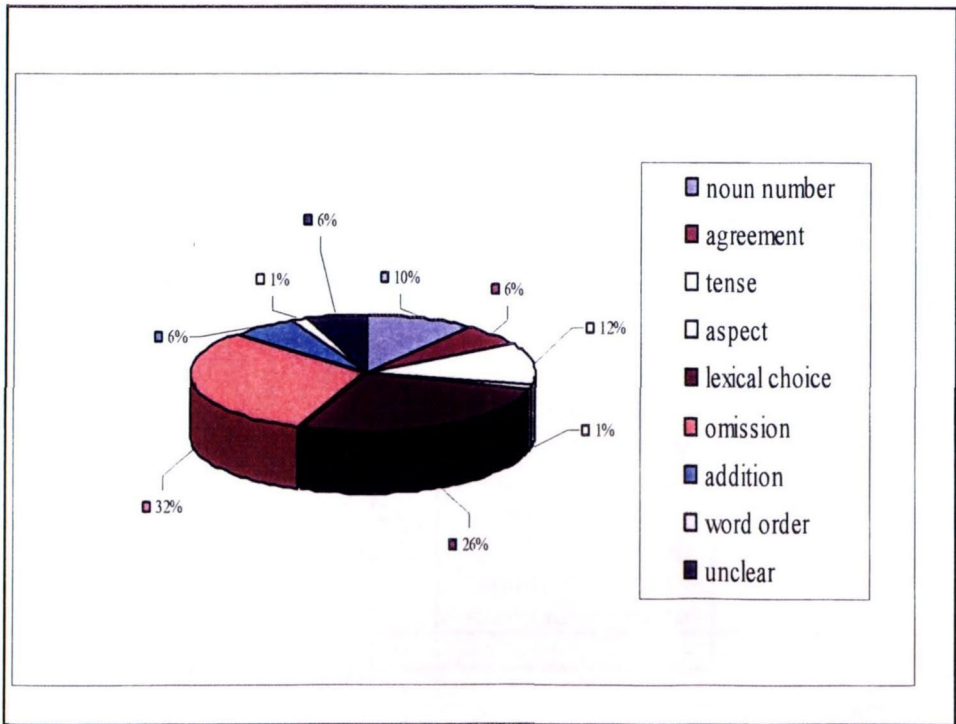
I live **in** alone.

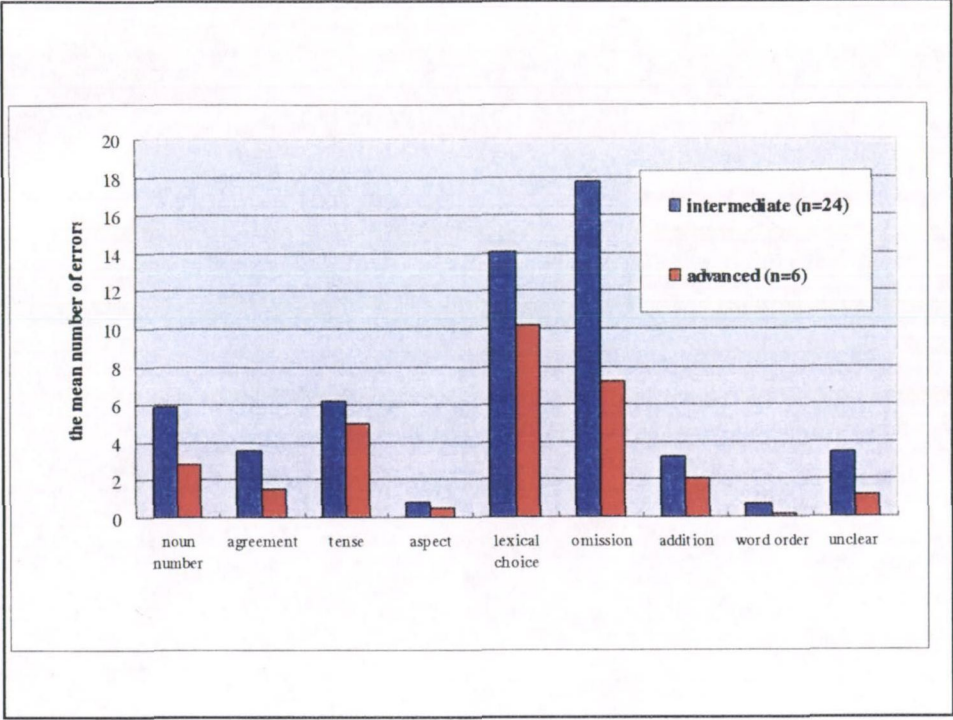
Error Type	tag	f
omission	<delart></delart>	265
	<delconj></delconj>	3
	<delinter></delinter>	1
	<delprep></delprep>	83
	<delpron></delpron>	6
	<deladv></deladv>	4
	<deladj></deladj>	5
	<delpos></delpos>	5
	<delsub></delsub>	2
	<delobj></delobj>	47
	<delverb></delverb>	12
	<delcop></delcop>	22
	<delmda></delmda>	3
	<delapos></delapos>	2
	<delnoun></delnoun>	6
	466	

Preposition omission errors	f
TO	36
IN	13
AT	11
OF	8
ON	5
WITH	3
FROM	2
BY	1
ABOUT	1
OUT OF	1
DURING	1
FOR	1
	83

Error Type	tag	f
addition	<redart></redart>	34
	<redconj></redconj>	1
	<redinter></redinter>	0
	<redprep></redprep>	33
	<redpron></redpron>	0
	<redadv></redadv>	2
	<redadj></redadj>	3
	<redpos></redpos>	1
	<redsub></redsub>	0
	<redobj></redobj>	2
	<redverb></redverb>	0
	<redcop></redcop>	9
	<redmda></redmda>	3
	<redapos></redapos>	0
	<rednoun></rednoun>	0
		88

Preposition addition errors	f
to	14
in	10
for	3
at	3
from	2
with	1
	33





Learner speech dysfluency

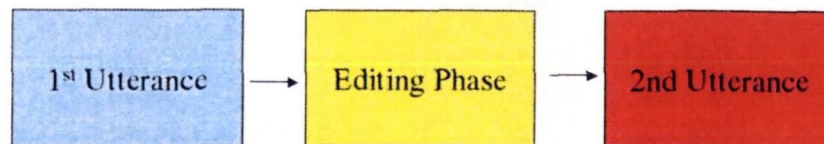
1. Cutoff <cut></cut>
2. Repeat <repeat></repeat>
3. Repair <repair></repair>
4. Reformulation <reform></reform>

(e.g., Maclay and Osgood 1959, Levelt 1983, Green and Hecht 1993, Olynak et al. 1990)

How to tag the data

- <repeat>I go to</repeat> <./> I go to
museum museum, or amusement
- because <repeat>there is</repeat>
<F>er</F> there is a big clock.

Learner speech dysfluency



1st Utterance: the utterance to be modified

Editing Phase: (without a pause, a silent pause,
a filled pause)

2nd Utterance: the modifying utterance
(cutoff, repeat, repair, reformulation)

Cutoff:

- Only the initial part of the word is pronounced before the whole word is pronounced.

e.g., li . . . literature, bu . . .but,
be . . . because

Repeat (1):

- 1) The word is repeated without any additional elements.

e.g., . . . went to the movies, movies.

- 2) The word is repeated with some additional elements.

e.g., I . . . I like music

Repair:

- 1) One word is modified (replaced).

e.g., I am . . . was sad, I get . . . got nervous,
at my . . . her house, I decide . . . I decided to go

- 2) The whole chunk is modified.

e.g., one year . . . almost one year, I'm . . . maybe I'm
greedy

- 3) Part of the chunk is modified (replaced).

e.g., at her house . . . at my home

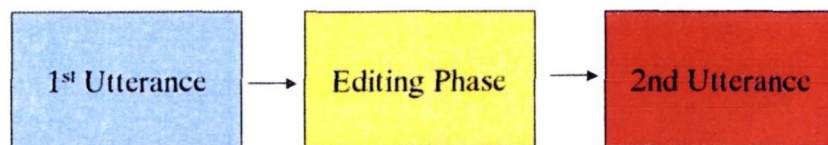
Reformulation:

- The previous statement is retracted and a new sequence of words is produced.

e.g., I took . . . uh . . . it took me one hour

did you go . . . uh . . . was that a good movie?

Learner speech dysfluency



1st Utterance: the utterance to be modified

Editing Phase: (without a pause, a silent pause,
a filled pause)

2nd Utterance: the modifying utterance
(cutoff, repeat, repair, reformulation)

Editing Phase

1. Without a pause
2. A silent pause
3. A filled pause

3.1. Non-lexical Fillers (e.g., *uh, ah, um*)

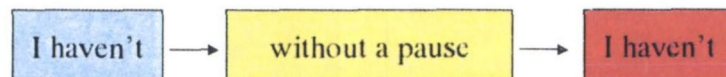
3.2. Lexical Fillers (e.g., *well, I mean, that is*)

3.2. Drawls (e.g., *a:::i[I], tu::: [to]*)

3.3. Addition of Unnecessary Vowels

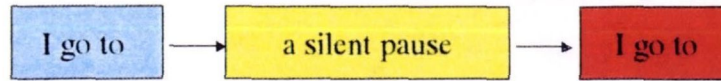
(e.g., *I findoo, I think thatoo*)

1. Without a pause <repeat>



- <repeat>I haven't</repeat>, I haven't been to Osaka <repeat>not</repeat>, <F>er</F>, not so many. <F>Er</F>,

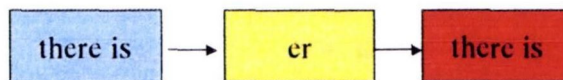
2. A silent pause <repeat>



- <repeat>I go to</repeat> <./> I go to museum museum, or amusement

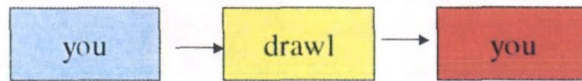
3. A filled pause

3.1. Non-lexical fillers <repeat>

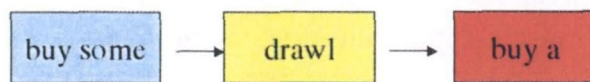


- And, <./> ah, the time is seven o'clock because <repeat>there is</repeat>, <F>er</F>, there is a big clock. I can see it.

3.2. Drawls <repeat><repair>

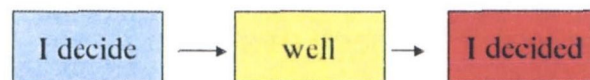


- but uh once er <repeat>you</repeat> you <./> have



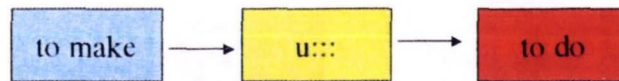
- she wanted to <repair>buy</> some </repair> buy a present for her husband,

3.3. Lexical fillers <repair>



- <repair>I decide</repair>well I decided to go to museum.

3.4. Addition of unnecessary vowels



I only use my computer mm
<repeat>to</repeat> <F>mm</F>
<repair>to make</repair> to do<./> the E-mail.

Research Question (1):

- Among the learner speech dysfluency, i.e., cutoff, repetition, repair, and reformulation, which was most frequently used in this corpus?

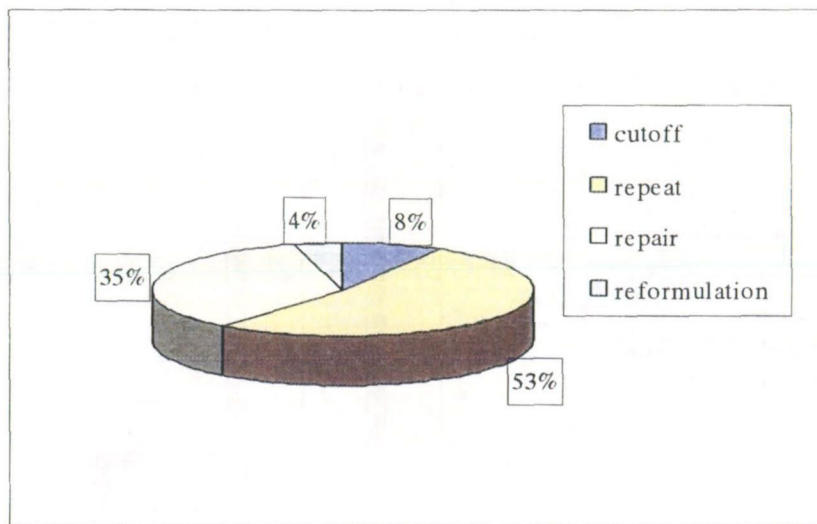


Figure 1. The breakdown of learner dysfluency (n=1596)

Research Question (2):

- How many dysfluency items did learners produce in one interview?

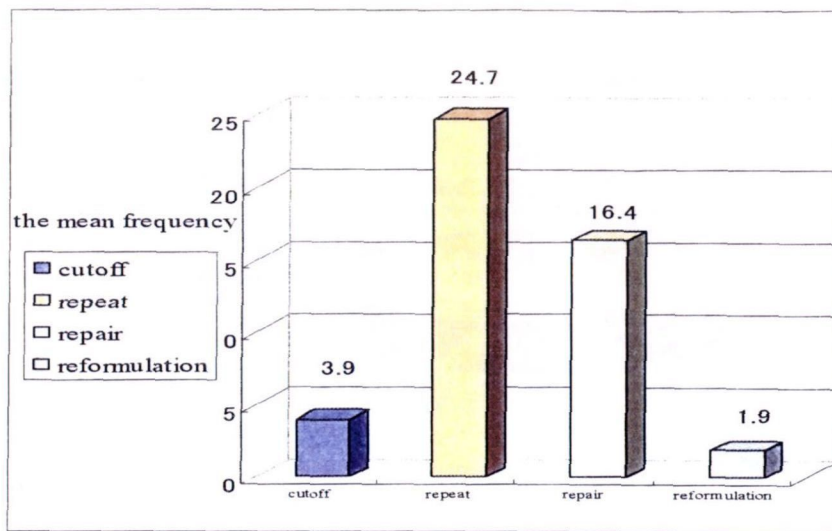


Figure 2. The mean frequency per learner

Research Question (3):

- Is the frequency of these learner dysfluency items related to the level of the learner?
- Subject N=30
 - Level 4 (n=13)
 - Level 5 (n=3)
 - Level 6 (n=8)
 - Level 7 (n=4)
 - Level 8 (n=1)
 - Level 9 (n=1)

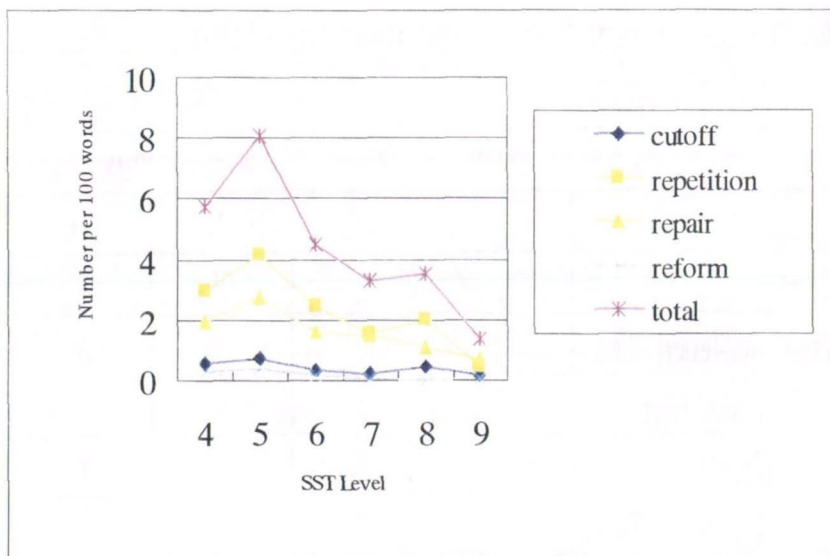


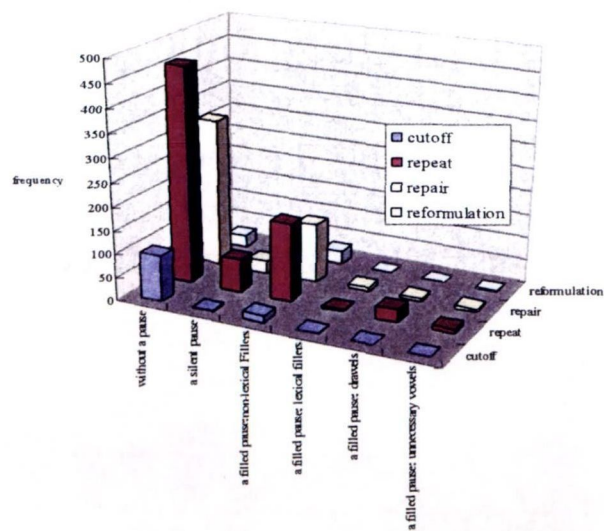
Figure 3. The average number per 100 words at each level

Research Question (4):

- What is the relationship between the learner dysfluency and the Editing Phase, i.e., without a pause, silent pause, and filled pause?

Table 1. Dysfluency X Editing Phase (n=1596)

	Cutoff	Repeat	Repair	Reformulation	
Without a Pause	99	460	318	25	
A Silent Pause	2	71	26	2	
A Filled Pause	Non-lexical Fillers	15	168	128	28
	Lexical Fillers	1	4	9	0
	Drawls	1	28	6	0
	Unnecessary Vowels	0	9	6	2
Total	118	740	493	57	



Research Question (5):

- What kind of forms occurred most frequently in terms of dysfluency items, i.e., cutoff, repeat, repair, and reformulation?
- What kind of syntactic patterns for the repeat were extracted from the data?
 - Learner chunks

Frequently used words for ‘cutoff’

i (5)

basically Shizuoka people i is a same as Tokyo

Tokyo's

people.

wha (5)

so she asked a <./> clerk wha what kind of tie she should buy.

An (4)

Yeah, an and where di, di where do you live now?

Frequently used words for 'repeat'

I (152)

Er, when I , I often studied hard, I often, er,
forgot eating, two or three

and (20)

Because I <./> umm, <./> I like eating and, er,
<./> and, er, <./> I like also cooking, but
<./>to

she (20)

<./> so she mm she use mm use mm her
computer now probably, mm

And (18)

And, <./> and, Chinese, Japanese, French, and
Italian, and, <./> and so on.

he (14)

And, <./> mm, he, he drank beer and his uncle
drank, <./> I think wine, mm,

Frequently used words for 'repair'

the (7)

after it, they enjoyed the their time, um they
<./> left the zoo and

a (7)

so I can play even if I, I was a, some equipment
on the teeth.

I (7)

We say I today I have a another other two two
classes an

in (6)

And mm I don't have any computers in at
home, so I envy this person.

is (5)

yes, Juria, <./> in Chinese character "Ju" is
means pearl and he thought I should <./> be I
should have

my (5)

I have I had to been absent from er my one of
my class.

she (5)

he told her where is. And she <./> finally she,
mm, stepped up to third floors. That's all.

I'm (5)

so I'm maybe I'm greedy but I want some
more I want <./> good

Some examples of 'reformulation'

I'm a

I'm teaching English, so <nvs>laughter</nvs>

I'm a, <./> er, that's not go, good,

I've a

but nowadays I've a, <F>mm</F>, <./> it's

little bit troublesome, I think,

but when I went back home and saw it, and
I the color was not just like what I
have thought.

OK. So, where is your hometown? Mhn
aa, my, I come from Shizuoka.

Syntactic patterns of repeat

- Subject+verb I'm
- Subject+verb I have
- Subject+verb I like
- Subject+verb I want
- Subject+have to I have to
- Verb+to inf wanted to
- Verb+article bought a
- Conjunct+subject if I
- Conjunct+subject when I

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------|
| • Preposition+article | at the |
| • Conjunct+adverb | and finally |
| • Conjunct+verb | and asked |
| • Preposition+article | along the |
| • noun+preposition | some of |
| • Interrogative adverb
+modal+subj | how can I |
| • Prep+poss pronoun | in my |
| • Adverb+copula be | also is |
| • Subj+verb+to inf | I want to
watch |