Multilingual Theory and Practice in Applied Linguistics

Proceedings of the 45th Annual Meeting
of the British Association for Applied Linguistics

6-8 September 2012
University of Southampton

Edited by Alasdair N. Archibald

Multilingual Theory and Practice in Applied Linguistics

Proceedings of the 45th Annual Meeting
of the
British Association for Applied Linguistics

6-8 September 2012
University of Southampton

Edited by Alasdair N. Archibald

Multilingual Theory and Practice in Applied Linguistics

Proceedings of the 45th Annual Meeting
of the
British Association for Applied Linguistics

6-8 September 2012
University of Southampton

Published by Scitsiugnil Press
1 Maiden Road, London, UK
And produced in the UK

First Published 2013
By the British Association for Applied Linguistics
Edited by Alasdair N. Archibald

Product Design by Martin Edwardes
Scitsiugnil Press logo design by Jack Bruce

ISBN: 978-0-9559533-5-4

Multilingual Theory and Practice in Applied Linguistics

Proceedings of the 45th Annual Meeting
of the
British Association for Applied Linguistics

6-8 September 2012
University of Southampton

Contents

1 Indigenous Middle Belt Peoples and their Hausa Neighbours: Linguistic Right, Politics and Power in Nigeria

Adegboye Adeyanju
The University of Abuja-Nigeria
adegboyeadeyanju@yahoo.com

Background

Nigeria is a complex linguo-cultural and political mosaic, cobbled together, by Lord Lugard, in 1914 and christened after the 'Nigeria area' by Flora Shaw in 1897. Lugard has been vilified and accused of undermining the geopolity even before the inception of modern Nigeria! However, what he did was to 'amalgamate' the North and South. David-West (2012) reports the difference between 'Amalgam' and 'Compound' thus: in the former, an alloy say of A, B, C though bound together, neither A, nor B, nor C loses IDENTITY but whereas A, B, or C in forming a Compound each loses IDENTITY and forms A NEW ENTITY. So Lugard envisaged and respected the component parts of Nigeria's uniqueness. Research on Nigeria's actual socio-linguistic realities are ongoing as are attempts to fully describe her challenges for the survival of so-called 'minority languages and their cultures' from danger of extinction.

Of many tribes, languages and politics

Nigeria's exact number of tribes, languages and their speakers, like other socioeconomic profiles and realities, are somewhat unclear and hotly debated. This is the background for the perplexing 'national question' in Nigeria. Over a period of over five decades, successive Nigerian governments have not been able to successfully resolve the problem of national integration. Nigeria's varying problems, some would argue, have their roots in historical antecedents – Lugard and his roles readily come to mind. For others, rather, it is due to some immediate problems. There is an intricate mix of three adduced variables for the lack of national cohesion: a) the pattern and process of colonial domination in Nigeria,(b) the politicization of roles of ethnicity, religion, language and other forms of identity and (c) the logic, interests and behaviour of the post-colonial Nigerian state and its agents both in the production and management of social conflicts. Quite damaging for national integration has been the results of the interactions of these factors. Identity conflicts forcefully repressed and suppressed during military rule now assume political dimensions since the return to electoral politics (Adetula et al., 2012).The

return to civil rule in 1999 has given different ethnic, religious and regional groups in Nigeria opportunities to renegotiate for enhanced status, power and resources in the national polity.

The Language Ecology of Northern Nigeria, Middle Belt Peoples and Plight of Minority Languages

Indisputably, Hausa is one of the largest ethnic groups in Nigeria. What many object to is their dominance of the apparatus of government and the implicit tacit acceptance that they have been established as the largest group in Nigeria. The Hausa occupy most of the Northern half of Northern Nigeria. The Hausa were never politically united and admitted to a common, if not obscure, historical descent. Except for some dialectal variation the Hausa share a common language and profess the Islamic religion – though the indigenous Hausa, called the Maguzawa, were non-Islamised. Through a combination of very strong resistance and stubborn will, they rarely yielded no matter who conquered them. Although the Fulani defeated them, the Hausa nonetheless assimilated them such that a distinct group of Hausa–Fulani, whose pedigree was Hausa and Fulani, now exist. The explanation for the dominance of Hausa as a language and Hausa as a group is not the simplicity of their language and culture, nor in fact, even the fact that it could be written—other Northern Nigerian languages have been orthographised—but the evolution of an extremely complex Hausa-Fulani system of political organization which guarantees economic power. This system has now even guaranteed the *de-ethnification* of indigenous cultures and language endangerment in Central Nigeria. We define *de-ethnification* as the co-option, subordination and/or neutralization, destruction of certain cultures, artifacts, and cultural values of people lacking political influence, education, and social advantages; consequently their languages are neither developed, supported nor taught as curriculum subjects. Indigenous people are subordinated to dominant cultures and consequently are immersed into the dominant group's languages and cultures in two major ways: a) through conquest and/or (b) through economic and political pressures.

Thus, Hausa has gobbled up other cultures and languages in Northern Nigeria, particularly Nigeria Middle Belt culture and languages too weak to resist the pressures - from within and without. Kanuri stands out as different though. The dominance of Hausa language and culture is attributable to:

i. the relative advantage that has accrued to Hausa as a language during the colonial period leading to the establishment of the Hausa

Translation Bureau (1930), Hausa Literature Bureau (1939), the Northern Regional Literature Agency (1954), and the Hausa Language Board.

ii. 'psychological pressuring':the supposed inferiority of other Northern Nigerian languages often portrayed as lacking the subtleness and refinements of Hausa resulted in these languages' speakers learning and using Hausa at the expense of their mother tongues.
iii. the fact that Hausa is the language of commercial and political activities. Other Northern Nigeria people obligatorily had to learn and use it. This ensures the vitality and spread of Hausa in other domains of the indigenous languages.
iv. the intricate link between Hausa as a language and Islam, a religion, wherein Hausa serves as a vehicle for the spread of Islam to assimilate other indigenous tongues. Often adherents of Islam speak Hausa and the social harmony that a common religious faith guarantees is exploited for the advancement of Hausa.
v. the fortunes of Hausa as a language have been guaranteed by its innate 'assimilative tendencies, a result of all the above factors.

There is a high mortality rate among the indigenous languages speakership and their cultures and traditions in Northern Nigeria are depleted. Central Nigeria or the Middle Belt area, located within the geographical North, is regarded as one of the most volatile places in the world, where religion, ethnicity, power and politics are major determinants of peace or provoke wars. The people are characterized by extreme linguistic complexity and cultural and religious pluralism; have a variety of languages not genetically related to Hausa and are mostly non-Islamised. The people have a long history of attempts at asserting their cultural, social, religious, economic and political rights. There are three contending issues:

a) Citizens/Settlers Contestation
b) Linguistic and Cultural rights and
c) Social Justice

Conundrum: Constitution and Policy on 'Citizen and/or Settler' and Language Management in Nigeria

Since language is coterminous with ethnic grouping, to foster national integration in multilingual Nigeria, successive governments have encouraged Nigerians to learn one of the three 'major' languages: Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba- 3Bs/3Ms - this is enshrined in Section 55 of Nigeria's 1999 constitution, National Policy on Education, etc. Thus paradoxically throwing up the contentious issue of 'major' versus 'minor' languages and

the categorisation of Nigerian peoples along these lines. Section 55 of Nigeria's 1999 National Constitution confers the status of the 3Bs, 'Big Three' or 'major 3', 3Ms, languages on Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo. Loosely interpreted, Section 55 grants linguistic and cultural hegemony to these language groups/tribes, yet the same constitution appears to make 'domination' by the 3Bs/3Ms impossible: Sections 134 (2), Section 134 (1) (a), and Section 134(2) (a). Even amongst the 3Bs there are still 'minorities'! However, there is a disconnect between constitutional provision and reality on the ground. The reality is: linguistic imperialism by the '3Bs/3Ms' and denial of access to other rights such as: political, economic, social, and religious to the 'minorities'. Unfortunately the issue of social justice has not occupied much space in applied linguistics research.

The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999, Chapter III states, on Citizenship, 25 (l) "The following persons are citizens of Nigeria by birth- namely: (a) person born in Nigeria after 1960, either of whose parents or any of whose grandparents belongs or belonged to a community indigenous to Nigeria; (b) person born in Nigeria after 1960 either of whose parents or any of whose grandparents is a citizen of Nigeria; and (c) person born outside Nigeria either of whose parents is a citizen of Nigeria. The Nigerian legal concept of citizenship, Paton Jr. (2003) has argued, 'fosters communal violence and ethnic-religious conflict. Tribalism is enshrined in Nigeria's constitution. The proviso "...belongs or belonged to a community indigenous to Nigeria" is not only specious anddoes not solve the problem, it rather re-enforces the problem of "who is a citizen in Nigeria. Therefore we can conclude that 'Citizenship equals Indigeneship'; an indigene becomes one either through birth or ancestry, and necessarily belongs to a geographically determined community. Whereas a settler leaves his/her original home to 'settle' in a new geographical location, often already inhabited by autochthonous tribes, we conclude that all Nigerians can only be indigenous 'Settlers' in Nigeria.

Officially Sanctioned Linguistic and Cultural Rights Infringements

- In Northern Nigeria Hausa has been upgraded to such prestigious heights that it has overwhelmed other minority languages whose speakers do not only learn Hausa but also often abandon their own languages in order to climb the socio-economic ladder.
- Hausa has greatly influenced and absorbed almost all the languages in the Middle Belt of Nigeria.

- The languages of the Middle Belt have borrowed so heavily from Hausa that this development might be very dangerous for them all.

Conclusion

Linguistic right and social justice for the ethnic groups in Nigeria, specifically in the Middle Belt Region can be guaranteed only by:

- Sociolinguistically treating all languages and cultures equally; every language and culture gets the same treatment, it also requires that the claims of each be equally considered whether or not this leads to unequal treatment.
- There is no basis for social justice behind the advocating of small language group to be allowed to die off (Munzali, 1990) for instance.
- There are languages disappearing daily in Northern Nigeria, because they are being preyed upon by predator tongue(s) ,efforts should be geared towards revitalizing these languages.
- Paton advocates – and we agree with him – an amendment to the clause in Section 25 (1) of Nigeria's Constitution and argues for a selective borrowing from a clause from the US Constitution in Section 1 which states: 'All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws'.
- There is a felt need for an 'excellent' framework for describing and analysing Nigeria's sociolinguistic realities to avoid the trap of 'major-minor language' classification with the attendant negative connotations as well as to end official discrimination against the 'minority languages and their cultures' evident in the official support for the "three major languages: Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba".

References

Adell Patton Jr. 2003.Ethnicity, Citizenship and Democracy in America and Africa Compared: Who is a Citizen in Africa? In Shamsudeen O O Amali, Adell Patton Jr, Charles Uji, Foluke Ogunleye, Olutayo Adesina and Zakariya Goshit (eds), *Ethnicity, Citizenship and Democracy in the United States of America*. American Studies Association of Nigeria/Humanities Publishers. Ibadan

Tam David-West. 2012. Ethnic Nationalism: Challenges and Prospects of a PanNigeriana. *17th Biannual National Delegates Conference, Academic Staff Union of Universities, University of Abuja-Nigeria, June 1st*.

Victor A O Adetula, Olugbemi Jaiyebo, Adegboye Adeyanju, Weremara Amadi-Awa, Oluwatoni Adelaja, Joan Okolo-Wuya, Lohna Bonkat, & Sharkdam Wapmuk. 2006. *National Working Group (NWG) on 'Citizenship, Equity Question and National Integration in Nigeria', CODESRIA funded research*. CODESRIA, Dakar, Senegal.

Munjali M Jibril. 1990. Minority Languages and Lingua Franca in Nigeria Education. In E Nolue Emenanjo (ed.), *Multilingualism, Minority Languages and Language Policy in Nigeria*. Central Books/Linguistic Association of Nigeria: Aba.

National Policy on Education. 1977, revised 1981, 1985, 1994, 2005. Nigeria Educational Research and Development Council: Lagos.

Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. 1979, revised 1999.

2 Relationships between Reading Span Tasks and L2 Learning: Possibilities for Concern Involving Construct Equivalency

Cem Alptekin and Gülcan Erçetin
Bogaziçi University, Istanbul
alptekin.cem@gmail.com

Introduction

Reading span tasks (RSTs), with their processing and storage components, have been utilized to measure working memory (WM) capacity in linguistic and conceptual tasks in first-language (L1) use, including L1 reading comprehension. They have also been found to be appropriate measures of WM in second-language (L2) reading assessment. Research has shown that RST-based L1 and L2 WM outcomes correlate positively, the relationship being both language- and task-independent. However, a number of questions concerning construct equivalency are emerging as to the extent L2 learners' WM capacity is language- and task-independent when measured through RSTs in the L1 vs L2 and through semantically - vs syntactically - designed tasks, particularly in light of Ullman's (2001) Declarative/Procedural model of L2 acquisition.

Briefly, Ullman's model posits that declarative memory is implicated in the explicit learning and storage of lexical/semantic knowledge in the L1, as contrasted with procedural memory, which is associated with the implicit acquisition and storage of rule-governed combinatorial properties of grammatical properties. The gradual attenuation of the procedural system imposes maturational constraints on L2 learning in that late L2 learners (that is, those beyond the critical age) tend to rely heavily on their declarative system as the principal means of language acquisition. However, due to its specialization in lexical/semantic resources, this system is not capable of supplying the specific (grammatical) functions subserved by procedural memory, thereby hindering the realization of nativelike proficiency in the L2. In particular, L2 performance suffers from the absence of proceduralized grammatical knowledge that is automatized in L1 use.

Hence, the possibility exists that, in L2 studies, the nature of the RST's processing task (whether it is semantically or syntactically designed) and its language (L1 or L2) may be confounding variables casting a shadow of doubt on the construct validity of the scale. Based on these considerations,

this study explored the relationship between WM capacity and L2 reading comprehension by probing the effects of linguistic differences in span task design and the language of the task itself.

Method

Ninety-eight Turkish university students enrolled in an ELT programme participated in the study. Their scores on the TOEFL iBT indicated that they were moderately proficient in English. They took the Nelson-Denny Reading Test in English and two RSTs in L1 and two in L2, each having a processing component that required judging semantic plausibility or syntactic accuracy. The RSTs were modified versions of Daneman and Carpenter's (1980) original scale. They yielded two measures. The first was the storage score computed as the total number of words accurately recalled across the trials. The second was the processing measure that involved the participants' judgments concerning the grammaticality or plausibility of the RST sentences.

Data analysis consisted of obtaining Pearson-product-moment correlations among the measures. A principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was conducted to factor analyze the data. Factor scores obtained from the PCA were entered into a stepwise multiple regression to determine the degree of variance they explain in L2 reading.

Results

High Pearson-product moment correlations were obtained among the storage scores regardless of the type of processing task and the language in which the RST was administered. However, while there was a significant correlation between the L1 and L2 in terms of processing accuracy when the processing task involved the assessment of semantic anomaly, no correlation was observed between L1 and L2 processing when the span task required the assessment of syntactic irregularity.

Exploratory factor analysis results pointed to three meaningful components that accounted for 73% of the total variance. The first was the storage dimension (Factor 1 explaining 40.27% of variance) comprising the storage components of both L1 and L2 span tasks involving semantic or syntactic problems. The second (Factor 2 explaining 22.4% of variance) was the processing dimension involving not only the processing components of L1 and L2 span tasks with semantic problems but also those of L2 span tasks with syntactic problems. The third (Factor 3 explaining 10.41% of variance) was referred to as the L1-based syntactic processing dimension

because the L1 span task calling on syntactic (in)accuracy as the processing component was loaded on this factor. Whereas L2 reading comprehension was found to have significant correlations with the first and second factors, it had no relationship with Factor 3. Thus, the first and second factors were found to be significant in predicting L2 reading, explaining a total of 12.5% of the variance.

Discussion and Conclusion

The results suggest that late L2 learners' performance on the RST's storage component remains unaffected by the linguistic nature of the processing task or the language of the task. Thus, storage is both task- and language-independent. In contrast, the processing task is affected by the nature of the task (semantic or syntactic) and the language in which it is given (L1 or L2). No relationship is observed between L2 reading and WM capacity when the RST is based on L1 syntactic operations.

In general, these findings are in tune with the DP model's view that late L2 learners tend to tackle L2 tasks primarily through their lexical/semantic resources, particularly if they do not have a high level of L2 proficiency. It follows that for the participants in this study L2 reading is associated principally with the semantic resources of both the L1 and L2 and, to a lesser degree, their level of proceduralized L2 syntax, with L1 syntax being inconsequential in this relationship. Consequently, construct equivalency may be compromised, depending on whether RSTs make use of syntactically or semantically designed tasks in the L1 or L2.

References

Meredith Daneman & Patricia A Carpenter. 1980. Individual Differences in Working Memory and Reading. In *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* 19, pp450-466.

Michael T Ullman. 2001. The Neural Basis of Lexicon and Grammar in First and Second Language: The Declarative/Procedural Model. In *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* 4, pp105-122.

3 The summarising function of university Engineering lectures: a cross-cultural perspective

Siân Alsop and Hilary Nesi
Coventry University
alsops@uni.coventry.ac.uk

Engineering lectures are delivered in the medium of English all around the world. Is the discourse of these lectures the same everywhere, or is it affected by context? This paper focuses on variation in lecturers' use of summary.

The Engineering Lecture Corpus or ELC (see Table 1) contains transcripts of lectures which have been *pragmatically* annotated for recurring functions.

	Coventry University, United Kingdom	*Universiti Teknologi*, Malaysia	*Auckland University of Technology*, New Zealand
Code	UK	MS	NZ
ID series	1XXX	2XXX	3XXX
#lectures	30	17	26
#lecturers	5	9	4

Table 1: ELC holdings discussed in this paper

The 'summarising' function is divided into two types of review and two types of preview:

summary type	example + file ID
review content of previous lecture (review previous / <rp>)	last week we looked at resolving forces into components (1002)
review content of current lecture (review current / <rc>)	main three things that have come out of here though out of these tests is yield stress ultimate stress and modulus of elasticity (3026)
preview content of current lecture (preview current / <pc>)	so what are we going to do today is we are going to wrap up chapter five the second law of thermodynamics (2019)
preview content of	in the next two lectures we're actually

future lecture (preview future / <pf>)	going to delve a little bit into material properties and then we're going to get back into the solid mechanics (3024)

Table 2: four types of summarising in the ELC

We are not aware of any other cross-cultural studies of summaries in lectures, but Young's (1994) *discourse structuring* and *evaluation* phases serve a summary function, and the MICASE category 'introductory roadmap', in Simpson-Vlach and Leicher (2006: 68-69) and Maynard and Leicher (2007: 112-114), can be likened to our subcategory 'preview content of current lecture'.

Variation is noticeable across the UK, NZ and MS components of ELC in terms of: the length of summaries, their distribution, and their specific function.
The average percentage of lecture content (in tokens) for the four summary types is shown in Table 3[1].

	MS	UK	NZ	*total*
preview current	1.2	0.8	3.2	5.2
preview future	0.7	0.2	1.8	2.7
review current	1.0	0.1	0.6	1.7
review previous	1.2	1.3	3.3	5.8
total	4.1	2.4	8.9	

Table 1: average % lecture content according to summary type

The largest amount of summarising occurs in the NZ component (on average 8.8% of the lecture), with over 3% dedicated to previewing current content and over 3% to reviewing previous content. UK lectures contain the least amount of summarising (2.3%), predominantly previewing current content (0.8%) and reviewing previous content (1.3%). It is most evenly distributed in the MS component - roughly 1% per type, with the largest token total for previewing future content and reviewing current content.

[1] A script was used to loop through the ELC files and (ignoring markup and annotation metadata) count, in tokens: 1. total file size, and 2. start and end points of each instance of summarising. The occurrence of an instance of summarising was then translated into a normalised percentage of the lecture, i.e. len_summary = (((end_point/ total_tokens)*100) - ((start_point/ total_tokens)*100)), and the sum of percentages per subcorpora calculated, i.e. the sum of all instances of len_summary divided by the number of lectures in the subcorpora.

Of interest is *where* in the lecture the instances of summarising occur, and which types co-occur. Reviews do not significantly cluster towards the end of lectures, but 53 of the 321 summaries cluster at the beginning (see *Table 4*). Almost half of these (6/13) are previews of current content (pc) immediately followed by reviews of previous content (rp):

> <pc> **so topic for this week I'm going to look at reactions and type of support**</pc><rp> **last week we looked at resolving forces into components**</rp> (1002)

	UK	MS	NZ
preview current	8	10	7
preview future	2	3	4
review current	0	0	1
review previous	3	10	5

Table 4: summarising in the opening 8% (approx. 5 minutes) of the ELC lectures

Although summaries of all types occur most frequently in the MS component, they last for less time (see *Table 5*).

	UK	MS	NZ
preview current	78	23	73
preview future	37	34	49
review current	61	23	57
review previous	90	33	71

Table 5: average tokens per instance of summary

This might reflect the level of lecturer and student language confidence. Much summarising in the NZ and UK components appears to be off the cuff, often in response to a perceived lack of audience understanding. For example:

> <pf> **next week what we'll do is we'll throw in uniformly distributed loads all they'll do is change the shape of the diagram between key points the principles are exactly the same so if you can understand this you can understand it when I put UDL's in**</pf> (1008)

Summaries in the MS lectures, however, tend to reinforce content (terminology, equations etc.). For example:

<rc> **I explained just now P V equals to zero point six P Y P V**</rc> (2002)

There is also little overlap between other annotated pragmatic elements in the MS summaries.

The greater emphasis on reviewing and previewing in the NZ and MS lectures might be because the syllabus is more rigid, requiring lecturers to ensure that content for the week has been covered and understood. Under these circumstances the lecture serves to deliver content rather than introduce concepts which students can investigate further on their own.

Young (1994) argues that students need a schema for expository spoken discourse: "without it they cannot accurately predict, which hampers their ability to understand". Research into where, for how long, and in what combination different types of summarising occur may help to provide such a schema, appropriate to cultural context.

References

C Maynard and S Leicher. 2007. Pragmatic Annotation of an Academic Spoken Corpus for Pedagogical Purposes. In E Fitzpatrick (ed.) *Corpus Linguistics Beyond the Word: Corpus Research from Phrase to Discourse*. Amsterdam: Rodophi, pp107-116

R Simpson-Vlach and S Leicher. 2006. *The MICASE Handbook: A Resource for Users of the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press

L. Young. 1994. University lectures – macro-structure and micro-features. In J Flowerdew (ed.) *Academic Listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp159-176.

4 The role of (meta)linguistic awareness in cross-linguistic interferences of L3 English[2]

Tanja Angelovska
University of Munich (LMU), Germany
tanja.angelovska@lmu.de

Theoretical background

Cross-linguistic influences (CLI) seem to be particularly important in providing explanations about the roles of the different languages coming into play during third language (L3) learning. In a study by Sanchez (2011) results show that nonnative languages are more likely to be activated than the mother tongue (L1) regardless of typology. Preliminary work by Angelovska & Hahn (2012) on L2 transfer in L3 written English support the results by Sanchez (2011). However, what is less known in the L3 research is how learners recognize and make conscious use of cross-linguistic similarities and differences.

Schmid (1993, 1995) identified three types of learning strategies that multilinguals employed: congruence, correspondence and difference. So far, teaching practices were established by identifying congruences and correspondences, focusing on establishing similarities between the languages (Eurocom project, Hufeisen & Lindemann, 1998) or creating synergies (Jessner, 2008). Empirical evidence for Schmid's third strategy of "difference" and the way learners employ it is rather scarce. In order to answer such a question, one should analyze learners' metalinguistic awareness (MLA), i.e. "[the] individual's ability to focus attention on language as an object in and of itself, to reflect upon language, and to evaluate it" (Thomas, 1988:531).

Research aims and questions

The aim of this paper is to explore which role the meta-linguistic awareness of L3 learners plays in their L2 negative transfer (syntactical and lexical) occurring in written productions of L3 English. The research questions are:

a) Are L3 learners aware of their CLIs? Who of them?

[2] L3 English: the target language, the second non-native language acquired successively, chronologically the third language and the first dominant language.

b) What types of meta-linguistic awareness can be traced when L3 learners reflect on their CLIs?
c) How do learners explain and how do they reflect on their CLIs?

Research methodology

Data is reported from thirteen L3 learners of English, aged 20–25 years, at different L3 proficiency levels, with various L1s (5 speakers with L1 Russian, 3 with L1 Polish and the remaining 5 with L1 Bulgarian, Croatian, Ukrainian, French and Portuguese) and a constant variable of L2 German, acquired before their target L3 English. Their proficiency in German was assessed through the results of the DSH (German language exam), which presupposes an advanced (C1) level of German. They were tested for their English proficiency level by using the Oxford Quick Placement Test (QPT).

A female research student in Linguistics, employed at the university language centre coached the 13 learners. Learners were required to submit a written text production (ca. 300 words), corrected by a native speaker of English, before they could take part in the "language reflection session" with the coach. During the language reflection session, the learner and the tutor discover gaps in the output through interlanguage monitoring and guessing. Thirteen sessions of approx. 30 min each were transcribed, coded and analyzed with the software MaxQda.

Results

The analysis of results shows that L3 learners make use of their prior languages in specific ways and as a result, they have various types of metalinguistic awareness about language(s) structure and functioning.

Awareness about the CLI

Twelve out of thirteen L3 learners displayed awareness about the activation of either their L1 or L2 in L3 production (except learner OC). Five learners reported awareness about simultaneous multiple interferences in L3 English. Regarding the activation of another foreign language in L3 production, only one L3 learner reported activation of her L3 Spanish, learnt simultaneously with English, during L3 English production. Ten L3 learners displayed various types of meta-linguistic awareness about the CLI (except learner PV, MK and OC).

Types of meta-linguistic awareness

When reflecting on their cross-linguistic influences in written English, L3 learners displayed a very high metalinguistic awareness in the form of:

- knowledge and elaboration of grammar rules
- recognition and identification of parts-of-speech, word order structure, (non)existence of articles and word-building rules
- application and awareness of phonemic rules of one, two or all three languages they have at disposal

They were able to contrast their MLA about one language with the functioning of another language of their repertoire.

Explanation for the CLI

L3 learners were able to reflect on the reasons for their CLIs and reported application of L1 or/and of L2 rules subconsciously and when consciously, then as a "confirmation" strategy. Translation from one of the prior languages was also reported to be used as a "solution" strategy, i.e. to fill in certain gaps in L3 knowledge. Another specific translation pattern when writing in L3 which was reported by two learners (both with L1 Russian) is a translation from L1 into L2 and then into L3 subsequently.

Conclusion

In general, the findings show that L3 learners display various types of MLA with the exception of three of the thirteen learners. These three learners did not display any awareness about their CLI. What do these "exceptions" have in common? They all reported a deliberate focus on communication rather than on written language. Hence, one can assume that they are not concerned that much with grammar and accuracy as they are with fluency and lexical richness in speaking. Obviously, they were not enough motivated to reflect on their CLI in written L3 English. We can conclude that the developed and expressed MLA depends on the learners' preferences, goals and foci in the L3 learning.

References

Tanja Angelovska & Angela Hahn. 2012. Written L3 (English): transfer phenomena of L2 (German) lexical and syntactical properties. In Gabrys-Barker, D. (ed.) *Crosslinguistic influences in multilingual language acquisition*. Heidelberg: Springer, pp23-41.

Gessica De Angelis. 2007. *Third or Additional Language Acquisition*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

EuroCom (European Comprehension) project: URL: www.eurocom–frankfurt.de. Accessed 14/3/2011.

Britta Hufeisen & Beate Lindemann (eds). 1998. *Tertiärsprachen. Theorien,*

Modelle, Methoden. Tübingen: Stauffenberg.

Ulrike Jessner. 2008. Teaching third languages: Findings, trends and challenges. In *Language Teaching* 41:1, pp15-56.

Laura Sanchez. 2011. Luisa and Pedrito's dog will the breakfast eat: Interlanguage Transfer and the Role of the Second Language Factor. In DeAngelis & Dewaele (eds) *New Trends in Crosslinguistic Influence and Multilingualism Research*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, pp86-104.

Richard Schmidt. 1993. Awareness and second language acquisition. In *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 13, pp206-226.

Stephan Schmid. 1995. Multilingualer Fremdsprachenunterricht: Ein didaktischer Versuch mit Lernstrategien. In *Multilingua* 15, pp55-90.

Jacqueline Thomas. 1988. The role played by metalinguistic awareness in second- and third-language learning. In *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* 9, pp235-246.

5 Online Language Choice and Identity: The case of 3arabizi, Salafi English, and Arabic

Robert Bianchi
Virginia Commonwealth University in Qatar
rmbianchi@qatar.vcu.edu

Introduction

Discourse analysis of a multilingual, multi-scriptal online forum debate revealed that posters who were critical of the Saudi political and religious authorities had different linguistic practices from posters who were sympathetic to the authorities, reflecting distinct Anti-establishment and Pro-establishment identities respectively. Consider the following three language examples:

Example A

You seem to harbour much hatred for the Hay'ah.
If you really have a complaint and are sincere this is the phone numbers for the ra'ees:...

(Snipe_aac, Pro-establishment poster)

Example B

وصدّقني عندما تعود إلى الأردن وتخرج في المساء وتطلّ برأسك من
النّافذة وتُشاهد شابا وفتاة يزنون في
السيّارة أمام منزلك ستعلم أهميّة الهيئة

(Muslim4, Pro-establishment poster)

Example C

wbeejo begolooly enno elhai2a btenteqed elmashayekh.
6ayyeb...does anyone know the phone number for the hai2a?
I'd like to inform them that 300 billions of gulf money is helping the economy of "their enemy" as they claim.

(Kharoof Tayeh, Anti-establishment poster)

Example A features formal English vocabulary and style, but contains transliterated Arabic items, employing apostrophes and double-vowels for Arabic long vowels. Example B contains only formal Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) items. In contrast, Example C contains English items with Arabic items written in Latin script, featuring 'Arithmographemics' i.e. numbers used as letters e.g. hai2a and smileys e.g. .

Background

This study forms part of a doctoral thesis on code-switching and script-switching between Arabic and English in the web forums found within the English section of Mahjoob.com, a popular Jordan-based website and answered the following research question: "How do forum posters use the available script-code pairings to construct identities?"

Data and Method

The thread entitled "Masha2a allah, Masha2a allah" (lit. 'what God hath willed, what God hath willed') found within the *Religion* forum. The thread was chosen because it met three important criteria: 1) Linguistic heterogeneity: the use of different codes could be contrasted within the thread; 2) Length: patterns could be detected across numerous interactions; and 3) Unconventionality: it exhibited a high proportion of Salafi English, which might indicate strategic code use.

First, the thread was translated into English. Next, Messages 1-75 were selected as a subset for deeper analysis because they focused on a single topic, a debate on moral authority in KSA. Fairclough's notion of linguistically-realized styles or 'characters' was used to investigate messages of the four main posters in terms of the distinct identities they each projected through strategic code use.

Thread Synopsis

Kharoof Tayeh, an Anti-establishment poster, starts the thread by copying an Arabic-language news article from Al-aswaq Al-Arabiya, an Al-Arabiya News Channel website, reporting that GCC governments gave billions of dollars to Western nations shortly after 9/11. In light of this article, Kharoof Tayeh's main question is "why do the Hay'ah (morality police) in Saudi Arabia harass citizens while ignoring anti-Islamic behaviour on the part of the authorities?"

The Anti-establishment Stance

Muslim leaders lose legitimacy when they aid the enemies of Islam or behave in un-Islamic ways, so such leaders should be challenged and removed if necessary. Religious authorities and morality police should admonish the leaders, not just the citizens. The current establishment in Saudi Arabia is pro-Western and corrupt.

The Pro-establishment Stance

According to the Sunnah, there are never any legitimate grounds for rebelling against a Muslim ruler and suggesting that leaders should be

challenged is a sign of heresy. In fact, a tyrannical Muslim leader is sent as a punishment by God and this should urge believers to recommit themselves to Islam and be forbearing toward their wayward leader.

The Four Posters Summarized

Kharoof Tayeh (Anti-Establishment)

Kharoof Tayeh portrays himself as a young Arab male and a disgruntled populist who uses 3arabizi exclusively in the thread. Although he imports a news article written in Arabic, he never composes messages in Arabic himself. He uses smileys and humour extensively.

Snipe_aac (Pro-Establishment)

Snipe_aac portrays himself as a well-versed and serious student and follower of Islam**,** using Salafi English almost exclusively, which indexes the style of the Salafi thinkers and proponents he quotes. His posts show no smileys or humour while his English is formal.

Guillotine (Anti-Establishment)

Like Kharoof Tayeh, he is also disgruntled, but he portrays himself as a well-versed student of Islam, frequently quoting Qur'an and Hadith in Arabic. Guillotine challenges the need to obey corrupt authorities, urging jihad against a 'tyrannical ruler' based on Hadith. He uses Arabic with Muslim4 and Arabic and English with Snipe_aac, but uses 3arabizi with Kharoof Tayeh.

Muslim4 (Pro-Establishment)

Muslim4 portrays himself as a serious student of Islam, quoting Hadith and using only Arabic without smileys or humour. Muslim4 demonstrates knowledge of English but refuses to write in it, copying Snipe_aac's English posting to answer Kharoof Tayeh. However, outside of the thread, notice Muslim4's tongue-in-cheek English-language posting to a question in the *Girls Corner* forum about whether any female posters wear hijab:

> i dont wear hijab

Conclusions

The Pro-establishment posters index learned religious identities through their use of Qur'anic, hadith, and scholarly quotations. They only interpret Islam according to Salafi scholars, with whom they identify. They reject 3arabizi, informal English and smileys, preferring MSA or Salafi English. The Anti-establishment posters index popular identities, using 3arabizi like most other Mahjoobians. They identify with 'the people' and advocate for their rights against the Establishment, daring to interpret Islam on their

own. They use smileys and humour to maintain a relatively intimate style. Thus, ideology and identity are reflected through strategic code choice.

References

Norman Fairclough. 2003. *Analysing Discourse Textual Analysis for Social Research*. Routledge: London and New York.

Stéphane Lacroix. 2004. Between Islamists and Liberals: Saudi Arabia's New "Islamo-Liberal" Reformists. In *Middle East Journal* vol 58 3 Summer 2004, pp345-65.

Mark Sebba. 2007. *Spelling and Society: The Culture and Politics of Orthography around the World*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.

Hsi-Yao Su. 2003. The Multilingual and Multi-Orthographic Taiwan-Based Internet: Creative Uses of Writing Systems on College-Affiliated BBSs. In *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication* vol 9 1 2003. <http://www.ascusc.org/jcmc/vol9/issue1/>.

6 An Analysis of the Washback Effect of TEM-4 on Teaching of English Majors – Taking Beijing Sport University as an Example

Han Bing, Tian Hui & Liu Lirui
Beijing Sport University, China
jess.binghan@qq.com

Introduction

Language testing plays an important role in measuring the effectiveness of foreign language teaching and learning. As a monitoring and evaluation mechanism, it maintains a positively interactive relationship with language teaching, each being indispensable parts in the process of EFL. It's commonly believed that language testing exerts impact on the parties involved, or the so called test stakeholders, including students, teachers and administrators. Applied linguists define such impact or power as the washback effect, either beneficial or harmful (Buck, 1988; Hughes, 1989). Recent years have witnessed a large number of theoretical and empirical studies conducted in this field, and the educational significance of washback effect has been recognized in some large-scale tests, especially high-stake testing, such as the international tests like Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and International English Language Testing (IELTS), or tests conducted in China, like College English Test-Band 4/6 (CET4/6) and the National Matriculation English Test (NMET) in China as well as Test for English Majors (TEM4) under discussion in this paper. The findings indicate that washback effect is far more complex than researchers' previous assumptions.

As one of the largest-scaled foreign language tests, TEM4 has been conducted for over 20 years in China. It serves both as a standardized proficiency test as well as a criterion-referenced test (Zou and Yang, 2006), the purposes of which are to check whether the English-majoring sophomores have fulfilled the requirements of the Teaching Syllabus for English Majors in Institutions of Higher Education (hereinafter "Syllabus") implemented in 1989, and to examine their competence of applying the basic skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. It is designed to test not only students' comprehensive capability to use the language but also their respective language competence. Meanwhile, TEM4 serves as a means to assess the teaching quality among different universities.

Despite the huge volume of research on washback effect over the past decades, few empirical studies and insufficient significant research have been conducted on TEM4, a test with growing importance and participants year by year. Moreover, the complexity of washback effect calls for more thorough studies in relation to TEM4 to probe more about its mechanism and nature, and distinguish its beneficial and harmful effects in this regard.

Research Design

Based on Alderson & Wall's fifteen washback hypotheses (1993) and empirical washback studies, and with the purpose of enhancing the quality of TEM-4 and improving the development of English Major teaching and learning, the paper aims to investigate whether TEM4 exerts washback effect on learning and teaching at the foundation stage of English majors at Beijing Sport University (BSU); what the positive and negative washback effects are and how to enhance the positive effect and hinder the negative one in learning and teaching. The paper involved 125 English-majoring students, teachers and administrators from Foreign Languages Department of Beijing Sport University. Questionnaire surveys and in-depth interviews were employed to collect data, which subsequently were analyzed by means of SPSS.

Data Analysis

Findings from this study indicated TEM-4 produced more positive washback effects than negative ones. From the perspective of teachers, being aware of the exam format, they are able to design the teaching plan according to the requirements of the Syllabus so that the teaching content is clear and targeted. The test results can also be seen as a reflection of the teachers' teaching quality in case some modifications are needed in the future.

With regard to the students, TEM-4 motivates them to study English more diligently, which lays a sound foundation for study at the advanced stage. Besides, TEM-4 checks students' language knowledge and skills, especially listening and reading comprehension, which enables them to develop in an all-round way. Through the test, they are more aware of their strengths and limitations.

As for the university administrators, the TEM-4 pass rate indicates the teaching quality of the university, allowing weaknesses to be located so as to make some improvements in the teaching system. Students' scores can be made a key index in determining the teaching objectives for the next

stage, thus guiding teachers to make some modifications in teaching methods and key points.

However, some discrepancies supported the idea that the washback effect was quite test-oriented and complicated. The teaching-for-test hinders the completion of the teaching tasks in accordance with the teaching curriculum and impedes the positive washback of TEM-4 into full play. Meanwhile, the monotony of the teaching contents during the prep period can easily reduce students' learning interests. For the students, the successful passing of the exam with a certificate turns out to be their only motivation in preparation for TEM-4, which deviates from the fundamental purpose of English study. Next, TEM-4 exerts a certain amount of pressure and anxiety on students, so they are impelled to "learn to test". The failure in the exam will result in the loss of learning interest and a sense of depression. In addition, both teachers and students believe that luck plays a certain part in the passing of the exam, which fails to completely reflect students' language proficiency. For the university authorities, over-emphasizing the importance of TEM-4 leads to a derivation in decision-making thus misguiding the teachers and students. As a result, normal English teaching will be greatly disrupted.

Conclusion

In sum, the paper achieved a breakthrough in carrying out a mixed (quantitative and qualitative) method from the perspective of students, teachers and administrators to investigate washback in the less explored area of Chinese sport universities and institutes, hoping the results could make some contribution to the improvement of English teaching in the sport universities and institutes in China.

References

J C Alderson& D Wall. 1993. Does Washback Exist? In *Applied Linguistics* Vol 14, pp127-129.

G Buck. 1988. Testing Listening Comprehension in Japanese University Entrance Examinations. In *JALT Journal* vol 10, pp12-42.

Editing Group. 2004. *Teaching Syllabus for English Majors in Institutions of Higher Education*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Languages Press.

A Hughes. 1989. *Testing for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Shen Zou & Renmin Yang. 2006. Reexamining Criterion-referenced Tests. In *Computer-assisted Foreign Language Education* vol 111, October 2006, pp21-27.

7 The variability of lexical diversity and its relationship to learning style

Paul Booth
Kingston University
p.booth@kingston.ac.uk

When L2 learners' texts are measured for lexical diversity we tend to find greater diversity with years of instruction. However, at the higher levels of proficiency, this linear relationship can disappear (Jarvis 2002; Read 2005). At higher proficiency levels we tend to find a wide variety of scores, which is difficult to explain. Therefore, instead of examining mean scores, which hide the wide variation, this study concentrates on the variance in learners' lexical performance. In this study learning style is used as way of understanding how variance in lexical diversity could be related to the individual differences in memory and analysis.

Lexical diversity was measured by using Meara and Miralpiex's *D-Tools* (Meara & Miralpeix 2007a). The learners' scores for lexical diversity (*D*) were taken from written texts produced under timed conditions. One group of learners ($n = 60$) wrote a descriptive text based on a cartoon story. The other group ($n = 62$) wrote a text elicited via a discursive type question on the topic of globalisation. Because low proficiency learners' texts tend to be low in lexical diversity, the learners were grouped into low proficiency (IELTS ≤ 5.5, $n = 51$) and high proficiency (IELTS ≥ 6.0, $n = 71$). Skehan's (1998) memory-analysis framework was used to categorise learners according to learning style because it has been shown to illuminate aspects of aptitude variability in L2 proficiency. The learners were tested for learning style using language aptitude tests (LAT) (Meara, Milton, and Lorenzo-Duz, 2001) of LAT B for memory and LAT C for analysis. Based on Meara et al's (2001) normative data, learners were categorised into bottom, middle, and top scores in memory and analysis. The lexical diversity scores were then analysed in relation to learners' performance on the memory and analysis tests. The coefficient of variation (CV) was used to measure the variability of the mean diversity (*D*) scores: the greater the variability, the greater the coefficient. The CV was used to compare the dispersion of scores across the different sub-groups.

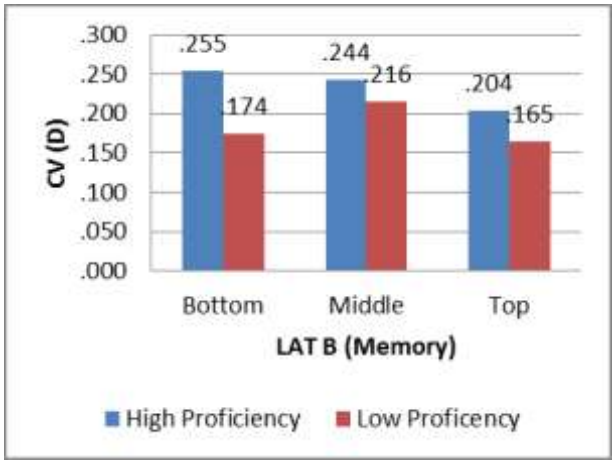


Figure 1: Variability (CV) in lexical diversity (*D*) and memory

In Figure 1, high proficiency learners' texts become more homogenous in diversity as memory scores increase. However, low proficiency learners do not mirror this pattern.

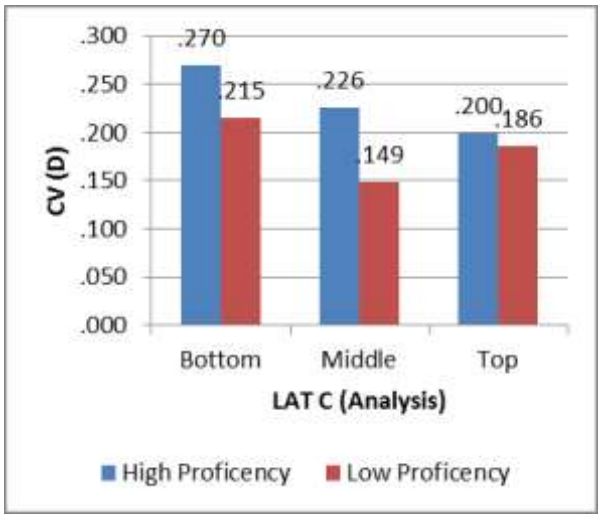


Figure 2: Variability (CV) in lexical diversity (*D*) and analysis

In Figure 2, a more marked pattern in relation to variability and analysis is found when high proficiency learners' diversity scores are calculated. Again, at low proficiency, the pattern is less clear. Levene's test was used to see whether differences in the variance of diversity scores in the analysis sub groups were significant. Levene's test for homogeneity of variances was significant $F(2, 68) = 4.804$, $p < 0.05$. This means that at high proficiency the higher analysis scores, the lesser the variability in lexical diversity. Learners who are particularly able to detect grammatical patterns show less variability than those who are less able in analysis.

What we see here is that lexical diversity scores from the highly analytic learners tend to cluster together. In other words, these learners tend to be more uniform in their recycling of words. It could mean that there is a ceiling effect in lexical diversity, above which greater diversity is not related to greater complexity. Meara and Miralpiex (2007b) argue that grammar words are the most recycled words which influence sentence structure. Sentence structure is related to sentence complexity. Learners who are less prone to grammaticise their language may be more telegraphic in their writing by avoiding certain function words and overusing content words which would increase diversity. On the other hand, they could overuse some function words with more generalised meaning (Ijaz, 1986). This may tell us why there is so much variability in lexical diversity from L2 learners. Over or under recycling of function words would produce more variability which could indicate less complexity in sentences. Kormos and Trebits (2012) hypothesise that greater grammatical sensitivity relates to clausal complexity. In order to create complexity in English, learners would be required to recycle a certain amount of grammar words. Higher grammatical sensitivity seems to encourage a more uniform recycling of vocabulary, including grammar words, which could be related to sentence complexity. The current study highlights a relationship between the variability of lexical diversity, learning style, and proficiency. Simply concentrating on the mean diversity scores glosses over the fact that there is wide variability in learners' lexical performance and that a shift to looking at individual differences is valuable in understanding the messy details in group performances.

References

Helene Ijaz. 1986. Linguistic and cognitive determinants of lexical acquisition in a second language. In *Language Learning* vol 36, 1986, pp401-51.

Scott Jarvis. 2002. Short texts, best-fitting curves and new measures of lexical diversity. In *Language Testing* vol 19 (1), 2002, pp57-84.

Judit Kormos & Anna Trebits. 2012. The role of task complexity, modality, and aptitude in narrative task performance. In *Language Learning* vol 62 (2), 2012, pp439-472.

Paul Meara, James Milton, & Nuria Lorenzo-Duz. 2001. *Language aptitude tests*. Newbury: Express.

Paul Meara & Imma Miralpeix. 2007a. *D_Tools. v2.0*. [Online] http://www.lognostics.co.uk/tools/index.htm.

Paul Meara & Imma Miralpeix. 2007b. *D_Tools: The Manual* [Online] http://www.lognostics.co.uk/tools/index.htm [Accessed 26 October 2007]

Peter Skehan. 1998. *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

John Read. 2005. *Applying lexical statistics to the IELTS speaking test*. In Research Notes 20, 2005, pp12-16.

8 Idea Generation in L1 and FL Writing

Esther Breuer
Cologne University
ebreuer1@uni-koeln.de

English has become the prospective *lingua franca* in the academic community. This means that the language of publication for many members in the academic community is not their native language, which poses an extra cognitive demand on the writers. One method for dealing with this demand is to slow down one's writing processes. However, this method has the disadvantage that thinking-through-writing (Menary, 2007) might work less effectively because creating new knowledge and restructuring the stored knowledge through writing can only work if the writing processes are executed fluently (Galbraith, 1999, 2009).

In order to test whether thinking-through-writing works in both a foreign language (FL) as well as in first language (L1), a study was set up in which then German students of English wrote four academic essays – two in their L1 and two in their FL. One L1 and one FL essay was written after planning by note-taking, the other L1 and FL essays were written after planning by freewriting (Elbow, 1973). These planning conditions were chosen for testing whether the activation of the linguistic structures in freewriting had an enhancing effect on idea generation.

The writing processes were keylogged, i.e. each movement on the keyboard was recorded for the analysis of the fluency of the text production. The final texts were analysed with respect to the number and the quality of the generated ideas. They were hiearchised with a scheme that was based on Taboada and Mann's Rhetorical Structure Theory (2006). Hierarchy one contains theses and arguments – ideas that could stand on their own. Hierarchy two incorporates elaborations, evidence and examples. Hierarchy 3 includes pure rhetorical elements (e.g. "In the following, the results are presented."), and hierarchy 4 contains unrelated ideas or comments on the writing process (e.g. "Freewriting is bullshit. Sorry for this expression" [participant's quote]).

The analysis of productivity in the writing processes showed that both language and planning method had an effect on the different quantitative aspects of the production process. The writers produced more characters in their L1 in both essays, and in both languages more under the freewriting

condition. Additionally, not only were the final texts longer, but the writers also showed a higher interaction with the text in freewriting; they did not only produce, but also deleted more characters. This effect was more pronounced in the L1 than in the FL. Here, the lengths of the phases of uninterrupted writing (=bursts) were also longer than in the FL in the specific conditions (see Figure 1).

	L1N	FLN	L1F	FLF
Characters per burst	13.80	10.66	18.24	14.24

Figure 1 Characters per burst

The results thus demonstrate that the cognitive demands of writing FL academic texts are higher than the demands of writing L1 academic texts. The method of freewriting still had an enhancing effect on productivity and on fluency in both languages – a fact that might have had an effect on idea generation.

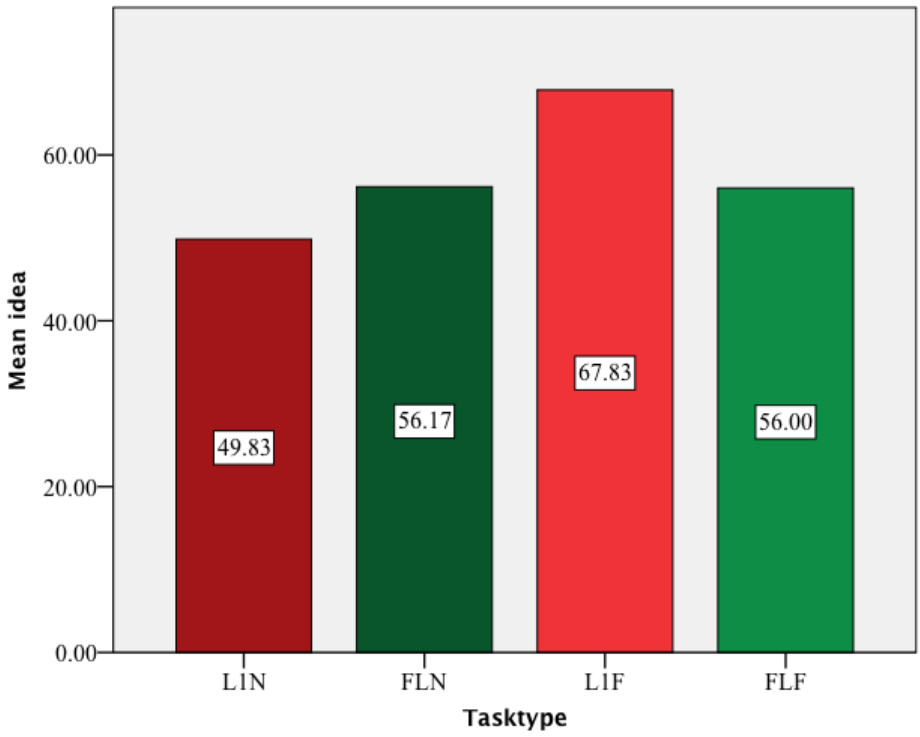


Figure 2. Number of ideas

Indeed, the participants produced more ideas in and after freewriting, but they did so only in their L1 (see Figure 2). In the FL, the number of generated ideas stayed stable, i.e., here no thinking-through-writing took place evidently. This might be the result of a denser L1 phonological-semantic network. At the same time, the lowest number of generated ideas

in the L1 note-taking condition shows that the participants monitored their writing processes differently in L1 and FL. In the L1 notes, the participants often scribbled down only the grand idea, but did not elaborate on it any further; whereas the participants showed a higher tendency to write down all of their ideas in the FL notes. One of the participants, for example, only named the rhetorical elements that have to be provided in an essay ("introduction, body, conclusion"), whereas in the FL notes, another participant wrote more points than in her freewriting plan.

The results in the L1 note-taking essays also hint at a more active monitoring in the writing process. Figure 3 shows that the participants in the L1 note-taking condition were best prepared to write a text that has a good balance between theses/arguments and evidence and examples. In contrast to this, most ideas in the L1F-condition were settled on level 1. As a result, the argument structure was least convincing: one argument or idea after another was listed. In this respect, the note-taking condition was more successful in helping the participants to produce an adequately built academic essay than the freewriting condition in that the participants preferred to elaborate the ideas and to give evidence for them.

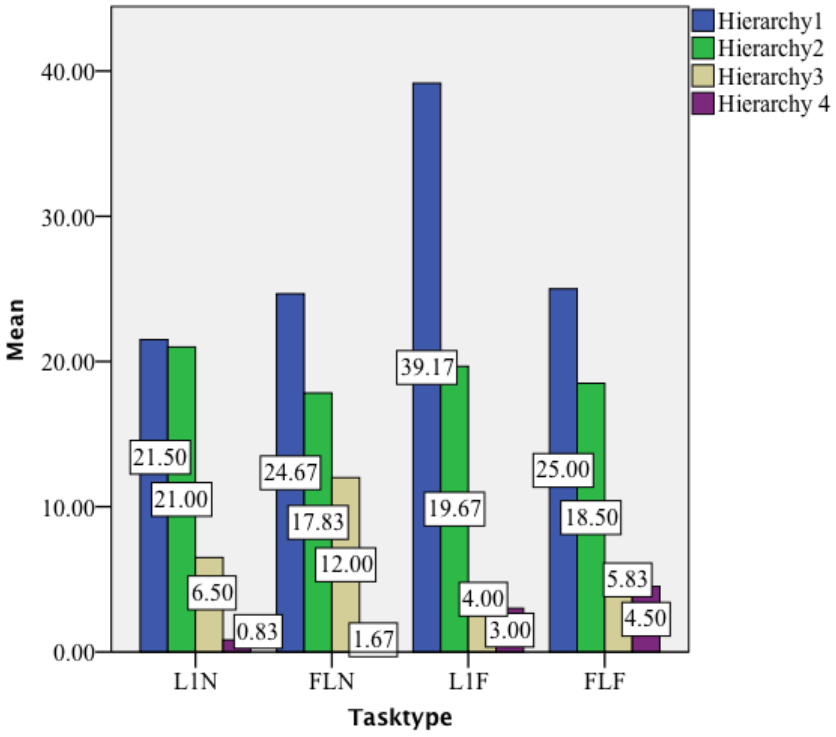


Figure 3 Hierarchy of ideas

In the FL condition, the participants presented a higher amount of rhetorical elements, i.e. textual organizers, that were not content-relevant.

Additionally, here more unrelated ideas were written down – in both the note-taking and the freewriting condition. The participants obviously had to struggle more with the text production in the FL than in the L1.

All in all, the results show that thinking-through-writing works better in the L1 than in the FL, but that it had the negative consequence of 'content-overload' in the freewriting condition, whereas the note-taking condition, in which the amount of ideas was lowest in the L1, led to rhetorically better-structured essays. This was probably the result of the participants' not taking time to evaluate the ideas generated in freewriting. They continued to write the proper essay without any pause or explicit planning. This means that freewriting has enhancing effects, which are contra-productive if the use of the method is not taught and trained.

References

Peter Elbow. 1973. *Writing without Teachers*. New York: Oxford University Press.

David Galbraith. 1999. Writing as a Knowledge-Constituting Process. In Mark Torrance, and David Galbraith (eds), *Knowing What to Write: Conceptual Processes in Text Production*. Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press, pp139-159.

David Galbraith. 2009. Cognitive Models of Writing. In *GFL Journal* 2-3, pp7-22.

Richard Menary. 2007. Writing as thinking. In *Language Sciences* 29, pp621-632.

Maite Taboada & William C Mann. 2006. *Applications of Rhetorical Structure Theory. Discourse Studies* 8 (4), 567–588.

9 The emergence of Applied Linguistics in France - investigated through its scientific Journals (1962-2012)

Danielle Candel
dcandel@linguist.jussieu.fr

Our purpose is to give a historical perspective of the use of Fr. "Linguistique appliquée" ("Applied Linguistics''), as shown through two French journals: what is the scope, what are the subjects to be covered, and what are the new directions?

This study takes us from the creation in 1958, by Quemada, of the "Centre de linguistique appliquée" in Besançon, to 2012, with the Paris meeting for a renewal of the AFLA, "Association française de linguistique appliquée" ("French Association for Applied Linguistics"). Studying how French institutions, like the Academies of Sciences or of Technologies, consider "Applied" Sciences, one finds that, from the XVIIth century, both theory and application are important. For this reason, one expects that Fr. "Linguistique appliquée" should be as important in dictionaries as Fr. "Mathématiques appliquées", but it is not. Although theoretical linguists are in general not interested in practical issues, one observes, by examining dictionary definitions, a recent turn towards them (Linn et al., 2011).

Two French Journals present themselves

Etudes de linguistique appliquée's website (*ELA*, Sept. 4, 2012) explains that "ELA's steady vocation is to publish research, educational, information work intended to promote and expand access to language – cultures. (…) [W]hile retaining its original title, which refers to the discipline to which it was initially linked, it wishes today to anchor and expand its horizon, moving the scope and changing the methods of investigations of the subject matter". A systematic examination indicates seven successive *ELA* models: (1) "Études de linguistique appliquée" ("Studies in Applied Linguistics") (issues 1-6, 1962-1970); (2) the same title but as a "new series" (issues 1-32, 1971-1978); (3) with a geometrical renewed design (issues 33-78, 1979-1990); (4) with the words "Études de linguistique appliquée" almost erased, and the word "didactologie" ("didactology") clearly standing out, between the smaller ones "Revue de" ("journal of") and "des langues-cultures" ("of languages-cultures") (issues 79-104: 1990-1996); (5) finally "éla"

becomes the real title of the frontpage, with "revue de didactologie des langue-cultures" and, in smaller characters, "études de linguistique appliquée" (issues 105-132: 1997-2003); (6) issues 133-156 (2004-2009), named "revue de didactologie des langues-cultures et de lexiculturologie", introduce this new word "lexiculturology", which one finds again in (7) "études de linguistique appliquée revue de didactologie des langues-cultures et de lexiculturologie" (issues 157-, 2010-). The journal, at one point, completely drops its name "applied linguistics", but finally recovers it. No doubt such changes highly depend on the journal editors' policies.

Revue française de linguistique appliquée's website (Sept. 4, 2012) indicates that *RFLA* is "open to all domains of application of linguistics, without any restrictions, in that it aims to be a meeting point for interdisciplinary interaction and confrontation (...) (and) to reflect international research in the field of applied linguistics (...) (it) addresses itself to those whose specialty has some link with language and linguistics, and who are active in various domains of application such as acquisition/learning of language, language disorders or automatic language processing."

Subject fields

Among the frequent subjects covered by *RFLA* are terminology, dictionaries, spoken communication, corpora, information technology, automatic language processing, information extraction, language learning and acquisition, translation. The titles reflect the evolutions of the discipline, mentioning "new trends"/"directions"/"outlooks"/ "models"/"challenges"/"developments" or introducing words like "today" or "perspectives". The journal focuses on relevant issues like lexicography or terminology and new approaches.

In 1979, Galisson explains in *ELA* that Fr. "linguistique appliquée" comes from Engl. "applied linguistics", which means "linguistic applied to the teaching of a second language", but that it gained a larger sense than that prevailing in the American world in 1948. In French, it refers either to didactics or to disciplines like psychology, lexicology or translation. "Didactics" corresponds to "applied linguistics", to methodology for language teaching, based on linguistic principles but also on psychology, pedagogy, etc. Galisson indicates (1987) that "Linguistique Appliquée" no longer describes the didactics it is dealing with. Issue number 79 (the first one of the 4th model, 1990), due to

Galisson, is "*De la linguistique appliquée à la didactologie des langues cultures. Vingt ans de réflexion disciplinaire*" ("From applied linguistics to didactology. Twenty years of disciplinary reflection"). About 22% of the issues are clearly announcing the new field in their titles: "didactique", "didactologie", "didactologue", "interdidaticité". There is a sudden change in 1982, when the item "lexiculture" first appears, followed by "interculturalité" (2002) or "langues-cultures" (2004). As *ELA*'s editors write, there is a periodical need for re-defining or re-naming Applied Linguistics, for explaining its evolution, and for making a historical study of its names.

Conclusions

Changes can be influenced by general trends in the field and by competing positions. Indeed, the influence of the journal editor and the role played by the principal members of the board may be quite strong. In France, the domain called "Linguistique appliquée" changed its definition several times. As a result, it appears that *ELA* might get back to its origin embracing the former fields of "linguistique appliquée", and including other subdomains like Terminology or Lexicography, which are not directly linked to Didactics. Journals are a mirror of science under construction and their editorial policies reflect trends in thescientific community. In the case of Applied Linguistics there is a clear duality appearing in the respective positions of the dipole *ELA* and *RFLA*. The first journal, the oldest one, changed its traditional way, and evolved regularly, a point that the authors continuously discuss. This journal might go back to its initial editorial line, closing the loop, renewing itself and enriching the field of Applied Linguistics. On the other hand, *RFLA* has always claimed a broad scope. The presence of two journals probably serves to stimulate each one of them.

References

Etudes de linguistique appliquée. 1962-. Didier érudition: Paris.

Andrew Linn, Danielle Candel & Jacqueline Léon. 2011. Linguistique appliquée et disciplinarisation. In *HEL*, XXXIII-1.

Danielle Candel. 2011. 'Linguistique appliquée': parcours définitoires et lexicographiques. In *HEL* 2011 XXXIII-1, pp99-115.

Revue française de linguistique appliquée. 1996-. Editions De Werelt: Amsterdam.

10 Test-taker familiarity and speaking test performance: Does it make a difference?

Lucy Chambers[1], Evelina D Galaczi[1] & Sue Gilbert[2]
Cambridge Assessment[1]
Cambridge ESOL Professional Support Leader, Switzerland[2]

It is now widely recognised that the interlocutor is a fundamental facet in face-to-face speaking assessment. A growing body of literature has provided useful insights about the 'interlocutor effect' in individual, paired and group speaking tests, i.e. the influence which interlocutors can exert on the discourse produced and scores received in speaking tests (e.g. Brown & McNamara, 2004 on the effect of gender; Young & Halleck, 1998 on cultural background; Nakatsuhara, 2006; Norton, 2005; Davis, 2009 on proficiency level; Berry, 1993 and Nakatsuhara, 2009 on personality; Iwashita, 1999 and O'Sullivan, 2002 on familiarity). The findings have at times been contradictory, suggesting that it is not possible to establish a direct and predictable effect of interlocutor variables on test performance and outcomes. Considering the potential role of background variables, test providers have a responsibility to investigate such variables, since they have the potential to impact on the fairness of the test. This study aims to contribute to the debate on the interlocutor effect through its focus on the effect of candidate familiarity on paired test performance. It does so by employing a mixed-method approach which draws insights both from quantitative test taker score data and from qualitative data based on candidate interviews.

Methodology

Research questions

- What is the effect of test taker familiarity on the scores awarded in a *Cambridge English: First* paired test?
- What are test-taker perceptions about the effect of familiarity on their performance?

Context of the study

641 candidates taking the *Cambridge English: First* Speaking test in three Cambridge ESOL examination centres in Switzerland – Bern (German L1), Geneva (French L1) and Ticino (Italian L1) – in the 2011 summer session were involved in various stages of the project.

Data collection

629 candidates completed a short questionnaire prior to their tests, which sought to establish whether or not, and how well, candidates knew their speaking test partner. The questionnaire responses were linked to exam score data, allowing for comparisons to be made between the scores of the familiar and non-familiar groups. 30 familiar and 23 non-familiar candidates took part in a feedback session directly after their speaking test. Candidates were interviewed alone, but concurrently with their partner. These sessions were conducted by an interviewer who was not one of the candidate's examiners and were in the main L1 for each centre. The speaking tests of the candidates involved in the feedback sessions were recorded. In addition, approximately one day of tests was audio-recorded at each centre; these contained a mixture of familiar and non-familiar pairs. A discourse analysis of the candidate/candidate interaction will be carried out at a later stage and is beyond the scope of the current study.

Results and Conclusion

1. What is the effect of test taker familiarity on the scores awarded in a Cambridge English: First paired test?

The comparative analysis of the scores awarded to the familiar and non-familiar groups in the Swiss centres of interest indicated small, but not meaningful, differences in overall speaking test performance. Taken as a whole the familiar candidates scored higher on *all papers* than the non-familiar candidates; they also consistently showed a lower standard deviation. The fact that differences were found for all test papers suggests that differences in speaking means between the two groups were likely the result of differences in ability rather than due to the effect of candidate familiarity.

2. What are test-taker perceptions about the effect of familiarity on their performance?

The questionnaire and interview candidate feedback indicated that the Swiss candidates in this study did not perceive familiarity with their partner as affecting their performance. However, the candidates felt very strongly about the effect of the test partner's language ability on their test performance. The issues of the appropriateness of proficiency matching is controlled for in the Cambridge English paired tests, since each exam is targeted at a specific CEFR level. Such fine-tuned targeting of the level of

the exam avoids a significant proficiency mismatch between the paired candidates.

Both the statistical analysis of candidate score data and the qualitative analysis of questionnaire and interview responses have indicated that candidate familiarity plays a minimal role. It is important to remember, however, that this study was done in a European context and so any generalisations about the results need to be supported by data gathered from a range of different cultural settings.

References

Vivien Berry. 1993. Personality characteristics as a potential source of language test bias. In A Huhta, K Sajavaara, & S Takala, (eds), *Language testing: New openings*. Jyvaskyla, Finland: Institute for Educational research. University of Jyvaskyla, pp115-124.

Annie Brown & Tim McNamara. 2004. 'The devil is in the detail': Researching gender issues in language assessment. In *TESOL Quarterly* vol 38 issue 3, pp524-538.

Larry Davis. 2009. The influence of interlocutor proficiency in a paired oral assessment. In *Language Testing* 26(3), pp367-396.

Noriko Iwashita. 1998. The validity of the paired interview format in oral performance assessment. In *Melbourne Papers in Language Testing* vol 5 issue 2, pp51-65.

Fumiyo Nakatsuhara. 2006. The impact of proficiency level on conversational styles in paired speaking tests. In *Cambridge ESOL Research Notes* vol 25, pp15-20.

Fumiyo Nakatsuhara. 2009. Conversational styles in group oral tests: How is the conversation constructed? *Unpublished PhD thesis*, University of Essex.

Julie Norton. 2005. The paired format in the Cambridge speaking tests. In *ELT Journal* vol 59 issue 4, pp287-297.

Barry O'Sullivan. 2002. Learner acquaintanceship and oral proficiency pair-task performance. In *Language Testing* vol 19 issue 3, pp277-295.

Richard Young and Gene Halleck. 1998. 'Let them eat cake!': Or how to avoid losing your head in cross-cultural conversations. In Richard Young & A. He (eds) *Talking and testing: Discourse approaches to the assessment of oral proficiency*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp359-388.

11 A study of formulaic language in Chinese EFL learners writing at university level

Jiaoyue Chen
University of Southampton
jc6e10@soton.ac.uk

Introduction

Formulaic language has been studied from different foci, either extracting lexical bundles based on frequency in large corpora (Biber, 2006; Biber et al, 2004; Cortes, 2002; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b), or identifying formulaic items according to intuitions from individuals. Few studies have provided the link between individuals and their language use, especially in writing.

This poster presents a study that investigates the occurrence of four-word formulaic expressions in the three types of short pieces of writing by Chinese EFL learners and perspectives on their own or peers' language use in terms of formulaic language. The study aims to build up the link between individuals and their formulaic language use, in order to find a new way to research this language phenomenon.

The following research questions lead the research:

- What are the main patterns of formulaic language structures used in Chinese L2 writing?
- What are the functions of these formulaic languages in these writings?
- What are the differences and similarities in terms of structure and function among these three groups' writings in different contexts?
- Where could these formulaic languages come from? Why do learners use formulaic language in their writing?
- What is the attitude of students towards formulaic language in their language learning, especially in writing?

Methods

Participants

28 students (Class A) and 29 students (Class B) were chosen randomly from the first year of the English Department, China University of Geoscience (Jiangcheng College).

Procedures

- Build up the writing sample collections from participants' writing and use AntConc 3.2.3 to extract 4-word formulaic expressions (see table 1).
- Participants were asked to respond to questionnaires and interviews.

Sample Class	Text Category	Context	Text No.	Words No.	4-word bundles
1 A	Job application	Homework/ instruction	27	4042	37
2 A	Business report	Homework/ instruction	28	4106	21
3 B	Argumentative writing	Exam/ timing task	29	6601	45

Table 1: Formulaic expressions by text category and context

Results

Writing sample collections analysis

Based on the structure categories promoted by Cortes (2004) and function types concluded by Hyland (2008), the following table shows distributions (%) of structure and function types in 4-word formulaic expressions extracted from participants writing samples:

Types		Collection 1	Collection 2	Collection 3
Structure types	With VP fragment	54.0%	9.5%	22.2%
	With dependent clause	32.0%	28.6%	33.3%
	With NP/PP	14.0%	61.9%	44.4%
Function types	Referential	8.0%	47.6%	35.6%
	Text organizers	51.0%	23.8%	33.3%
	Stance	41.0%	28.6%	31.1%

Table 2: Writing sample collections analysis

From the analysis, we could see a similar tendency to use formulaic expressions in business reports and argumentative writing, but it was totally different in job application; the distribution of formulaic language is rather dispersed across structure categories, but falls mainly in certain types of function. Also, we find that the use of formulaic expressions differs in an exam context and in homework writing samples.

Students' perspective towards formulaic language

According to participants' responses to our survey, most language is learned in the classroom, mainly based on textbooks and teachers' instruction, and few people mentioned that they learned outside of the classroom. Interestingly, among these, most formulaic items were learned through speaking.

Most students paid attention to this language phenomenon, and most of them relied on teachers' explicit instructions to learn this formulaic language, and feel little confidence in using it correctly. Furthermore, half of the students feel worried about the repetitive use of formulaic expressions in their own writing or among peers' writing.

Further discussion

There are some problems remaining in a broader context in second language leaning, as further studied in my PhD project. First, the formulaic language has been fitted in a broader context, especially with regard to EFL learning. We observe that use of formulaic language is individual, regardless of whether used by native or non-native speakers; it is along a continuum (Wary, 2008), with fixed item and open slots at two ends; it is dynamic within learner usage, changeable according to time or writing context.

Second, as to the learning of formulaic language, we could see in the study above that although most learners rely on teacher instruction, some students used different learning strategies with special attention to this language phenomenon. So is there any relation between the strategies and the usage of formulaic language? And is there any relation between writing proficiency and formulaic language use?

References

Douglas Biber. 2006. *University language: A corpus-based study of spoken and written registers*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Douglas Biber, Susan Conrad & Viviana Cortes. 2004. If you look at …: Lexical bundles in university teaching and textbooks. In *Applied Linguistics*, 25(3),

pp371-405.

Viviana Cortes. 2002. Lexical Bundles in Freshman Composition. In Susan M Fitzmaurice, Randi Reppen, Douglas Biber (eds), *Using Corpora to Explore Linguistic Variation*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp131–145.

Viviana Cortes. 2004. Lexical Bundles in published and student disciplinary writing: examples from history and biology. In *English for Special Purposes* Vol 23, Issue 4, 2004, pp397-423.

Ken Hyland. 2008a. Academic cluster: Text patterning in published and postgraduate writing. In *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 18(1), pp41-62.

Ken Hyland. 2008b. As can be seen: Lexical bundles and disciplinary variation. In *English for Specific Purposes* 27, pp4-21.

Alison Wray. 2012. *Handout in 5th FLaRN conference*. Tilburg University, Tilburg, Netherlands.

12 The role of context in forming young learners' attitudes and motivation to learning French

Louise Courtney
University of Southampton

Despite the wealth of valuable information that has been generated by motivation studies to date, there are certain limitations in the approaches that have been commonly used. Quantitative approaches assume homogeneity within a given group, and mask the variation between learners within the same, and different, contexts. Although 'learning context' has recently become increasingly explicit in motivation studies it is generally considered as a background variable which influences motivation, but is not controlled by the learner. Stemming from the recent 'social turn' (Block, 2003) in SLA research there has been an upsurge in demand for a greater focus on 'context' in research (Ushioda, 2011). In this view, context is conceptualised 'as a dynamic construct and as a dual psychological and social phenomenon' (Volet, 2001:78). Many researchers have reported that the learning situation has a strong effect on learner motivation (Lamb, 2007; Bartram, 2010). Coleman et al. (2007) investigated learner motivation across learning contexts. They found that motivation did decrease over time from Year 7-9, although motivation did remain higher in Specialist Languages Colleges, which was attributed to the attitudes of the management team. Mainstream and MFL specific transition studies have shown that learner motivation decreases through the first year of secondary school (Galton et al., 2000; Burstall, 1974; Low et al., 1993, 1995).

The research question is: what is the role of context in forming young learners' attitudes and motivation to learning French in primary school and over transition? The study followed 26 children who were from two primary schools into one secondary school for 12 months. The data collection points were at the end of Y6 (aged 10-11, 130 hours of French), at the end of first term Y7 (aged 11-12, 165 hours) and at the end of Y7 (210 hours). Previous studies have shown that motivation changes over time not just in intensity (amount) but also qualitatively, and therefore a mixed method approach was used which permitted a more holistic view of learner motivation. Therefore, questionnaires and focus group interviews were used.

The results of the questionnaires showed that overall the Y6 learners were positively motivated to learn French. However, when displaying the results by school it is clear that the scores in School A were higher across all motivation scales, highlighting that there was a strong effect for school for both the learning situation and self-confidence scales. The learners in School B had a more negative response to the learning situation which in turn appeared to impact on their feelings of self-confidence (see figure 1). The results of the focus group interviews showed that in School A, overall the learners described an enjoyable learning environment and the teaching style of the French teacher was believed to positively aid the learning of French. The fun and interactive nature of the French lessons meant they compared favourably to other lessons on the curriculum. In contrast, learners in School B considered the lessons to be 'boring', 'difficult' and the games 'repetitive'.

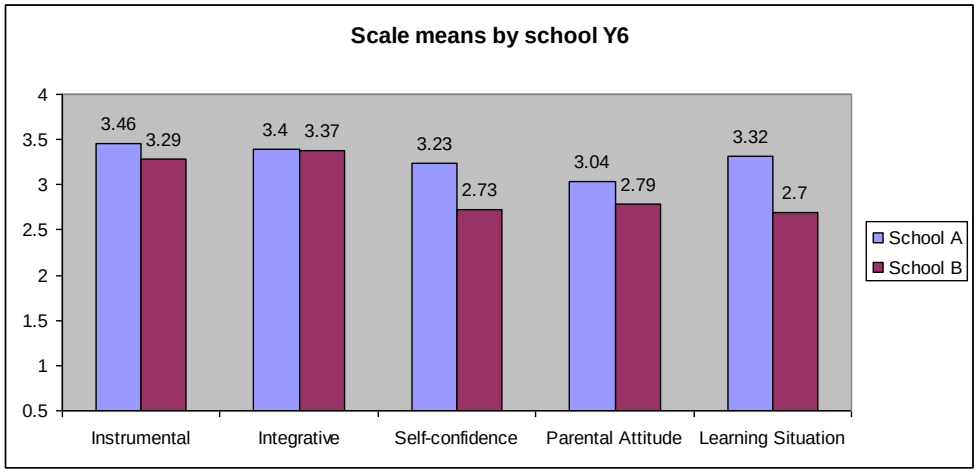


Figure 1: Scale means by school year 6

Looking now to how learner motivation developed across transition, one can see from Figure 2 that there was a dip in mean scores from Round 1 to Round 2 followed by a slight recovery at the end of Y7. The difference between the rounds is only significant between rounds 1 and 2 and the pattern of motivation does not replicate that of other general transition studies that have found a consistent drop in motivation over Y7 (Galton et al., 2000).

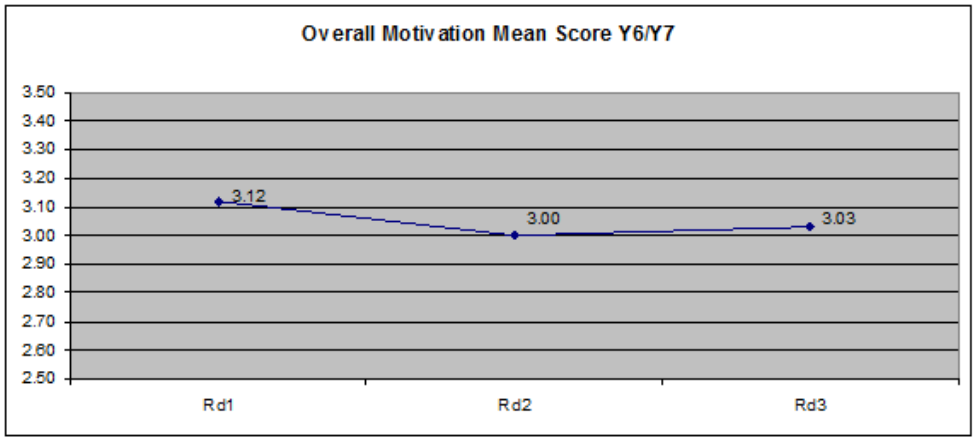


Figure 2: Overall motivation mean scores, year 6 to year 7

However, if we look at the individual scales making up this score it is evident that there were two areas responsible for the dip observed in round 2: learning situation and instrumental motivation. Previous research in instructed settings has shown that the learning situation exerts a strong influence on learner motivation and this is the area which displays the greatest fluctuation in scores and constitutes the only statistically significant difference in scores over the 3 rounds. A closer examination of the data shows that the drop in the learning situation scores was due to the learners from School A (see figure 3). It appears that the change in context for learners from School A had a dramatic effect on their motivation scores.

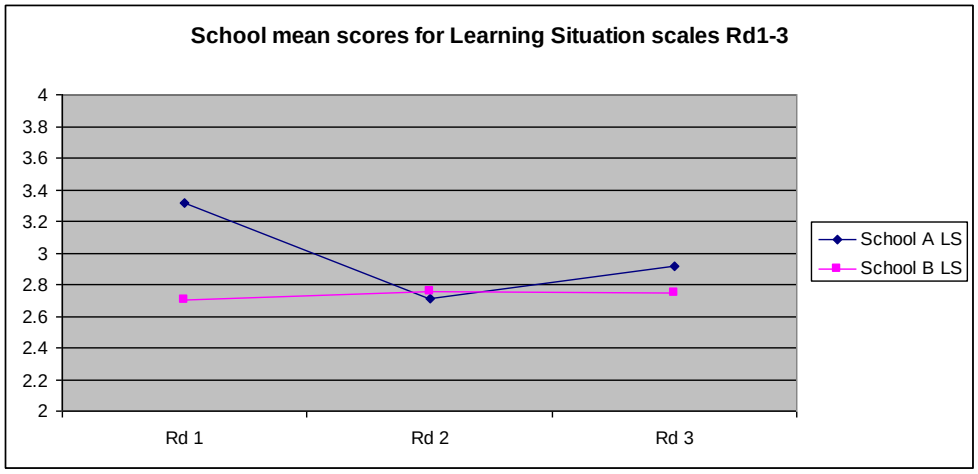


Figure 3: School mean scores for learning situation scales Rd1-3

However, even though the learning situation scores for school A dipped significantly, the high levels of self-confidence generated in primary school were, on the whole, maintained (see figure 4). The data also shows that there was a greater convergence across all five motivation scales in round 3, which suggests that the secondary experience is exerting a greater

influence and the learners from School A may well be readjusting expectations to more realistic levels.

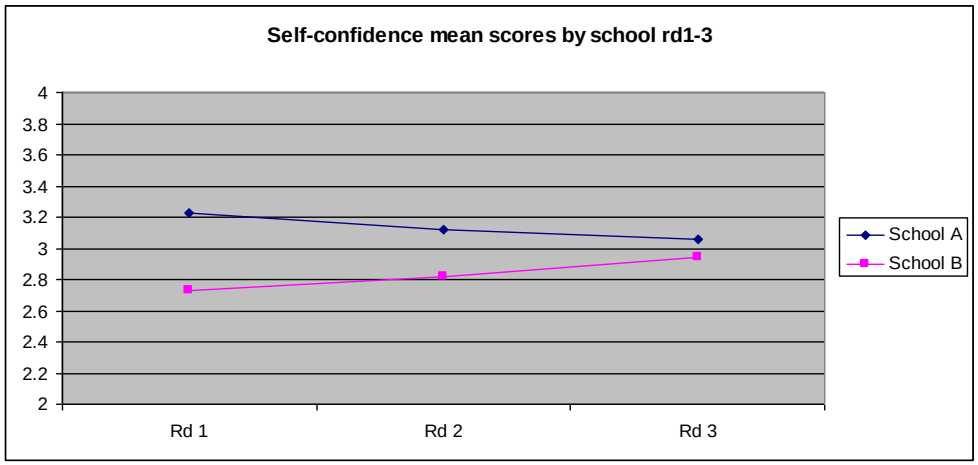


Figure 4: Self-confidence mean scores by school, Rd1-3

To conclude, early language learning, in general, fostered positive attitudes. However, whilst displaying some consistent and stable motivational traits over the 12 months, attitudes to the classroom and levels of self-confidence differed significantly across different contexts. There is evidence of increasing disaffection related to the learning situation throughout Y7 which had a negative impact upon the learners' attitudes to language learning.

References

David Block. 2003. *The Social Turn in Second Language Acquisition*. Edinburgh University Press Edinburgh.

Ema Ushioda. 2011. Context Matters: A brief commentary on the papers by Housen *et al*. and Muñoz. In *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching* 44(1), pp118-121.

Brendan Bartram. 2010. *Attitudes to Modern Foreign Language Learning: Insights from Comparative Education*. Continuum: London, UK.

Jim Coleman, A Galaczi, and L Astruc. 2007. Motivation of UK school pupils towards foreign languages: a large-scale survey at Key Stage 3. In *Language Learning Journal*, 35(2) pp245-280.

Maurice Galton, I Morrison & T Pell. 2000. Transfer and transition in English schools: reviewing the evidence. In *International Journal of Educational Research* 33(4), pp341-363.

Martin Lamb. 2007. The impact of school on EFL learning motivation: an Indonesian case study. In *TESOL Quarterly* 41(4), pp757-780.

L Low, S Brown, R Johnstone and A Pirrie. 1995. *Foreign Languages in Primary Schools: Evaluation of the Scottish Pilot Projects 1993-1995 Final Report*. Scottish CILT Publication.

13 Students' rights in higher education classrooms: An exploration of tutors' beliefs and their turn-taking practices

Doris Dippold
University of Surrey
d.dippold@surrey.ac.uk

Introduction

The goal of classroom interaction is two-fold: to foster learning, but also to establish tutor-student relationships that are conducive for learning. When they select the strategies for managing classroom interaction, tutors are guided by their beliefs about good pedagogic practice (Farrell & Tan Kiat Tun 2007; Friedman, 2009). These beliefs, in turn, are influenced by tutors' socialisation into disciplinary or culturally derived practices.

This study investigates how tutors' beliefs about students' rights in the classroom translate into the turn-taking practices they employ for managing classroom interactions. It does so by comparing the beliefs and practices of HE tutors in three different disciplines.

Framework and method

This study draws on Walsh's (2011) concept of classroom interactional competence (CIC), which is defined as "teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning" (165). The components of CIC are a) the use of language that meets the pedagogic goals of the class and that is appropriate for the learners; b) the facilitation of interactional space, enabling students to participate in discussions, contribute to class contributions and receive feedback; and c) the use of strategies that shape learner contributions.

This investigation is based on three classes from a UK higher education institution: a lecture in Translation studies, an EAP Oral Skills class, and an Accounting tutorial. After classes were recorded, tutors were retrospectively interviewed.

The main research question is:

> How are basic student rights – to fair treatment / involvement and to learning / understanding – enacted in tutors' classroom practices for managing turn-taking and classroom interaction?

The research question emerged because all tutors emphasized students' rights to fair treatment and to being involved in the class and stressed that students have a right to be given the best chance to understand the subjects covered and, consequently, to learn.

The analysis focuses on variations of the 'classic' I-R-F (teacher Initiation – student Response – teacher Feedback/Follow-up) structure (Sinclair & Coultard 1975; Cazden, 2001) and student self-selection of turns vs. selection by the tutor.

Analysis and Results

Accounting

T: Don't try to hide. (utterance) It's you too now. So number four, which of the summarised balance sheet is correct? (long pause) You have a one in four chance.
Sn: Three (utterance).
T: That's wrong. (An embarrassed laugh). My friend next to her?

The discourse in this classroom follows mostly the classic IRF-structure, moving from topic initiation through to student response to immediate tutor feedback, which is often direct and unmitigated. Moreover, self-selection of turns is restricted: in most cases, the tutor picks a student to answer; students are not addressed by name, but with a generic form of address ('my friend'). These strategies reflect the tutor's reported aim of involving all students in the classroom, in particular those who would not usually volunteer to answer.

Oral English

T: [Right so so group work isn't really what you're doing. What about you?
S5: Eh the groupwork for my case is doing the experimental is doing the experiment. So I am a beginner. I have to eh do a group work with the [(utterance)
T: [Right eh, ok. [So so
S5: [do some group work.
T: RIGHT and and do you any d-d- did I am I scenario sound familiar to you or not?
S5: Em (pause) eh (pause) not sure not too familiar because my group my group there's no British they're from Russia.
T: There's British British people. Right. Okay.

S5: Right. There is Russia and em eh other countries.

In this classroom, the three-turn structure observed in the Accounting class gives way to a multi-turn structure with follow-up rather than feedback-turns, encouraging students to elicit examples or elaborate on their answers. However, students do not self-select their turns; they are called by name to speak.

Nominating specific students to speak, and controlling the classroom interaction happens again in the service of fostering a fair environment and ensuring students' understanding. In the interview, the tutor emphasized that students' accents may cause misunderstanding, and that allowing them to self-select may increase noise and therefore decrease students' ability to follow the class. For the same reason, the tutor was keen to draw in shy students to contribute to the class by nominating them to speak.

Translation

S7: Because I was thinking that at least me that it's my opinion. If I would see too many em hypothesis, I would start thinking that maybe the expectations of that person could have affected the interpretation of the results. I wouldn't like it, but it doesn't mean that a person has not made some hypothesis. But I wouldn't like to see them clearly stated, because it would give me the impression that the article was not very objective.

S8 pre-judgment ...

T: Erm… comments? Reactions?

S10: I think you somehow have to rely on the author being honest. (utterance) I don't think you can just feel that they are biased from the beginning. You have to give them credit. Because they have researched (utterance). So, I don't think that when they clearly state the hypothesis will somehow affect the conclusions or make them more subjective.

S6: Having a hypothesis and designing your research so as to prove it are two different things and also it's quite striking that some authors clearly admit we wanted to do this, but we found out that we couldn't do this at all, but we found something else, so em...

T: I think M. what you are saying that you must trust the researcher's integrity. Yes? You agree?

This example from the Translation classroom exemplifies an instance in which, after tutor initiation and student response, the tutor does not immediately follow up with either feedback or follow-up. Instead, she encourages the students to self-select, leading to exchanges between the students without tutor intervention.

However, the tutor does at times close down a student's interactional space in the interest of the learning experiences of and fairness far all (as in the end of this example). At the same time, she uses her turn to guide the student's contribution in a particular direction.

Discussion and Conclusion

As the examples from these three classrooms show, the central goals of fairness/involvement in the class and fostering learning and understanding, although shared by the tutors, are implemented in very different ways. The reasons for these differences reflect the learning aims of the three groups – factual accuracy in the accounting tutorial, fostering interaction and comprehension skills in the EAP class, engagement in topical discussion in the translation studies seminar – as well as disciplinary traditions of interaction.

Nevertheless, the variation also illustrates that both tutors and students may profit from training, allowing them to improve their range of interactional strategies, or to better adapt to the genuine cultural diversity they may encounter in the higher education classroom. This is particularly important for international students who take modules in English for Academic purposes – such as the class featured in example 2 – but then have to leave this safe environment to encounter the different disciplinary cultures of the subject areas they study. Crucially though, such training needs to include a distinct focus on reflection on interactional practices in order to foster students' adaptability to different contexts.

References

T Farrell & S Tan Kiat Kun. 2007. Language policy, language teachers' beliefs, and classroom practices. In *Applied Linguistics* 29, pp381-403.

D Friedman. 2009. Speaking correctly: Error correction as a language socialization practice in a Ukranian classroom. In *Applied Linguistics* 31, pp346-367.

J Sinclair & M Coulthard. 1975. *Towards an analysis of discourse: the English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.

S Walsh. 2011. *Exploring classroom discourse: language in action*. London: Routledge.

14 The Story of Young Jae: JSL learning experience of a Korean School Age Sojourner in Tokyo

Sachiyo Fujita-Round
International Christian University, Institute for Educational Research and Service
fujitaround@gmail.com

Introduction

Every bilingual child is a unique entity. This study describes the process of becoming Korean/Japanese bilingual through interaction, with an ethnographic case study of Young Jae (henceforth, YJ). YJ, a Korean school age sojourner in Shinjuku, stayed in Japan between 2002 and 2007, precisely 5 years and 24 days. When he arrived in Japan, he was nearly 7 years old and by the end of his stay, he was 12 years old. Thus, he spent most of his elementary school education in Japan.

For this paper, I will focus on the first two years of his experience in the Japanese state elementary school where he was given special instruction of Japanese as a second language (henceforth, JSL) . Based on my data, transcripts and fieldnotes made in the JSL classroom, YJ's second language development will be analysed.

In my linguistic data, I compared two stages: the early stage and later stage. In each stage, YJ provides many examples of language learning and the comparison shows his clear shift from a 'foreign' language to 'second' language. In addition, YJ also showed the influence of Japanese sub-cultural genres and gendered genres in his speech throughout his JSL learning.

My main finding is the micro analysis of language use of YJ in his experience of JSL class in the school. However, looking at the interaction of YJ in the JSL classroom in the state school of Shinjuku, it was clear that there was "the fact that the main dimensions of day-to-day life in bilingual and multilingual classrooms—curriculum organization, pedagogy and social relations—are crucially shaped by social and political conditions beyond the classroom" (Martin-Jones, 1995, p. 108) and it became necessary to understand its social and historical linkage to the present multicultural Shinjuku as well.

Becoming Korean/Japanese bilingual through interaction

To be able to investigate YJ's language use and development holistically, I conducted extensive fieldwork in the three settings: school, home and community between 2003 and 2010. For the present study, I will focus on the school setting of my fieldwork between 2003 and 2005.

Data collection

From the very beginning, the position of the researcher is fixed as participant observer. My data consists of fieldnotes, transcripts from audio/video recording and interview. Between the school year 2002 and 2005, I made 51 school visits and observed YJ 34 times. The main visits in the school year of 2003 and 2004 were consistently once a week.

Linguistic analysis: Early stage and Later stage

In the ethnographic fieldwork data of the JSL classroom for two years, I particularly focus on YJ's process of language development, comparing the early and later stage: the early stage is between 4th and 8th months arrival in Japan and the later stage is YJ's 18th to 29th months. The stages in the timeline is shown on the following page..

The analysis is made based on the data below:

In the Early stage,

Data 1 0;02;21(0 year; two months; 21 days)

"Chess", "Two-two", "First, stone, Jankenpon, and try again"

Data 2 0;03;25(0 year; three months; 25 days)

"Strawberry delicious", "Today fun (Korean + Japanese)"

In the Later stage,

Data 3 1;05;04(1 year; five months; 4 days)

"Ummmm, Ummmmmm, what is the word?"

"Dog. …What? What are you doing?"

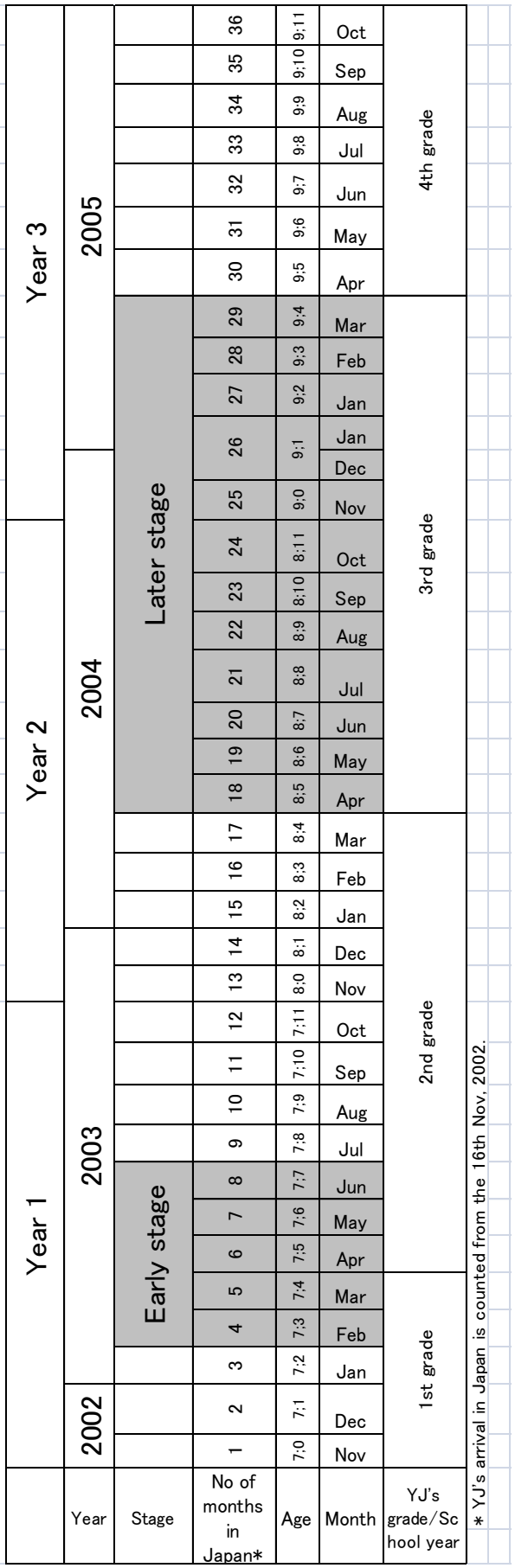
Data 4 2;02;09(2 years; 2 months; 9 days)

"So that, I will go. ・・・. Do it"

Cultural genres: 'Ore(I)' & 'Washi(I)',

'Oni(ogre鬼)'& 'Onii(brother).

Figure 1. Early and later stage in Timeline



The analysis is summarized: in the early stage, 1) more syntactical and grammatical development (i.e., one-word and noun and pronoun dominant), 2) shift from JFL and JSL, 3) upcoming code-switching, 4) meta-knowledge of loan words, 5) understanding of context attached with language; in the later stage, 1) sociolinguistic competence (i.e., variety of genres for a child of his age, 2) bilingual competence (i.e., sophisticated code-switching), 3) language learner competence (i.e., self-monitoring and self-correction) and 4) influence of pop culture/sub-culture.

In the case of YJ, he had already acquired his first language, and he had a language resource available for use. This makes YJ's language development qualitatively different from the first language acquisition. With my linguistic data, this may indicate the possibility of socio-cultural knowledge transfer. In the later stage, together with the various aspects of linguistic competence, he shows the influence of Japanese sub-cultural genres and gendered genres in his speech. This embedded cultural knowledge in his Japanese clearly indicates the degree of his integration in the mainstream culture.

Conclusion and implications

This study hinges upon the nature of becoming bilingual (a learning issue) and also the nature of language contact (a sociolinguistic issue). However, the limitation of this study is that this is a case study. The process of YJ's language learning cannot offer the general language learning patterns of bilingual children.

Yet, as this rich ethnographic case study shows, YJ as a bilingual individual acquired 'language' through personal and social interaction. His experience of learning language touches many axes of linguistic and social reality. Such is the hybridity of language contact, of becoming bilingual.

References

Sachiyo Fujita-Round. 2010. Seikatsukuukan wo utsushidasu tagengokeikan [Projecting multilingual space for living in the multilingual landscape]. In Y Watanabe (ed.), *Shinjuku no nyukamaakankokujin no raifu hisutorii kirokushuu no sakusei [Collections of life stories of newcomer Korean people in Shinjuku]*, Interim Report for Toyota Research Foundation (D09-R-0422), pp22-30.

Sachiyo Fujita-Round 2013. The Language Development of a JSL Schoolchild: analyzing the linguistic ethnography of Young Jae, a Korean/Japanese bilingual. In *Educational Studies* vol 55 31 March 2013.

John Christopher Maher. 2005. Metroethnicity, language and the principle of Cool. In *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* vol 25(Spring), pp3-102.

Marilyn Martin-Jones. 1995. Code-switching in the classroom: two decades of

research. In L Milroy & P.Muysken (eds). *One Speaker, Two Languages*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK, pp90-111.

15 'I don't want to talk about the bullshit': Foreigner talk and the Quest for Authenticity

Shuang Gao
National University of Singapore/King's College London
shuang.s.gao@gmail.com

Introduction

Yangshuo has during the last decade become 'the biggest English Corner in China', a popular place for Chinese people to improve their spoken English. What characterizes this 'English Corner' is the assumed rare opportunity of talking with foreigners, as advocated by one local language school below:

> Yangshuo boasts to be the largest English corner in China. There are large numbers of foreigners and more than 500 are now living here. The college has been making full use of this ideal linguistic environment ever since its establishment. Our teaching is guided by a nice teaching philosophy combining theory and practice. We encourage students to practice what they learn in the classroom with foreigners from all over the world, anytime, anywhere. The progress can be very obvious.

This study examines this phenomenon of practicing English with foreigners, focusing on how and why talking to foreigners has become an increasingly popular way of learning English in China. To do this, I examine the metadiscourses of talking to foreigners in both academic and folk language learning theories, and trace a historical process of valorization, or enregisterment (Agha, 2003), to find out how a once distinct register 'foreigner talk' (Ferguson 1971; 1975; henceforth FT) has become enregistered as a favorable learning strategy through a process of 'functional reanalysis' (Agha, 2004: 30).

Yangshuo and the English market in China

Since the late 1990s, 'English educational tourism' started to gain momentum as an important part of Yangshuo's tourism industry (for details, see Gao, 2012a; Gao, 2012b). This new form of tourism is based on a folk linguistic theory – the FACES theory. Wu, private entrepreneur and initiator of English educational tourism, explained that this method 'ignores

grammatical concepts like tense and others completely, and starts straightaway from having conversations with foreigners … Face means lian, mianzi. …we should not care so much about mianzi – just open your mouth even if you could make mistakes'. This valorization of talking to foreigners, as I will show, happens against a national backdrop wherein communicative competence in English becomes an increasingly important part of the human capital in post-socialist China.

One prominent change in recent English language teaching in China is the specification of 'communicative competence in English' as the main objective of English teaching in a series of national English syllabuses issued in 1992, 1993 and 1996 (Hu, 2005: 10-11). This new emphasis actually responds to China's rapid economic growth since the 1990s as it further integrates with the global economy where English serves as the main lingua franca. In this context, talking to foreigners as one increasingly popular way of improving English has gained momentum. This particular method, however, not only has its metadiscourse in folk theory, but also, as I will show, has its historical metadicourses in academic discussions through which CLT, a method based on an implicit language ideology of nativism, becomes 'pedagogic guidelines and principles which assume a degree of stability, transparency and certainty' (Leung, 2005: 125).

Foreigner talk and talking to foreigners

Ferguson proposed and defined FT as a simplified register based on his findings that English FT, the English language used by native to non-native English speakers, is characterized by certain prosodic, phonological, lexical and grammatical features aimed at simplifying the language. While Ferguson's original concern was to seek out a general theory of simplicity and simplification (Ferguson, 1971; 1975), as Ferguson himself noted ten years later, FT seems to have been most actively explored in the field of SLA (Ferguson, 1981: 13-14).

In fact, encouraged by research in first language acquisition where the use of baby talk is found to facilitate language acquisition, researchers started to turn their attention to whether there exists similar favorable linguistic environment for SLA (Hatch, 1983; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991; Wesche, 1994). FT thus was taken as an entry point into the problem, and interactions between native speakers and non-native speakers (henceforth NS-NNS interaction) became a line of research actively pursued to find out what specific language features are shown in NS-NNS interaction and how that could possibly facilitate language learning.

There are mainly three influential academic theories/arguments through which NS-NNS interaction is constructed as a potentially favorable learning strategy, including Comprehensible Input, Interaction Hypothesis, and Communicative language teaching. The earliest and most influential advocate of FT research in SLA should be Evelyn Hatch. Her argument is based on the presupposition that 'language learning evolves *out of* learning how to carry out conversations' (Hatch, 1978: 40, italics original, as cited in Long, 1996: 445). Stephen Krashen in his famous theory 'comprehensible input' proposed that one important source of comprehensible input is FT, because 'such input [simplified input] is not only highly useful, but it is possibly essential' Krashen (1981: 10), and one of his most quoted arguments is 'in the real world, conversations with sympathetic native speakers who are willing to help the acquirer understand are very helpful'. And in the 'Interaction Hypothesis' in SLA, Michel Long proposed that 'the modified interaction found in conversations between native speakers and non-native speakers is the sine qua non of second language acquisition' (Varonis and Gass, 1985: 71; Long, 1996).

Conclusion

This practice of engaging conversation with foreigners, as I have shown, has its metadiscourses in both academic and folk language learning theories. Through these metadiscourses, FT, a simplified register, acquires its pedagogical value as a favorable language learning method, and this 'new system of enactable values' (Agha, 2004:30) responds to the maximization of human capital through English communication skills in the Chinese context.

Acknowledgements

Conference attendance was financially supported by the National University of Singapore through the Ministry of Education Academic Research Fund in Singapore.

References

Asif Agha. 2003. The social life of cultural value. In *Language and Communication* 23/3–4, pp231-273.

Asif Agha. 2004. Registers of language. In Alessandro Duranti (ed.) *A Companion to Linguistic Anthropology*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Pub., pp23-45.

Charles A Ferguson. 1971. Absence of copula and the notion of simplicity: A Study of Normal Speech, Baby Talk, Foreigner Talk and Pidgins. In D Hymes (ed.), *Pidginization and Creolization of Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University

Press, pp277-292.

Charles A Ferguson. 1975. Toward a characterization of English foreigner talk. In *Anthropological Linguistics* 17, pp1-14.

Charles A Ferguson. 1981. Foreigner talk as the name of a simplified register. In *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* 28, pp9-18.

Shuang Gao. 2012a.Commodification of place, consumption of identity: The sociolinguistic construction of a 'global village' in rural China. In *Journal of Sociolinguistics* 16/3, pp336-357.

Shuang Gao. 2012b. The biggest English corner in China. In *English Today* 28/3, pp34-39.

Evelyn Hatch. 1983. Simplified input and second language acquisition. In Roger W Andersen (ed.), *Pidginization and creolization as language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, pp64-88.

Guangwei Hu. 2005. English language education in China: Policies, progress and problems. In *Language Policy* 4, pp5-24.

S D Krashen. 1981. *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford; New York: Pergamon Press.

Diane Larsen-Freeman & Michael H. Long. 1991. *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. London; New York: Longman.

Constant Leung. 2005. Convivial communication: Recontextualizing communicative competence. In *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 15/2, pp119-144.

Michael Long. 1996. The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In Ritchie and Bhatia (eds.) *Handbook of second language acquisition*. pp413-468.

E M Varonis & S Gass. 1985. Non-native/non-native conversations: A model for negotiation of meaning. In *Applied Linguistics* 6/1, pp71-90.

M B Wesche. 1994. Input and interaction in second language acquisition. In Gallaway and Richards (eds.) *Input and interaction in language acquisition*, pp219-249.

16 Black College Students: Their Motivation and Anxiety Levels Regarding Foreign Language Acquisition

Nicholas Gatlin
University of Texas at Austin
nick.gatlin@austin.utexas.edu

Abstract
The present study explores the differences in motivation and anxiety levels among Black collegiate students (n=571) who attend Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) and Predominantly White Institutions (PWI). Two survey instruments were used to examine the differences based on campus environment. Findings indicated that there were differences in both motivation and anxiety levels across the four universities, indicating significance among the factors of motivation, and anxiety.

Introduction
Black Americans have the lowest number of students enrolled in foreign language programs (Moore, 2005). One factor that may be attributed to this phenomenon is the current programs are not attractive to them, thus their performance levels are at the bare minimum, which allows them to meet the minimum standards. Another factor that may be the cause of the decline in interest of foreign language learning may be the emphasis on the value of learning a foreign language in the 21st century.

Moore noted that a career in the field of foreign language learningfor Blacks does not have the same monetary value as one of business and law; therefore, the likelihood of pursuing a foreign language is low. Davis and Markham (1992) stand by the notion that Black American students do in fact enjoy learning languages; the problem arises in the pedagogical delivery the students receive, thus creating frustration and lack of motivation to consider the pursuit.

Motivation and Anxiety
Motivation is used often to describe what gets people going, keeps them going, and what helps them finish going**.** It plays a critical role in education when assessing the performance of students. Deci and Ryan (1985) conceptualized the term motivation around the concept of Self-Determination. Self-Determination Theory is centered around the three psychological needs that tend to motivate the self to initiate motivated

behavior, and are essential to one's well-being: competence, autonomy, and relatedness.

Vallerand et al. (1993) conceptualized the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) as a way to assess Self-Determination Theory through measuring intrinsic, extrinsic, and a-motivation across various student populations. The AMS has been used to examine students across varying grade levels; however, it has never been used to examine Black college students and motivation for acquiring a foreign language.

Foreign language educators have become more interested in how anxiety affects the language learning process. While anxiety is not only common in the language learning process, it has the ability to produce and retain new language. Anxiety is one of the primary predicators of language acquisition, thus yielding a negative affect on one's achievement in foreign language acquisition. Horwitz et al. (1986) constructed the notion of foreign language anxiety under three premises: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. These three premises are not the total sum of foreign language anxiety, hence strong causes as to what makes language learners anxious. They created the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), and while it has been used to explore language learner anxiety levels across various language learner groups, it has never been used to address the anxiety levels of Black American foreign language learners.

Methodology and Data Analysis

571 students across four universities[3] were given the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) and the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The AMS was modified such that the survey items addressed Black Americans and their motivations for learning a foreign language. An EFA was conducted on the AMS to determine whether the modified scale reflected that of the original AMS.

The EFA yielded three factors with 68% variance explained in the AMS: Long Term Intrinsic Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS); Long Term Extrinsic Performance-Driven (LTEPD); and Short Term Extrinsic Minimal Investment (STEMI). The 4X1 ANOVA conducted indicated that the most significant differences fell under the factor, STEMI, indicating that there were significant differences between motivation levels with

[3] The Four Participant universities: The University of Texas-Austin (PWI, n=123)), The Ohio State University (PWI, n=130), Howard University (HBCU, n=161), and Florida A&M University (HBCU, n=157).

HBCUs and PWIs; the other 2 factors, LTIDS and LTEPD, were not significant.

Concerning anxiety level, the two groups were close in mean (m (HBCU) = 105, m (PWI) = 103), and there were no significant differences in the two groups overall [F (1, 570) = 2.403, p=1)]. Further ANOVA analyses showed that there was a significant interaction between Factors LTEPD and STEMI with respect to anxiety, noting that Howard University had significant levels with both the University of Texas and Ohio State at p<. 001 respectively. Thus, the most significant levels of anxiety were lower in HBCU students than those at a PWI.

Future Research Directions

The present study provides preliminary data to the areas of motivation and anxiety in foreign language education. The analysis does show overall differences in the two variables. Despite the two variables interacting, there remains the question, "what steps can be taken to create the optimal learning experience for Blacks in the foreign language classroom where both levels can coexist with one another?" Perhaps one way to raise and lower both the motivation and anxiety levels, respectively, is to introduce culturally relevant teaching to the foreign language curriculum. The study yields future research to examine the individual stories of Black collegiate students and their personal experiences of acquiring a foreign language.

References

J J Davis and P Markham. 1991. Student Attitudes towards Foreign Language Study at Historically and Predominantly Black Institutions. In *Foreign Language Annals* vol 24, pp227-237.

E Deci & R Ryan. 1985. *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior*. New York: Pentium Press.

E K Horwitz, M B Horwitz, & J Cope. 1986. Foreign language classroom anxiety. In *The Modern Language Journa*l vol70, pp125- 132.

Z Moore. 2005. African-Americans' Opinions about Foreign Language Study: An Exploratory Study Low Enrollments at the College level. In *Foreign Language Annals* vol 38 (2), pp191-200.

R Vallerand & L Pelletier. 1992. The Academic motivation scale: A measure of intrinsic, extrinsic, and a-motivation in education," In *Educational and Psychological Measurement* vol 52, pp1003-1017.

17 The Contribution of Lexical Access and Working Memory to Reading and Incidental Vocabulary Learning in FL

Feifei Han
The University of Sydney
feifei.han@sydney.edu.au

Introduction

Reading involves the coordination of multiple levels of sub-component processes, including lower-level and higher-level processes (Grabe, 2009). Theoretical models of reading place different emphases on the roles of lower-level processing and higher-level processing in reading comprehension. On the one hand, some researchers stress the importance of efficiency of lower-level processing, suggesting that inefficiency in word processing inhibits higher-level reading comprehension processes, such as uses of reading strategies and text comprehension (e.g. Perfetti & Hart, 2001). Specifically in relation to lexical inferencing, it has been claimed that the use of lexical inferencing strategies and incidental vocabulary learning can also be inhibited by inefficient word processing skills (Haynes & Carr, 1990; Pulido, 2007). In the present study, this hypothesis is referred to as the inhibition hypothesis. On the other hand, other researchers emphasize the role of strategic processing in reading comprehension, maintaining that, as long as readers have sufficient time to carry out the reading task, inefficiency in lower-level processing does not normally hinder reading comprehension, as readers are able to use strategies to compensate for processing and/or language problems (e.g. Walczyk, 2000). Extending this notion, it is possible that readers' use of lexical inferencing strategies and incidental vocabulary learning are not influenced when they read without time constraints imposed on them. In the present study, this hypothesis is referred to as the compensation hypothesis.

The present study investigates whether time pressure influences the role of lower-level processing to FL reading comprehension and incidental vocabulary with Chinese EFL learners.

The study asks two research questions:

- To what extent does lower-level processing (i.e. LA and WM) relate to reading comprehension in a. untimed and b. timed FL reading?

- To what extent does lower-level processing (i.e. LA and WM) relate to incidental vocabulary learning in a. untimed and b. timed FL reading?

Participants

The study was conducted in a university in China with 404 Chinese undergraduates.

Instruments

Lexical access test

The computerized LA test required learners to decide as quickly as possible whether a pair of words were synonyms or antonyms (60 pairs).

Working memory test

A modified computerized Operation Span Task (Unsworth, Heitz, Schrock & Engle, 2005) was used to measure WM (40 items).

Reading comprehension test

Reading comprehension was measured through four expository texts.

Data analysis

Pearson product moment correlation analyses and regression analyses were used for data analysis.

Results and discussion

Results for research question 1

The correlation analyses showed that there was no significant correlation between students' LA and reading comprehension in untimed reading conditions (r=.-09, p=.07), whereas a small and negative relationship was found between LA and reading comprehension in timed reading (r=-.22, p<.01). This means that readers who were slower to access meanings of English words tended to achieve poorly in timed FL reading.

Secondly, WM was shown to correlate positively with students' reading comprehension in both untimed (r=.11, p<.05) and timed reading conditions (r=.20, p<.01), and both the values of correlation were small. The magnitude of correlation between WM and comprehension in untimed reading was smaller than that between WM and comprehension in timed reading. This means that students who had larger WM were more likely to be associated with better reading comprehension in both reading

conditions. But WM had a stronger association with comprehension in timed reading than in untimed reading.

Results for research question 2

In untimed conditions, LA was found to be negatively and significantly associated with the meaning measure for incidental vocabulary learning (r=.-25, p<.01). In timed conditions, LA was significantly and negatively correlated with meaning measure for incidental vocabulary learning (r=.-18, p<.01). The negative correlation between LA and the meaning measure means that readers who were slower to access meanings of English words tended to be associated with poorer performance on the meaning measure for incidental vocabulary learning through reading in both reading conditions. The magnitude of correlation between LA and the meaning measure in untimed condition was slightly larger than that in timed condition.

For the relationship between WM and the meaning measure, it was found that WM had a significant and positive relationship with incidental vocabulary learning of meaning (r=.13, p<.05) in untimed conditions; and the value of correlation coefficient was small. In timed reading conditions, the correlation between WM and meaning measure for incidental vocabulary learning did not reach significance (r=.05, p=.36). The positive correlation between WM and meaning measure in untimed reading suggests that readers having a large WM tended to achieve better in meaning measure for incidental vocabulary learning when no time pressure was imposed on them. However, readers with a large WM seemed not to be associated with performance on the meaning measure for incidental vocabulary learning when they read under time pressure.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the results do not seem to support either inhibition or compensation hypotheses fully.

References

William Grabe. 2009. *Reading in a Second Language: moving from theory to practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Margot Haynes & Thomas H Carr. 1990. Writing system background and second language reading: A component skills analysis of English reading by native speaker-readers of Chinese. In T H & B A Levy (eds), *Reading and Its Development: Component Skills Approaches*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press, pp375-421.

Charles A Perfetti & Lesley Hart. 2001. The lexical bases of comprehension skill. In

D Gorfien (ed.), *On the Consequences of Meaning Selection*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association, pp67 - 86.

Diana Pulido. 2007. The effects of topic familiarity and passage sight vocabulary on L2 lexical inferencing and retention through reading. In *Applied Linguistics* vol 28, pp66-86.

Nash Unsworth, Richard P Heitz, Joseph C Schrock & Randall W Engle. 2005. An automated version of the operation span task. In *Behavior Research Methods* vol 37, pp498-505.

Jeffery J Walczyk. 2000. The interplay between automatic and control process in reading. In *Reading Research Quarterly* vol 35, pp554-556.

18 How the Profiles of Words and Sentences Affect Contextualized Vocabulary Learning: Validation Study for Webb (2007)

Yusuke Hasegawa
Graduate School, University of Tsukuba
s1230046@u.tsukuba.ac.jp

Introduction

It is widely agreed that vocabulary in a foreign language should be learnt in context. Major reasons for this are that context tells learners how to use new words and that contextualized learning is necessary for the development of the mental lexicon (Jiang, 2000). However, many studies have shown that contextualized learning is not very efficient in terms of the number of words students can memorize in a particular timeframe. One of the most influential studies in this regard is Webb (2007), which examines the effect of glossed context on vocabulary learning. Webb reported that there were no significant differences overall between decontextualized word-pair learning and contextualized learning in a glossed sentence. However, the results were influenced by the types of target words used. Another study of Webb's (2008) showed that context quality might affect vocabulary gain. Therefore, to further investigate the effect of contextualized learning, profiles of both target words and contexts should be taken into account.

Purpose

The current study examines how the profiles of learning materials affect contextualized vocabulary learning. Target words and sentential contexts were adapted from Webb (2008) and analysed in terms of four variables: (a) part of speech (POS) of the word, (b) context imageability as a conceptual variable, (c) ease of pronunciation of the word, and (d) the number of words in the context, as a variable related to easy reading. In particular, this study was interested in examining whether or not L2 learners are sensitive to the context features, (b) and (d). Given Webb's (2007) result, it appears that L2 learners likely do not utilize context when L1 translations are appropriately provided. One may suppose that these learners are not very sensitive to the kind of context given. However, Webb's study focused on post-learning performance independent of context; the results would likely change if learners' knowledge was measured using contextualized tests such as gap-filling tasks. In other

words, it is possible that learners would be seen to be sensitive toward context type when the post-test was context dependent.

Method

Before the main experiment, a norming study was conducted as follows. A total of 46 Japanese university students read Webb's (2008) 50 contexts and rated the ease of imaging the situation described in each one on a seven-point Likert-type scale (see Hasegawa, 2012). The 10 most and least imageable contexts were then used in the main experiment. Each context included an arbitrary, plausible English pseudoword with a gloss (e.g. *denent*, which meant "to remember"). Among the 10 words, 6 were nouns and the remainder, verbs. In addition, another pilot study was conducted with another 29 university students, who rated the ease of pronunciation of these words.

In the main study, a total of 42 Japanese university students (ages 18–22) were provided with a list containing five "more imageable" and five "less imageable" contexts for the 10 target words. The participants were then asked to learn the underlined, glossed target words in five minutes. After the learning phase, they were given two types of cued recall tests: Test A, with a new context, and Test B, with the same context as in the learning phase. The scores on these context-dependent post-tests were statistically analysed.

Results

First, to analyse word-type effects, a POS (nouns vs. verbs) × Pronunciation (easy vs. difficult) × Test (new vs. same) ANOVA was conducted using the test scores. The results showed that nouns were significantly easier to learn than verbs, as Ellis and Beaton (1993) have suggested. This result was not surprising; however, it was found that the word-type effect appears even in a post-test by context, where the memory of context might be a stronger factor (Hasegawa, 2012). On the other hand, the Pronunciation effect was not significant; this insignificance validates the fact that Webb's materials were under good control in terms of ease of pronunciation.

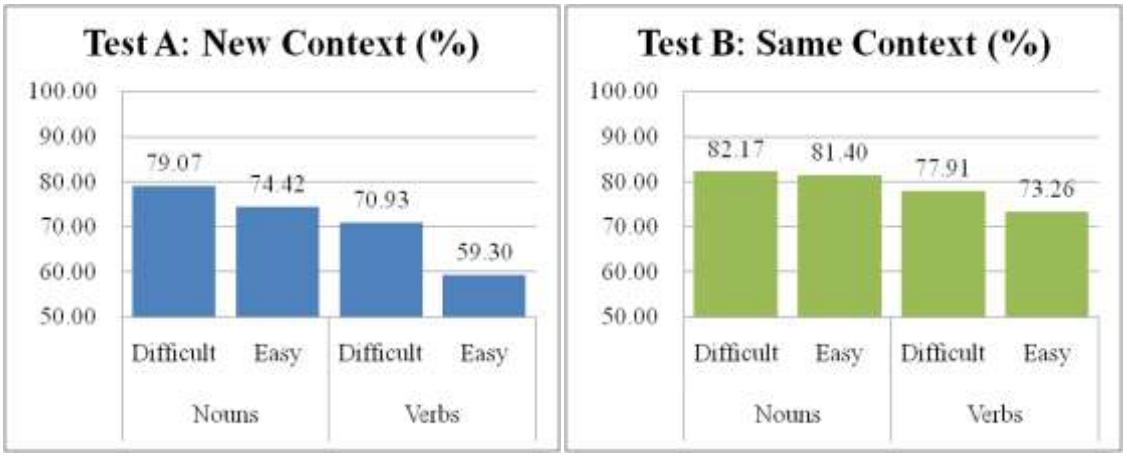


Figure 1: POS (nouns v. verbs) × Pronunciation (easy v. difficult) × Test (new v. same)

Second, to analyse context-type effects, an Imageability (more vs. less) × Length (shorter vs. longer) × Test (new vs. same) ANOVA was conducted. The results showed a significant interaction between Imageability and Length; post-hoc analysis with Bonferroni correction indicated that (a) the simple main effect of Imageablity was significant in shorter but not in longer contexts and (b) the simple main effect of Length was significant in more imageable but not in less imageable contexts. A clear finding was that L2 learners were actually sensitive to context type to some extent. Significantly, sentence length was important only when the context contained a rich image. That is, if the context only conveyed abstract information (with less imageability), learners could not take advantage of context shortness.

Figure 2: Imageability (more v. less) × Length (shorter v. longer) × Test (new v. same)

Conclusion

When contextualized learning of vocabulary is examined by the use of context-dependent tasks, researchers should consider not only word type but also what kind of context is given. L2 learners are actually sensitive to context features, even in a situation where the learners can use translations in their L1. This result strongly suggests that we must not ignore learners' sensitivity to context, which has tended not to be considered in previous studies. In terms of pedagogical implications, it was found that effective learning might be more likely to occur when a simple and imageable context is provided.

References

Nick C Ellis & Alan Beaton. 1993.Psycholinguistic Determinants of Foreign Language Vocabulary Learning. In *Language Learning* vol 43, pp559-617.

Yusuke Hasegawa. 2012. Incidental Vocabulary Learning and Memory of Context: interaction between informativeness and imageability. In *Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan* vol 23, pp201-216.

Nan Jiang. 2000. Lexical Representation and Development in a Second Language. In *Applied Linguistics* vol 21, pp47-77.

Stuart Webb. 2007. Learning Word Pairs and Glossed Sentences: the effects of a single context on vocabulary knowledge. In *Language Teaching Research* vol 11, pp63-81.

Stuart Webb. 2008. The Effects of Context on Incidental Vocabulary Learning. In *Reading in a Foreign Language* vol 20, pp232-245.

19 Role and Significance of Urdu: The Lingua Franca of Pakistan

Najma Husain
University of Southampton, UK
najma.husain@aku.edu

Introduction

This paper is part of an ongoing study which investigates the roles of both English and Urdu in Pakistan. In view of the title, the paper will discuss areas mostly related to Urdu.

Lingua Francas

Lingua Francas have existed in different periods of history and most significant of all today is English-ELF (Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011). A lingua franca is a language used habitually by people whose mother tongues are different to facilitate communication between them (UNESCO, 1953). Earliest lingua franca having essentially hybrid and plurilinguistic composition originated between the 15th and the 19th century from an Italian dialect, containing elements of Spanish, French, Portuguese, Arabic, Turkish, Greek and Persian (Knapp and Meierkord, 2002).

Lingua Franca Urdu

Urdu is also plurilinguistic, containing elements of Turkish, Persian, Arabic and Sanskrit. Hindi and Urdu are similar spoken languages with different scripts. Urdu is written in Perso-Arabic and Hindi in Devanagri script. Urdu is widely spoken among South Asian diaspora spread all over the world (Rahman, 2011). In the UK, Urdu is the only Indic language offered at the new AS level in England and Wales (Reynolds & Verma, 2007).

Urdu - National Language/Lingua Franca of Pakistan

After the partition of the Indian sub-continent, Pakistan came into existence in 1947. It was created in two separate wings: East and West Pakistan. East Pakistan seceded into a new state of Bangladesh in 1971. In the Indian sub-continent Urdu was associated with the Muslim identity. The geographical location of Pakistan had Muslim majority; therefore Urdu, in 1947, was declared the national language though it's not an indigenous language of any of its provinces but became a link language for them. Mother tongue speakers of Urdu are only 7.4% of the total population of Pakistan (Rahman, 2011; Shackle, 2007). Urdu speaking Muslims mostly migrated to Karachi, Pakistan.

Provinces of Pakistan

Sindh - capital: Karachi - main languages Urdu and Sindhi.
Punjab -capital: Lahore - main language Punjabi.
Baluchistan - capital: Quetta - main language Balochi.
Khyber Pakhtun-Khwa (KPK) - capital: Peshawar - main language Pushto (until 2010 KPK was called the North West Frontier Province-NWFP).
In addition 55 other indigenous languages/dialects are spoken in different parts of Pakistan (Rahman, 2010).

Education in Pakistan

The two mediums of education: English and Urdu/vernacular have created two classes of people –the former more privileged/empowered equipped with the most recent technology getting the best education at par with international standards; the latter not equipped to get the best jobs in the country or become part of the elites (Mustafa 2011; Rahman 2010).

Urdu/English Controversy

Those hailing from Urdu/vernacular medium backgrounds make frantic efforts to acquire English, believing this will assist in the upward mobility in society, help them get better jobs, create better opportunities for them and minimize social discrimination (Mustafa, 2011). Studies of Mansoor (2005) and Mahboob (2003) establish preference for English over Urdu. Dr. Jamil Jalbi, a great Urdu enthusiast and key note speaker at "Future of Urdu in Pakistan" conference felt Pakistani Leadership was neglecting Urdu, granting English the first language status in Pakistan following the colonial precedence which is very damaging for the new generation. Besides this, the civil bureaucracy and armed forces in Pakistan have invested heavily in English medium system of education for the sustenance of their power and elitism in the country (Rahman, 2010; Shackle, 2007).

If the status quo continues, this could lead to language shift - and the loss and destruction of a language is the destruction of a rooted identity, intimacy, family and community (Fishman, 1991).

Research findings

Some of the issues arising from the status quo are:

- Influence, power/prestige of English in the main domains of the country.
- Preference for English medium education over Urdu/vernacular medium.

To find answers for the status quo, I conducted semi-structured interviews of stakeholders comprising Urdu/English scholars, policy makers, heads of higher education institutions, chief executives of workplace organizations, and heads of NGOs in Pakistan. These stakeholders feel the situation has become very complex and does not have a very simplistic answer. However, they believe, solutions lie in the root cause of the problems; if those are addressed first then perhaps the scenario may change to minimize the language divide and the social discrimination in the country. The way forward most of them recommended was to change the educational scenario in Pakistan by introducing a uniform/quality education system which would provide equal opportunity for everyone. Making such education accessible to the entire nation may help upgrade the literacy rate of the country. A sound language policy is also needed to be instituted – unless this end was addressed, they felt, the status quo may not change. The complete picture will come to light when the actual participants at the receiving end share their views and comments which is Phase II of this ongoing research.

References

Ahmar Mahboob. 2003. *The Future of English in Pakistan*. Strengthening Participatory Organization: Islamabad, Pakistan.

Alessia Cogo & Martin Dewey. 2012. *Analysing English as a Lingua Franca: a corpus-driven investigation*. Continuum: London, UK.

Barbara Seidlhofer. 2011. *Understanding English as a Lingua Franca*. Oxford University Press: Oxford, UK.

Christopher Shackle. 2007.Pakistan. In *Language and National Identity in Asia*. Oxford University Press: New York, USA.

Joshua A Fishman.1991.*Reversing Language Shift: theoretical and empirical foundations of assistance to threatened Languages*. Multilingual Matters: Clevedon, UK.

Karlfried Knapp & Christine Meierkord. 2002. *Lingua Franca Communication*. Peter Lang: Frankfurt, Germany.

Mike Reynolds & Mahendra Verma. 2007. Indic Languages. In .*Language in the British Isles 2007*, Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.

Sabiha Mansoor. 2005. *Language Planning in Higher Education: a case study of Pakistan*. Oxford University Press: Karachi, Pakistan

Tariq Rahman. 2011. *From Hindi to Urdu: a social and political history*. Oxford University Press: Karachi, Pakistan.

Tariq Rahman. 2010. Language Policy, Identity, and Religion: aspects of the civilization of the Muslims of Pakistan and North India (2nded.). *National Institute of Pakistan Studies*, Quaid-e-Azam University: Islamabad, Pakistan

UNESCO. 1953. *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education*. UNESCO: Paris, France.

Zubeida Mustafa. 2011. *Tyranny of Language in Education: the problem and its*

solution. Usha Publishing International: Karachi, Pakistan

20 Can Learners Self-assess Their Speaking Ability Accurately?

Hana Ibberson
University of Essex

Introduction

Whether learners are able to assess their own language abilities has been a debatable issue among researchers over the past decades, considering the issue of whether self-assessment (SA) is a valid and reliable supplement to traditional assessment. Studies on the validity of learners' SA show somewhat contradictory results (e.g. see Janssen-van Dieten, 1989; Jafapur, 1991 for discrepancies in SA *vs* Falchikov & Boud, 1989 and Chen, 2008 for SA as a reliable measurement) mainly due to variation in what skills were tested, what kinds of SA instruments were used and whether training was provided or absent in the use of the SA instruments if required.

Following a period of rater-training, this study attempted to determine whether learners were able to self-assess their own speaking ability by using two modified CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Language) scales.

Methodology

The study was conducted on adult learners of English and teachers in the UK who participated in the research project (October 2010-July 2011), aiming at investigating whether learners' SA according to the two CEFR scales can be valid measurements of speaking ability and exploring the validity of the scales related to learners' SA. The first scale was *SA checklist*: the SA grid/scale in Table 2 of the CEFR (CoE 2001, 26-27) was modified and used for learners' SA by simply checking what communicative activities (as each statement describes) they could do in order to know where they were in relation to the CEFR levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2) since each statement is in the form of an 'I can do' statement. The second was *4QAOSLU*: the modified qualitative aspects of spoken language use in Table 3 (ibid., 28) was used for a (monologue) speaking assessment. Four cohorts of learners of English (N=25) at the University of Essex were voluntarily recruited at different times during the project (the first cohort was recruited on purpose for the pilot study). Each cohort attended the rater-training workshop in the first week of a total project cycle of five or six weeks of SA. When the workshop was over, all learners produced 2-3 minute talks on given topics which were video-

recorded, then they self-assessed them and compared their (level) ratings with the teachers' every week over the four sessions. All data (learners' ratings using the *SA checklist*, learners' and teachers' ratings using *4QAOSLU* over the four sessions) was collected throughout the project for five consecutive weeks. However, the final session was counted as real SA data for analysis after three rounds of SA practice.

Results

The ratings of the learners (N=19) according to *4QAOSLU* (along with the *SA checklist*) over the four sessions in the main study (January-July, 2011) were analysed to compare their ratings with the teachers'. Table1 is the percentage agreement on identical ratings of the learners and the teachers (percentage sums each week were obtained from the cross tabulations).

Week of the cycle	**2nd week**	**3rd week**	**4th week**	**5th week**
Learners with T1	58	63.2	73.7	73.7
Learners with T2	36.9	63.2	63.1	57.9
T1 with T2	52.7	68.5	89.4	84.2
SA checklist for speaking with learners' ratings using 4QAOSLU	52.7	-	-	42.2
SA checklist for speaking with T1's ratings using 4QAOSLU	68.4	-	-	42.1

(T: Teacher)

Table1 % agreement on identical ratings of learners and teachers using 4QAOSLU/SA checklist

The percentage agreement between the learners' and the teachers' ratings is low (58% and 36.9% respectively) at week two. It is improved by week four and shows the same rate of agreement (73.7%) at week five when it is compared with a competent teacher (T1). In the fifth week, the percentage agreement is reasonably good (73.7%) although it is just a bit lower than the agreement (84.2%) between the teachers' ratings, showing that the teachers' reliability in measuring learners' speaking ability after training/practice reached an acceptable level such as 80% (or .8 on a 0-1 scale). In contrast, a low percentage agreement (42.2%) between the ratings

of the learners on the *SA checklist* and on *4QAOSLU* is obtained at week five.

Discussion

The result of the ratings between the learners and T1 obtained reasonably good agreement (73.7%). Most learners were able to assess their own performance realistically as Haughton and Dickinson (1989) claims, since their assessments did not differ by more than one level from those of the teachers. The study shows that *4QAOSLU* was a valid measurement of speaking ability but not the *SA checklist*. Furthermore, the result of the learners' SA using the *SA checklist* shows that lower level learners overestimated and higher level learners underestimated which matched the finding in other studies (e.g. Blanche & Merino 1989; Patri 2002).

There was a change in the accuracy of learners' SA as well as a change in the teachers' ratings of learners' speaking ability over the four SA sessions. It is encouraging to see these results because not only learners and teachers improved the reliability after training/practice during the course of the training programme but also they support many researchers' argument (e.g. Bachman & Palmer, 1996, Patri, 2002 and Chen, 2008) who agree assessors should have a clear understanding of marking criteria to increase reliability and objectivity in speaking assessment.

Conclusion

The study attempted to explore the validity of learners' SA of their own speaking ability according to the CEFR scales with the rater-training if required and the validity of the scales related to learners' SA. The findings suggest that learners can self-assess accurately depending on the scale used, i.e. learners' SA using an immediate retrospective scale (*4QAOSLU*) is more valid than a general retrospective scale (the *SA checklist*) and with an appropriate and sufficient training.

References

L F Bachman & A S Palmer. 1996. *Language testing in practice: designing and developing useful language tests*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

P Blanche & B J Merino. 1989. Self-assessment of foreign-language skills: Implications for teachers and researchers. In *Language Learning* 39(3), pp313-340.

Y-M Chen. 2008. Learning to self-assess oral performance in English: A longitudinal case study. In *Language Teaching Research* 12(2), pp235-262.

Council of Europe (CoE). 2001. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University

Press.

N Falchikov & D Boud. 1989. Student self-assessment in higher education: a meta-analysis. In *Review of Educational Research* 59(4), pp431-470.

A. Jafapur. 1991. Can naive EFL learners estimate their own proficiency? In *Evaluation and Research in Education* 5(3), pp145-157.

A. Janssen-van Dieten. 1989. The development of a test of Dutch as a second language: the validity of self- assessment by inexperienced subjects. In *Language Testing* 6(1), pp30-46.

G. Haughton & L. Dickinson. 1989. Collaborative assessment by maters' candidates in a tutor based system. In *Language Testing* 5(2), pp233-246.

M. Patri. 2002. The influence of peer feedback on self- and peer-assessment of oral skills. In *Language Testing* 19(2), pp109-131.

21 First of all, I have to say that... - The development of formulaic repertoires in L2 English at B2 and C1 levels: a corpus-driven and cross-linguistic comparison

Sylvia Jaworska[1], Angeliki Salamoura[2]
& Fiona Barker[2]
Queen Mary University of London[1]
University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations[2]

Introduction

Formulaic language seems to be central to successful foreign language learning. However, it also presents a serious stumbling block. Research examining formulaic sequences in L2 English has demonstrated that learners tend to underuse or misuse native-like expressions and have, overall, a much smaller repertoire of collocations (De Cock 1998; Granger 1998; Laufer & Waldman 2011).

Despite the considerable interest in formulaicity and SLA, there are still a number of issues that merit further investigation. Most studies to date have focused on advanced learners and genres, mainly academic essays. Little is known about the development of formulaic sequences at lower proficiency levels and in genres other than academic language; the exception is a study by Vidaković & Barker (2010). Moreover, far too little attention has been paid to the influence of L1 on formulaicity.

The aim of this study is to examine the frequency and functions of 4-word sequences produced by learners of different L1s: German, Polish and Greek and at two proficiency levels B2 and C1. The main research questions this study seeks to address are:

RQ1: Are there any distributional and functional differences in formulaicity depending on the learners' L1?
RQ2: Can any distributional and functional differences be detected at the two proficiency levels?

Data and Methodology

Our analysis followed a distributional, frequency-based approach. The data under investigation includes written responses (mostly letters) to the *Cambridge English: First*, also known as *First Certificate in English*

(FCE). Table 1 shows the size of the corpus, including the number of tokens for each level.

Learner's L1	Tokens	Types	C1 level (tokens)	B2 level (tokens)
Polish	15,930	2,531	3,888	8,127
German	12,481	2,083	7,387	4,699
Greek	10,967	1,759	2,782	6,236
Total	**39,378**	**6,373**	**14,057**	**19,062**

Table 1: Size of the corpus

Results

In order to answer RQ1, 4-word sequences were retrieved from three data sets, each representing a different learner group (see Table 2).

L1	Raw Frequency	Normalised Frequency	Types
German	168	13,460.5	43
Polish	388	24,356.6	80
Greek	237	21,610.3	49

Table 2: 4-word combinations and learner's L1

The results suggest that Polish learners produced the highest number and diversity of formulaic sequences followed by the Greek learners. A further examination revealed that there were only 7 types shared across the three L1s. These sequences included combinations typical for the genre *letter* such as 'I look forward to' and two discourse devices 'on the other hand' and 'first of all I'. This indicates that considerable differences exist in the use of formulaic sequences amongst learners of different L1s. Each learner group seems to operate with a different set of word combinations. Table 3 lists the most frequent unique sequences produced by each group.

4-word sequence	Raw Freq.	Norm. Freq.
L1 GERMAN		
the/Museum of Modern Art	4	320
in the middle of	4	320
I have not changed	4	320
would like to do	4	320
to get to know	4	320
Thank you very much/for your letter	4	320

4-word sequence	Raw Freq.	Norm. Freq.
advantages and disadvantages to	3	240
L1 POLISH		
London/Fashion and Leisure Show	7	439
Camp California in the/USA	6	377
I have/won first prize in	6	377
I would/like to say that	5	314
that it will be	5	314
in reply to your/letter	4	251
I had to do	4	251
L1 GREEK		
all I would like	6	547
In addition I would/like	6	547
I received your letter	5	456
o' clock in the	4	365
a pop concert and/I	4	365
the fact that the	3	274
As well as this	3	274

Table 3: The most frequent 4 word-sequences

Following Biber et al. (2004), the sequences were subsequently categorized according to their function into referential, discourse-structuring, stance or special conversational expressions.

The functional analysis demonstrated that the Greek learners use the highest frequency and diversity of discourse devices, while the German the lowest. In contrast, the German learners seem to rely more on special conversational bundles, whereas the Polish use a variety of referential and stance expressions.

The difference in the use of discourse devices could be attributable to L1 influence. Comparative research on Greek and English showed that Greek writers tend to reinforce text cohesion through enhancement of the logical relations in a text (Sidiropoulou, 2012) by using, for instance, additive markers (e.g. in addition). A number of discourse devices (e.g. 'the *fact* that the', '*all* I would like to') may also signify the avoidance of uncertainty, a cultural characteristic that has been shown to affect rhetorical style in academic Greek writing (Koutsantoni, 2005).

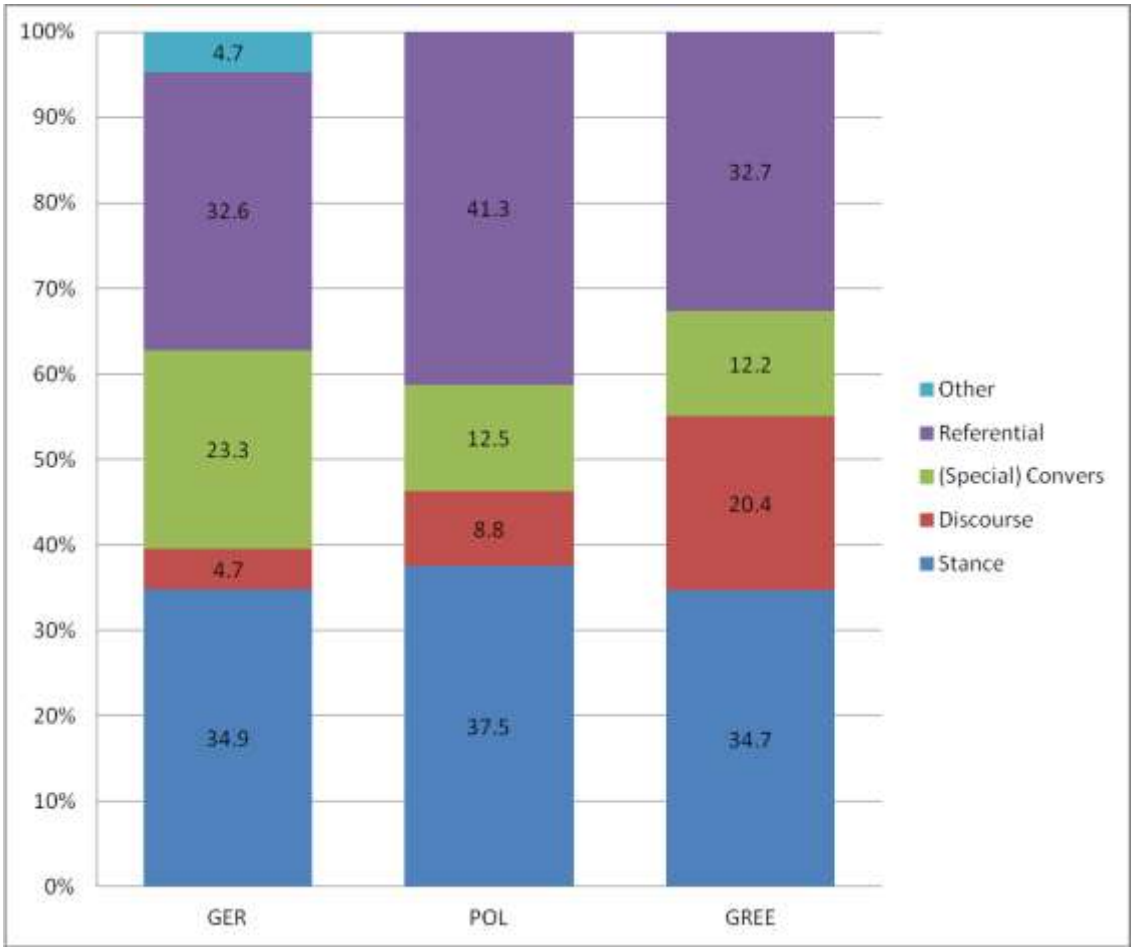


Figure 1: Functional distribution of types

Studies comparing the writing style of German and English found that German texts tend to be more content-orientated and more self-referenced than English, and contain less discourse devices (Clyne, 1994; Gnutzmann & Oldenburg 1991). However, caution is advised when using the results from previous studies as most of the research was concerned with advanced, academic text types.

Functional differences could also be detected at the two proficiency levels and across the three learner groups. As Figure 2 demonstrates, at the lower proficiency level, all learners rely heavily on referential sequences. With growing proficiency (C1), they employ more discourse-structuring expressions with Greek learners using the highest proportion of such devices.

Figure 2: Functional distribution of B2 vs. C1 levels

Conclusions

Our findings suggest that there are considerable differences in the use of 4-word combinations amongst learners of different L1s. These differences concern, in particular, the types and functions of sequences. As the functional analysis revealed, Greek learners use the highest frequency and diversity of discourse devices, which could be attributable to L1-induced stylistic interference. Our results also indicate that lower proficiency learners (B2) rely more on referential sequences, whereas C1 learners make a greater use of discourse devices regardless of L1.

References

Douglas Biber, Susan Conrad & Viviana Cortes. 2004. If you look at …: Lexical Bundles in University Teaching and Textbooks. In *Applied Linguistics* 25/3, pp371-405.

Michael Clyne. 1994. *Inter-Cultural Communication at Work: Discourse Structures across Cultures*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.

Sylvie De Cock. 1998. A recurrent word combination approach to the study of formulae in the speech of native and non-native speakers of English. In International *Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 3/1, pp59-80.

Claus Gnutzmann & Hermann Oldenburg. 1991. Contrastive text linguistics in LSP research: Theoretical considerations and some preliminary findings. In Hartmut Schröder (ed.), *Subject-oriented Texts: Language for Special Purposes and Text Theory*. Walter de Gruyter: Berlin, pp103-136.

Sylviane Granger. 1998. Prefabricated patterns in advanced EFL writing: collocations and formulae. In A P Cowie (ed.). *Phraseology*. Oxford University Press: Oxford, UK.

Dimitra Koutsantoni. 2005. Greek Cultural Characteristics and Academic Writing. In *Journal of Modern Greek Studies* 32/1, pp97–138.

Batia Laufer & Tina Waldman. 2011. Verb-Noun Collocations in Second Language Writing: A Corpus Analysis of Learners' English. In *Language Learning* 61/2, pp647-672.

Maria Sidiropoulou. 2012. Greek and English linguistic identities in the EU: A translation perspective. In *Pragmatics and Society* 3/1, pp89-119.

Ivana Vidaković & Fiona Barker. 2010. Use of words and multi-word units in Skills for Life Writing examinations. In *Cambridge ESOL: Research Notes* 41, pp7–14.

22 Discourse markers in the talk of non-native speaker teachers of English

Sanja Čurković Kalebić
University of Split, Croatia
sanja.kalebic@st.t-com.hr

Discourse markers are pervasive in spoken discourse. Recent studies have shown the ubiquity of discourse markers in foreign-language teacher talk. This study investigates discourse markers in the discourse of non-native speaker teachers in EFL classrooms. The aim of the study is to present the frequency of different types of discourse markers found and to work towards the functionality of their distribution patterns.

Database

This study was carried out on a corpus of 16 transcribed recordings of Croatian EFL classroom interactions. The recordings were made in 6 elementary schools in 16 classrooms with 8 different teachers. Each teacher was recorded twice, in two different classroom settings.

Methodology

The data were carefully transcribed. Since discourse markers in teacher talk are the focus of this study, every discourse marker was accurately transcribed. The transcript was divided into units. The turn, i.e. teacher discourse from the moment s/he starts speaking to the moment s/he stops speaking, was chosen as the basic unit of analysis.

The first fifty teacher turns in each recording were analysed, i.e. 800 teacher turns altogether. During the coding process all instances of discourse markers in teacher talk were identified. Discourse markers in utterances in the mother tongue (Croatian) were not included in the analysis. Homonyms of discourse markers were not counted either.

A classification of the pragmatic functions of discourse markers in the sample was made on the basis of Brinton's (1996) list of the pragmatic functions of discourse markers. Eight types of pragmatic functions were distinguished. They are illustrated by these examples from our corpus:

1. Inititate/close discourse:
   T: ***Okay***, who are the monitors? (recording 13, grade 7, T 7)

2. Denote new/old information:
   T: Yes. So it is made of wool **and** you wear it in winter **and** you wear it when it is cold. It is a sweater. **And** sometimes our grandma knits these sweaters for us. Does your mum ... or your grandma knit sweaters? (recording 1, grade 5, T1)

3. Mark sequential dependence and relevance:
   T: An apple a day keeps the doctor away. **So**, you must eat a lot of fruit. A lot? (recording 7. grade 5, T4)

4. Mark a boundary in discourse:
   T: You don't care! Okay! Good. **Now**, take your pencils and complete the table at the bottom of the page. You have place, season, temperature and the weather. Ivana, let's do the first example. (recording 11, grade 5, T6)

5. Express a reaction or response to previous discourse:
   L2: Err she's err she's playing tennis.
   T: Aha she's playing tennis. And this boy, Sara? (recording 15, grade 5, T8)

6. Give a turn:
   L12: My mum has to do the cooking.
   T: My mum has to do the cooking. **Yes**, Matea? (recording 14, grade 6, T7)

7. Serve as a filler:
   T: Okay. Good. Now ... **uhm** ... what do you girls, Vesna, what do you usually wear to a party? (recording 10, grade 6, T 5)

8. Check understanding:
   T: Santa Claus! He comes through the chimney and ...what does he leave? He leaves presents in children's stockings. ***Okay***? (recording 2, grade 5, T1)

Results and discussion

The findings show (Table 1) that the teachers in our corpus used 16 different discourse markers, about one-half being discourse markers from Brinton's (1996) list, which comprises 33 discourse markers. It is also worth mentioning that 8 teachers in our corpus use approximately 8.81

different discourse markers per recording (min. 7, max. 11 discourse markers per recording).

A great variability in the occurrences of these markers may be noticed. The discourse markers *okay*, *and* and *so* are the most frequent discourse markers in the corpus. These three discourse markers are used in the discourse of all the teachers in the corpus. The discourse marker *okay* is the most frequent among them: it covers about one-third of the occurrences of discourse markers in the talk of Croatian teachers of English. Second in frequency is *and*, which comprises one-fifth of all tokens, whereas the third in frequency is *so*, which comprises slightly more than one-tenth of the tokens. Other discourse markers are significantly less present (less than 10 per cent). The discourse markers such as *just, well, you know*, were used only once.

Discourse marker	Number	Percent
ah(a)	46	5.80%
and	159	20.08%
because	13	1.64%
but	30	3.79%
just	1	0.13%
now	47	5.94%
oh	6	0.76%
okay	262	33.08%
or	14	1.77%
right	2	0.25%
so	109	13.76%
then	21	2.65%
uh huh/mhm	36	4.55%
well	1	0.13%
yes	44	5.56%
you know	1	0.13%
Total	**792**	**100%**

Table 1: Absolute and relative frequency of discourse markers in 16 recordings of the talk of 8 teachers in the corpus

A great variability may be noticed in the frequency of different discourse markers used to perform a particular function (Table 2). More than one-fourth of discourse markers perform the function of expressing a reaction or response to previous discourse. The most frequent type of discourse marker in this group is the discourse marker *okay*. Equal numbers of

different discourse markers are used for denoting either new or old information and for marking sequential dependence and relevance. *And* is the most frequent discourse marker among those that serve the function of denoting either new or old information, while *so* is the most frequent discourse marker that the teachers use to mark sequential dependence and relevance. The different discourse markers used to mark a boundary in discourse are fourth in frequency in the sample. A boundary in discourse is most often marked by the discourse marker *okay*. Fifth in frequency are the types of discourse markers that perform the function of giving a turn to a learner. *Yes* is the most frequent among the discourse markers that serve the function of turn giving. The function of initiating and closing discourse is performed by a few different discourse markers, *okay* being the most frequent among them. *Okay* is the only type of discourse marker that is used to check understanding.

Pragmatic function	**Types of discourse markers in the corpus**	**Discourse markers in the corpus**
initiate/close discourse	3 (7.69%)	okay (11), now (4), so (4)
denote new/old information	7 (17.95%)	and (99), so (13), or (14), but (18), then (4), because (7), just (1)
mark sequential dependence & relevance	7 (17.95%)	so (72), and (41), then (16), because (5), but (7), yes (1), you know (1)
mark a boundary in discourse	5 (12.82%)	okay (124), so (19), now (43), and (2), yes (1)
express a reaction or response to previous discourse	10 (25.64%)	okay (101), aha (46), yes (29), uh huh/mhm (18), but (5), right (2), oh (6), so (1), because (1), well (1)
give a turn	4 (10.26%)	and (12), okay (10), yes (13), then (1)
serve as a filler	2 (5.13%)	mhm (18), and (5)
check understanding	1 (2.56%)	okay (16)
Total	**39 (100%)**	

Table 2: Functional distribution and frequency of types of discourse markers in the corpus

Significant variability in the use of discourse markers with respect to the pragmatic function they perform may be noticed (Table 3). Expressing a reaction or response to previous discourse is the most frequent pragmatic function of discourse markers in the talk of non-native speaker teachers of English, while checking understanding is the least frequent. The complex of reasons for differences in the frequency distribution of the various pragmatic functions of discourse markers might be looked for in the type of lesson in which they are used (introducing new language and revisions) and in the teaching style of Croatian teachers of English. It should be added that close inspection of this corpus of classroom recordings reveals a great variability amongst teachers'' use of discourse markers.

Pragmatic functions of discourse markers	**Occurrence (%)**
initiate/close discourse	19 (2.40%)
denote new/old information	156 (19.70%)
mark sequential dependence and relevance	143 (18.06%)
mark a boundary in discourse	189 (23.86%)
express a reaction or response to previous discourse	210 (26.52%)
give a turn	36 (4.55%)
serve as a filler	23 (2.90%)
check understanding	16 (2.02%)
Total	**792 (100%)**

Table 3 Distribution of the pragmatic functions of discourse markers in the corpus

In place of a conclusion

The findings of this study indicate great variation in the use of discourse markers in the spoken discourse of non-native speaker teachers of English at this level of teaching. A great variability may be noticed in the frequency of different discourse markers used to preform a particular function. The complex of reasons for differences in the frequency distribution of the various functions might be looked for in the level of teaching, type of lesson, and the teaching style of non-native (Croatian) EFL teachers. Further research on the use of discourse markers in non-native teacher talk might consider the use of discourse markers in other types of activities, such as task-based activities. Also, further research should also consider the use of discourse markers in teacher turns in the mother tongue.

References

Laurel J Brinton. 1996. *Pragmatic Markers in English: Grammaticalization and Discourse Functions*. Mouton de Gruyter: Berlin, New York.

23 An Investigation into Focused Feedback Effectiveness: The Distinction between Rule-based and Lexically-based Error Types Matters

Chian-Wen Kao & David Wible
Graduate Institute of Learning and Instruction, National Central University, Taiwan
brucekao0706@hotmail.com

Introduction

Over the past three decades there have been a growing number of studies looking at whether grammar correction is useful for second language writers. Attention given to the effect of corrective feedback has increased since Truscott (1996) provided the most widely cited review of literature, claiming that error correction plays no facilitative role in improving learner writing. Recent researchers have attempted to distinguish focused from unfocused feedback. The former focuses on one specific error type to target for corrections, whereas the latter does not specify specific error types and corrects grammar errors of all sorts (Ellis, 2009). Kao and Wible (2011) distinguish focused from unfocused feedback studies, running the meta-analysis on these two types conflated and then separately. They found that conflating focused and unfocused studies distorts the effect size of both, overestimating the effect of unfocused correction and underestimating that of focused correction. When conflated, the effect size for immediate post-tests is 0.368 (small). Calculated separately, however, the effect size falls to 0.080 (nil) for unfocused feedback and rises to 0.762 (medium) for focused feedback. In delayed post-tests, the effect size of focused correction increases to 0.800 (large). Previous studies, however, correct only English article errors. The narrow focus on article errors might limit the generalizability of the findings. It is therefore worth expanding the inventory of error types in evaluating feedback effectiveness. The following research question is, therefore, proposed.

Does focused written corrective feedback help learners of English become more accurate in the use of articles, subject-verb agreement and verb-noun collocations separately?

Methodology

Three language structures are targeted in this study, including two rule-based structures and one lexically-based structure. As to the rule-based

structures, two functional uses of the English article system, including the referential indefinite article "a" for the first mention of things and the referential definite article "the" for the subsequent mentions of things are targeted for corrections. Additionally, the lexical verb of the third person singular –s ending for subject-verb agreement is targeted for correction. Learners of English have been shown to experience difficulty in mastering the two grammatical features. As to the lexically-based structure, verb-noun collocations which consist of a verb and a noun, occupying the largest portion in learners' collocation errors are investigated. Specifically, four verb-noun collocations are targeted for corrections. Nouns (i.e. application, course, interview and appointment), therefore, are provided to elicit students' uses of verbs and to examine whether students can use appropriate verbs with these nouns provided.

Three focused feedback groups are formed based on what error types are treated. Focused feedback groups received corrections on article errors, subject-verb agreement errors and collocation errors separately. A control group received no correction. Following most feedback studies which offer correct language forms to learners, this study also gave direct corrections to experimental groups.

Using a pretest-posttest-delayed posttest design, the first writing task serves as the pretest; the second, an immediate posttest after one week; and the third, a delayed posttest after one month. Performance on the three tasks is used to calculate all participants' targeted language accuracy to examine feedback effectiveness.

Results and Discussion

This study showed that in the immediate post-tests, focused feedback is effective for all three error types: article (M=82.457), subject-verb agreement (M=92.714) and verb-noun collocation (M=89.286). In delayed post-test writing, the benefit persisted for article (M=87.400) and subject-verb agreement (M=95.143), but not for collocations (M=67.857). This suggests a distinction in susceptibility to focused feedback between rule-based versus lexically-based errors worth investigation.

As to the rule-based error, this study has corroborated with previous findings that focused feedback is effective for English article errors (e.g. Bitchener, 2008). Specifically, focused feedback is effective for article errors of first mention of noun phrase in a discourse and article errors of referent previously mentioned in discourse. According to Bickerton's

(1981) features of referentiality, the difference between the two semantics error types is whether or not learners can identify the noun phrase assumed known to readers. Thus, focused feedback can help learners perceive the binary division between the noun phrase assumed known to readers and the noun phrase not assumed known to readers. Since there are several binary divisions in the English article system (Master, 1990), other binary divisions of English articles should be taken into consideration to advance our understanding of focused feedback effectiveness. This study further indicates that focused feedback is effective for another rule-based error, subject-verb agreement errors. Focused feedback is particularly effective for lexical verbs for the third person singular –s ending which is considered formally and functionally simple. Since the agreeing forms of the copula be are far more complex morphologically than lexical verbs, errors of the copula be, therefore, should be included to further explore feedback effectiveness on subject-verb agreement errors. As for the lexically-based error, since the acquisition of formulaic language requires frequency of exposure (Ellis, 2002), one-shot treatment of focused feedback might be insufficient for the acquisition of the verb-noun collocation.

References

Derek Bickerton. 1981. *Roots of language*. Ann Arbor, MA: Karoma.

John Bitchener. 2008. Evidence in support of written corrective feedback. In *Journal of Second Language Writing* vol 17, pp102-118.

Nick Ellis. 2002. Frequency effects in language processing. In *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* vol 24, pp143-188.

Rod Ellis. 2009. A typology of written corrective feedback types. In *ELT Journal* vol 63, pp97-107.

Chian-Wen Kao & David Wible. 2011 October, 13-16. The distinction between focused and unfocused grammar feedback matters: A meta-analysis. Paper presented at *2011 Second Language Research Forum*, Iowa.

Peter Master. 1990. Teaching the English articles as a binary system. In *TESOL Quarterly* vol 24, pp461-478.

Younghee Sheen. 2007. The effect of focused written corrective feedback and language aptitude on ESL learners' acquisition of articles. In *TESOL Quarterly* vol 41, pp255-283.

John Truscott. 1996. The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. In *Language Learning* vol 46, pp327-369.

24 A multi-modal comparative analysis of British and Japanese news discourses in the representation of environmental issues

Michiko Kasuya
University of Hyogo

Introduction

This study is based on the notion that discourse inculcates and maintains or alters ideology, and is the main medium of social control and power (Fairclough, 2003). By shaping and legitimising ideology, discourse has contributed to creating and sustaining the current social, economic and political problems on a global scale (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). One of the powerful means that constructs ideology in society is news discourse, which not only informs and explains events, but expresses and validates the reality it constructs (Hall, 1973).

This study examines and compares the news discourses of the BBC and NHK (Japan Broadcasting Corporation), state-funded broadcasting corporations of each nation. It analyses television news items that portray environmental issues, and seeks to clarify how specific interpretive frameworks for understanding environmental issues are produced by the linguistic features of the news discourse.

Data

This study investigates news items originating from the BBC's 6 pm news and NHK's 7 pm news, both major news programmes in the evening. The analysis focuses on two news items broadcast on 16 December 2011 in each nation, which report on the Japanese Prime Minister's declaration of the stabilisation of the Fukushima nuclear plant 9 months after the accident. It is important to note that it was anticipated that the Prime Minister would declare the stabilisation of the accident on that day, and before the announcement was made, foreign media such as the *New York Times* reported experts' views that the declaration neglected the reality, and may have deflectedattention from remaining threats to the reactors' safety.

Analytical framework

This paper uses critical discourse analysis as an approach, and conducts a multi-modal study, examining various linguistic elements such as the

selection of information, rhetorical features, lexical items and syntax, and analyses how these elements work in combination to produce interpretive frameworks to conceptualise the events. It examines these linguistic elements from the following three perspectives: 1) causal relationships formed in events (what are presented as causes and results); 2) attributes attached to participants of events (what kinds of characteristics are given to participants); 3) aspects of events given most importance (which aspects of events are emphasised).

Analysis

Causal relationships formed in events

The BBC news item clearly indicates the cause of the nuclear accident was 'the tsunami' while the NHK news item does not specify the cause, but implies the difficult situations in Fukushima were produced by the natural disaster. The BBC news item indicates that the agent of the actions that 'caused the meltdowns' and 'crippled the nuclear plant' was 'the tsunami'. On the other hand, the NHK news item contains no sentence which defines the cause of the nuclear accident. However, the news item repeats the lexical item 'problems' and uses it in the phrases such as 'there are still many problems' and 'still many problems are left', which suggest that the problems in Fukushima arose spontaneously or exist naturally.

Attributes attached to participants of events

Both the BBC and NHK attach limited attributes to participants of the events. For example, the BBC news item describes the workers at the nuclear plant as heroes, using such lexical items as 'the Fukushima 50' who 'saved Japan' and 'braved explosions and meltdowns'. On the other hand, the NHK news item portrays the workers as people who have to work at the plant 'in order to make a living'. As such, both the BBC and NHK avoid mentioning the workers' radiation exposure and obscure the issue.

Aspects of events given most importance

In order to investigate which aspects of events are emphasised, it is useful to examine the beginning and the closure of news items, which tend to show the summary of news items. At the beginning of the BBC and NHK news items, both simply relay the message sent by the government that 'the reactors have been stabilised' and Fukushima people 'may be able to return home', and refrain from presenting any critical comments on the announcement.

At the closure, the BBC news item simplifies the issue into an either-or-choice. It uses the lexical items 'challenge now', and sends the message that the challenge for Japan now is 'to keep the lights on', and in order to accomplish that task the Japanese government 'must either persuade people that the reactors can be operated safely' or 'find alternative sources of power'. In the NHK news item, the very last part downsizes the issue to a matter for the specific region, Fukushima. It limits the issue to how the government can help people in Fukushima to economically reconstruct their life while it disguises other vital issues, such as health problems and food contamination, which could affect people all over Japan.

Discussion and Conclusion

The analysis reveals how the language of the two news items works to contribute to authorising the government's economically based framework, which disregards the environment that is indispensable for people's survival. Both news items endorse the government's framework, by foregrounding its contribution to the solution of the problems, and backgrounding its responsibility for the cause of the problems. Both foreground the factors which simplify or undersize the problems and background the elements that may enlarge the problems. As such, they downplay critical facets of the issues, such as public radiation exposure and food contamination, which would affect people's welfare around the globe when seen in perspective, and fail to offer people multidimensional viewpoints to decide what is best for their existence.

References

Lilie Chouliaraki & Norman Fairclough. 1999. *Discourse in Late Modernity: rethinking critical discourse analysis*. Edinburgh University Press: Edinburgh, UK.

Norman Fairclough. 2003. *Analysing Discourse: textual analysis for social research*. Routledge: London, UK.

Stuart Hall. 1973. The Determinations of News Photographs. In Stanley Cohen & Jock Young (Eeds). *The Manufacture of News*. Constable: London, UK, pp176-190.

25 Writing Assessment Practices of Thai EFL Teachers: Case Studies

Somruedee Khongput
The University of New South Wales, Australia
songkran_festival@hotmail.com

Introduction

Over the last decade, there has been a move toward teacher assessment of performance-based writing tasks in the EFL classroom. However, how teachers as raters undertake assessment in a regular classroom context does not seem to be well understood even though a considerable body of research into rating processes has been conducted internationally (e.g. Cumming, Kantor, & Powers, 2002; Lumley, 2005; Milanovic, Saville, & Shuhong, 1996).

Assessment of performance-based writing can be seen as a time-consuming and complex activity. The recruitment of human raters to conduct the assessment seems to bring in much variability in assessment practices. Apart from the subjective nature of assessment, the variability may result from raters' biases towards student performances, their cultural and professional backgrounds, and their preferred features of good writing (Lumley, 2005; Shi, 2001; Weigle, 2002).

This study aims to provide exploratory findings regarding writing assessment practices undertaken in a regular classroom context. Teachers' views were explored and actual rating processes were investigated to understand the assessment practices in their natural settings.

The Study

This paper reports decision-making behaviours exhibited by four teachers of academic writing for English major students in four different public universities located in different geographical regions of Thailand. Data sets were obtained through the teachers' think-aloud protocols while assessing two writing scripts of their students' writing tasks. They were analysed based on the framework adapted mainly from Cumming et al's (2002) descriptive coding scheme. The decision-making behaviours were divided into three major focuses, including self-monitoring focus, rhetorical and ideational focus, and language focus. Self-monitoring focus represents how raters organise their rating styles. Rhetorical and ideational focus shows raters' emphasis on rhetorical structures and content or ideas used by the

writers. Language focus displays the accuracy and fluency of the language used in the writing.

Teachers' decision-making behaviours

The four teachers were one male and three females[4]at different age ranges. They were diverse in terms of personal and professional experiences. They appeared to have autonomy in how to conduct instruction and assessment in their writing courses. When assessing students' writing, they were likely to display different decision-making behaviours as shown below.

Decision-making behaviours	Ladda	Nittaya	Rewadee	Sak
Self-monitoring focus	51.77	60.33	56.88	70.33
Rhetorical and ideational focus	19.50	17.95	23.05	10.99
Language focus	28.72	21.71	20.07	17.58
Ambiguous data segment[5]	-	-	-	1.10

Table 1 Percentage of decision-making behaviours in three focuses

As appears in Table 1, the teachers seemed to devote more attention to self-monitor their assessment than to focus on ideas, rhetoric and language in the texts. Rewadee appears to be the only teacher who emphasised ideas and rhetoric more than language whereas the other three teachers attended to the language more frequently than the content and rhetoric. The frequencies of their overall behaviours suggest that the teachers tended to display different decision-making behaviours during the rating processes.

However, when considering the behaviours in each focus in detail, some commonalities of the teachers' decision-making behaviours were found. Regarding their self-monitoring focus, the teachers tended to read or reread an essay outline or composition which was part of managerial process for the data collection and to write or mark comments in the texts most frequently. The latter behaviour is not surprising as writing in the context of this study refers to classroom writing assignments which aim at pedagogic purpose (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). The comments and feedback are important for the students to improve their writing.

When emphasising ideas and rhetoric, the teachers tended to identify the topic development and to summarise or translate phrases, ideas or propositions most frequently. The two behaviours may indicate that when

[4] Pseudonyms are used when these teachers are addressed.
[5] Ambiguous data segment represents a think-aloud data segment that cannot be clearly classified into any focus.

evaluating the second language writing the teachers had to conceptualise the texts before evaluating them, even though they shared the same first language as their students. This finding seems to suggest the complexity of writing itself. Even when the writers and raters are possibly in mutual social and cultural contexts, much cognitive processing is required from writers to construct the texts and from raters to comprehend them.

The difficulty in understanding the texts may partly result from lexicogrammatical mistakes. When attending to the language, the teachers were found to identify the mistakes, classify them into types and propose correction or correct the mistakes in various aspects. Sentence structures and grammar were most often addressed. This emphasis may indicate that these features are the most problematic issues for the students and the teachers paid more attention to them rather than other features.

Conclusion

The overall findings suggest that the teachers tended to share some common understandings about classroom writing assessment in spite of their individual practices. Their assessment practices appear to aim at students' learning which is at the heart of classroom assessment. The decision-making behaviours performed by the teachers can provide substantial understanding of what they think while engaging in the assessment.

References

Alister Cumming, Robert Kantor & Donald E Powers. 2002. Decision making while rating ESL/EFL writing tasks: A descriptive framework. In *The Modern Language Journal* 86(1), 2002, pp67-96.

Glenn Fulcher & Fred Davidson. 2007. *Language testing and assessment: an advanced resource book*. Routledge: Abingdon, UK.

Tom Lumley. 2005. *Assessing second language writing: the rater's perspective*. Peter Lang: Frankfurt, Germany.

Michael Milanovic, Nick Saville & Shen Shuhong. 1996. A study of the decision-making behavior of composition markers. In Michael Milanovic & Nick Saville (eds), *Performance testing, cognition and assessment: selected papers from the 15th Language Testing Research Colloquium, Cambridge and Arnhem*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK, pp92-114.

Ling Shi. 2001. Native- and nonnative-speaking EFL teachers' evaluation of Chinese students' English writing. In *Language Testing* 18(3), pp303-325.

Sara Cushing Weigle. 2002. *Assessing writing*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK..

26 University English: monolingual and multilingual perspectives

Richard Kiely[1] & Md Shahidullah[2]
University College Plymouth St Mark & St John[1]
Rajshahi University Bangladesh[2]
rkiely@marjon.ac.uk

Introduction

Curriculum renewal in English language programmes is a focus of activity for many institutions. The challenges of curriculum renewal are particularly complex in university contexts, where there are typically English major programmes, and non-major programmes, with the latter including general English or EAP programmes for all students, and examination preparation courses (Kiely, 2009). English major programmes often have high-achieving learners, and a high level of resource: the sole or main focus of their university study is developing English language skills and expertise, underpinned by capacity for linguistic, sociolinguistic and literary analysis (Hawkins, 1999; Kramsch, 1993). Such programmes can take one of two curriculum models: English as L1, or English as L2. This paper examines the nature of this choice, and the implications for teaching and for curriculum development. It considers this issue in the wider context of English and Globalisation, where high level English skills are not an attribute of just a small elite of English majors, but of all graduates.

English as L1 involves linguistic and literary analysis of language in contexts such as literature and creative writing. English as L2 may have the same goals, but draws on traditions of second /foreign language curriculum models. The latter cannot assume that the tacit, instinctive knowledge base of the L1 user is already in place, but rather has to establish this in the context of expanding language analysis skills to levels appropriate for university credits and awards. The UK Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) benchmarks provide a convenient articulation of the distinction here.

The English as L1 curriculum focusses on the analysis of texts from critical and aesthetic perspectives. It draws on traditions of learning in the humanities and literature study, with increasing attention to creative and expository writing. The English as L2 curriculum focusses on analysis of language forms and contexts of use, drawing on traditions of foreign language study, curriculum design and teaching methodology, for example, Kramsch (2002); Kumaravadivelu (2006).

English as L1 http://www.qaa.ac.uk/Publications/InformationAndGuidance/Documents/English07.pdf	**English as L2** http://www.qaa.ac.uk/Publications/InformationAndGuidance/Documents/languages07.pdf
An undergraduate education in English and cognate subjects should […] • engage students imaginatively in the process of reading, analysing and/or producing complex and sophisticated literary and non-literary texts and discourses […] • problematise the acts of reading and writing so that students can reflect critically upon textual production and reception both in history and in their own practice […] • offer students a knowledge and appreciation of contextual approaches to the production and reception of literary and non-literary texts and discourses […] • promote the understanding and practice of verbal creativity and the formal and aesthetic dimensions of literary texts	The study encompasses four complementary dimensions – language as: • a medium of understanding, expression and communication, described here as the use of the target language • a means of access to other societies and cultures, described here as intercultural awareness, understanding and competence • an object of study in their own right, described here as the explicit knowledge of language • a gateway to related thematic studies, comprising various bodies of knowledge and methodological approaches, described here as knowledge of the cultures, communities and societies where the language is used

Table 1: from QAA benchmark documents

Context

The context of curriculum renewal discussed here is an English major programme in Rajshahi University in Bangladesh. The research was carried out within the Curriculum Renewal in University English (CRUE) project funded by the British Council INSPIRE (International Strategic Partnerships in Research and Education) collaborative research programme. The CRUE approach to curriculum renewal has three focal points:

i) Understanding the learning experience of students using programme evaluation tools;
ii) Analysis of current practice by the teachers on the programme;
iii) Analysis of assessment practices in the programme and their impact on learning.

This paper examines the perspectives on University English provided by students and teachers in order to understand the curriculum model of university English at play in this context, and to use this analysis to

enhance teaching and learning. Data was collected via focus groups and questionnaires from students on their perceptions of their learning and the features of the course which facilitated and limited this. A second strand explored teacher perspectives on their practice, drawing on narratives of their practice which they developed. Initial findings are presented below.

Some findings

Student perspectives

The students were positive overall about their learning experience. This seemed to derive largely from the sense of being undergraduates in a prestigious university, studying English literature, and being taught by senior and well-qualified tutors. However, they identify the limited opportunities to use English, both in the class and outside, as impediments to their learning. In summary, they valued the features of the curriculum which correspond to an English as L1 approach, but articulated as their needs those features of an English as L2 approach.

Tutor perspectives

Accounts of teachers described macro and micro strategies for dealing with classes of 100 or so students, and a culture of lecture type input. These represented a hybrid pedagogy, incorporating the functional language use approach of English as L2, with the academic input and transmissive approach more typical of English as L1.

Conclusion

This study illuminates a key issue in the development of University English: how to develop the most appropriate and effective blend of L1 and L2 for a university in Bangladesh. A related need is the development of a management of change process (Kennedy, 2011; Waters & Vilches, 2001), such that the curriculum model is understood as both desirable and possible. The goal here is to maintain continuity with a valued tradition (Holliday, 1996), ensure high levels of achievement in English language proficiency and linguistic analysis (Hawkins, 1999) while undertaking curriculum development which meets the emerging needs in the wider context.

References

E Hawkins.1999. Foreign language study and language awareness. In *Language Awareness* 8 (3&4), pp124-142.

A Holliday. 1997. Six lessons: cultural continuity in communicative language teaching.

In *Language Teaching Research* 1(3), pp212-238.

C Kennedy. 2011. Challenges for language policy, language and development. In H. Coleman (ed.) *Dreams and Realities: Developing countries and the English Language*. London: The British Council, pp27-40.

R Kiely. 2009. Small answers to the big question: learning from language programme evaluation. In *Language Teaching Research* 13 (1), pp99-116.

C Kramsch. 1993. *Context and Culture in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

C Kramsch. (ed.) 2002. *Language Acquisition and Language Socialization*. London: Continuum.

B Kumaravadivelu. 2006. TESOL methods: changing tracks, challenging trends. In *TESOL Quarterly*, 40 (1), pp59-81.

A Waters & M L C Vilches. 2001. Implementing ELT innovations: a needs analysis framework. In *ELT Journal* 55(2), pp133-141.

27 Modeling Communication in an Online Community of Cyclists

Patrick Kiernan
Meiji University
kiernan@meiji.ac.jp

Introduction

In the popular imagination, online resources are promoting shorter attention spans, poorer literacy and weaker communication skills (Baron, 2008). Meanwhile, there is a growing body of research into online communities (Myers, 2010; Tagg, 2012) that underlines the ways in which online users are adapting language to exploit technology creating rich texts worthy of linguistic exploration.

This presentation introduced a study of an online forum for cyclists, illustrating how participants exploited the affordances offered by online communications technology to suit their needs, evolving genres specific to the forum in the process. The forum can be viewed in its entirety on the Internet. Contributors need to register to post and use handle names to protect anonymity. Material that is considered inappropriate is automatically removed. The forum serves both as a social meeting place for riders to discuss cycling related issues and arrange rides and as a searchable resource for cyclists, particularly in the Tokyo area. I introduce two thread types: one concerned with organizing a ride and the other a technical discussion to illustrate how users exploited technological affordances to realize distinctive multimodal online genres.

Organizing a ride

Wednesday, July 11th - Green Line & Nihongi-toge
Chikako and I be heading out for a moderately paced ride the length of the Green Line and then from there the Nihongi-toge ridge line. All climbs will be wait at the top (WATT). Due to the shorter distance, note the slightly later starting time. Also, depending on our progress we'll likely either stop for soba or brick oven pizza for lunch.

INFO:
Meet Time: 7:30am
Meet Place: Family Mart (HERE)
Climbing: 1700-2000m
Distance: 115-125km
Route: HERE

If you aren't familiar with the Green Line of Nihongi-toge, there will be lots of rindo's, greenery, climbing, and minimal traffic! We'll be finishing at Yorii on the Tobu Tojo Line so please, don't forget your rinko bag.

Figure 1: The first post on a ride thread

Traditionally, cycle clubs organize regular rides departing from an established meeting point through an elected committee. The online forum instead allows for ad hoc rides organized by whoever wishes to lead one. The sample post shown here is a typical ride proposal and the thread follows an identical pattern to all other ride threads. The initial post provides an outline of the ride including the expected terrain, distance and meeting time and place. Links are provided to a Google map to define the meeting place and a detailed route and gradient map with directions derived from GPS information captured by a cycle computer in conjunction with a free online service. Riders can upload this information to their cycle computers to follow the route. The spelling out of WATT signals that this is a ride open to newcomers who may not recognize the acronym. In contrast, the un-translated Japanese "rindo" (small mountain road) and "rinko" (a bag required for train travel with a bike) assume knowledge of cycling in Japan.

This post was followed by commitments to ride and excuses from those unable to ride. After the ride, members posted their thanks, photos and detailed personal narrative accounts of the ride, which served to report back to the forum. Sometimes, reports were supplemented with data obtained from the cycle computers, providing concrete evidence of the riders' achievements. Other members responded with comments on the ride and reports. The thread as a whole therefore followed a clear generic format.

Building a wheel-lacing jig

In some cases, technical threads were started to share mechanical knowledge. One example of this was a thread concerning the construction of a wheel-lacing jig. The first few posts consider the strengths and weaknesses of the few commercially available models as well as illustrating how they are used in Shimano's hand built wheels division, using photographs. An experienced wheel builder who had previously taught the user how to build wheels in his own workshop also provided input on the design. The user then took his readers through the process of designing and building the jig with photographs of how it was constructed and how the apparatus could be disassembled for storage. Like the ride threads, such technical threads played out as a narrative, which concluded in this case with the jig being completed and compliments on its successful design and the entertainment the thread had provided. Other threads such as the "Today" thread posted for each month of each year were more

discontinuous as each contributor reported on their disparate cycling related activities.

Conclusion

This presentation highlighted the use of multimodal features including photographs and ride data from cycle computers employed by participants in a cycle forum. These features helped link a virtual space to the concrete realities of a shared cycle ride or workshop project. In other threads, the use of links to video demonstrations or online articles enabled more concrete discussion because the resources could be referred to as the discussion took place. The informational dimension therefore became that much sharper. The ride thread showed how these resources were nevertheless employed for interpersonal purposes both by facilitating ride organization and re-sharing the experience of the ride through reports. Further research might usefully focus on specific interpersonal resources such as smilies and verbal and multimodal humor as well as exploring the nature of community and communication in the forum in greater detail.

References

Naomi S Baron. 2008. *Always on: Language in an Online and Mobile World*. Oxford University Press. Oxford, UK.

Greg Myers. 2010. *The Discourse of Blogs and Wikis*. Continuum, London, UK

Caroline Tagg. 2012. *Discourse of Text Messaging: Analysis of SMS Communication*. Continuum, London, UK.

28 Can online role-playing games help improve Korean children's vocabulary and reading skills?

Kwengnam Kim
University of Leeds
edkk@leeds.ac.uk/ jasmin5@lycos.co.kr

Introduction

This paper describes an investigation into whether playing the MMORPG (Massive Multiplayer Online Role-playing Game) RuneScape can support Korean children's English learning. It argues that there are potential affordances of RuneScape in the learning of English vocabulary and reading skills.

Background and Context

In state English education in Korea, English Language Teaching starts from the third grade (aged 8) in elementary school to keep pace with the currency of English as an international language. In the new curriculum, the Korean Ministry of Education has an aim for English to improve communicative competence for communicating basically with native speakers. Nonetheless, in reality, EFL countries like Korea have a range of difficulties in adopting and keeping up CLT, because of problems with 'learning environments, teachers' English proficiency and the availability of authentic English materials' (Li, 2001: 160). For example, the large numbers of students in one classroom setting and the shortage of English teachers' applicable abilities to do a variety of tasks or activities with the authentic resources. A new method, thus, should lead children to engage in learning English more interestingly with intrinsic motivation to enjoy learning itself (Milton, 2002). Milton suggests that computers can increase their intrinsic motivation because 'young learners love them whatever they do' (ibid: 13). Computer games can thus beconsidered as a potential tool of stimulating children's intrinsic motivation.

Language Learning and MMORPG RuneScape

Broadly, MMORPG is one genre of computer games and specifically can be defined as a role-playing game with a large number of players in real time on online. It has a number of features to support language learning environments. It consists of the mainly English-based platforms to bring together game players for 'challenging real-time gaming and role-play within network-based simulations' (Peterson, 2010: 83). In MMORPGs

contexts, thus, 'students need to learn the knowledge and skills of English and practice them in authentic ways' (Suh et al., 2010:371). It also builds up an 'immersive learning environment' with 'sight, sound, participation and imagination [and] social interaction among players' (Rankin et al., 2006: 2). As a result, MMORPGs might be a solution to solve the time and space problems of English learning, by allowing students to 'play in the same environment and interact with players from other countries' (Bryant, 2007: 2). With these features of MMORPGs for English learning, RuneScape has strong points to be selected as a game tool for my research. In terms of hardware aspects, it is free to use although membership is optional with Guinness World Record as the world's most popular free MMORPG. It has Java-based platform so users can get access easily and quickly without installing any software or CD keys. In terms of software aspects, players can be exposed to English text-based environments whilst playing RuneScape. They encounter the texts including vocabulary, lexical phrases and sentences so they should understand vocabulary meanings and read the texts to accomplish tasks or quests successfully.

Research Methodology

This doctoral project analysed the English text learners would encounter and, using observation, attempted to describe vocabulary and reading strategies they tend to use while playing RuneScape. I sampled five Korean elementary students (1 female and 4 males, aged 10-11) in a private English institute. Each participant played RuneScape for 30 minutes per session, for 9 to 14 sessions. The texts that participants encountered whilst playing, retrieved using a screen recorder, formed my dataset. I classified the lexis in these texts into six categories: generally-used vocabulary and lexical phrases, lexis specific to computer games; RuneScape Vernacular (i.e., specific to Runescape, e.g., Lumbridge Home Teleport); chat speak (such as acronyms and abbreviations, e.g., Lol ("Laugh out loud"); emoticons (e.g., :) smiley face); and reduplication (extending words or punctuation marks, often for pragmatic or humorous effect, e.g., Noooooooooo). Observation data which I gathered by note-taking into the observation analytical framework, were divided into two main categories as vocabulary strategies (sub-categories; looking up in dictionary, verbalising vocabulary and guessing meanings verbally) and reading strategies (sub-categories; clicking, verbalising, reading texts aloud, translating and typing).

Initial Findings and Conclusion

Here I illustrate the initial findings from the text analysis phase. A significant initial finding is that participants encountered a lot of fixed lexical expressions that seem to be used for pragmatic purposes, for example, 'Can I help you at all?', 'Select an option', 'Yes, please', 'What are you selling?', 'How should I use your shop?' and 'No, thanks.' Although Korean students are taught lexical phrases alongside other vocabulary in their English lessons, time limitations and large classes mean that they do not get sufficient exposure or practice in their use especially for pragmatic purposes. I tentatively conclude therefore that RuneScape and other MMORPGs have the potential to usefully supplement classroom vocabulary teaching.

References

Todd Bryant. 2007. Games as an Ideal Learning Environment. In *NITLE Transformations* 13 April 2007, pp1-8.

Defeng Li. 2001. Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. In David R Hall & Ann Hewings (eds.), *Innovation in English Language Teaching*. London: Routledge.

James Milton. 2002. *Literature Review in Languages, Technology and Learning*. Bristol: NESTA Futurelab.

Mark Peterson. 2010. Computerized Games and Simulations in Computer-Assisted Language Learning: A Meta-Analysis of Research. In *Simulation & Gaming* 41, 2010, pp72-93.

Yolanda A Rankin, Rachel Gold & Bruce Gooch. 2006. Evaluating Interactive Gaming as a Language Learning Tool. In *Conference Proceedings SIGGRAPH Educators Program 2006*, Boston, MA.

S Suh, S W Kim, & N J Kim. 2010. Effectiveness of MMORPG-based instruction in elementary English education in Korea. In *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning* 26, 2010, pp370-378.

29 The Use of Can-Do Statements for Assessing the Writing Skills of Japanese University Students

Wakako Kobayashi
Aoyama Gakuin University, Japan
wakakoba@mbh.nifty.com

The first purpose of this study was to develop the Classroom Can-do Questionnaire for a writing course in a Japanese university, and the second purpose of this study was to validate the writing section of the Eiken Can-do Questionnaire, and the Classroom- Can-do Questionnaire. The third purpose of this study concerned whether the students used the Eiken Can-do Questionnaire effectively as a self-assessment checklist. The final purpose was to investigate the influence of ten affective orientations (i.e., Desire to Write English, Attitude Toward Learning to Write English, Motivational Intensity, Instrumental Orientation, L2 Writing Anxiety, L2 Writing Self-Confidence, Willingness to Communicate, Self-Esteem, Cognitive Competence, and General Self-Worth), on the participants' responses to the Eiken Can-do Questionnaire.

Can-do questionnaires, which are made up of sentences describing what individuals believe they can accomplish in a foreign language, are now used by major high- stakes English test organizations to aid in the interpretation of test scores for tests such as TOEFL,TOEIC, GTEC for STUDENTS and the EIKEN (STEP) as more qualitative indicators of the current English Abilities of test takers. Other sources of Can-do questionnaires are the Common European Framework of Reference for Language Learning, Teaching and Assessment (CEFR), which was announced by the Council of Europe in 1996, and frameworks prepared by governmental organization in England, Canada, Australia or the United States as goals for learners to pursue and standards for level of Achievement (Naganuma, 2008).

The EIKEN Can-do List (2006), which is made up of descriptive statements by which Eiken test takers indicate what they believe they can accomplish in English in real-life situations, provides Can-do statements describing the test takers' self-perceived ability to use English for the four major skills of reading, listening, speaking and writing for each of the seven Eiken levels. The primary aim of the list is to help test users gain a better understanding of the levels of language ability targeted by the Eiken

tests (STEP, 2006) For this reason, the list is designed to be accessible to a variety of test users and is written in everyday, non-specialist language so that it is accessible to as wide a range of learners as possible. Eiken (STEP) also hopes that the Can-do list provides information that allows educators and researchers to achieve a better understanding of the proficiency of Japanese learners of English in General.

The participants of this study were 204 university students studying in two private universities in Tokyo, Japan. The main participants were 204 native speakers of Japanese (157 female and 47 male students) from 20 to 21 years old. Out of 204 participants, I taught 179 participants in the classroom in 2010 and 2011 in the music college and the prestigious university. All of the participants had studied English in the highly controlled formal educational system for six years in junior and high school. The general English proficiency levels of the music college participants varied from elementary to intermediate according to the placement test given in April. In terms of CEFR's criteria, their proficiency level range from A1 to B1. According to the Eiken Placement Test in Practical English Proficiency, the students' levels varied from the 5th to the 2nd grade. They were enrolled in classes focused on English for communicative purpose at the time of the study.

Four instruments were used in this study. The first was the writing section of the Eiken Can-do Questionnaire; this questionnaire served as the outside measure in this study. The second instrument was the Eiken Placement Test, which all the participants took when they entered the university. Third, six out of nine essays written by the students were assessed as a measure of their writing ability in English. The Affective Orientation Questionnaire was administered to measure ten Affective Orientations. The questionnaire and essay data were analysed using the Rasch rating scale and multi-faceted Rasch model, respectively.

All of the participants completed the Background Questionnaire and Affective Orientation Questionnaire in April 2010 and 2011 and completed the writing section of the Eiken Can-do Questionnaire in April, July, and December 2010 and 2011. 179 out of the 204 participants wrote six writing assignments during the 2010 and 2011 academic year, and 36 participants were interviewed about their writing assignments, the Eiken Can-do Questionnaire, their affective orientations, and the effects of the self-assessments. The relationships among the variables will be analysed using path analysis or hierarchical multiple regression.

In this study, I examined the validity and reliability of the three affective variables, Desire to Write English, Attitudes Toward Learning to Write English, Motivational Intensity, and converted the Likert scale scores to interval measures using the Rasch rating scale model as implemented in WINSTEP version 3.64.2 (Linacre & Write, 2007). For each construct, the following analyses will be reported: Rating scale category structure, Rasch descriptive statistics for the items, PCA of item residuals and Rasch item and person reliability and separation. In addition, the Wright map will be shown for each variable.

The results indicated that the use of the Eiken Can-do Questionnaire as the proficiency level measure was appropriate for this group of university students. Second, interviews showed that the use of Eiken Can-do Questionnaire three times in one academic year provides the students with higher motivation, autonomy, and meta-cognitive awareness. It is necessary to provide both students and teachers with adequate practice and guidance in using the Eiken Can-do Questionnaire in order to promote a deeper understanding of its purposes and uses.

References

Eiken Can-do List. 2006. Accessed 11 September 2009, www.eiken.or.jp/about/cando.html.

Naoyuki Naganuma. 2008. Can-do syakudoha ikeni eigokyouikuwo henkakushiuruka: Can-do kenkyu no houkousei. In *Arcle Review* 2 pp55-77.

STEP. 2006. *The Eiken Can-do list*. Society for Testing English Proficiency. Tokyo.

30 'Hey, you've missed out a point!': Co-construction of interactional competence through contriving disagreement in peer group speaking assessment

Daniel M.K. Lam
University of Edinburgh
M.K.Lam@sms.ed.ac.uk

Introduction

Interactional competence has been increasingly recognized as co-constructed (Young, 2008). In other words, what can be observed and measured in the assessment is not a simple display of ability by individual test-takers (e.g. answering multiple-choice questions in a reading test) but a product of their active construction as competent participants of interaction. More importantly, as recent research (e.g. Galaczi, 2008; Brooks, 2009) has shown, participants take shared responsibility or credit in co-constructing different interactional patterns, evidence of their interactional competence (or lack thereof). This paper examines an assessment context in which the co-construction of interactional competence takes place both prior to and within the assessed interaction.

The peer group interactions in this study are part of the School-based Assessment (SBA) component of a high-stakes English examination in Hong Kong. Students form their own groups of mostly four, and carry out an 8-12 minute interaction assessed by their own English teacher. The discussion task is released to the students several hours before the assessment for their preparation. A particular pattern of students' engagement with the task has then emerged: to pre-plan, pre-script, and rehearse the interaction. This paper explores the effect of such aspects of task implementation and engagement on the validity of the task as an assessment of interactional competence, and reports preliminary findings on the students' strategy of contriving disagreement.

Data and methodology

Assessed interactions were video-recorded and analyzed following a conversation analytic approach. Interviews incorporating stimulated recall with student-candidates and teacher-raters were conducted to gain insights on task implementation and engagement that might otherwise remain obscure in examining the test discourse alone. For this purpose, a mock SBA was also conducted with two groups in the second phase of data

collection, where both the preparation stage and the assessed interaction were video-recorded and the students' note cards were obtained.

Analysis

Initial analysis of the test discourse identified several sequences involving disagreement that appeared to be more extended, and higher quality exchanges. In the interviews with the students involved, they consistently reported having purposefully designed and pre-scripted these disagreement sequences, a strategy they themselves refer to as 'banning ideas'. The following transcript extract from the preparation stage of the mock SBA offers concrete evidence of this:

R: ((to K)) So you suggest having three spokespersons. And then who's gonna ban the idea? S will ban it, alright?
S: Sure, I'll ban it. I'll ban it.
R: And after banning it I'll lead to the discussion of 'place'. Alright, let's do it like this.
S: ((writing down)) I'll do the banning. The cost is too high.
R: ((writing down)) K will suggest three spokespersons, and then S bans the idea, because the cost is too high. And then I'll agree with it, and afterwards I'll introduce [the topic of] 'place'.

(Translated from Cantonese)

Figure 1: Transcript extract from mock SBA

Analysis of the test discourse and students' interview accounts suggest that the relevance of disagreement sequences to the co-construction of interactional competence lies mainly in foregrounding the contingency of a response to previous speaker contribution. Consider the following example:

Y: Hmm! Apart from: special order, we ha::ve special shape. (.) Uhm such a::s: heart, star, or diamond. It's special.
L: Yes, I think the tablet computer (.) hmm have 3D projection function. It can project 3D image, so that we can: watch 3D movies.
D: Oh, it's (.) very great. But how about convenience?=I think uh the tablet computer can be carried (.) to: everywhere and it's very convenient.
Y: Uhm: I'm sorry I'm afraid I don't agree with you, because most of the tablet computers are convenient. However, I thin:k (.) thin can be one of our: special features, because it is only zero <point three::> mm.
(1.4)
R: °Hmm° beside, this- tablet computer is waterproof. Uh: (.) if we- if you (.) overturn a cup of water (.) on the- this (.) tablet computer, it still work. Uh I think it's really important for some careless users.

Figure 2: Transcript of group discussion

In this sequence, students are talking about the special features of the tablet computer that the group has been asked to promote. In lines 9-12, Y's turn begins with an on-record disagreement token mitigated with an apology, followed by an account for the disagreement, and the proposal of another feature. She structures her turn such that the first part of her turn explicitly 'talks about' the previous speaker's idea. Her own idea is then presented in the second part of the turn, linked to the first part as an alternative proposal. This is contrasted with the next turn (lines 14-17), where R does not overtly agree or disagree, and moves on to propose another feature. Though relevant and on the same topic, it would appear to have weaker links to the prior turn without a turn component that explicitly addresses the previous proposal. A similar argument can be made about L's agreeing response (lines 3-5), where she delivers her own proposal following the agreement token 'yes'. Such response turns that come without an account have often been negatively commented on by teacher-raters as presenting one's own ideas rather than responding to co-participants. Overall, it seems more common for a disagreeing response to overtly address the idea in the previous speaker's turn with some degree of elaboration. This might be attributable to disagreements often being dispreferred actions which project an account from the speaker.

It is also evident from interview reports that students use disagreements as a strategy of performing competence to the teacher-rater. When asked about any strategies they used to impress the teacher-rater, students provided the following answers:

> *D: I think it's mainly the disagreements. Because we want the whole group to look like we're doing a discussion, not just each of us talking about our own ideas.*
>
> *S: We talked about this when designing each of our turns, we would first link to what the previous speaker has said before going on to propose our own ideas, so that there is a stronger link between the content ideas across the two turns.*
>
> *(Translated from Cantonese)*

Conclusion

A tentative conclusion from the analysis is that how the group interaction task has been implemented has both a positive and negative side to its validity. There is evidence of students' awareness and engagement with interactional competence in the ways they design their disagreement turns and sequences such that the contingency of responses to previous speaker

contribution is foregrounded. However, what can be observed in the assessed interaction is, in many cases, not the representation of students' *in situ* execution of interactional competence in L2, but of prior execution in the preparation stage in L1. The goal for the test developers, teachers, and students themselves, is therefore to develop the students' engagement with interactional competence from pre-scripting to spontaneous participation in interaction.

References

Lindsay Brooks. 2009. Interacting in pairs in a test of oral proficiency: Co-constructing a better performance. In *Language Testing* 26, 2009, pp341-366.

Evelina D Galaczi. 2008. Peer-peer interaction in a speaking test: The case of the First Certificate in English Examination. In *Language Assessment Quarterly* 5, 2008, pp89-119.

Richard F Young. 2008. *Language and interaction*. Routledge: New York, USA.

31 The UK language learning crisis in the public media: A critical analysis

Ursula Lanvers
Open University

Introduction

The UK has been identified for some time as having the poorest record in the EU of linguistic skills (e.g. Coleman, 2011). These poor results jar with the linguistically very diverse demographics of the UK, as 16.8% of primary and 12.3% of secondary school pupils speak languages other than English (DfE 2011). In addition, social inequalities in opportunities to study languages as well as take-up of languages at all levels are well documented. For instance, Independent schools teach significantly more languages than those in the State sector (e.g. Tinsley & Han, 2011). A possible explanation for the 'linguistic deficit' lies in the perception of English hegemony among L1 English speakers (Dermont-Heinrich, 2009; Ensslin & Johnson, 2006; Norton & Gieve, 2010) The UK media, however, have reported intensively on the current language crisis.

In England, languages are only compulsory for the age groups 11-14/15 years (Key Stage 3), with equivalent policies in Scotland, Wales and North Ireland. In 2004, under the Labour Government, compulsory language learning for students aged 14+ was abolished in England. This legislation resulted in a large reduction of students studying a language up to GCSE. In 2011, languages at age 14+ were compulsory in only 23% of State schools, 75% of 14 year olds did not study a foreign language.

Research questions

1. What (sub)themes of the UK language crisis are (not) covered in English National, English regional and local and Scottish, Welsh and Northern Irish newspapers?
2. How do the themes relate to the a) sociodemographics of readership? b) political context of the language learning crisis in the UK?

Method

A Nexis UK archive search was carried out, selecting UK Newspapers dated 28.2.2010-29.2/2012, yielding a total of 89 relevant articles (46 from English national press, 23 from English regional press, 20 from Scottish and Welsh press). The UK Newspaper landscape is characterized by

socially, culturally and economically very distinct target audiences: this polarization dictates for the distinction between *broadsheet* and *tabloid* readership in the analysis.

Results

In the English national press, 38 of 46 articles stem from broadsheets; thus, the coverage is heavily skewed in favour of quality papers. The coverage clearly shows that concerns about the language crisis are mainly expressed in the press targeting the middle classes, in line with educational topics in general (Duffy & Rowden, 2004). The tabloids readership receive less information about the crisis, and, if reported, focus more on concrete facts at school level, less on strategic issues, and not at all on personal benefits of language learning. Personal and professional ambitions, as well as policies and decision making, are foregrounded in the 'quality' press. Information on newspaper readership habits by voting intention allows the broad classification of papers as left-or right-leaning. Linking this to the topical analysis, right leaning papers tend to blame the 2004 Labour policy; the left leaning press refrains from allocating blame to teachers.

Articles in the regional press report on specific events and initiatives, e.g. in their schools, thus simultaneously provide a positive outlook, and frame their area as agents against the crisis. Unlike in the national press, language teaching at Primary level is presented positively. Thus, the regional press has a positive stance, is keen to report local promotional events and refrains from political stances in 'blaming' parties or Governments.

The Scottish press reports prominently on the crisis. The Scottish interest can partly be explained by the greater threat to the Foreign Language Assistantships in Scotland than the rest of the UK, but even if discarding articles focusing on this, the Scottish press stands out as showing great concern for the language crisis. The Scottish press puts greater emphasis on the economic argument for languages than the English national and regional press. The *Herald* frames Scottish mentality as possessing a desired cosmopolitan outlook (albeit in need of further development), thus distancing Scottish from English mentality (perceived as more anglo-centric), while simultaneously strengthening national identity.

The Welsh press offers only three articles, mostly invoking blames for the crisis, thus betraying little interest in the crisis, other than scoring goals for political agendas. The Northern Irish press does not report on the crisis.

Conclusion

The English national broadsheets and Scotland's *Herald* report on the language crisis in some detail, with topics ranging from teaching issues (e.g. 'hard' GCSE), policies (e.g. the 2004 policy), aspects of national interest (e.g. importance for business), to holding different stakeholders responsible for the crisis. Coverage in the English press betrays clear political stance, revealing transparent links to the political orientation of specific papers. Coverage in English regional papers refrains from party-political positioning in respect of the 'blame game', but promotes local/regional events. The Scottish press uses the crisis to promote distance from the neighbouring England-framed as more anglo-centric-, an especially significant finding given the currently topical debates on Scottish devolution.

References

J A Coleman. 2011. Modern languages in the United Kingdom. In *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education* 10 2, pp127-129.

C Demont-Heinrich. 2009. Language, Globalization, and the Triumph of Popular Demand: The Discourse of Populism in American Prestige Press Coverage of the Global Hegemony of English. In *The Communication Review* 12, pp20-49.

DfE (Department for Education). 2011. *GCSE and Equivalent Attainment by Pupil Characteristics in England*. Available at www.education.gov.uk/researchandstatistics/datasets/a00202462/gcse-equivalent-attainment-pupil-characteristics.

B Duffy & L Rowden. 2004. *You are what you read? How newspaper readership is related to views*. London: MORI. www.mori.com. Accessed 15 March 2012.

A Ensslin & S Johnson. 2006. Language in the news: Investigating representations of 'Englishness' using WordSmith Tools. In *Corpora* 1 2, pp153-185.

J E Norton & S Gieve. 2010. The erasure of linguistic difference in media representations of encounters with others on British television. In *Language Awareness* 19 3, pp205-225.

T Tinsley & Y Han. (2011) *Language learning in secondary schools in England Findings from the 2011 Language Trends survey*. Available at: www.cfbt.com/evidenceforeducation/PDF/Language%20Trends%20Report.pdf.

32 Do We Really Understand an 'Invisible' Object Argument in English?

Patrick Chi-wai Lee
Newcastle University
chi-wai.lee@ncl.ac.uk

Previous second language acquisition studies (e.g. Yuan, 1997) suggest L1 transfer problems for Chinese learners of L2 English (henceforth Chinese) who may have difficulties in acquiring an English object (e.g. *Mary's bike has been broken. I am going to repair *(it) for her*). English generally requires an overt object in anaphoric contexts whereas Chinese allows object drop when there is an antecedent. Interestingly, English has verbs (e.g. *draw*, *drink*, *drive*, *read*, *iron*, *etc*.) that can allow a null object in non-anaphoric contexts such as in *John reads every night*. That null object is argued to be conceived as a null cognate object *e* whose semantic content is derived from a verb (see Cummins and Roberge, 2003). One puzzling question is to investigate to what extent Chinese would have anaphoric object drop particularly with respect to those target verbs that can allow a null cognate object. In *Susan irons Paul's shirts before he goes to work. Paul doesn't iron e at weekends*, would Chinese interpret the second sentence with an object gap as *Paul doesn't iron his shirts at weekends* or *Paul doesn't iron anything at weekends*? This study aims to tap into one's linguistic competence of understanding an 'invisible' object argument in English: a null cognate object or anaphoric object drop.

Task design: Acceptability judgment and interpretation test

There were 25 test items and 25 distractors in this task. Each test item consisted of two sentences, for example: *Susan irons Paul's shirts before he goes to work. Paul doesn't iron at weekends.* An antecedent (*Paul's shirts*) was given and one target verb (*iron*) that can allow a null cognate object was given in the second sentence. Five target verbs were: *draw*, *drink*, *drive*, *read*, and *iron*.

- If the sentence is CORRECT, (i) tick the Correct box and (ii) circle the BEST answer (a) OR (b).
- If the sentence is INCORRECT, (i) tick the Incorrect box, (ii) write any changes on the line, and (iii) circle the best answer (a) OR (b).

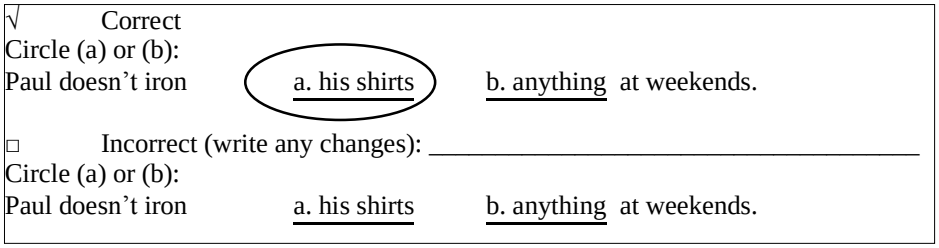


Figure 1: An exemplar of anaphoric object drop

Data coding: The possibility of anaphoric object drop in English

Only the answer of ticking the correct box and circling (a) is counted as a token for allowing anaphoric object drop in English. This answer has revealed that participants misinterpret the object gap as an antecedent though they accept the test item as correct.

Participants

Participants	Gender	Number
85 Chinese	M	41
	F	44
22 Native English speaker controls	M	12
	F	10

Table 1: Participants by geneder

The Chinese participants fulfilled all the following five criteria. This aims to reduce individual differences and to control for homogeneity of participants.

- they are Chinese and were born in Hong Kong
- they are adult instructed English learners
- they have not stayed in an English speaking country for more than two months
- they use Cantonese as the first language
- they use Cantonese to speak with family members and friends

Findings

(all target verbs)	Mean	Max.	Min	Std. Deviation
Chinese (N = 85)	16.56%	56.00%	0.00%	14.383
The controls (N = 22)	3.45%	32.00%	0.00%	7.063

Table 2: The possibility of anaphoric object drop

	Chinese (N = 85)	The controls (N = 22)	Differences between Chinese and the controls
iron	15.29%	1.82%	13.47%
read	19.29%	5.45%	13.84%
draw	16.47%	0.00%	16.47%
drink	10.12%	1.82%	8.3%
drive	21.65%	8.18%	13.47%

Table 3: Differences in the possibility of anaphoric object drop between Chinese and the controls

Table 1 shows that Chinese have a mean of 16.56% in the possibility of anaphoric object drop whereas the controls have 3.45% in this regard. All statistical analysis for this task was carried out using Mann-Whitney Test. There are statistical differences in the possibility of anaphoric object drop between Chinese and the controls, with respect to each target verb (*draw*: p = 0.000; *drink*: p = 0.007; *drive*: p = 0.010; *iron*: p = 0.002; *read*: p = 0.004).

Table 2 reveals that, with respect to each target verb, the possibility of anaphoric object drop ranges from 10.12% to 21.65% for Chinese. The smallest difference in the possibility of anaphoric object drop between Chinese and the controls is 8.3% and the biggest difference is 16.47%.

Discussion and Conclusions

The results reveal that Chinese have achieved a mean of 16.56% in the possibility of anaphoric object drop in English, compared with the controls of 3.45%. Across five target verbs, the percentages of the possibility of anaphoric object drop are: *iron*: 15.29%; *read*: 19.29%; *draw*: 16.47%; *drink*: 10.12%; *drive*: 21.65%. When comparing to the controls, the results indicate that Chinese have achieved a higher possibility of anaphoric object drop and the differences are: *iron*: 13.47%; *read*: 13.84%; *draw*: 16.47%; *drink*: 8.3% and *drive*: 13.47%. Those differences may not be huge in number; however, they are statistically different between Chinese and the controls. Most importantly, this raises an issue related to different interpretations of an invisible object argument in English. For example, the difference could be that one may interpret *e* as *anything* as in *Susan irons Paul's shirts before he goes to work. Paul doesn't iron e at weekends*, whereas another may interpret *e* as *Paul's shirts.* Though *Paul's shirt* is a sub-set of *anything that can be ironable*, I argue that this statistical and subtle difference in understanding a null cognate object should never be

neglected. Without tapping into one's interpretation of a null object in a grammatical sentence as such, we never know how he or she understands it. To conclude, the facts from this empirical study have implications on understanding sentence meaning and pedagogical teaching on verb transitivity. Liu (2008) has pointed out that L2 learners should be provided with a clearer picture regarding verbs with or without an object, hence allowing them to develop a more systematic and accurate account of these English verbs. Lastly, I argue that to explicitly highlight English verb types that can or cannot allow a null object to L2 learners would enhance their understanding of verb transitivity, so L2 learners can grasp when object drop is permitted in English.

References

Sarah Cummins & Yves Roberge. 2003. Null objects in French and English. Paper delivered at *Linguistics Symposium on Romance Languages 33*, Indiana University, Bloomington.

Dilin Liu. 2008. Intransitive or object deleting? Classifying English verbs used without an object. In *Journal of English Linguistics* vol 36, pp289-313.

Boping Yuan. 1997. Asymmetry of null subjects and null objects in Chinese speakers' L2 English. In *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* vol 19, pp467-497.

33 The practice and effects of using blog-assisted online extensive reading programme in ELT

Wan-lun Lee
Fu Jen Catholic University
leemary.tw@yahoo.com.tw

Introduction

The pervasive use of the Internet in today's world has a powerful influence on people's reading habits. For my Taiwanese EFL university students of non-English major, most of whom are used to getting information mainly by reading online, traditional extensive reading programmes that rely solely on printed materials, particularly graded readers, are undoubtedly "out of date." To replicate their "real-life" reading in this digital age and equip them with the ability and confidence to deal with authentic English texts on the Internet, a blog-assisted online extensive reading programme has been developed and implemented in my Advanced English course for non-English majors.

The implementation of the blog-assisted ER programme

To replace the classroom-based library in traditional ER programmes, an online ER library with two hundred electronic, HTML-based English texts collected from free news, magazine or literature-related websites was set up at the beginning of the 18-week semester, using a very simple and popular blogging tool, Blogger (http://blogger.com). The initial class meetings were devoted to an introduction of the ER programme and the tutor's ER blog as well as step-by-step instructions on setting up a Blogger account and managing the settings.

In odd weeks starting from Week 5 of the semester, the students were required to choose and read a news report, magazine article, short story or a chapter of a novel posted on the teacher's ER blog, and then on their own ER blogs, they had to post a reading journal consisting of a summary of the online text they read, their personal feedback to it, and one or two issues they wished to discuss with the others after their reading. In even weeks, they visited the ER blogs run by the other members in their reading groups of five, read each member's chosen online text and journal, and finally left comments responding to the discussion issues. On the other hand, they also needed to go back to their own blogs regularly to check and reply to comments made by their group mates.

The ER programme was not conducted in class but served to encourage and facilitate students' English reading and writing outside of class. With the help of blogs, students read and wrote in English online autonomously at their own pace and in their own time. However, every two or three weeks, their ER blogs would be checked by the teaching assistant of the course to see if each student followed the biweekly reading-to-write schedule and each reading group was active in exchanging opinions through asynchronous online communication. At the end of the semester, each student's ER blog served as an online portfolio where all the reading journals were stored and organized chronologically according to date, which made it easy for both the teacher and the student to evaluate the progress made during the semester.

Researching into the effects of the blog-assisted ER programme

A mixed-method study using both quantitative and qualitative data sources from pre-course and post-course questionnaire surveys, student interviews, blog posts and comments was conducted to investigate the effects of this ER programme on these students' English reading habits, attitudes and ability, and examine whether different English language proficiency levels, majors, or sexes would affect their reading preferences and their motivation to complete the out-of-class ER task without the presence of the teacher.

According to the major findings of this study, this ER programme increased the students' confidence and interest in reading and writing in English online; promoted positive attitudes toward working with authentic online materials written for native speakers of English; developed their English reading and writing ability; and improved their critical thinking skills. There is also evidence that though students preferred to read texts that matched their interests or allowed them to use their background knowledge, the diversity of the preselected texts on the tutor's ER blog motivated the majority of them to step out of their "comfort zone" and read on a wide variety of topics or explore different genres. Moreover, a number of students agreed that writing for their blog readers, i.e. their peers in the same reading group, not just for the teacher, made them want to use more of their time and make more effort to write better and express themselves more clearly.

The findings also reveal that students with poorer English reading ability than their peers' or heavier reliance on a dictionary tended to abandon a text quickly, and they preferred news reports because they believed that

texts falling into the other genres would be longer and more difficult. Besides, they seemed less likely to complete the reading-to-write task on time and unwilling to make or reply to blog comments. On the other hand, students of different majors and sexes did not show any significant difference in their willingness to get engaged in the ER programme, but they did have different reading preferences, which, however, became less obvious as many of them started reading texts on diverse topics and of different genres.

It needs to be pointed out here that the semester-long ER programme failed to help the students form a long-term habit of reading and writing online in English because some of them complained about the time-consuming nature of the task and most of them had no intention of carrying on doing more reading on the tutor's blog or running their ER blogs after the semester was over. However, some of them believed that every now and then, they would spend time browsing the English websites they knew from this ER programme or try getting information from online materials in English to help them prepare for class presentations or complete assignments.

Conclusion

It is hoped that the current study will yield some insights into the practice and effects of using blogs and online materials with EFL non-English majors for extensive reading purposes and lay the foundations to integrate extensive online reading into the foreign language curriculum.

References

Nike Arnold. 2009. Online extensive reading for advanced foreign learners: an evaluation study. In *Foreign Language Annals* 42(2), 2009, pp340-366.

Richard R Day & Julian Bamford. 1998. *Extensive reading in the second language classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

34 The institutionalization of Applied Linguistics in the USA

Jacqueline Léon
Université Paris Diderot
jleon@linguist.jussieu.fr

The institutionalization of Applied Linguistics in the USA was not anchored in the long-term tradition as in Britain and in France, but started in 1941 in the wake of Pearl Harbour, when the Americans realized that foreign language teaching was a crucial war issue. Two main elements characterized that emergence: the involvement of linguists and linguistic institutions and the impact of operational method originating from war culture.

The process of institutionalization lasted from 1941 to 1959. In 1941, Mortimer Graves (1893-1982), the Executive Secretary of the *American Council of Learned Societies* set an *Intensive Language Program (ILP)* associating the *Linguistic Society of America*. That same year, Charles Fries (1887-1967) created the *English Language Institute* at the University of Michigan. From April 1943 until April 1944, the *Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP)* was created and produced a wide variety of language materials.

In the post-war period, Fries created the journal the *Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics* in 1948, thus coining the term *Applied Linguistics.* In 1949, the *Institute of Languages and Linguistics* was created by Leon Dostert at Georgetown University. In 1958, the NDEA (*National Defense Education Act)* was signed into law and was followed in 1959 by the creation of the *Centre for Applied Linguistics* in Washington DC under the direction of Charles Ferguson.

By the beginning of the war, linguists had acquired a scientific reputation and linguistics was already strongly institutionalized even though it was not well established in the universities. The *Linguistic Society of America*, created in the 1920s, was powerful with its Linguistic Institutes, and its two journals *Language* and the *International Journal of American Linguistics.* Therefore, Mortimer Graves called on linguists to develop language teaching methods. In 1942, Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949), Bernard Bloch (1907-1965) and George Trager (1906–1992) set up what would soon be called "the war method", based on European Reform Movement

principles and on methods used by Anthropological linguists for describing non-written languages. They insisted on the primacy of understanding and speaking over reading and writing which involved an extensive use of mimicry, imitation and drill (the "mim-mem" method). In 1940, in his *American English Grammar*, Charles Fries outlined a new method, the contrastive analysis in language learning, which involved comparing the structures of the mother tongue and the foreign language, in order to predict and anticipate the difficulties that students will encounter. Repetitive drills had to be supplemented by active selection of structural patterns. The "structural method" would be adopted massively by every language teaching programs during and after the war. Clear predominance of linguistics led present-day applied linguists to qualify American applied linguistics as top-down. The terms 'linguistics-applied' 'linguistics-driven', 'theory-driven view of applied linguistics' were used to name the North American tradition implying that these issues were thought of as unmediated theory-first applications of linguistic insights without any grasp of "real-world problems".

It can be assumed that the early development of technologies for language teaching (use of spectrograms, gramophones, tape recorders, speech analysis and synthesis, language laboratories, and later visual aids) was part of the operational method at work in the "Army method". Operational method, derived from "War Culture" and combining science and engineering, led to famous achievements such as radars and computers. It can be characterized by the following features:

- a unique objective
- strong federal investment including huge technical and human means
- implementing war sciences, that is the interaction between sciences and engineering
- performing tasks automatically which had been hitherto performed by human beings.

Operational method for language teaching was implemented through several aspects. Every trained linguist became involved in *ILP* and *ASTP*. The programs benefited from strong federal financial investment and support from the Rockefeller Foundation and the Ford Foundation. Massive production of teaching materials and the use of technological aids helped perform language teaching with reduced human intervention. Besides, there are two domains where linguists came across war sciences: cryptography and machine translation. Actually, only two linguists were involved both in war sciences and language teaching. Martin Joos (1907-1978) was the only

one to carry out engineering activities, using spectrographs to improve secret communication devices. After the war, spectrographs became crucial for implementing language laboratories. Leon Dostert (1904-1971) was the only one to be involved in machine translation and language teaching. Machine translation was conceived of as a cold war technology, a pure product of operational method and war sciences. Originally a translator at the Nuremberg war crime trials, Dostert was the founder of the *Institute of Languages and Linguistics* at Georgetown University in 1949. At the same time, he was in charge of the Georgetown machine translation project and organized the first demonstration on machine translation, in collaboration with IBM in January 1954 in New York.

References

J Milton Cowan & Mortimer Graves. 1942. Report of the first year's operation of the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies 1941-1942. In Martin Joos, *Notes on the Development of the Linguistic Society of America, 1924-1950*. 1986 [1976], pp97-113.

Amy Dahan & Dominique Pestre (eds). 2004. *Les sciences pour la guerre (1940-1960)*. Paris: Editions de l'EHESS.

Leon Dostert. 1954. Pedagogical concepts for the use of certain audio aids in language teaching. In *Monograph series on languages and linguistics* 6, pp1-6.

Charles C Fries. 1940. *American English Grammar, the grammatical structure of present-day American English with especial reference to social differences or class dialects*. New York, London: Appleton-century Company.

Martin Joos. 1986 [1976]. *Notes on the Development of the Linguistic Society of America, 1924-1950*. Ithaca, N.Y.: Linguistica.

Jacqueline Léon. 2006. La traduction automatique Handbücher zur Sprach- und Kommunikationswissenschaft. In Sylvain Auroux, E F K Koerner, Hans-Joseph Niederehe, Kees Versteegh (eds) *Histoire des Sciences du Langage* vol. 3. Walter de Gruyter, Berlin, , pp2767-2774.

Andrew Linn, Danielle Candel & Jacqueline Léon (eds). 2011. Disciplinarisation de la linguistique appliquée. In *Histoire Epistémologie Langage* vol 33-1.

Janet Martin-Nielsen. 2010. 'This war for men's minds': the birth of a human science in Cold War America. In *History of the Human Sciences* pp131-55.

Barry L Velleman. 2008. The 'Scientific Linguist' Goes to War. In *Historiographia Linguistica* vol. 35, 3, pp385-416.

35 It is really about me! – Using local grammar to detect singular first person patterns in tweets

Sheng Li
University of Birmingham
sxl035@bham.ac.uk

Introduction

With tremendous user-generated contents every day, Twitter has recently become a popular focus of research. However, the unique tweet language has not yet attracted much attention from linguistics. Assisted by local grammar, this paper concentrates on the first person pronoun structures in tweets to understand its features.

Background

Naaman, Boase & Lai (2010) suggest that specific Twitter user groups exhibit common behaviours: language differences may relate to the number of the followers. However, their study has focused on only category-specific users. Also, Bollen, Mao and Zeng (2011) indicate that the pattern containing 'I' is indicative to user's emotion. Nevertheless, neither of them have analysed linguistic features of tweets in details.

The study uses data from the Content Analysis Web2.0 conference (CAW2), which were randomly collected by Fundación Barcelona Media. Under the usage terms, this dataset can be freely used for research purpose (CAW2, 2009). Apparently, the language of tweets is unique: in the corpus, 'I' is the most frequent word; also the pattern 'AM doing', regarded as an ellipsis in this paper, is frequently used. This combination is highly structured, therefore can be considered as a sublanguage structure. Extracting such a sublanguage structure is particularly difficult due to the variousness and flexibility of tweet language.

Local Grammar

General purpose grammar does not often perform well at parsing sublanguage, as it cannot fully capture the specific information due to its vagueness. Thus, a more specific grammar is needed. According to Gross (1984), local grammar classifies sub-language into three groups based on the flexibility of the structure: free structure, semi-frozen free structure and frozen structure construction. Apparently, the patterns in this case study are neither frozen structures, nor semi-frozen free structures, but free verb

structures: they are not very easily identified. However, as shown in the later analysis, the gerund-form verbs used in 'I + ellipsis' patterns are relatively limited; thus this type of pattern is considered as a support verb structure.

Data collection

Removing XML tags, there are 977,570 tweets with 12,826,992 tokens in the corpus, and 'I' is the top frequent word with 435620 occurrences (3.4%). 'I AM' is the most frequent bigram in the corpus: extracting 'I am', 'I'm', and non-standard forms of 'I m', 'Iam' and 'Im', there are 81,839 tweets containing 95,109 occurrences in the corpus, which means that 8.38% tweets contain this patter (See Table 1).

Pattern	Occurrence	Percentage
I'm	61220	64.37%
I am	19238	20.23%
Im	14377	15.12%
I m	161	0.17%
Iam	113	0.12%
Total	95109	100%

Table 1 Statistics of different forms of 'I AM' (case-insensitive)

Specifically, the pattern 'I am doing', 'I'm doing', 'I m doing', 'Iam doing' and 'Im doing' are extracted respectively. As shown in the Table 2, 'I'm doing' dominates among the five, while 'I am doing' and 'Im doing' takes the rest, but 'I m doing' and 'Iam doing' occur rarely. This, again, suggests that people are very likely to use informal expressions on Twitter.

Pattern	Occurrence	Percentage
I'm doing	18309	68.93%
I am doing	5166	19.45%
Im doing	3008	11.32%
I m doing	45	0.17%
Iam doing	33	0.12%
Total	26561	100.00%

Table 2: Statistics of different forms of 'I AM doing' (case-insensitive)

Furthermore, using an adverb or 'not' in such a pattern is common, so they are included in this analysis (Table 3). There are 6370 occurrences of 'I am not/dong' pattern in the corpus. Therefore, in total. there are 32,931 occurrences of the 'I + ellipsis' pattern, which is 34.62% of bigram following 'I'.

Pattern	Occurrence	Percentage
I'm adv/not doing	4140	64.99%
I am adv/not doing	1340	21.04%
Im adv/not doing	875	13.74%
I m adv/not doing	7	0.11%
Iam adv/not doing	8	0.13%
Total	6370	100.00%

Table 3: Statistics of different forms of 'I AM adv/not doing' (case-insensitive)

Results

After manually analysing the most frequent verbs used in the above ellipsis structure, it then categorises them into six groups, and uses local grammar tool TextTool (Mason, 2012) to further the analysis.

'Going' group

'Going' group includes going, heading, reaching, coming, leaving and returning, starting, running. 'I am going' is one of the most frequent example in this pattern, although it often indicates the future status, such as 'I am going to do'.

'Thinking' group

'Thinking' group contains verbs expressing one's idea: thinking, feeling, wondering, hoping, missing, loving, liking, and considering.

'Making' group

'Making' group contains verb of 'doing something': making, trying, working, preparing, planning, finding, using, doing.

Sense verb group

Sense verb group contains verbs expressing one's sense: looking, watching, reading, hearing, listening, being are included. Broader than the original

grammatical concept of sense verb, this group also contains: eating, having, reading, enjoying, eating, starving, freezing, hearing, watching, looking, drinking, taking, freezing, and getting.

'Expressing' group

'Expressing' group includes verbs that express one's opinion: saying, writing, texting. Also, on Twitter, some special expressions occur often, for example, tweeting, updating, following, signing.

'Staying' group

'Staying' group has the verb expressing a relatively stable status, such as sitting, standing, waiting, staying, standing, wearing, and lying.

Then, the research randomly selects 2 groups of 1000 tweets containing pattern 'I+AM' to apply local grammar analysis. Using TextTool it is easy to extract the patterns from the samples: 401 and 360 tweets are captured by this 'I + ellipsis' respectively, and the complete network graph is shown in figure 1.

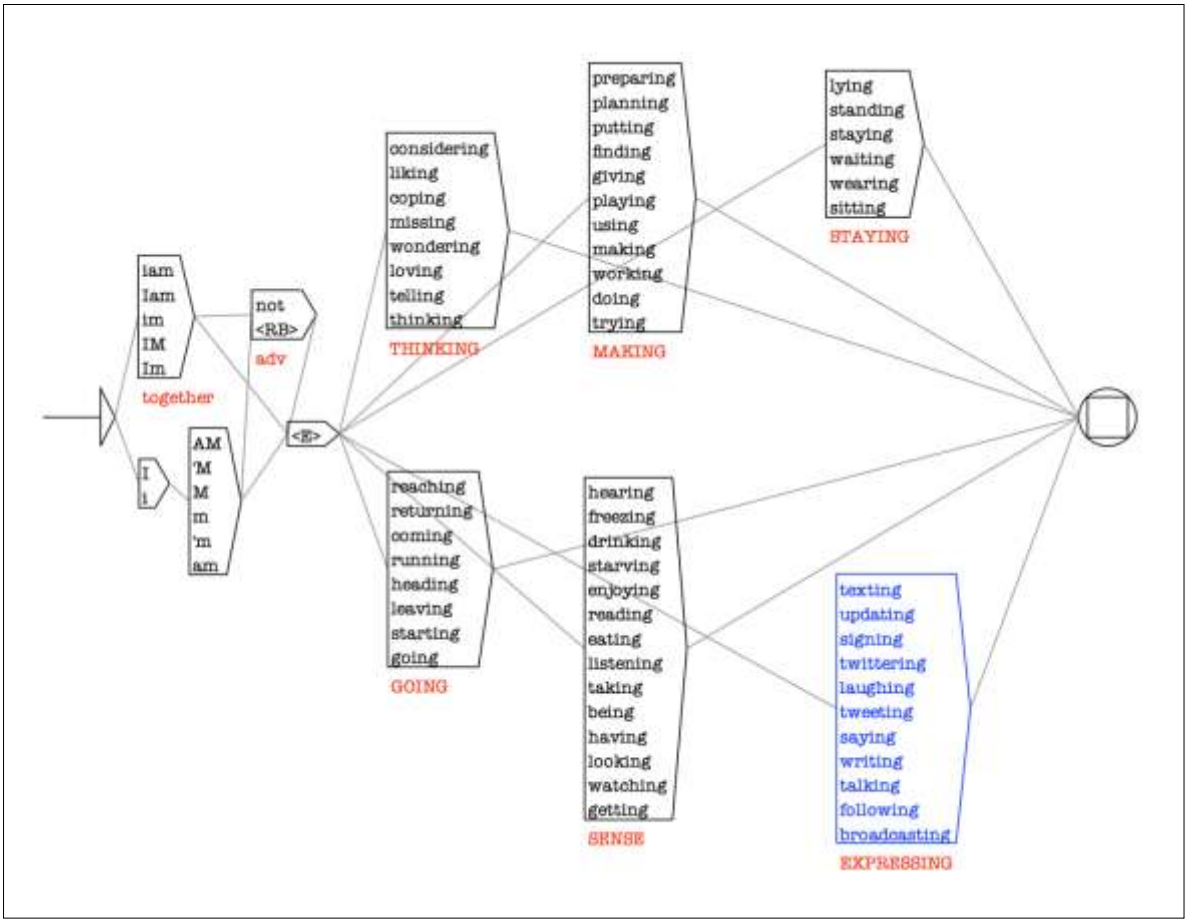


Figure 1: Network of 'I + AM' and six verb groups

Conclusion

The research used a one-million-tweet corpus to understand the association of the pattern 'I + ellipsis' and future events. It first manually analysed the top frequent pattern with 'I', and classified them to six verb groups. Applying local grammar, using TextTool can effectively extract all matched pattern in the random samples, which suggests that the 'I AM doing' pattern is a highly-structured sublanguage in tweets.

References

Johan Bollen, Huina Mao, Xiao-Jun Zeng. 2011. Twitter mood predicts the stock market. In *Journal of Computational Science*, March 2011.

CAW2.0. 2009. *CAW2.0 - Content Analysis in Web 2.0*. Retrieved September 16, 2011, from http://caw2.barcelonamedia.org/node/7

Maurice Gross. 1984. Lexicon-grammar and the syntactic analysis of French. In *Proceedings of the 10th International Conference on Computational Linguistics and 22nd annual meeting on Association for Computational Linguistics*, 1984.

Mor Naaman, Jeffrey Boase, Chih-Hui Lai. 2010. Is it really about me?: message content in social aware-ness streams. *Proceedings of CSCW*, 2010.

Oliver Mason. 2012. *TextTool*.

36 Gaps between Business English taught and workplace requirements in China

Liang Liao
Coventry University
liaol@uni.coventry.ac.uk

Background

Business English used to be taught as a component of English language and literature degrees in China, but in 2007 the Chinese Ministry of Education approved Business English as a university major, and since then it has become established as an independent discipline, first at the University of International Business and Economics (UIBE) in Beijing, and now at many other Chinese universities including Jiangxi University of Finance and Economics, to which the Modern Economics and Management College (MEMC) is linked. The change in the status of Business English has not been without attendant problems. A standardized Business English test for Chinese universities has not yet been developed.

This study intends to discover to what extent the current business English degree program actually prepares the business English majors for the demands of an international business community?

Needs analysis

Needs analysis was conducted to identify any gaps between university and workplace requirements. A slightly modified version of Munby's (1978) 'communicative needs processor' (CNP) serves as the main conceptual framework in this study, but an additional variable – educational institution - has been added to include insider's views both from the educational institution (such as learners' needs, teacher's perspectives) and from the target situation (i.e. employers' and employees' perspectives), see figure 1.

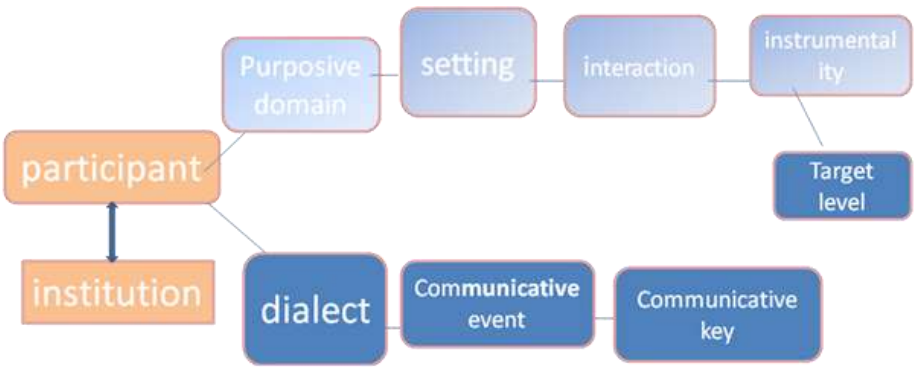


Figure 1: Munby's revised CNP

Mixed methods were adopted to conduct needs analysis including questionnaires, interviews and further textual analysis of emails written by the recent graduates from MEMC. The questions asked in the questionnaires and interviews are based on the model in the above figure. Multiple sources were employed in this needs analysis. I interviewed recent MEMC graduates of 2011, employers of these recent graduates of 2011, and current MEMC students and teachers of Business English modules. I also collected examples of emails produced by MEMC graduates of 2011 in the workplace.

Preliminary results

The questionnaires to company workers in China revealed that the most frequently reported modes of using English (instrumentality) were 'writing emails' (72) and 'reading emails' (72). The frequency of other modes of using English was almost evenly distributed, as shown in Figure 2. 'Reading documents' was the second most frequent mode.

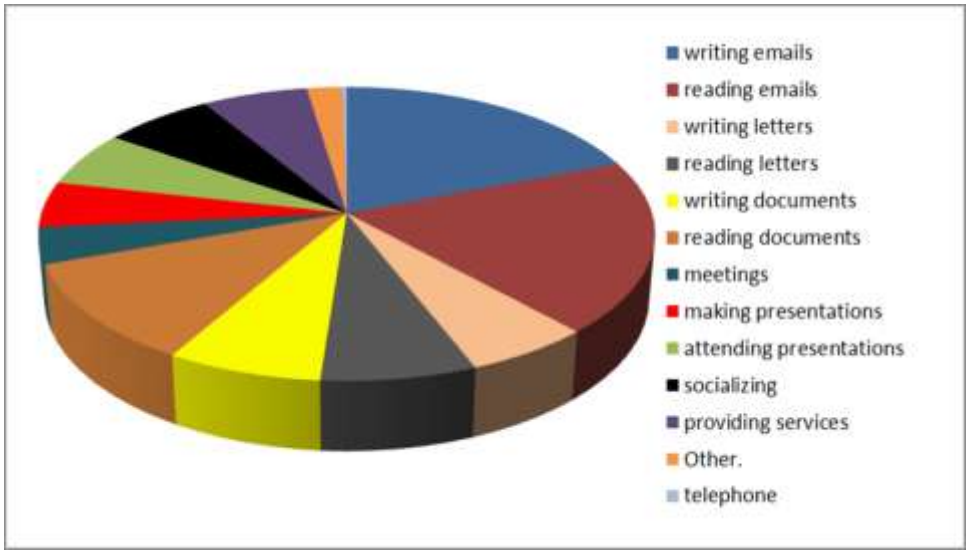


Figure 2: The most frequent mode of using English in the workplace

The questionnaires returned from current Business English students in MEMC show that the majority of the respondents (60%) selected the item 'working in companies' to indicate their plans after graduation. Among the major skills relevant to business English teaching, the item 'business English speaking skills' (211) was selected as the most important one to be taught in business English classes from students' responses. The second most frequently chosen item was 'relevant specialist business knowledge'. In an open question comparing workplace English with the business

English taught at university, about 5% (12) of respondents thought that English skills required in the workplace were similar to those taught at university. About 51% (128) of respondents conveyed the idea that workplace English would be more practical and flexible according to the specific context, while business English taught at university was mainly theory-based from books and concentrated on written forms of English. These respondents thought that the university business English courses mainly prepared students for English tests. About 13 % (34) of respondents felt that speaking and listening skills would be in high demand in the workplace. However they thought that speaking skills were neglected in business English teaching at university, whereas reading and writing skills and the vocabulary and grammar required for taking exams were prioritized.

Interviews with company workers (employers of these graduates of 2011 from MEMC) and focus group interviews with MEMC graduates of 2011 confirmed that the most frequent mode of using English in the business discourse community in China is writing emails. Besides email writing, interviewees also prioritized speaking skills. Of the five sub-skills of speaking (telephoning, receiving foreign partners, face to face communication, attending exhibitions and meeting online), telephoning was regarded as the most important mode of communication in English and was most frequently referred to by the company workers and recent graduates who had work experience. Focus group interviews with current students at MEMC and recent graduates of 2011 indicated that Business English teaching did not give enough attention to English speaking and writing skills, even less to these two skills used in the business context. They expected teachers can help improve their speaking, listening and writing in the future.

Interviews with company workers show that many of their clients are non-native English speakers (NNES), and English is used as a lingua-franca in their business communication. They noted that business English teaching in China should not be restricted to American English or British English since different accents of English are encountered in the international business communication.

This study has shown that a gap exists between current Business English teaching and English used in the workplace. This is particularly the case with English requirements in the workplace and the focus of English teaching, which mainly relies on preparing students for English tests.

Based on the findings from questionnaires and interviews so far, I think business English teaching should focus more on competence training than passing tests; students' awareness of different accents should be improved; and teaching staff should be encouraged to acquire more Business knowledge.

References

A K Bjørge. 2007. Power Distance in English Lingua Franca Email Communication. In *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 17 (1), pp60-80

J C Gimenez. 2000. Business e-mail communication: some emerging tendencies in register. In *English for Specific Purposes* 19 (3), pp237–251.

R Jasso-Aguilar. 1999. Sources, Methods and Triangulation in Needs Analysis: A Critical Perspective in a Case Study of Waikiki Hotel Maids. In *English for Specific Purposes* 18 (1), pp27-46

A Koester. 2006. *Investigating workplace discourse*. London: Routledge

J Munby. 1978. *Communicative Syllabus Design: A Sociolinguistic Model for Defining the Content of Purpose-Specific Language Programmes*. Cambridge University Press

J Swales. 1990. *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge University press.

37 More than music to our ears: the value of the phonological interface in a comprehensive understanding of vocabulary acquisition and knowledge

Phoebe M S Lin
City University of Hong Kong
phoebe.lin@cityu.edu.hk

Introduction

Vocabulary has been a relatively self-contained area of linguistic research for decades. While Halliday and Sinclair started many interesting discussions of the interface between lexis and grammar in the 1960s (e.g. Halliday, 1966, 1991, 1992; Sinclair, 1966, 2004), the interface between lexis and phonology remains underexplored to date. Drawing from the latest research on formulaic language, which is a rapidly growing subject in vocabulary research, this paper argues that a comprehensive understanding of vocabulary acquisition and knowledge can only be gained by incorporating the phonological interface.

Researchers (e.g. Cowie, 1988; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2007) generally recognise that pronunciation is part of vocabulary knowledge, and complete mastery of a lexical item should include pronunciation. However, there is much more to the phonological interface of lexis than just pronunciation. Based on recent discussions surrounding formulaic language in discourse analysis, first language acquisition, second language acquisition and psycholinguistics, phonology (particularly speech prosody) plays a fundamental role in vocabulary acquisition and knowledge. Arguments pointing towards this fundamental role of speech prosody in vocabulary acquisition and knowledge are as follows:[6]

1. Meaning of lexical items in context lies more in the tone of voice with which they are said than in their dictionary meanings (Crystal, 2003; Lin and Adolphs, 2009). The positive denotation of the constituent word *great* in *That's great!*, for example, can be completely overturned by a sarcastic tone of voice used in delivering the multiword unit.

[6] Space limitation does not permit elaboration of each of these sources of evidence, but the list of references can be followed up. Please see also Lin (2010a, 2010b, forthcoming) for further discussion.

2. The noticing and acquisition of formulaic language by young first language learners may be prosody-driven (see Lin, 2012).

3. Given that 90 percent of an average person's daily linguistic encounters in his/her L1 is spoken rather than written (Ronald Carter, personal communication)[7], first language learners acquire new formulaic sequences and words primarily through spoken language, which, put simply, is a continuous flow of sounds structured by prosodic cues.

4. Vocabulary acquisition from the dominating spoken input means that the representation of lexical items in the brain is phonological first and foremost (Lin, 2012). Indirect evidence from Peters (1977) suggests that more emphasis is put on the suprasegmental (i.e. prosodic) form rather than segmental (i.e. phonemic and/or phonetic) form (see Lin, 2012) at an early stage of formulaic language acquisition by L1 children.

5. Phonological sensitivity and vocabulary growth have been shown to be interdependent: increased sensitivity and discernment of the sounds native to the L1 facilitates vocabulary growth in child first language learners; vocabulary growth in turn also advances sensitivity and discernment of L1 sounds (Beckman and Edwards, 2000; Edwards et al., 2004; Munson et al., 2011).

The point made here is that vocabulary should not be considered as a merely textual phenomenon, as though the phonology of lexis is peripheral. To do so is to neglect the fact that L1 vocabulary is acquired predominantly from spoken communication and the phonological form is amongst the first sort of information stored in any entry of lexical items in the mental lexicon. Research has also shown that vocabulary growth and phonological sensitivity go hand in hand. Although all these sources of evidence concern L1 vocabulary knowledge and acquisition, in time the insights gained from thorough investigations of the lexis-phonology interface may be applied to improve L2 vocabulary knowledge and acquisition.

References

Mary E Beckman & Jan Edwards. 2000. The ontogeny of phonological categories and the primacy of lexical learning in linguistic development. In *Child Development* 71, pp240-249.

Anthony P Cowie. 1988. Stable and creative aspects of vocabulary use. In Ronald

[7] According to Carter (personal communication), the emphasis on spoken communication can be even higher for many people in manual occupations.

Carter & Michael McCarthy (eds), *Vocabulary and language teaching*. London: Longman, pp126-139.

David Crystal. 2003. Prosody. In *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language (2nd edn)*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp248-249.

Jan Edwards, Mary E Beckman & Benjamin Munson. 2004. The interaction between vocabulary size and phonotactic probability effects on children's production accuracy and fluency in nonword repetition. In *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research* 47, pp421-436.

Michael A K Halliday. 1966. Lexis as a linguistic level. In Charles Ernest Bazell (ed.), *In Memory of J. R. Firth*. London: Longman, pp148-162.

Michael A K Halliday. 1991. Corpus studies and probabilistic grammar. In Karin Aijmer & Bengt Altenberg (eds), *English Corpus Linguistics: Studies in Honour of Jan Svartvik*. London: Longman, pp30-40.

Michael A K Halliday. 1992. Language as system and language as instance: the corpus as a theoretical construct. In Jan Svartvik (ed.), *Directions in corpus linguistics: proceedings of Nobel Symposium 82, Stockholm, 4-8 August 1991*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, pp61-77.

Phoebe M S Lin & Svenja Adolphs. 2009. Sound evidence: Phraseological units in spoken corpora. In Andy Barfield & Henrik Gyllstad (eds), *Researching collocations in another language: Multiple interpretations*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, pp34-48.

Phoebe M S Lin & Svenja Adolphs. (2010a). The phonology of formulaic sequences: A review. In D Wood (ed.), *Perspectives on formulaic language: Acquisition and communication*. London: Continuum, pp174-193.

Phoebe M S Lin & Svenja Adolphs. (2010b). *The prosody of formulaic language*. University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK.

Phoebe M S Lin & Svenja Adolphs. (forthcoming). *The prosody of formulaic language: a corpus-based approach*. London: Continuum.

Phoebe M S Lin & Svenja Adolphs. 2012. Sound evidence: The missing piece of the jigsaw in formulaic language research. In *Applied Linguistics*, 33, pp342-347.

Benjamin Munson, Jan Edwards & Mary E Beckman. 2011. Phonological representations in language acquisition: Climbing the ladder of abstraction. In Abigail C Cohn, Cécile Fougeron & Marie K Huffman (eds), *The Oxford handbook of laboratory phonology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp288-309.

I S Paul Nation. 2001. *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ann M Peters. 1977. Language learning strategies: Does the whole equal the sum of the parts? In *Language*, 53, pp560-573.

Norbert Schmitt. 2007. Current perspectives on vocabulary teaching and learning. In Jim Cummins & Chris Davison (eds), *International handbook of English Language Teaching*. New York: Springer, pp827-841.

John M Sinclair. 1966. Beginning the study of lexis. In Charles Ernest Bazell (ed), *In memory of J. R. Firth*. London: Longman, pp 410-431.

John M Sinclair. 2004. *Trust the text: Language, corpus and discourse*. New York: Taylor and Francis.

38 Bilingual acquisition of opaque structures in Welsh: the case of the Welsh answering system

Siân Lloyd-Williams[1] & Enlli Môn Thomas[2]
Aberystwyth University[1]
Bangor University[2]
sil22@aber.ac.uk

Current language policy initiatives in Wales are geared towards promoting bilingualism (Welsh and English) whereby the emphasis is placed on developing and maintaining speakers' Welsh language skills (since Welsh is the minority language). Previous studies of Welsh-English bilinguals have continually demonstrated differences in children's performance on tests measuring knowledge of complex structures in Welsh (Thomas & Gathercole, 2007) but a relatively fast 'catch-up' with their L1 English peers in relation to their knowledge of certain aspects of English (Gathercole & Thomas, 2009). Whilst native-like acquisition of English for all Welsh-English bilinguals seems almost 'guaranteed' due to its all-pervasive status in the community, the acquisition of Welsh may be more protracted for some due to its weaker status. For competent acquisition to take place, the language learner needs sufficient exposure to these varying structures. This is especially relevant in Wales where Welsh is a minority language, and where children have been found to use increasing amounts of English with their peers, even within the classroom where the medium of instruction is Welsh (Thomas, Lewis, & Apolloni, 2012). However, many of the previous studies on Welsh have looked at bilinguals' acquisition of structures that have few form-function mappings, providing weak cues to the target form, and those that are used inconsistently in the input. These studies reveal patterns of protracted acquisition that are more notable among those learning Welsh as an L2/late bilingual, and for whom exposure to the language is limited to the school domain. What is not clear, however, is whether these results are a consequence of limited exposure, of the intrinsic linguistic complexity of the structure, or a combination of both. This knowledge is fundamental to any language policy initiative, as it would help identify where best to focus efforts in relation to effective language learning in Wales. A good comparison study, therefore, would be one that looks at the same types of bilinguals' acquisition of a complex structure, but one that provides overt linguistic cues to the appropriate form, and is used relatively consistently in the input.

To address this, our study looked at bilingual Welsh/English speaking children's acquisition of the Welsh answering system. In contrast to the apparent transparency of the English Yes/No system, the Welsh response system includes a number of possible responses. The system makes use of an echo and non-echo system which is based primarily on the use of various finite verbs (Jones 1999). More commonly, the person, number and tense of the finite verb used as a response must correlate with that of the finite verb used in the question itself i.e. ***Wyt*** *ti'n hoffi coffi* be.2S.PRES 'Do you like coffee?' must be answered with either the positive *Ydw* be.1S.PRES 'Yes I do' or negative *Nac Ydw* NEG be.1S.PRES 'No I don't'. However, non-echo forms are also possible and these include examples where the syntactic form of the sentence can provide the cue (e.g., past tense questions trigger the affirmative response ***Do***'Yes (I did)') or answers to an emphatic question - i.e. *chdi sydd biau hwn?* 'is this yours?' ***Ia/Naci*** 'yes/no'. Adult use of the system is relatively consistent, and the structural form of sentences provides various types of cues to the target answer form.

In order to investigate the influences of the nature of the system (in terms of form-function mapping cues) as well as the amount of exposure received, participants were given production and judgment tasks on the Welsh answering system. Welsh/English bilingual children (*N*=154) receiving varying patterns of exposure to the language at home (L1 Welsh, 2L1 English-Welsh, & L2 Welsh bilinguals) and between the ages of 7;1 and 11;9 years old took part in this study.

Results revealed better performance by all types of bilinguals on this system as compared to previous studies of Welsh. L2 Welsh bilinguals were approaching L1 Welsh bilinguals' performance, and this 'catch-up' was most salient for the more transparent aspects of the answering system where the cues were more reliable. Progression remained slow for the more opaque aspects of the system. Children also performed better when the syntactic form of the sentence, which provided a cue to the correct answer form, co-occurred with a tag form that corresponded to the required answer, suggesting that children are paying attention to these cues. Increasing the number of cues resulted in better performance, particularly among the L1 English and 2 L1 Welsh & English bilinguals. Bilinguals with limited exposure to Welsh are sensitive to the linguistic cues afforded by the system, but have yet to obtain the necessary critical mass of exposure to the language to be able to produce and identify correct target forms to the same degree as L1 speakers.

In conclusion, the relationship between type of cue and performance on the tasks suggests that children are paying attention to grammatical forms, indicating the need to promote this learning technique in the classroom (specifically for children with L1 English and 2L1 English-Welsh Bilinguals) when dealing with complex systems within the Welsh language**.** Successful language policy initiatives should therefore focus both on increasing exposure to and use of the language among its speakers, and on the implementation of structured language-focused tasks within education.

References

Virginia C M Gathercole & Enlli M Thomas. 2009. Bilingual first language development: Dominant language takeover, threatened minority language take-up. In *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* vol 12 23 April 2009, pp213–237.

Enlli M Thomas & Virginia C M Gathercole. 2007. Children's productive command of grammatical gender and mutation in Welsh: An alternative to rule-based learning. In *First Language* vol 27 26 July 2007, pp251–296.

Bob M Jones. 1999. *The Welsh Answering System*. Berlin: New York, Mouton de Gruyter.

Enlli M Thomas, Gwyn W Lewis & Dafydd Apollini. 2012. Variation in language choice in extended turns at talk in primary schools in Wales: implications for teacher education. In *Language and Education* vol 26 23 January 2012, pp245–261.

39 Language as a symbol of social group identity, an emblem of group membership and solidarity

Małgorzata Machowska-Kościak
Trinity College Dublin
machowsm@tcd.ie

Introduction

Cultural belief systems about language and its relationship to different aspects of social life have always been a focus of Language Socialization research. The present paper discusses a case of a Polish 14 year old girl named Kasia from a working class background. Her school experience is exclusively L2 mediated as she has been educated in English in Irish schools outside Dublin for the last 4 years.

The present study adopts a language socialization approach to analysis. It involves an ethnographically informed analysis of speech acts and actions (social acts) with a particular focus on stance taking, affective and epistemic attitudes, as they are constructed over time (Ochs, 1993; Goodwin, 2000). The study sheds light on the construction of multiple identities, students' perspectives, attitudes, values and practices of individual as well as the discourses in use. The analysis is contextualized in a more holistic study of the Polish community in Ireland as culturally shaped by, and in turn shaping, the wider societal/educational ideologies, values and power relations. I combine Ethnography of Communication with discourse analysis (Duff, 2002; Godwin 2006; Harre and Langenhove, 1999). I illustrate aspects of agency such as variable participation, socialization into the old-timer peer groups, affective and epistemic attitudes along with stance taken through discourse.

Theoretical Background

From a sociolinguistic point of view, attitudes and values held by language users often accompany language that is 'a symbol of social group identity, an emblem of group membership and solidarity' (Haugen, 1956: 87). There are various language ideologies among different families; and, as Gal (1998) points out, those ideologies may be contradictory and they may face many social and interpersonal conflicts. For example, a minority language and culture can be completely rejected in favor of a majority language and culture by one group of immigrants, whereas another group can rebel in completely the opposite way. Through features such as tone of voice,

accent and gestures, 'language embodies cultural reality' (Baker, 2006). According to Bourdieu (1977) those who speak with the 'appropriate' accent or possess good syntax are perceived as more authoritative speakers. In this way they possess a sort of symbolic power over those who do not have the 'right accent' and may possess 'faulty syntax'.

Certain language ideologies can be reflected in attitudes toward language users rather than attitudes toward language itself. It may happen, for example, that one language is perceived as more prestigious than another because it is associated with the better social status of people who speak that language, as is frequently the case with the language spoken by the group that holds political, cultural, and economic power in the country (majority language). Therefore, the motives for learning that language would be very 'practical' in a sense, for those who are part of that society, for example immigrants (Baker 2006).

Language as construction of 'new self'

Through verbally performing social acts and stance taking such as going for a native speaker's accent, rejecting significance of her own cultural heritage, favoring English over Polish when communicating with other adult members of the local Polish community or identifying strongly with the Irish children from her school, Kasia is 'positioning' (see position theory in Harre and Langenhove, 1999) herself as an 'insider' – an old - timer within her current community of practice. For example, a high level of preference towards native speaker's accent or American accent, accompanied by an investment in speaking without a Polish accent is a verbally performed 'social act' (Ochs, 1993) of getting access to highly valued linguistic capital (Bourdieu, 1977), ass those who speak with the 'appropriate' accent or possess good syntax are often perceived as more authoritative speakers.

Kasia is employing a number of strategies to position herself as a linguistic and cultural old-timer among her Irish peers. Over time she adopted certain practices through which she gained an initial access and an actual admittance to her desired group of native speakers from her school. The study of her social and speech acts such as making strong allegiances towards old-timer group, encouraging the use of English at home or being actively engaged with social activities that took place on Irish social medias like Bebo or MSN, revealed a trajectory across which socialization into old-timer group occurred. Finally, Kasia's daily language choices and discursive construction of an 'insider' stance in her daily interactions with

her Irish peers and teachers reflect her language ideologies and inner conflicts – a strong desire of inclusion in the wider group of majority language speakers – 'more authoritative speakers'.

In contrast, Kasia's resistance to keeping links with Polish culture invokes in her mother cultural and social responsibilities to remedy the situation. She tries to scaffold this task by encouraging the use of Polish social media at home in order to keep the links with Polish family and friends. Critical stances, negative attitudes towards Kasia's rejection of the Polish culture reflected many social and interpersonal conflicts were being experienced.

Conclusion

For adolescents in immigrant families, negotiation of identity along with language and culture choices are shaped largely by their families and the communities they belong to. Their language and culture attitudes are absorbed from their peers, their schools and the adults with whom they interact (Berry et al, 2006: 71-116). Different attitudes/preferences, such as a preferred social circle, eagerness to learn new languages, maintenance of heritage language and culture, and the degree of adherence to their family's cultural values, is the result of 'contextual factors' such as personal characteristics, and the community the adolescents live in. As we can see from the aforementioned example of Kasia, she overtly denies the culture and language of Poland. Under this surface, however, she is experiencing some sort of conflict on a personal/family level: "how to combine my own heritage (keep links with family and friends) with the new culture and language and not be perceived as different from the native users of a language."

References

C Baker. 2006. *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

J W Berry, J S Phinney, D L Sam, & P Vedder (eds). 2006. *Immigrant youth in cultural transition: Acculturation, identity and adaptation across national contexts*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

P Bourdieu. 1977. *Outline of a theory of practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

P Duff. 2002. The discursive co-construction of knowledge, identity, and difference: An ethnography of communication in the high school mainstream. In *Applied Linguistics* 23, pp289-322.

S Gal. 1998. Multiplicity and contestation among linguistic ideologies. In K Woolard & B Schieffelin (eds), *Language Ideologies: Practice and Theory*. Oxford University Press, pp317-331.

Ch Goodwin. 2000. Practices of Seeing, Visual Analysis: An Ethnomethodological

Approach. In Theo van Leeuwen and Carey Jewitt (eds), *Handbook of Visual Analysis*. London: Sage, pp157-182.

Ch Goodwin. 2006. Participation and Community. In Sebastiano Bagnara and Gillian Crampton Smith (eds), *Theories and Practice in Interaction Design*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, pp127-135.

H R Harré & L van Langenhove (eds). 1999. *Positioning Theory*. Oxford, GB: Blackwell, 1998.

E Haugen. 1956. *Bilingualism in the Americas: A Bibliography and Research Guide*. University of Alabama Press.

E Ochs. 1993. Constructing Social Identity: Language Socialization Perspective. In *Research on Language and Social Interaction* 26, pp287-306

40 Politeness in British Sign Language: the effects of language contact

Rachel Mapson
University of Bristol
mail@rachelmapson.com

Introduction

In the UK, language contact issues are reflected in the use of British Sign Language (BSL) in a society dominated by the use of English. The effects of language contact on BSL are a legacy of linguistic suppression and have sometimes been described in terms of a continuum, representing the differing degrees of linguistic influence from English (Lawson, 1981). This influence may result in syntactic and lexical alterations in the way BSL is performed, with English borrowings occurring either through the use of fingerspelled words or the adoption of English mouthings to accompany manual signs (Sutton-Spence, 1999). This paper discusses some of these effects as they pertain to linguistic politeness in BSL. The research forms part of a study designed to address the deficit in research into politeness in BSL by exploring what politeness looks like in BSL and the influences on the way in which it is performed.

Data

Data were collected through five semi-structured interviews with Deaf participants. The interviews comprised open questions regarding politeness in BSL and incorporated the elicitation of two speech acts commonly associated with research on politeness; requests and apologies. Interview questions explored how the use of politeness in BSL might be altered depending on the status and social distance of the interlocutor.

Language contact effects

The data suggest that language contact influences on lexicon, morphology and syntax occur within linguistic politeness in BSL. For example the politeness markers PLEASE and THANK-YOU are more frequently used in interactions involving non-Deaf (or Hearing) people or those with whom the signer is less familiar; different forms of politeness marker may be used in Deaf-Deaf interactions.

> "Really it depends on who you're conversing with. If it's a Hearing person then you'd use an English equivalent THANK-YOU, but if it was a Deaf person then I'd sign CHEERS. So it

> really depends on who you're signing with, there isn't a fixed way. If the person can't sign at all I might sign CHEERS but with 'thank you' lip-pattern."
>
> *(interview data: participant 3)*

Language contact influences also affect the syntax of BSL, resulting in signs being performed in sequences resembling English word order. Participants reported that these alterations were made in order to make the language easier to understand by those less fluent at it, or to reduce errors in interpretation. Frequently this process would result in a simplification of the remark with less elaborate linguistic constructions used in cross-linguistic communication.

The use of non-manual features (NMF) was considered by the participants to be the crucial element of linguistic politeness in BSL but one which also undergoes modification for language contact. Some of the BSL features identified as important for linguistic politeness such as the 'tight lips' and 'polite grimace' mouth gestures are features shared with American Sign Language (Roush, 1999; Hoza, 2007). Others such as the 'polite duck' were identified within this study. These features are commonly performed in conjunction with manual signed components, but may be replaced by English word mouthings in Deaf-Hearing interactions. Alternatively the NMF may be displaced rather than replaced, and performed unaccompanied by a manual sign at the end of the phrase. A third influence for language contact is apparent in the use of lexical adverbials rather than non-manual ones, so that, for example:

SORRY (performed with a polite duck and polite grimace)

Might be replaced by the phrase:

VERY SORRY (performed with English word mouthings)

Participants described how some non-manual features such as the 'polite duck' might be dropped because non-Deaf people might mistake them for uncertainty, lack of confidence or aggression, highlighting some of the cross-cultural misunderstandings that occur when co-existing languages convey politeness so differently.

Discussion

This study explores not only how polite BSL is modified for language contact from English but also some of the motivations behind these modifications. The most commonly articulated influence on use of politeness was the Deaf or non-Deaf identity of the interlocutor together with the signing ability of non-Deaf people. Familiarity was a key influence which applied in all situations, including interpreter-mediated ones, where it was familiarity with the interpreter that influenced language use.

Although some of the influences on language use derive from the immediate context of the interaction; others appear to have historical roots. The data suggest that the rationale for lexical modifications partially stems from educational provision in the UK that has perpetuated the perceived power differential between BSL and English.

> "I think THANK-YOU, PLEASE and EXCUSE ME are Hearing constructs that have come about through Hearing teachers perhaps […] Teachers in effect forced us into signing things that weren't natural. And of course you had to do it to avoid being rude to them and creating conflict."
>
> *(interview data: participant 4)*

This raises some interesting issues regarding language use within education, which until relatively recently was predominantly in residential schools; four of the participants attended such establishments.

Participants described how they adapt their language use to facilitate comprehension by non-fluent signers and to ease the interpreting process during interpreter-mediated interactions. However, the data suggest that this language modification is dependent on both knowledge of English and awareness of social expectations, or sociopragmatic competence. These are not attributes shared by all members of the Deaf community. Therefore BSL/English interpreters may be faced with highly contrasting forms of equally polite BSL in the course of their work.

Transcription convention: *BSL signs are glossed in upper-case.*

References

Jack Hoza. 2007. *It's Not What you Sign, it's How you Sign it: Politeness in American Sign Language*. Gallaudet University Press: Washington, DC.

Lilian Lawson. 1981. The Role of Sign in the Structure of the Deaf Community. In Susan Gregory and Gillian Hartley (eds), *Constructing Deafness*. Open University: London, pp31-34

Daniel Roush. 1999. *Indirectness Strategies in American Sign Language: Requests and Refusals*. Gallaudet University MA dissertation: Washington, DC.

Rachel Sutton-Spence. 1999. The Influence of English on British Sign Language. In *International Journal of Bilingualism* Vol 3(4) 1999, pp363-394.

41 Saying it Right: Austrian-German students use of *get* in scientific writing

Adrian Millward-Sadler
FH Joanneum University of Applied Sciences
adrian.millward-sadler@fh-joanneum.at

Introduction

Building on information gained from a 2012 corpus study of student texts (Millward-Sadler, 2012), this paper reports on a teaching intervention designed for German L1 undergraduate engineering students on an English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) writing course. This intervention aimed to provide students with alternate lexis for the lemma *get* to be used in scientific written work.

English for Specific Academic Purposes

In the global workplace, the ability to communicate effectively has become necessary even in disciplines which had hitherto seen no previous need (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Graduate engineers must be able to function well not only in their specialisation, but they must also be able to understand the linguistic varieties inherent in their particular field (Biber & Conrad, 2009). In particular, in the written scientific register, (*register* here can be understood in the sense described by Lee, 2001) clarity and unambiguity of the message is paramount (Irish & Weiss, 2009). Thus, polysemous words are problematic due to their inherent ambiguity.

In addition to the polysemous nature of *get*, its use is often considered inappropriate in the scientific written register (Skern, 2009; Platzer, 2010). Furthermore, the English passive voice is often misformulated by German L1 speakers due to negative transfer, and the influence of the German primary verb *werden*, meaning *get* rather than *be* is used with the past participle to form the passive (Platzer, 2010).

In their contrastive study of the English and German languages, König and Gast (2009:217) note that the 'most striking lexical contrasts between any pair of languages will be found among the words with more general meanings'. Hence, *get* was selected for this study, as it is one of the most frequently occurring verbs in English (Kilgarriff, 1996) and its wide variety of different meanings means it is often used by Austrian students in numerous contexts due to its flexibility (Millward-Sadler, 2012).

Automotive Engineering Student Corpus

This study analysed undergraduate texts written for industry and university based supervisors in the field automotive engineering using Wordsmith v5. In all, 45 texts, written exclusively by students with German L1, comprised the corpus totalling 98,466 tokens (Millward-Sadler, 2012). Authored by 11 different students, the group was typical of the very homogenous makeup of the student cohort found in Automotive Engineering at FH JOANNEUM University of Applied Sciences. Students wrote in English not as a classroom exercise, but rather as their supervisors (either in the company or in the university) were non-German speakers.

The analysis returned a total of 237 occurrences of *get* and a further contrastive analysis determined that 61% of cases of use could be attributed as seen in Table 1 (Millward-Sadler, 2012:101):

English	**German**
obtain / find	*erhalten* / *bekommen*
receive / be given	*bekommen* / *kriegen*
become	*werden*
"get" passive	*werden* + past participle

Table 1: Attribution of cases of *get*

These results corroborate Platzer's contention that the "get" passive is produced due to negative transfer of the German auxiliary verb *werden.* At the same time, the relatively low number of lexical items that account for over 60% of student errors indicated that a teaching intervention would be possible. In fact, the results of the study showed that if the German verb *kennenlernen* were included with *bekommen* and *werden* (in lexical and primary functions), then it may be possible to address nearly 70% of student use of *get* in an intervention (Millward-Sadler, 2012).

Intervention

An intervention with the objective of addressing these language errors was planned and enacted in a final year undergraduate ESAP writing course. This was undertaken in classes focussing on correct vocabulary use and sentence structure in scientific writing. In a 90-minute session, students were instructed on appropriate register and were shown examples where *bekommen*, *werden* and *kennenlernen* had been translated into English as *get.* Subsequently, possible register appropriate alternatives such as those

listed above in Table 1 were presented and for further practice, a gap fill activity was designed based upon typical sentence structures found in the student corpus.

This project has now entered the second cycle of a typical action research design frame and the effectiveness of the teaching intervention is being examined. In order to be able to ascertain its effectiveness, a reference corpus is being built, consisting of student texts written post-intervention. Although small and currently comprising only 12,490 tokens, an initial analysis of language produced by students in the text would indicate a reduction in both the use of the get passive as well as other forms of *get*. In total, only 14 instances of get were found and a closer analysis revealed that 11 of these 14 occurrences were actually part of the computer programming code and therefore irrelevant to the intervention. While the new corpus is clearly far too small to be used as a reference corpus, initial indications would tentatively indicate that an intervention can be effective using contrastive methods to improve students' ability to write appropriately and unambiguously within the scientific register.

References

D Biber & S Conrad. 2009. *Register, Genre and Style*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

T Hutchinson & A Waters. 1987. *English for Specific Purposes: a learning centred approach*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

R Irish & P E Weiss. 2009. *Engineering Communication*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.

A Kilgarriff. 2006. *BNC database and word frequency lists*. Retrieved December 7, 2011, http://www.kilgarriff.co.uk/bnc-readme.html

E König & V Gast. 2009. *Understanding English-German Contrasts*. Erich Schmidt Verlag: Berlin.

D Lee. 2001. Genres, Registers, Text Types, Domains and Styles: Clarifying the concepts and navigating a path through the BNC jungle. In *Language Learning and Technology* 5(3), pp37-72.

A Millward-Sadler. 2012. Get Away: a concordance study of student use (and misuse) of the lemma "get" within formal writing assignments. In D Tatzl, A Millward-Sadler, & A Casey (eds), *English for Specific Purposes across the Disciplines: Practices and Experiences*, Leykam: Graz, pp94-105..

H Platzer. 2010. The (modest) role of text retrieval software in materials development. In *6th Austrian UAS Language Instructor's Conference*. UAS Technikum Wien: Vienna, pp147-155.

T Skern. 2009. *Writing Scientific English*. Facultas Verlag: Vienna.

42 Common ground between minority and majority languages: The case of identity

Deirdre Murphy & Colin Flynn
Trinity College Dublin
murphyd3@tcd.ie cjflynn@tcd.ie

Introduction

This paper highlights the issue of learner identity as potential common ground between learners of a widely spoken language (English) and learners of a lesser spoken language (Irish). The learning of these two languages has often been thought of as very different given their respective statuses. However, two separate studies[8] conducted by the authors (individually) demonstrate similarities among learners in these two contexts in relation to the extent to which they identify with native and non-native varieties of the target languages. This paper presents the findings of these two studies, one in the context of English, and the other in the context of Irish.

The English context

The recent global expansion of English – particularly in the last 15-20 years – has been widely acknowledged and documented in the literature (e.g. Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 1997). The fact that there are now more non-native than native speakers of the language raises questions about the validity of the native speaker model, a topic over which there has been some level of debate in the literature (e.g. Holliday, 2005; Seidlhofer, 2004; Sewell, 2009). This has led to a proposal by Jenkins (2000) that English language learners may preserve their L1 identity by maintaining an L1 accent in their spoken English, raising questions about the role of the native speaker and the related concept of learner identity.

The study described below (Murphy, 2011) set out to explore this notion of learner identity in English language learners' attitudes towards and goals for English pronunciation. In the section of the study described here, 147 English language learners in Dublin, representing 25 different nationalities, responded to a survey asking them to state their preferred English pronunciation target, and their reason for choosing it. Respondents were asked to choose one of four native speaker varieties of English (British,

[8] The two studies described in this paper were carried out independently by each author. The study described in the English context was part of a Ph.D. study carried out by Deirdre Murphy (Murphy 2011). The study from the Irish context is part of an ongoing Ph.D. study being carried out by Colin Flynn.

American, Irish, or 'any variety of English'), or one of two options based on intelligibility ('Clear enough for native/non-native speakers to understand you'). The intention was to establish whether learners were drawn more to a native speaker variety or to a variety that was marked simply by its level of intelligibility. The findings of the survey yielded the following results:

(1) 65% of respondents selected a native-speaker variety, compared to 35% who selected one of the 'clear enough' options. The result suggests that, despite discussions in the research literature that the goal of native-like English pronunciation may no longer be relevant (see above), a majority of students still opt for a native-speaker model.
(2) When asked to explain the reasons for their choice, seven different categories of responses were established. The majority (49%) of students selected a response that fell into the category of 'Communication'; in other words, 49% of respondents were motivated to achieve their preferred variety of pronunciation by a belief that that variety would enable them to communicate successfully.
(3) A further 7% of respondents, all of whom selected one of the 'Clear enough' options listed above, stated that their goal was chosen primarily because they felt that although they would prefer a native-speaker variety of pronunciation, it would not be possible for them to achieve.
(4) Only 6% of learners felt that their English pronunciation ought to convey identification with a given cultural or linguistic group. This casts doubt on any notion that learners may choose to either a) express their linguistic identity by retaining an L1 accent in their L2 English; or b) use a native-speaker target variety to express affiliation or identification with the speakers of that variety.

The Irish context

Irish is the first national language of Ireland, yet a small number of native speakers means that most Irish speakers are L2 learners. Despite limited (communicative) interaction with L1 speakers of Irish, many learners afford them an important symbolic status as guardians of a tradition (Ó Baoill, 1999).

There are three main dialects traditionally spoken as a L1 in communities throughout parts of the provinces of Munster, Connaught and Ulster. In the

absence of an accepted standard spoken form (Ó Baoill, 1993), most teachers and learners tend to focus on the features of one of these three dialects (Mac Mathúna, 2008; Ó Baoill, 1999). However, it has been noticed that a number of learner varieties, based more or less on core features of the regional dialects, have also emerged (Ó Dochartaigh, 2000).

An ongoing study by the second author is investigating adult learners' attitudes towards these traditional and non-traditional varieties and to what extent these learners have identified a particular variety of the language as a target model. The first (questionnaire) stage of this research collected responses from 155 learners. Analyses of this data reveal four key findings:

(1) These adult learners are aware of the issue of dialects, e.g. 69% felt that it was important that Irish maintain its regional dialects in the future, 80% agreed that they have a preference for a particular dialect of Irish, 38% agreed that they dislike a particular dialect.
(2) Many of these learners have a clear preference for a particular dialect of Irish; however, they may not equate 'native-like' fluency with adhering to the norms of any one dialect. Over 93% of learners agreed that native speakers' Irish sounds more natural than the Irish of learners, and 95% agreed that they would like their own level of fluency to equal that of native speakers. By comparison, a lesser, but still large, number (86%) said they would like to sound like a native speaker of Irish. There were also more neutral responses on this last point, 11% compared to under 5% for the other two.
(3) For some learners, identification with speakers of a particular dialect is a factor in choosing a target model. Just under half (48%) agreed that learning a particular dialect is important because they identify with speakers of that dialect. Data from follow-up interviews currently being conducted suggest that this is connected to place of birth, family background, or past learning experiences.
(4) Others learners do not have a strong desire to learn any one dialect. 23% stated that learning a particular dialect was not connected to a feeling of identification. 28% of the respondents remained neutral on this issue. The follow-up interview data suggests many explanations for these figures, among them a lack of any strong familial connection to a traditional dialect (or place where that dialect is spoken), and the feeling that the difficulty of achieving native-like proficiency in any dialect precludes them from ever fully identifying with its speakers.

Conclusion

The combined findings of these two studies suggest the following common themes in majority and minority language learning:

- The popularity of the native speaker model persists among these English and Irish learners, despite recent arguments to the contrary.
- It appears that the issue of cultural identification with a given variety is to be a priority for some learners, but not all, and the notion of perceived fluency and/or proficiency of the native speaker seems to outweigh identification with a given native speaker variety.
- In both languages, some learners showed an awareness of the impracticality of selecting a native speaker model, and chose their target variety accordingly

Thus learner identity is shown to be a complex matter that can have consequences for learners' motivation and by extension for their language learning; thus further consideration of and research into learners' goals is recommended.

References

David Crystal. 2003. *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

David Graddol. 1997. *The future of English? A guide to forecasting the popularity of the English language in the 21st century*. London: British Council.

Adrian Holliday. 2005. *The struggle to teach English as an International Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jennifer Jenkins. 2000. *The phonology of English as an International Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Liam Mac Mathúna. 2008. Linguistic Change and Standardization. In Caoilfhionn Nic Pháidín & Seán Ó Cearnaigh (eds), *A New View of the Irish Language*. Dublin: Cois Life Teoranta.

Deirdre Murphy. 2011. *Learner identity, motivation and autonomy in EFL pronunciation learning: Development and evaluation of a pedagogical model*. Ph.D. thesis, Trinity College Dublin.

Dónall Ó Baoill. 1993. Aitheantas agus caighdeán. In *Teangeolas* 32, pp29-34.

Dónall Ó Baoill. 1999. Social cultural distance, integrational orientation and the learning of Irish. In Angela Chambers & Dónall Ó Baoill (eds), *Intercultural Communication and Language Learning*. Dublin: IRAAL, pp189-200.

Cathair Ó Dochartaigh. 2000. Irish in Ireland. In G. Price (ed.), *Languages in Britain and Ireland*. Blackwell: Oxford.

Barbara Seidlhofer. 2004. Research perspectives on teaching English as a lingua franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 24, pp209-239.

Andrew Sewell. 2009. World Englishes, English as a Lingua Franca, and the case of

Hong Kong English: Perspectives from both World Englishes (WE) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) can assist in the description of Hong Kong English phonology. In *English Today* 25(1(97)), pp37-43.

43 Semantic and Causal Relatedness in the Process of Predictive Inference Generation Among Japanese EFL Readers

Shingo Nahatame
Graduate School, University of Tsukuba /
Japan Society for the Promotion of Science
shingo.nahatame@gmail.com

Background

A predictive inference is the readers' anticipation of the likely outcome of an event described in a text. For example, after reading the sentence *No longer able to control his anger, he threw a delicate porcelain vase against the wall* (Klin et al., 1999), most readers would predict that the vase will break. To date, predictive inferences have attracted considerable attention from many researchers because of their important roles in reading, such as processing the incoming text information more smoothly and encouraging readers' active engagement with the text (e.g., Allbritton, 2004; Linderholm, 2002). That is, readers can benefit from the generation of predictive inferences during reading.

The Present Study

This study aimed to identify the text characteristics that promote the generation of predictive inferences in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) reading. It examined the respective roles of two types of relatedness that appear in texts: (a) semantic relatedness (SR) between the text words and the meaning of the predictive inference and (b) causal relatedness (CR) that readers establish between the text events and the predictive inferences. The following two research questions (RQs) were addressed:

> (RQ1) How do SR and CR affect the activation of predictive inferences during reading?
> (RQ2) How do SR and CR affect the maintenance of activated inferences after reading?

Method

Participants

The participants in the experiment were 30 Japanese university students. They were intermediate to upper-level EFL learners.

Materials

A set of 32 short narratives, which were slightly revised from Virtue et al. (2006), served as the experimental texts. Each narrative had two versions: an inference text and a neutral text (see Figure 1 for an example). Inference texts were designed to elicit predictions of possible outcomes of events described therein (e.g., *The boy hit the ball*), whereas neutral texts described neutral contents and did not induce any inferences.

Inference text

The boys' high school baseball team was having tests for the spring season. The coach decided to test the boys' baseball skills before he did anything else. The first batter to step up to the plate was a new boy on the team. As the pitcher released the ball, the boy raised his bat and the ball went directly towards him.
Target word: *hit.*

Neutral text

Halloween was a dark time for the citizens of the town. Two young boys had disappeared the day before. The last time they were seen was in a store with their mother. The boys had been trying on Halloween costumes when they vanished.
Target word: *hit.*

Figure 1: Sample of Experimental Texts (SR-High x CR-High)

For each inference text, SR was calculated between all the text words (e.g., *baseball*, *batter*, *pitcher*) and the target word representing the inference (e.g., *hit*) using Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA). LSA numerically represents SR between two objects by statistical computations applied to a large text corpus (Landauer et al., 1998). In addition, CR was determined according to whether the target inference related to a narrative character's goal or motive. If the inference related to the goal or motive (e.g., *Hitting the ball* is the motive for the boy to raise his bat), the text was judged as having high causal relatedness between text events and the inferences.

In this way, 32 narratives were classified into the four categories (i.e., SR-High x CR-High, SR-High x CR-Low, SR-Low x CR-High, and SR-Low x CR-Low), each of which included eight texts. A total of 16 filler texts were also used in the experiment.

Procedure

The participants read a series of the narratives, which were either the inference, neutral, or filler texts, on a computer screen sentence by sentence. A target word was presented to the participants immediately after they read each narrative, and they were asked to judge whether it appeared in the text they had just read (i.e., a recognition task).

Additionally, the participants engaged in a written recall task after reading all the narratives. In this task, the first sentence of each narrative was provided as a recall cue, and the participants were instructed to recall and write down as much as possible about the narratives in Japanese.

Results

Recognition Task

Inference activation scores were calculated by subtracting the mean correct response times in the neutral condition from those in each of the inference conditions (see Figure 2). If inferences were activated during reading, the mean recognition times were slower in the inference condition than in the neutral condition due to the confusion about the memory source for the target word, resulting in activation scores greater than zero. Mean inference activation scores were significantly greater than zero in SR-High x CR-High, t (7) = 2.82, p = .026, d = 1.41, but not in the other conditions, ps >.05. In addition, a 2 (SR: high, low) x 2 (CR: high, low) analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated a significant interaction between SR and CR, F (1, 28) = 4.50, p = .043, η_p^2 = .14. The activation scores in SR-High x CR-High were greater than those in SR-High x CR-Low (p = .009) and SR-Low x CR-High (p = .001). These results demonstrated that predictive inferences were strongly activated when both SR and CR were high.

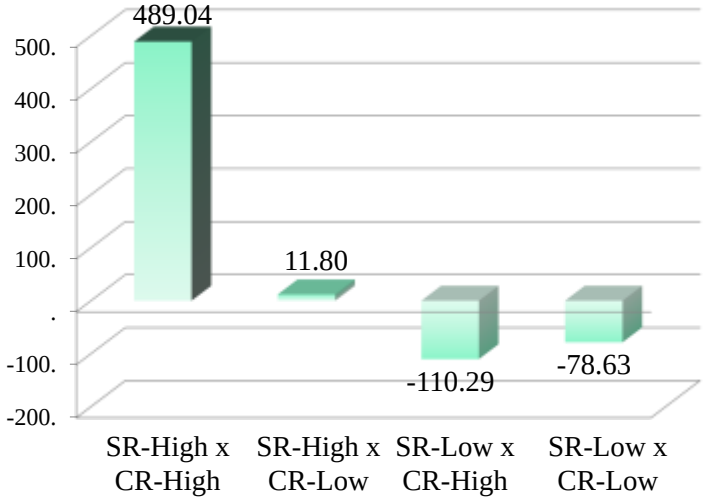


Figure 2: Mean inference activation scores (milliseconds)

Cued Recall

A 2 (SR: high, low) x 2 (CR: high, low) ANOVA was conducted on the proportion of inferences produced in recall protocols. If readers maintained or encoded inferences into their long-term text memory, they falsely recalled the inferences in their protocols (e.g., The ball went directly towards the boy, and *he hit it*). The results indicated only a significant main effect of CR, F (1, 28) = 27.23, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .49$. As shown in Table 1, the production rate of inferential information was significantly higher when CR was high than when it was low, regardless of SR. These results showed that CR, but not SR, affected the maintenance of inferences after reading.

	SR			
CR	High		Low	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
High	20.31	19.98	23.66	28.38
Low	3.13	8.84	7.29	13.68

Table 1: Mean Proportions of Recalled Inferences (%)

Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the preset results, it is suggested that SR and CR between the text and predictive inferences influence the generation of these inferences among Japanese EFL readers in different ways. Both high SR and CR facilitate the activation of predictive inferences during reading (the answer to RQ1), whereas the maintenance of inferences after reading is promoted only by high CR (the answer to RQ2).

In this study, CR was judged as high when the inference related to the narrative character's motive or goal. In other words, when CR is high, inferences can be the reason the character took the action, and therefore, these inferences are necessary for maintaining the local coherence of the text. Hence, readers were likely to activate the inferences during reading to construct coherent text meaning when CR was high. Similarly, readers needed to maintain these inferences in their long-term text memory when CR was high because text memory should be stored as a coherent representation. That is, high CR increases the *necessity* of the predictive inferences.

However, it should be noted that predictive inferences were strongly activated during reading only when both CR and SR were high. High SR (i.e., text words semantically associated with a predictive inference)

activates readers' world knowledge relevant to the inference. This might result in an increase of the *accessibility* of inferences during reading, which reinforces the inference activation.

The study findings have pedagogical implications for EFL text writers. It is recommended that writers include the words semantically associated with predictable outcomes in the text and pay attention to the causal relatedness between a current event and a future event. This may encourage learners to actively make predictions during reading, which leads to more active and effective EFL reading.

References

Ceila M Klin, Alexandria E Guzmán & William H Levine. 1999. Prevalence and persistence of predictive inferences. In *Journal of Memory and Language* 40 4, pp593-604.

David Allbritton. 2004. Strategic production of predictive inferences during comprehension. In *Discourse Processes* 38 3, pp309-322.

Tracy Linderholm. 2002. Predictive inference generation as a function of working memory capacity and causal text constraints. In *Discourse Processes* 34 3, pp259-280.

Sandra Virtue, Paul van den Broek & Tracy Linderholm. 2006. Hemispheric processing of inferences: The influence of textual constraint and working memory capacity. In *Memory & Cognition* 34 6, pp1341-1354.

Thomas K Landauer, Peter W Foltz & Darrell Laham. 1998. An introduction to Latent Semantic Analysis. In *Discourse Processes* 25 2 & 3, pp259-284.

44 Creating spaces for language learning despite institutional conditions: research with English and Urdu teachers in two higher education contexts in Pakistan

Samia Naz
Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan, Pakistan
Samiamalik7@yahoo.com

Introduction

I argue that institutional practices in Pakistan for teaching language skills vary according to the institutional conditions which have not been investigated adequately. The research presented in this paper aims to investigate the teaching/learning practices of English and Urdu language teachers in intermediate classes in two higher education institutions for women in Lahore District, Pakistan. These are: one public institution fully funded by the government, and one semi-private institution, with partial government funding. These two types of institutions represent two different cultures. The government institutions recruit middle and lower middle class students having Urdu-medium educational backgrounds, whereas the semi-private institutions recruit students from the elite having English-medium backgrounds.

The main object behind the investigation is to take into account the methodology used by the teachers of Urdu and English in class. Urdu language occupies the status of first language and English language is enjoying the status of second language for some and foreign language for others in our country nowadays. Both languages are being taught as a compulsory subject at primary level in both English-medium and Urdu-medium schools. But still the students are not efficient enough to use English language in class as well as in real situations. In the present scenario, an important question arises about English and Urdu language in the classroom situation, whether teachers of Urdu and English are using the same methodology in their respective language classes? And is the teaching methodology of both colleges in classes of Urdu and English the same? In this paper, I have focussed on one particular aspect of the wider comparative research project that I have conducted: that is, opportunities provided for students to practice all four language skills. Mansoor (1993) suggests that English language proficiency of learners will only improve if the English Language Teaching program aims at development of all the four skills i.e. receptive and productive for meeting learning needs and

target needs vis a vis target situation. Likewise, Rahman (2002) proposes that language teaching should be skill-oriented and the learners should be prepared to acquire the languages as means of understanding discourses and creating them. English and Urdu language teachers use different methods and techniques to teach at intermediate level. Communicative skills in English from the very beginning should be emphasized and focus should be on teaching the language rather on teaching about the language and on the use rather than the usage of that language. Commenting on the same issue, Rahman (1997) says that courses in English language teaching rather than English literature have been supported by the British Council, the Pakistani American Culture Center (Karachi),the United States English language programmes, The Teacher's Resource Center (Karachi), the Lahore University of Management Sciences, and the Agha Khan University, and others. The present study is an investigation into the methodology of teaching of English and Urdu at intermediate level at the government and semi-government institution.

Research Questions

The questions that I am addressing include: Are the students being given equal practice in the four language skills in English and Urdu classes? Which strategies do teachers adopt to teach language skills in class? What differences and similarities are there in the teaching methodology of the teachers?

Research Methods

I applied a multi-method approach which enabled me to collect rich and comprehensive data. I observed four English and four Urdu female teachers teaching intermediate classes, following six sessions for each teacher. I also administered questionnaires to the students I observed and, in addition, I interviewed the teachers.

Findings and suggestions

The findings suggest that practice in all four language skills is neglected in both types of colleges, with the focus being on writing. However, some practice in speaking, reading and listening comprehension is given to the students in Urdu and English classes at the semi-private institution. The data used in this research also demonstrated that from admission criteria for students to selection criteria of teachers and from teaching standard to attitude of the teachers and motivation level of teachers and students, the semi-private college enjoys high standards as compared to the government college. Moral support and motivation provided to the teachers and the

students by the institution forms the whole environment. The use of teaching techniques, activities, attitude and motivation level of the teachers does not depend on the subject or the language that may be first, second/foreign but on policy of the institution. Both institutions follow different approaches. As a result, there is a marked difference in teaching methodology, techniques, activities and motivation level of the teachers at both colleges. Moreover, the overall culture and the strategies the institution adopts in this regard, are the source of inspiration and motivation for the teachers. Through this research I feel I have developed an understanding of some of the issues involved in the area of applied linguistics. In fact the whole system blames only the teachers and their teaching methodology for any kind of drawback in teaching and learning situation. The basic reality is that government policies, proper implementation of the policies, the positive role of teachers, physical and moral, and the environmental support by the institution all have an effect on improving the teaching and learning situation. This study highlights the need to redirect research to on-the-ground realities in higher education classes such as these and to investigate the ways in which teachers respond to governmental policies, syllabi and institutional conditions as they attempt to create spaces for productive language learning. The study also suggests that Urdu and English language courses should be revised and there should be more focus on functional aspects of language.

References

Mansoor Sabiha. 1993. *Punjabi, Urdu, English in Pakistan: A study in teacher education*. Vanguard: Lahore.

Rahman Tariq. 2002. *Language, Ideology and Power: Language-learning among the Muslims of Pakistan and North India*. Oxford University Press: Karachi.

Rahman Tariq. 1997. *Language and Politics in Pakistan*. Oxford University Press: Karachi.

45 Building and threatening trust in medical consultations

Catherine O'Grady, Lynda Yates & Maria R. Dahm
Macquarie University
lynda.yates@mq.edu.au

Introduction

Trust between doctor and patient is central to patient-centred approaches to medicine and crucial to positive clinical outcomes including patient satisfaction, compliance and follow-up attendance (Hall et al., 2001). The behavioural attributes associated with patients' trust include being unhurried, building alliances with and showing knowledge of the patient, highlighting a personal identity, listening, showing sensitivity, caring, concern and compassion (Skirbekk et al, 2011; Mechanic & Meyer, 2000). However, we know very little about how trust is actually co-constructed or lost discursively in interaction. Using a discourse analytic approach, we traced the ebb and flow of trust in a challenging surgical consultation recorded in gastro-intestinal consulting rooms, highlighting the interactional work the surgeon does – sometimes successfully and sometimes unsuccessfully – to build trust with a patient, accompanied by her niece, seeking a second opinion following an operation by another surgeon that she sees as unsuccessful.

Contrary to common practice (White, 2011), the surgeon started by setting aside the letter of referral, thereby inviting the patient to narrate her own story. Since interactional norms require that speakers avoid telling listeners what they already know (Grice, 1975), this elicited a full account of her condition incorporating both bio-medical and emotional and 'life-world' factors (Mishler, 1984), encouraged further by attentive listening (38) and confirmation checks (40, 42). The patient's world thus became the focus of the consultation, and a listening environment conducive to trust was established.

33 **Surg**: Okay. How long's it been going on for :
34 **Patient:** More than year (.) I thought (.) before I used to have hernia (.) and I thought that was the problem. And I had the operation [hesitant] seven months :
35 **Niece:** Mm (.) it's been about seven (.) eight months
36 **Patient:** Yeah (.) Instead of get better (.) I getting worse
37 **Niece:** So what they've done is they've they've um added a mesh :

38 **Surg**: Yes
39 **Niece:** To her um (.)stomach area
40 **Surg:** But the same sort of pain that you had before :
41 **Patient:** Yeah.
42 **Surg:** So almost like no, no [change
43 **Patient:** [Yeah

Evident in the discourse were a number of strategies used by the doctor to cultivate the interpersonal closeness and goodwill associated with trusting relationships. These included warmly greeting the patient, using informal language to make the medical world more accessible and building rapport through humour and personal disclosure. He also used the inclusive 'we' and personal chat to actively seek common ground on which to build an alliance.

However, trust building is not a linear process. At various moments across the consultation the patient challenged the doctor's communicative abilities. Her medical concerns were pressing and she sometimes rejected his attempts to introduce a 'personal voice' (Roberts and Sarangi, 1999), as in her insistence (155-157) that her pants are less a fashion choice and more a matter of necessity given her condition:

148 **Surg:** Okay so [unclear] [we'll wriggle this] they're fantastic (.) [aren't they
149 **Niece:** [mm yeah
150 **Patient:** Yeah.
151 **Surg:** They're fantastic.
152 **Patient:** [Laughs] my tummy's
153 **Surg:** Yeah but they look like jeans but they're like what are they
154 **Niece:** Laughs].
155 **Patient:** [Unclear] they stretch I can't wear trousers
156 **Surg:** Right
157 **Patient:** because it hurt :

Despite these and other occasions when his attempts to build rapport fall flat, by the end of the consultation, the surgeon has built a fragile trust which he consolidates by using a dictaphone to co-construct the final referral letter with the patient.

359 **Surg:** = Um let me write a letter (.) while you (.) listen you help me write the letter.

360 **Surg:** Mrs B is concerned by severe lower abdominal pain and abdominal (.) distension (.) er stop there is er pain sitting and standing and relief er only (.)er (.) when lying (.) flat stop. Even then er Mrs B wakes up in the early hours of the morning with pain brought on by changing position in bed : (..) Yes :

361 **Patient**: [Yes

362 **Surg**: [So far :

This process of co-construction again creates a patient-centred environment, offering evidence that her concerns have been taken into account, thereby strengthening her confidence that the surgeon will act in her best interests. He also incorporates the patient's 'voice' by using her words to describe her weight gain as an increase of 'three dress sizes' and her discomfort at looking 'seven months pregnant'. He further consolidates trust by proposing in the letter that tests be undertaken for any serious causes for her condition. She can now be confident that her interests are being attended to. This analysis contributes theoretically to our understanding of how trust can be both built and threatened discursively and, by making visible the interactional work required, offers trainee doctors a valuable resource for reflection drawn from authentic practice.

References

H Grice. 1975. Logic and conversation. In P Cole& J Morgan (eds), *Syntax and Semantics, 3: Speech acts*. New York, Lawrence Erlbaum.

M Hall, E Dugan, B Zheng. & A Mishra. 2001. Trust in physicians and medical institutions: What is it, can It be measured, and does it matter? In *Milbank Quarterly* vol 79, 613.

D Mechanic. & S Meyer. 2000. Concepts of trust among patients with serious illness. In *Social Science & Medicine* vol 51, 2000 pp657-668.

E G Mishler. 1984. *The discourse of medicine: dialectics of medical interviews*. Norwood, NJ, Ablex Publishing Coorporation.

C Roberts. & S Sarangi. 1999. Hybridity in gatekeeping discourse: Issues of practical relevance for the researcher. In S Sarangi& C Roberts, (eds) *Talk, Work and Institutional Order*. Berlin, Mouton de Gruyter, pp473-503.

H Skirbekk, A Middelthon, P Hjortdahl, & A Finset. 2011. Mandates of trust in the doctor-patient relationship. In *Qualitative Health Research* vol 21, 2011 pp1182-1190.

S White. 2011. *A structural analysis of surgeon-patient consultations in clinic settings in New Zealand*. Department of Primary Health and General Practice. Otago, University of Otago.

46 Teaching L1 Spanish Speakers to Write Formal Requests in English: Some Aspects to Consider

Maximiliano Eduardo Orlando
Universidad Complutense de Madrid
maxcanit@yahoo.com.ar

Introduction

Research has shown that the degree of directness and of indirectness of requests made by Spanish as a First Language (L1 Spanish) speakers may differ from that of requests produced by English as a First Language (L1 English) ones. Indeed, it has been reported that the former would be more direct than the latter when they formulate requests (Blum-Kulka & House, 1989). To illustrate this difference, Díaz Pérez (2002) explains that while it is common for L1 Spanish speakers to carry out requests using the present simple tense, in L1 English "[…] more elaborate interrogative sentences which involve the use of modal verbs" (Díaz Pérez, 2002: 271) are preferred.

It is also worth mentioning that several studies have revealed that modal verb frequencies in English spoken and written by L1 Spanish speakers tend to differ from those in English spoken and written by L1 English speakers in similar communicative situations. Camiciottoli (2004), for example, compares modal verb frequencies in the presentation and interactional phases of a set of business lectures conducted in English by an Italian speaker, a German speaker, a Spanish speaker and two British speakers, whereas Neff et al (2003) contrast modal verb frequencies and clusters in argumentative texts written in English by American, German, Dutch, French, Italian and Spanish university students.

In an attempt to account for the divergence between modal verb frequencies in L1 English and in L1 Spanish speakers' EFL, it has been argued that this may be partly explained by L1 Spanish speakers' transfer from L1 Spanish to EFL (Wald, 1993; Montero et al, 2007). Since it has been reported that L1 Spanish speakers would be more direct than L1 English ones when making requests and bearing in mind that past modal verbs convey more formality, politeness, tentativeness and indirectness than present ones (Perkins, 1983), it could be suggested that teaching L1 Spanish speakers to use modal verbs should be at the core of their learning

to write formal letters/emails of request in English. Therefore, this paper will provide a few ideas in this respect.

Considerations

This paper assumes that as EFL textbooks and materials need to provide activities, tasks and information to teach EFL learners to write in a wide variety of genres, analysing formal letters/emails of request written by L1 English speakers and obtained from supplementary sources would broaden the range of input available to EFL learners when learning to write formal requests. It will be suggested that formal letters/emails of request written either in core materials such as textbooks or in supplementary ones should be approached by taking into account the following three aspects.

First, since it has been proved that modal verb frequencies in written and in spoken L1 English may differ from those in L1 Spanish speakers' written and spoken EFL in the same genres, it is assumed that L1 Spanish EFL learners would benefit from identifying all the requests in a sample of formal letters/emails of request and sorting them out into two groups: requests with modal verbs and requests without them. Calculating the percentage of occurrence of each group would draw L1 Spanish EFL learners' attention to the importance of the use of past modal verbs in formal requests to convey tentativeness, indirectness and politeness.

Second, it is assumed that breaking down these two big groups into two subgroups, requests with mitigating phrases and requests without them, would be useful for looking into specific and concrete strategies to be employed to be tentative, indirect and polite. As a result, four groups of requests would be obtained: requests with modal verbs and with mitigating phrases, requests with modal verbs but without mitigating phrases, requests without modal verbs but with mitigating phrases and requests without modal verbs and without mitigating phrases. By mitigating phrases this paper means chunks that accompany requests to reduce their strength (Blum-Kulka, 1989), e.g. *I was wondering whether*, *I would really appreciate it if*, etc.

Finally, it is hoped that calculating the frequencies of occurrence of the four groups of requests and identifying the most frequent chunks in them will provide L1 Spanish EFL learners with a wide choice of strategies to formulate formal requests in English.

References

Shoshana Blum-Kulka. 1989. Playing it Safe: The Role of Conventionality in Indirectness. In Shoshana Blum-Kulka, Juliane House & Gabriele Kasper (eds). *Cross Cultural Pragmatics: Requests and Apologies*. Ablex Publishing: New Jersey, pp37-70.

Shoshana Blum-Kulka & Juliane House. 1989. Cross-Cultural and Situational Variation in Requesting Behavior. In Shoshana Blum-Kulka, Juliane House & Gabriele Kasper (eds). *Cross-Cultural Pragmatics: Requests and Apologies*. Ablex Publishing: New Jersey, pp123-154.

Belinda Crawford Camiciottoli. 2004. Interacting with the Audience: Modal Verbs in Cross-cultural Business Lectures. In Roberta Facchinetti & Frank Palmer (eds). *English Modality in Perspective: Genre Analysis and Contrastive Studies*. Peter Lang: Frankfurt, pp27-43.

Francisco Javier Díaz Pérez. 2002. Pragmatics and Foreign Language Learning. In Antonio Bueno González, Gloria Luque Agulló, Francisca Molina Navarrete, Ana María Ortega Cebreros, & María Luisa Pérez Cañado (eds). *Studies in Applied Linguistics and English Teaching*. Publicaciones de la Universidad de Jaén: Jaén, pp261-277.

Begoña Montero, Frances Watts & Amparo García Carbonell. 2007. Discussion Forum Interactions: Text and Context. In *System*, vol 35 4, December 2007, pp566-582.

Joanne Neff, Emma Dafouz, Honesto Herrera, Francisco Martínez, Juan Pedro Rica, Mercedes Díez, Rosa Prieto & Carmen Sancho. 2003. Contrasting Learner Corpora: the Use of Modal and Reporting Verbs in the Expression of Writer Stance. In Sylviane Granger & Stephanie Petch-Tyson (eds). *Extending the Scope of Corpus-based Research. New Applications, New Challenges*. Rodopi: New York, pp211-230.

Michael R Perkins. 1983. *Modal Expressions in English*. Frances Pinter: London.

Benji Wald. 1993. On the Evolution of Would and Other Modals in the English Spoken in East Los Angeles. In Norbert Dittmar & Astrid Reich (eds). *Modality in Language Acquisition/Modalité et acquisition des langues*. Walter de Gruyter : Berlin, pp59-96.

47 Syria secondary school EFL teachers' instructional practices and the interactional patterns

Taha Rajab
University of York
taha.rajab@york.ac.uk

Introduction

This article reports on an exploratory study investigating the pedagogical practices of Syrian English language secondary school teachers at three government schools in the District of Homs, in the middle of Syria. Teacher-student interaction is central to this study as a lens for exploring whether there is a mismatch between the guidelines of a newly-adopted Communicative language teaching (CLT) approach in the national curriculum and teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices in the classroom. The detailed discourse analysis revealed a traditional textbook-directed, teacher-controlled transmission mode of teaching with the focus on rote learning, vocabulary, mechanical practice, recalling from memory and knowledge rather than on language skill, meaningful interaction, understanding and method.

Background

The teaching of English as a second language is being made a priority in many countries worldwide as it is the language of international communication i.e. the lingua franca of trading, media, politics and academia (Crystal, 2006). Currently in Syria, as in most other Arab countries, the majority of students who finish the public secondary school education must have had at least eight years of 'compulsory' instruction in English. Given its growing status, Syrian education policy-makers have been trying to improve the quality of English language teaching in Syria, especially the teaching and learning of oral communication skills.

The Syrian Ministry of Education (MOE) has recently introduced a new English language curriculum that is CLT-based and learner-centred. The new curriculum is called ***English for Starters***. This move has prescribed a shift in EFL teachers' instructional practices moving away from teacher-centeredness into learner-centeredness. The curriculum guidelines dictate that the appropriate and effective implementation of its activities e.g. pair and group work, role-play, problem-solving and language games cannot be achieved unless students' true engagement and active participation is

established. Under CLT-oriented curricula, teachers should move away from being knowledge transmitter to adopt the role of facilitator (Savignon, 2007).

However, after a few years of introducing this curriculum, personal observation has revealed that the instructional approaches of most Syrian EFL teachers in secondary schools are still akin to structural teacher-centred approaches although most of them profess to be using a communicative approach but, in actual fact, following more traditional approaches (Shihiba, 2011). This could be responsible for the phenomenon of Syrian students often finishing their secondary school education with undeveloped speaking and listening skills which affects their English education at university.

Taking a socio-cultural approach to language teaching and learning, the present study positions the teacher at the core of the teaching and learning process in which knowledge is co-constructed between students and teachers. The driving force for this study emerges from the fact that the first step for providing professional training for EFL teachers is to identify teachers' practices through empirical systematic studies (Seedhouse, 2004). In this study, the case is made that a systematic review of teaching and learning in the Syrian EFL secondary English classrooms is a starting point for pedagogical innovation and change. This, it is argued, will provide a rich evidence base for educational policy in EFL teaching in Syria (Nunan & Choi, 2009).

Research Questions

The study sets out to answer the following research questions:

- To what extent are secondary school EFL Syrian teachers using interactive whole-class teaching approaches in their classrooms as advised by the Syrian MOE and the guidelines of the newly adopted national Syrian curriculum?
- To what extent do teachers at the pre- and in-service levels feel equipped to implement interactive approaches in the classroom?
- What can be done to address the training needs of secondary school EFL Syrian teachers in order to provide interactive whole class teaching?

Methods & Data Collection

To answer these questions, both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered in the research. This included classroom observation, semi-

structured interviews, and a survey questionnaire. In order to enhance the methodological triangulation, all methods have been selected with research questions in mind. Further, classroom observation included video recording of participating teachers and the analysis of data obtained by Maclin and Maclin (2005) Observational Data Coding System (ODCS) transcripts. Classroom observation was preceded and followed by semi-structured interviews which further probed the participating teachers' points of view. For the classroom observation and interviews, 6 teachers took part in the study working in 3 schools located in the District of Homs, the centre of the Governate of Homs. All teachers and their schools were given pseudonyms (e.g. Alpha, Beta, Gamma, Delta, Zeta and Eta). A questionnaire was also designed to help in answering the first and third research questions which look at the extent to which EFL teachers in Syria feel equipped to implement interactive approaches in their classrooms.

Data Analysis

The observed lessons were analyzed intensively through discourse analysis and through systematic observation. The latter made it possible for the researcher to quantify data obtained through ODCS enabling interaction patterns to emerge. Each of the six observed teachers was dealt with as an individual case study. The internal structure of each case then comprised the following: a) an introductory bio-contextual data of the teacher and the lessons observed b) a discussion of the teacher's views as expressed in the pre-filming interviews c) the findings of the first two note-taking sessions d) the quantified findings of the computerized observation e) finally, a detailed analysis of the teacher's verbal output with the aim of capturing the patterning of teaching exchanges inside the classroom. The last part involved editing, transcribing, translating and coding the data in accordance with the conventions adopted by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975).

Findings and discussion

Figure 1 below shows the distribution of the teaching exchanges of the six participating teachers. The overall teaching pattern of the participating teachers was marked by teachers' overwhelming predominance of the talk time in the classroom in the form of providing extensive explanations, provoking elicitations, imparting knowledge and giving directions. Teacher *informing acts* were the most frequently occurring exchange. The second most frequently occurring pattern was *teacher's elicitation* moves, often in the form of both cued elicitation and display questions. This shows clearly how teachers monopolized the talk time. On the other hand, students' informing and elicitation acts were of low quality and quantity.

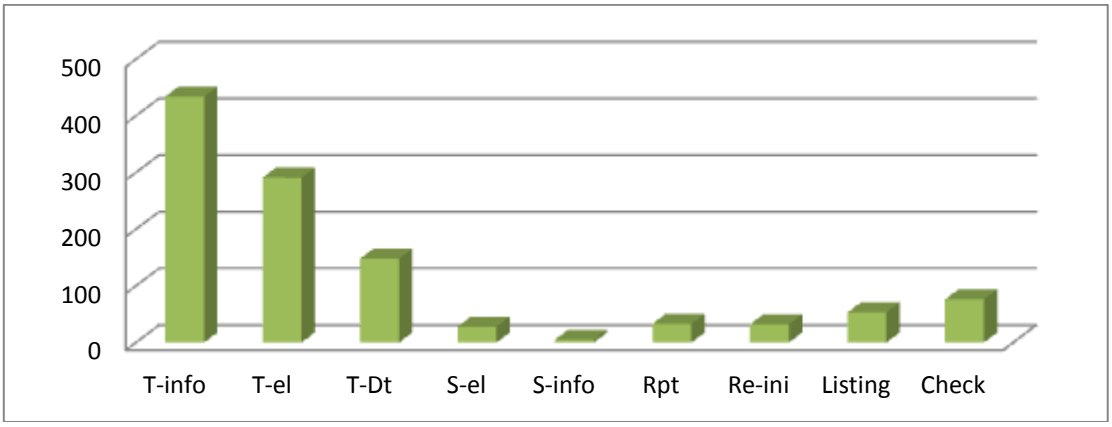


Figure 1: Patterning of teaching exchanges for the study teachers

Throughout the sample, teachers' elicitations usually took the form of teacher-led presentations and teacher-controlled question-and-answer exchanges. Therefore, similar teaching styles of all observed teachers were discerned after analyzing the teaching exchanges. This led to the absence of a meaningful and constructive give-and-take process between teachers and the students or amongst students themselves (Hardman, 2008). This finding supports Cazden's (1988) viewpoint in that the rigid classroom teaching patterns reduce students to passive learners and kills any possible input from them.

Teachers' questions were characterized by being largely text-based, short-and-quick, and comprehension-check oriented. With few exceptions, students did not ask any genuine questions. Because the teaching framework for the six teachers was the strict IR/F pattern, the overwhelming majority of teachers' questions were closed where one possible answer was usually pursued. According to Ellis (2005), 'checking comprehension' is usually executed through using low-cognitive questioning techniques. In addition to giving direct questions, teachers used cue elicitations through raising their intonation at the end of statements. As a result, choral responses were noticeably common in classes. Such correlation between questioning behaviour and the general teaching pattern is well evidenced in literature. For example, Cazden (1988) argues that the strict IRF discourse leaves little room for school students to negotiate teacher's explanations and premises.

The findings from the interviews also revealed that teachers Alpha, Beta, Delta and Eta viewed drilling and recitation as a form of classroom discussion. There is clearly a big difference between the two practices.

Unlike recitation, genuine discussion whereby there is an exploration of the topic implies a give-and-take process in the classroom (Walsh, 2006, Nystrand et al., 1997). Placing the blame on the students' poor language and cognitive proficiency in EFL classes was not uncommon in the related literature as found in relevant literature on EFL contexts (see Peacock, 1998).

Conclusion

The examination of the pedagogical practices and the interactional discourse conditions operating in the Syrian EFL secondary school teachers showed that there is little variation in teaching style across the whole sample. Because of the overt discrepancy between the learning norms prevailing in the observed classrooms (marked by IRF-transmissional modes) and the SCT principles of learning (marked by constructive effort to build knowledge), teachers need to review their practices to enhance the quality of interaction inside the classrooms. Such a review should mainly target the ways that teachers use classroom talk to engage with students. This includes their choice of questions, the quality of feedback, enabling students' participation, using the mother tongue and widening classroom participation

In order for teachers to address these issues, teachers should instil in their students the importance of using English language. They can start by creating some opportunities for students to use English in life-like situations through adopting strategies that stimulate students to engage in genuine-like conversations. For instance, students can be asked to contextualize and/or personalize the various textbook activities and then share them with classmates in English using pair/group work techniques. Spontaneous opportunities for English should be encouraged as it was found that teachers' tight control of the lesson discourse aborted any probability of finding such opportunities.

Finally, equipping EFL teachers with high-quality professional training is the most effective strategy in order to fulfil the goals of an educational reform and to materialize it in practice. Given that teachers are the key element in the implementation process (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992), teacher education and support is clearly central to the successful implementation of an innovation.

References

D Crystal. 2006. *A History of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge

University Press.

C B Cazden. 1988. *Classroom discourse : the language of teaching and learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

R Ellis. 2005. Measuring implicit and explicit knowledge of a second language: A psychometric study. In *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 27(02), pp141-172.

M Fullan & A Hargreaves. 1992. *Teacher development and educational change*. London, UK: Routledge.

F Hardman. 2008. Teachers' use of feedback in whole-class and group-based talk. In Neil Mercer & Steve Hodgkinson (eds), *Exploring talk in schools: inspired by the work of Douglas Barnes*. London, UK: Sage Publications, p131.

O H Maclin & M K Maclin. 2005. Coding observational data: A software solution. In *Behavior research methods*, 37(2), p224.

D Nunan& J Choi. 2009. *Language and culture: reflective narratives and the emergence of identity*. New York, NY ; London: Routledge.

M Nystrand et al. 1997. **Opening dialogue: Understanding the dynamics of language and learning in the English classroom**. Teachers College Press.

M Peacock. 1998. Exploring the gap between teachers' and learners' beliefs about 'useful'activities for EFL. In *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 8(2), pp233-248.

P Seedhouse. 2004. *The interactional architecture of the language classroom : a conversation analysis perspective*. Malden, MA; Oxford: Blackwell Pub.

S E S Shihiba. 2011. *An Investigation of Libyan EFL Teachers Conceptions of the Communicative Learner-Centred Approach in Relation to their Implementation of an English Language Curriculum Innovation in Secondary Schools*. Doctoral thesis, University of Durham.

J M Sinclair & R M Coulthard. 1975. *Towards an analysis of discourse : the English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.

S Walsh. 2006. Talking the talk of the TESOL classroom. *ELT journal*, 60(2), p133.

48 Word form variation matters more than frequency of exposure in incidental vocabulary acquisition

Barry Lee Reynolds & David Wible
National Central University, Taiwan
barry@cl.ncu.edu.tw

Introduction

Second language research supports the claim that vocabulary can be acquired incidentally while reading (e.g., Waring & Nation, 2004). Acquisition has been considered as occurring incidentally because learners are focused on the task of reading instead of acquiring vocabulary. The most commonly examined variable in this growing body of literature is frequency of exposure. While criticism from Horst, Cobb, and Meara (1998) marked a change in incidental L2 vocabulary acquisition studies by challenging researchers to assess larger numbers of target words taken from longer learner texts while investigating variables other than frequency, most incidental L2 incidental vocabulary acquisition research continues to be designed for more laboratory-like environments with short texts. In recent years L2 incidental vocabulary acquisition as a research area has continued to gain momentum as researchers have explored several variables in connection to frequency of exposure to target vocabulary; however, one relevant issue has remained elusive.

One assumption in the present research is that it is worth investigating empirically whether there is a relationship between how target words vary in their repeated form and their incidental acquisition through reading. For example, would the likelihood for a learner acquiring a target word change depending on whether the target word's form was the same for every occurrence encountered (thus 'create' and 'created' are not tokens of the same word), whether it inflected (thus 'create' and 'created' are tokens of the same word), or derivation was present (thus 'create,' 'created,' and 'creativity' are variants of the same word)? We hypothesize that when frequency is controlled, variation in the form of repeated target words would have a significant effect on the incidental acquisition of vocabulary.

Methods

An entire class of foreign language learners enrolled in an elective advanced novel reading course (n = 32) was given the 37,611-token novel *The BFG* (Dahl, 1982) to read within two weeks. They were unaware that

their vocabulary acquisition would be assessed; at the end of the two weeks the class received two surprise forms of vocabulary assessment (a meaning recall translation assessment and a meaning recognition multiple-choice assessment).

The BFG was chosen because of the use of nonce words by the author. Forty-nine of the nonce words were selected as the target words. First each target word was coded as either a lower (2-4 tokens) or higher (5 or more tokens) frequency word. Then each target word's identity was coded by the amount of variability found in its tokens. We operationalized identity by three levels. From strict to permissive, they are: (1) same form, (2) same lexeme, (3) same word family.

Data Analysis & Results

Two 3 x 2 RM ANOVAs examined the effects of frequency (lower, higher) and token identity (form, lexeme, family) to explain assessment scores. For both meaning recall and meaning recognition the interaction between frequency and identity was found to be statistical ($p < .000$).

Post hoc analysis for meaning recall in terms of token identity found higher frequency words to be acquired significantly more ($p < .000$) than lower frequency words whose tokens varied at the level of family. There was no significant difference ($p > .05$) in terms of frequency for target words whose tokens did not vary in form or those target words whose tokens varied at the level of lexeme.

Post hoc analysis for meaning recognition in terms of token identity found higher frequency words whose tokens varied at the level of lexeme and family to be acquired significantly more ($p < .05$) than lower frequency words. There was no significant difference ($p > .05$) found in terms of frequency for target words whose tokens did not vary in form.

Discussion & Conclusions

The present research examined the effect of target word token identity on the incidental acquisition of target word meaning recall and meaning recognition. An interaction effect between target word token identity and frequency was found. As previous research has shown, encountering unknown words while reading can lead to incidental acquisition, yet the number of encounters needed is likely dependent on how much variation is exhibited by a target word's tokens. This means for certain target words, the amount of variation could matter more than frequency but at other

times frequency can counteract the effect amount of variation.

Results show that learners acquired higher frequency target words whose tokens varied at the level of family significantly more than lower frequency words whose tokens also varied at the level of family. This result indicates that learners require more encounters if a target word's tokens vary at the level of family; this could be due to learners being unable to associate the differing forms of target word tokens that varied at the level of family. However, if a target word's tokens varied at the level of lexeme or did not vary in form, increasing the number of encounters would probably not increase acquisition of meaning recall. On the other hand, for learners to be able to simply recognize the meaning of target vocabulary, increasing exposure frequency for vocabulary whose tokens vary at the level of both lexeme and family would significantly increase the likelihood of acquisition of meaning recognition. However, if no variation is found, then an increase in frequency is not likely to statistically increase the chance of learners acquiring such words. In sum, the more the variation in the tokens of target words the less the yield of word knowledge acquisition; however, this can be overcome by increasing a target word's frequency of occurrence in the text read by learners.

References

R Dahl. (1982). *The BFG*. New York: Puffin.

M Horst, T Cobb, & P Meara. (1998). Beyond a Clockwork Orange: Acquiring second language vocabulary through reading. In *Reading in a Foreign Language* 11(2), pp207-223.

R Waring & P Nation. (2004). Second language reading and incidental vocabulary learning. In *Angles on the English-Speaking World* 4, pp11-23.

49 Construction of Identity in a Successful Language Learner

Venetia Russell
Freelance Researcher
v.russell30@yahoo.co.uk

Introduction

Recent research into language learning processes has brought about a transformation in the way language, learner and context is viewed. Qualitative studies have begun to explore more nuanced dimensions of the social practices and contexts in which individuals learn languages. A common theme that emerges from much socially-oriented inquiry is the phenomenon of individuals' complex set of identities, in relation to second language (L2) learning outcomes and processes of engagement.

This paper aims to explore identity in relation to a multilingual language learner. Considering identity (re)construction in light of the social practices and contexts in which my informant has learnt languages, I examine the aforementioned as perceived by my informant; through first person narrative interviews. The data show that my informant's success in language learning demonstrates not only proficiency and aptitude, but also an ability to assimilate and (re)form identity in contexts.

Methodology

Conducted on several different occasions via Skype, the research used first person narrative interviews, allowing my informant to enact and tell his story. I asked Ahmed to relate his multilingual life by thinking about key events; from earliest childhood memories to the present. The data was then analysed by identifying themes discussed in the literature of identity in the social sciences.

Data & Discussion

Ahmed, a forty-five year old African American male, is a second-generation Muslim whose L1 is English. A polyglot fluent in: Urdu, Punjabi, Farsi, Arabic, and varying competencies in Spanish, Italian and Hebrew, his patterns of migration overlap indicating trans-migrant and expatriate subject positions. My informant's language trajectory emerged from the ages of six and seven. His narrative highlights some of the traditional notions in the area of first language acquisition; however, it also

shows how different power relationships and norms of recognition (Block, 2007) were constructed:

> "I think, alongside studying Arabic in school, I was also quite fortunate in that my parents used to take me along to their Arabic classes. I was studying Arabic alongside adults. I think that made quite an indelible impression upon me because it sort of gave me a sense of confidence, which I probably wouldn't have got otherwise. Studying with people twenty years older than myself, I didn't feel at a disadvantage. In many cases I felt at an advantage".

From a cognitive perspective, an assumption can be made that he felt those positive attributes because of the different learner characteristics children often display. However, from a social identity view, his narrative seems to indicate that the 'indelible impression' and 'confidence' he experienced was a result of his ability to participate as a peripheral member of Communities of Practice (henceforth CofP), a participation framework implicated by social structures and mediated by power relations (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

Ahmed further shows how power and norms of recognition changed over time when he moves between sociocultural contexts. His narrative advances to the ages of nine to eleven as a young, expatriate migrant, acquiring his third language abroad in Pakistan:

> "Although I was the youngest member of the American delegation, I had to translate. When shopping had to be done in the bazaar (market), I had to go [...] no one else could understand, so very quickly I went from learning the language to actually being an intermediary between those who spoke English and the native population [...] people depended on me".

Developing intelligibility and authentication with his older peers, Ahmed was able to gain accessibility in target language (henceforth TL) social and verbal activities of CofPs, which his older colleagues did not share, thus shaping an identity of competence.

However, as an adult, the perception of what speakers of a language look like, becomes a poignant issue:

> "In both Pakistan and Iran, I was aware of the fact of my difference. I had to deal with racism [...] being African in appearance. I've been in situations where I've understood people speaking in a derogatory way about me and then noticing that I understood and able to confront them. Yeah... I had a few of those types of experiences".

On the one hand, Ahmed was positioned by his phenotype 'Black' and attributed incomprehensible and incompetent by virtue of race. On the other hand, this subject positioning facilitated his access to CofP and social networks, providing unique language learning opportunities:

> "In Pakistan, I stood out like a sore thumb and was quite a big curiosity, especially as I wasn't in the big cities, but in small villages, where many people had never seen a black person before. In many cases an American. When I would go to the bazaar, I would be invited in by young and old [...] Some spoke a little English and would want to practise their English; others wanted to know about Muslims in the US or where I originally came from cos they didn't believe I could be American [...] those people were white and blue eyed, so it was really easy for me to make friends and develop a network of people to talk to and associate with".

Conclusion

In brief, the data suggest that Ahmed's early exposure to language and access to various ethnolinguistic communities facilitated his acculturation and assimilation as a migrant. However, the more 'essentialised' underpinnings mediated his language learning outcomes. It seems the most important mediator of social activity and accessibility to TL participation was race. As a result, his phenotype became a symbolic resource, providing wider ranges of contexts to acquire language. In addition, he was able to capitalise from other intersecting identities such as 'English speaker', 'Muslim' and 'American'. His social practices are in stark contrast to accounts of illegitimate participants and lack of agency often cited in social identity research (see Norton, 2000).

References

David Block. 2007. *Second Language Identities*. Continuum International Publishing Group: London, UK.

Jean Lave & Etienne Wenger. 1991. *Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.

Bonny Norton. 2000. *Identity and Language Learning*. Pearson Education Limited.

50 The Impact of Short-Term Study Abroad Experiences on Japanese University English Learners' Communicative Competence: Learner Perception

Yoko Sato
Hosei University
yoko@hosei.ac.jp

[This paper was presented at the BAAL conference, 1-3 September 2011]

Introduction

This paper reports on a study that investigates the impact of short-term study abroad (SA) experiences on the communicative competence of Japanese university English learners. In particular, it presents some of the findings concerning learner perception. The following research question is addressed:

> *What impact do short-term ESL SA experiences have on the communicative competence of Japanese university English learners as perceived by themselves?*

Method

The participants were twenty-four second-year Business students (11 male, 13 female) at a pre-intermediate to intermediate level of English proficiency (TOEFL ITP: 427-503: mean: 458.3, sd: 21.42). They joined the Faculty's optional SA programme and enrolled on three- to four-month ESL courses at two US universities.

Immediately before and after SA, one-to-one, face-to-face oral proficiency interviews were conducted by a qualified native speaker (NS) assessor. The interview format was based on the IELTS Speaking test, with some modifications drawing on the author's previous study (Sato, 2008). Each interview lasted approximately 12 to 14 minutes.

After the interview, student-learners were asked to rate the difficulty experienced in performing the interview task on 5-point global and analytical scales. Fourteen analytical items were selected based on theories of communicative competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Canale, 1983), cognitive models of speech production (e.g. de Bot, 1996; Levelt, 1989) and the author's previous study (Sato, 2008): grammar, vocabulary

knowledge and retrieval, pronunciation of individual sounds, prosody, discourse structure, appropriacy of the amount and content of utterances, register, body language, problem-solving ability, speaking speed, quickness of response and confidence. The learners also completed a questionnaire, which included questions on self-perceived oral proficiency level and the areas of communicative ability they wished to improve. All materials were written in Japanese to collect as accurate and complete data as possible.

The results concerning twenty-three students are presented below because one of the students did not complete all the rating.

Results

As a group, learners rated their oral proficiency significantly higher ($p<.001$) after SA. On the scale of "1: utter beginner" to "5: native-like", the mean score improved from 1.783 (sd: 0.518) to 2.652 (sd: 0.487) (see Figure 1).

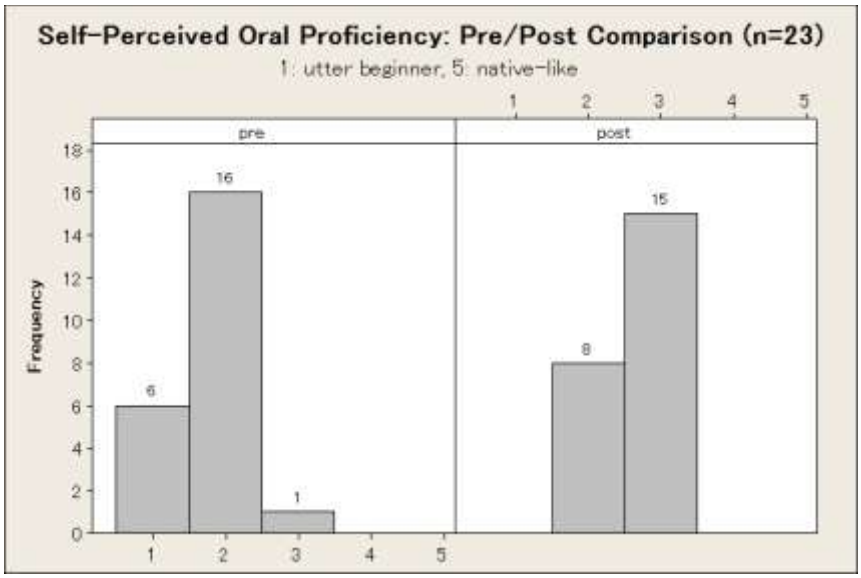


Figure 1: Self-perceived oral efficiency

As for the overall task difficulty, on average, the learners felt the interview was significantly easier after SA ($p<.001$). The mean score of the global rating improved from 2.348 (sd: 0.775) to 3.174 (sd: 0.937) on the scale of "1: very difficult" and "5: very easy" (see Figure 2).

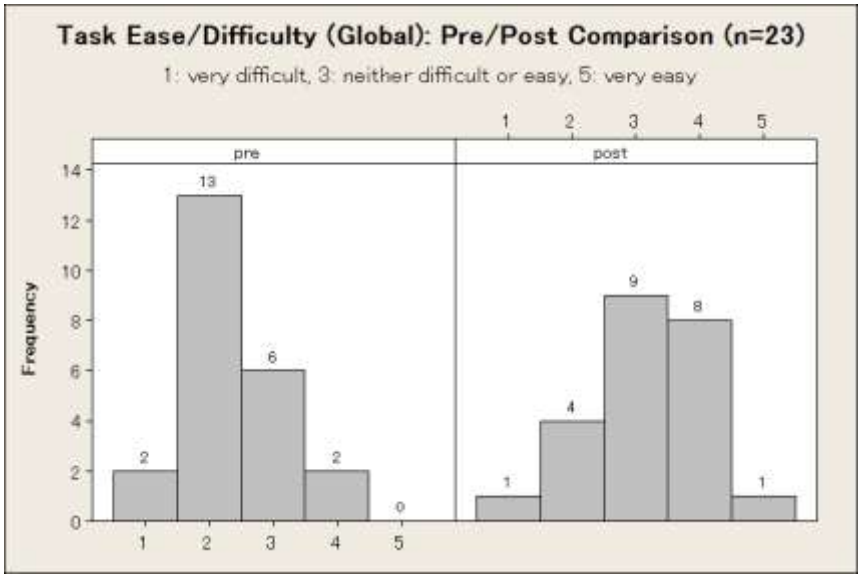
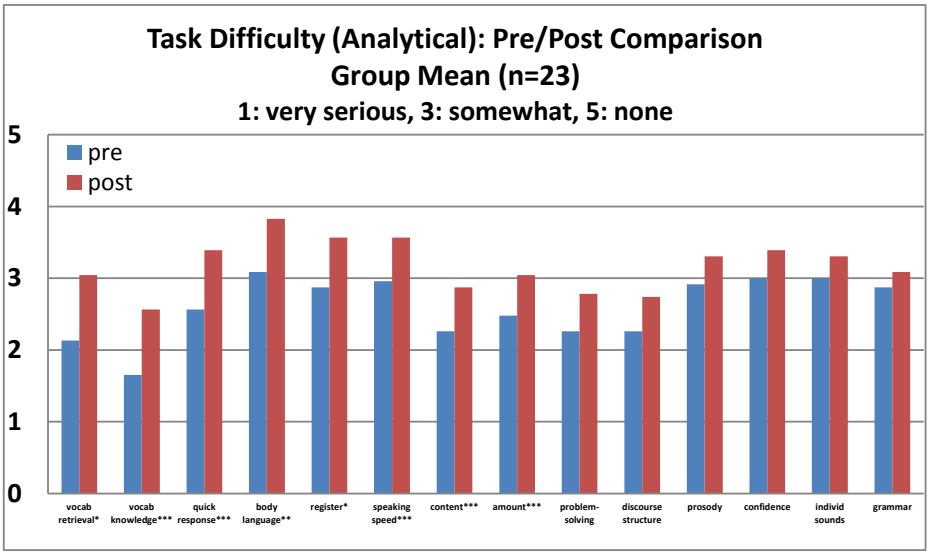


Figure 2: Level of difficulty of task

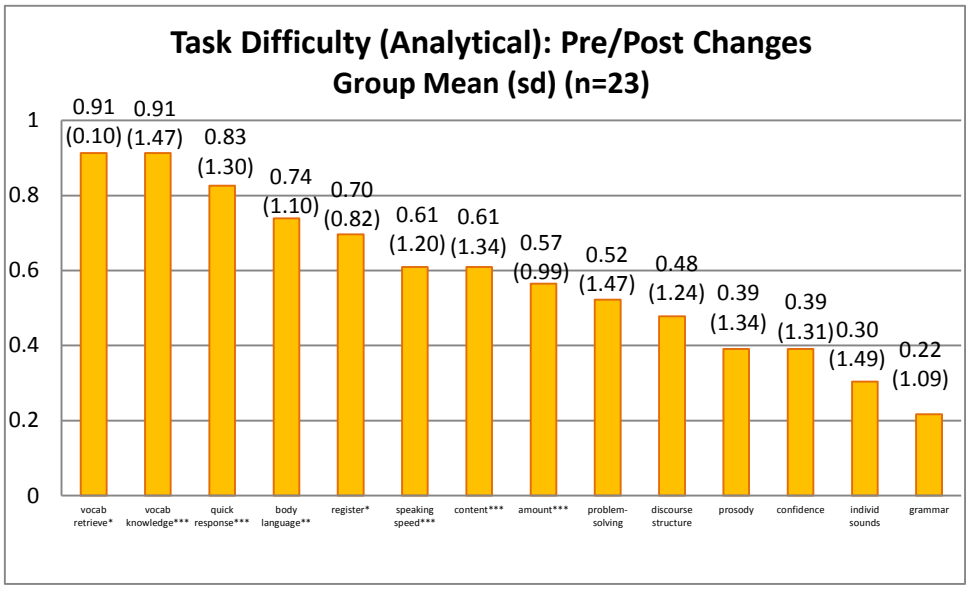
The areas in which the learners experienced significantly less difficulty after SA were vocabulary (both knowledge and retrieval), appropriacy of utterances (amount, content and register), fluency (both quickness of response and speaking speed) and use of body language (see Figure 3). No significant changes were observed in the areas of grammar, pronunciation (neither individual sounds nor prosody), discourse structure, problem-solving ability and confidence.



*p<.005, **p<.01, ***p<.05

Figure 3: Level of difficulty before and after studying abroad

It should be mentioned, however, that a wide range of individual differences were observed in the pre/post-SA score changes as indicated by high standard deviations (see figures in round brackets in Figure 4).



*p<.005, **p<.01, ***p<.05

Figure 4: Differences in task difficulty before and after changes

Another finding was the significant negative correlations between pre-SA scores and the pre/post-SA score changes shown by Spearman's correlation analysis. That is, the greater difficulty the learners experienced before SA, the easier they felt after SA. This was observed for all the 14 analytical items (see Table 1).

Items	Spearman's rho
Quickness of response	-0.813*
Individual sounds	-0.800*
Vocabulary knowledge	-0.795*
Problem-solving	-0.737*
Prosody	-0.702*
Amount	-0.693*
Confidence	-0.675*
Content	-0.658*
Discourse structure	-0.649*
Speaking speed	-0.554**
Grammar	-0.510***
Body language	-0.498***
Vocabulary retrieval	-0.489***
Register	-0.444***

*p<.001, **p<.01, ***p<.05

Table 1: Spearman's correlation coefficients of before and after studying abroad

As to the areas of communicative ability learners wished to improve (multiple answers allowed), the number of learners who indicated "confidence" almost halved after SA. Only slight changes were observed in other areas (see Figure 5).

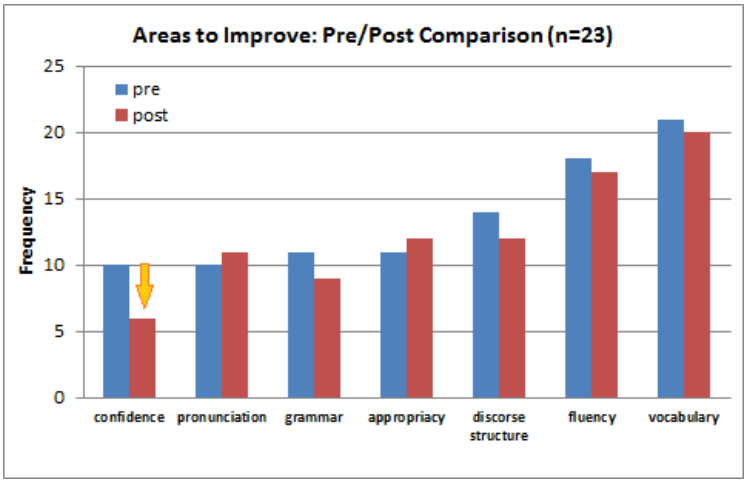


Figure 5: Areas for improvement comparison

Discussion and Provisional Conclusion

The results suggest that the short-term ESL SA experiences investigated in the present study had a positive impact on the Japanese university English learners' communicative competence - at least in some areas and as perceived by the learners. The areas which showed significant improvement were vocabulary, fluency, appropriacy of utterances and use of body language. These are particularly important in daily social interactions, and the communicative pressure and social context in the target-language (TL) environment may have facilitated the development of abilities in these areas.

The fact that no significant change was found in other areas in the learner rating can be interpreted in several ways. It may indicate that the learners' awareness and expectations were heightened and more complex messages were attempted after SA, leading to only slight changes in difficulty experienced in these areas. The lack of significant change in grammar, pronunciation and confidence may have been due also to the relative ease the participants had felt in these areas before SA. Or, the learners may have prioritised the conveyance of main messages under the communicative pressure in the TL setting and paid less attention to and/or made less effort to improve grammar and pronunciation.

It is important to note that, on average, the learners felt the interview task was significantly easier and that their oral proficiency was significantly higher after SA. In addition, the number of learners who indicated the need to improve their confidence greatly decreased after SA. These together suggest their heightened self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994), which could in turn facilitate post-SA learning. However, great individual differences were observed, and further studies and detailed qualitative analyses are needed to elucidate the cause of these differences and to provide a more complete picture of the impact of SA experiences.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Grant-in-Aid for Young Scientists (Start-up) (#21820044).

References

Lyle F Bachman & Adrian S Palmer. 1996. *Language Testing in Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Albert Bandura. 1994. Self-efficacy. In V S Ramachaudran (ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior* Vol 4. New York: Academic Press, pp71-81.

Michael Canale. 1983. From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In J C Richards & R W Schmidt (eds), *Language and Communication*. Harlow: Longman, pp2-27

Kees de Bot. 1992. A Bilingual Production Model: Levelt's 'speaking' model adapted. In *Applied Linguistics* 13(1), pp1-24.

Willem J M Levelt. 1989. *Speaking: from intention to articulation*. Cambridge, MA.: MIT Press.

Yoko Sato. 2008. *Japanese University Students' Problems and Communication Strategies in EFL Speaking: a descriptive study using retrospective verbal reports*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Reading, Reading, UK.

51 Short-term ESL study abroad: Are Japanese students "more pleasant" to talk to after the programme?

Yoko Sato
Hosei University
yoko@hosei.ac.jp

Introduction

This paper reports on some of the findings of a series of studies that investigate the impact of short-term ESL study abroad (SA) experiences on the communicative competence of Japanese university students. In particular, it focuses on the pragmatic aspect, measured through the affective impact of learner performance on the interlocutor. This is an under-researched area despite its importance in real-life communication. The following research question is addressed:

> *What effect do short-term ESL SA experiences have on the pragmatic competence of Japanese university English learners as assessed through the affective impact their performance has on the interlocutor?*

Method

Two studies were conducted in 2010 and 2011 respectively, using the same methodology. The participants were two groups of second-year Business students between the ages of 19 and 21. They were at a pre-intermediate to intermediate level of English proficiency as assessed by TOEFL ITP. In both studies the students joined the Faculty's optional SA programme and enrolled on ESL courses at two US universities. The course lasted approximately for three months at University A and four months at University B. All students lived in on-campus dormitories. (See Table 1 for the profile of the participants.)

	Study 1	**Study 2**
Number	24 (male: 11, female: 13)	27 (male: 14, female: 13)
TOEFL ITP	427-503 (mean: 458.3, sd: 21.42)	413-503 (mean: 463.4, sd: 27.60)
Placement	University A: 21, University B: 3	University A: 17, University B: 10

Table 1: Profile of the participants

Before and after the programme, one-to-one, face-to-face oral proficiency interviews were conducted by qualified native speaker (NS) assessors. The

interview format was based on the IELTS Speaking test, with some modifications drawing on the author's previous study (Sato, 2008). Each interview lasted approximately 12 to 14 minutes. The interviewers were asked to rate the negative affective impact that the learners' performances had on them, such as irritation or unpleasantness, on a 5-point scale ranging from "1: very serious" to "5: none". They are also required to comment on the causes of such an impact. This is to explore pragmatically inappropriate learner performance features, which have been reported as having negative affective effects on the interlocutor (e.g. Gumperz, 1982; Thomas, 1983). (See Sato, 2012, for a more detailed description of the methodology.)

Results

Study 1

The interviewer ratings indicate that, as a group, the learners' performance improved significantly after SA (<p.001). The mean score improved from 2.563 (sd: 0.838) in the pretest to 3.271 (sd: 0.909) in the posttest, with the mean change of 0.708 (sd: 0.820). (See Figure 1.)

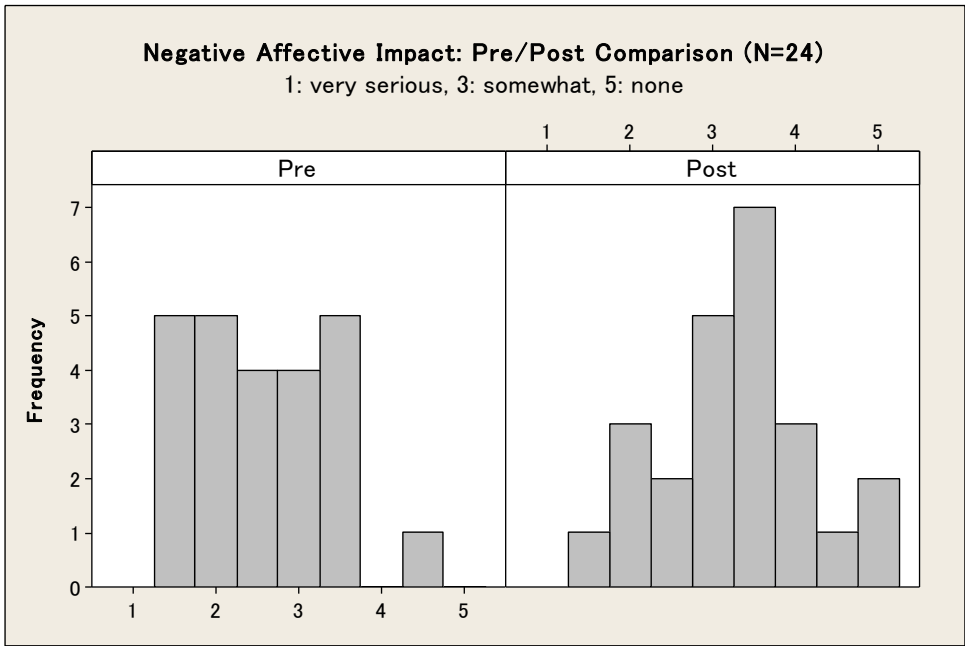


Figure 1: Negative affective impact – study 1

As to the interviewer comments on the causes of the negative affective impact, the total number decreased from 49 to 38 (multiple comments allowed). Comments related to inappropriate body language decreased to one-third after SA. Those due to dysfluency and lack or inappropriate use of communication strategies became less than half. Conversely, the number

of interviewer comments about insufficient linguistic resources increased by 80%. No change was observed for under-elaboration. (See Figure 2.)

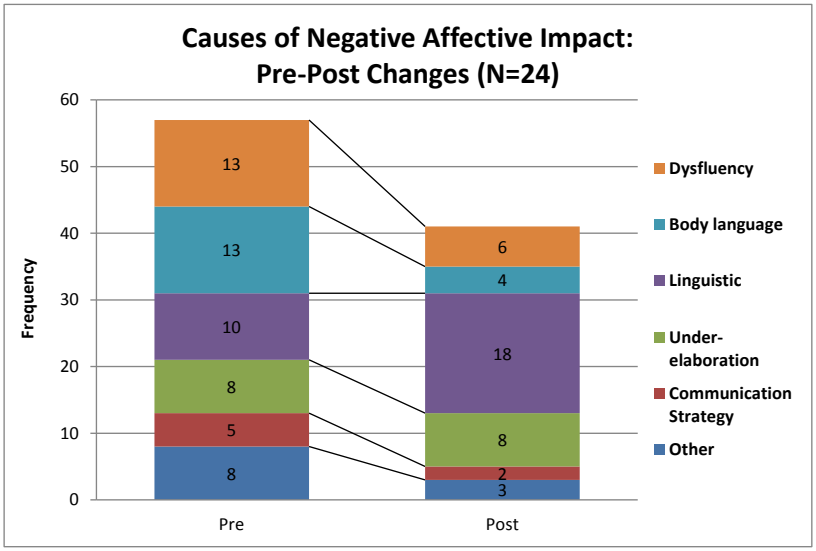


Figure 2: Causes of negative affect impact – study 1

It should be noted, however, that great individual differences were observed as indicated by the high standard deviation mentioned above. One learner got a lower score in the posttest, and the scores of eight learners' stayed the same. (See Figure 3.)

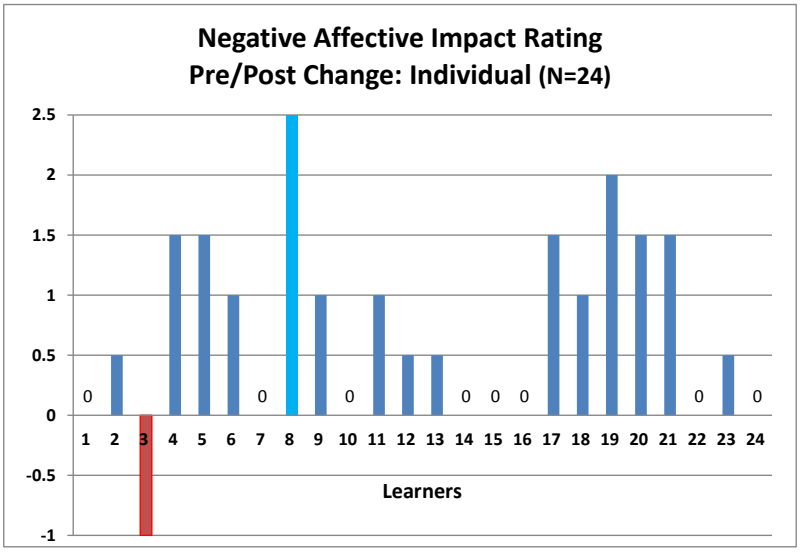


Figure 3: Negative affect impact rating – study 1

Study 2

The group mean score of the interviewer ratings improved from 2.870 (sd: 0.947) in the pretest to 3.222 (sd: 0.954) in the posttest. The mean change was 0.352 (sd: 0.918). However, the change was not statistically

significant. There were great individual differences as the high standard deviation indicates. (See Figure 4.)

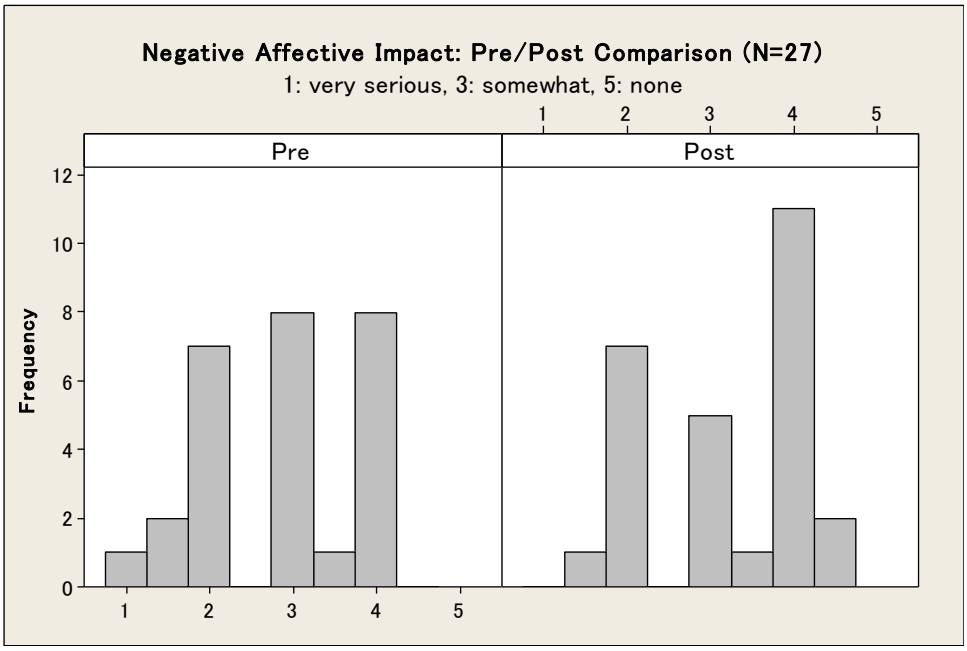


Figure 4: Negative affect impact – study 2

As to the interviewer comments, the total number decreased from 44 in the pretest to 34 in the posttest (multiple comments allowed). Those related to dysfluency and insufficient linguistic resources decreased to less than half after SA. Conversely, the number of comments about under-elaboration and lack or inappropriate use of communication strategies increased. No change was observed for inappropriate use of body language, which received only two comments both in the pretest and the posttest. (See Figure 5.)

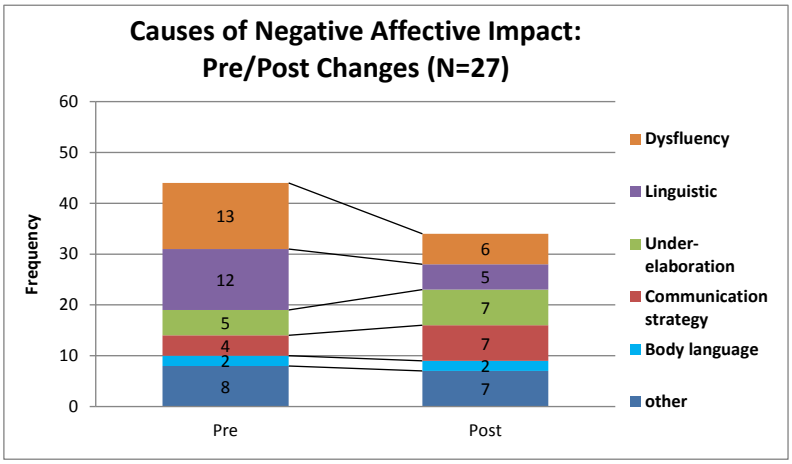


Figure 5: Causes of negative affect impact – study 2

As mentioned above, a wide range of individual differences were observed in the pre/post score changes. Four learners received lower scores in the posttest, and the scores of ten learners stayed the same. (See Figure 6.)

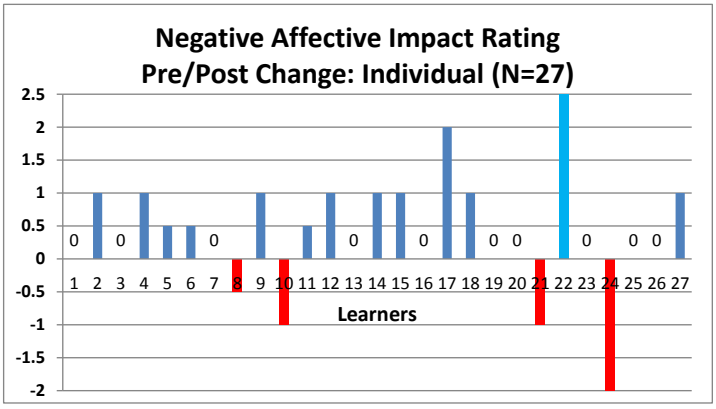


Figure 6: Negative affect impact rating – study 2

Provisional Conclusion

The results suggest that the pragmatic appropriateness of the Japanese university students' communicative performance improved after the short-term ESL SA experiences, as measured by the affective impact on the NS interlocutor - at least to some extent and in some areas. In both studies, comments on dysfluency decreased to less than half after SA. Use of body language generally improved, too. It may be that the communicative pressure and social context in the target-language (TL) environment have facilitated the development of fluency and appropriate use of body language. Conversely, the SA experiences did not seem to enhance the ability to elaborate utterances.

It is important to note that great differences were observed amongst the individuals and between the two groups. Out of 51 students in total, the scores of about 35% students did not change and those of about 10% became lower after SA. Interviewer comments on insufficient linguistic resources increased after SA in Study 1 but decreased in Study 2. The opposite was observed for the lack or inappropriate use of communication strategies. The improvement of the affective impact rating was not significant in Study 2. One possible reason for this may be the comparatively high scores the Study 2 group received before SA. However, further studies and detailed qualitative analyses are needed to identify the cause of these differences and to provide a clearer picture of the impact of SA experiences.

Note

See Sato (2012, 2013) for some other findings of the 2010 study.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Young Scientists (Start-up) (#21820044) and a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C) (# 23520759).

References

John J Gumperz. 1982. *Discourse Strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jenny Thomas. 1983. Cross-Cultural Pragmatic Failure. In *Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), pp91-112.

Yoko Sato. 2008. *Japanese University Students' Problems and Communication Strategies in EFL Speaking: a descriptive study using retrospective verbal reports*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Reading, Reading, UK.

Yoko Sato. 2012. Benefits of short-term study abroad experiences: What impact do they have on Japanese EFL learners' oral communicative competence? In Nozomu Sonda & Alison Stewart (eds), *JALT2011 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT, pp62-71.

Yoko Sato. 2013. The Impact of Short-Term Study Abroad Experiences on Japanese University English Learners' Communicative Competence: Learner Perception. *Multilingual Theory and Practice in Applied Linguistics: Proceedings of the 45th Annual Meeting of the British Association for Applied Linguistics*. London: Scitsiugnil Press.

52 The Theory and Practice of Self-Access Language Learning: Redefining Learner Autonomy in the Japanese Context

Adam Serag
Hirosaki University
tangaloma2000@yahoo.co.jp

Introduction

Students and teachers in Japan have difficulties adapting and integrating autonomy effectively in self access language learning canters (SALLC). Many Japanese students are not accustomed to working independently due to their inherited cultural values of collectivism, creating the need to provide guidance as to the use of self access language learning centers.

This paper discusses Japanese learner autonomy from a cognitive psychological perspective. In particular, the paper focuses on the factors that influence the autonomous practice of 16 self access language learners at a Japanese university.

Data were collected, coded and analyzed recursively through in-depth semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. Results showed that adapting to learner autonomy and self-access learning is a complex process that differs dramatically across cultures.

Self-access language learning (SALL)

Self-access language learning (SALL) has the potential to promote learner autonomy in a number of ways. Firstly, it provides facilities which allow learners to pursue their own goals and interests while accommodating individual differences in learning style, level and pace of learning; secondly, the resources inherent in SALL have the potential to raise learners' awareness of the learning process by highlighting aspects of learning management, such as goal setting and monitoring progress; thirdly, SALL can act as a bridge between the teacher-directed learning situation, where the target language is studied and practiced, and the "real world", where the target language is used as a means of communication. Finally, SALL can promote the learning autonomy of learners who prefer or are obliged to learn without a teacher, by supporting their learning in the absence of an organized language course. In different contexts, "SALL offers varying degrees of guidance but encourages students to move towards autonomy" (Gardner and Miller, 1997).

Individualism is the concept in which the person conceives him or herself as being separate, autonomous, and distinct from others. The orientation is toward oneself and internal attributes. Collectivism refers to a perception of self that is embedded within social roles and social relationships; separate selves are de-emphasized with an orientation toward others and the welfare of the group or community. Western cultures such as the United States tend to be more individualistic, whereas Asian cultures tend to be more collectivistic (Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995). Asian parents tend to instill in their children collectivism (following group norms, obeying authority) rather than the individualism (autonomy, self-reliance) of mainstream American culture (Chen, 2002).

Methodology

Answers to the study's research questions were sought by a number of different means. Data were collected from 16 self access language learners using two instruments:

- An electronically administered questionnaire with closed and open ended items
- Follow-up face-to-face, semi-structured interviews to allow an in-depth exploration of relevant issues emerging from the questionnaire

Three factors were indentified: The interpretations of learner autonomy and self-access learning concepts, the Japanese learners' beliefs about the purpose of self-access language centers, and the implementation methods of self-access learning in Japan.

The interpretations of learner autonomy and self-access learning concepts

I created summary definitions for the concepts of Self-access and Independent Learning by summarising comments in the students' questionnaire responses. Then, during the interviews I showed the students the summary definitions and asked them to comment on the extent to which they agreed with the definitions as shown in table 1.

- Definition A: "Self-access is about facilities, the focus is on providing materials, location and support".
- Definition B: "Independent learning is learners taking responsibility".

	S 1	S 2	S 3	S 4	S 5	S 6	S 7	S 8	S 9	S 10	S 11	S 12	S 13	S 14	S 15	S 16
Definition A	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	X	O	O	O	X	O
Definition B	O	O	X	O	O	X	O	O	X	O	O	O	X	O	O	O

Table 1: Agreement with summary definitions of Self-access and Independent Learning

The Japanese learners' beliefs about the purpose of self-access language centers

Students were asked to express their beliefs about the purpose of self-access language centers. I summarised comments in the students' questionnaire responses as shown in table 2.

- Comment Summary A: I don't know what the purpose is.
- Comment Summary B: A good place to relax in my free time.
- Comment Summary C: A good place to meet my friends.

	S 1	S 2	S 3	S 4	S 5	S 6	S 7	S 8	S 9	S 10	S 11	S 12	S 13	S 14	S 15	S 16
Comment Summary A	O	O	O	O	O	O	X	O	O	O	X	O	O	O	X	O
Comment Summary B	X	X	X	X	O	X	O	O	O	X	O	X	X	O	O	X
Comment Summary C	O	X	X	X	X	X	O	O	O	X	O	X	X	X	X	X

Table 2: Beliefs about the purpose of self-access language centers

The implementation methods of self-access learning in Japan

Students were asked to provide their views about the implementation methods of self-access learning in Japan as shown in table 3.

- Comment Summary A: SALLC should improve students' English and TOEIC scores.
- Comment Summary B: SALLC should be integrated with some courses.
- Comment Summary C: SALLC teachers should help students with proofreading their English assignments.

	S 1	S 2	S 3	S 4	S 5	S 6	S 7	S 8	S 9	S 10	S 11	S 12	S 13	S 14	S 15	S 16
Comment Summary A	X	O	X	O	X	O	O	O	O	O	X	O	O	O	X	X
Comment Summary B	X	X	X	O	O	X	O	O	X	O	X	X	X	O	X	X
Comment Summary C	O	O	O	O	O	X	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Table 3: Views about the implementation methods of self-access learning in Japan

Conclusion

The study identified obstacles to use of the SALLC in Japan. 80% of respondents stated that they don't know the purpose of self-access language centers, despite the initial orientation to the Centre and the presence of staff throughout opening hours. More than 90% of respondents stated that SALLC teachers should help students with proofreading their English assignments. Effective SALL depends on a sound understanding of how to learn independently, as well as an appreciation of the rationale behind this approach, what Holec (1980) calls "psychological preparation" for self-directed learning. Finally, the study found that learners independently lacked a sound understanding of the rationale behind this approach to learning, and of what it involves in practice. In short, there is plenty of work still to be done in enhancing learners' understanding and experience of self access language learning in Japan.

References

X Chen. 2002. Social control in China: Applications of the labeling theory and the reintegrative shaming theory. In *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology* 36, pp45–63.

D Gardner. and L Miller. 1997. *A Study of Tertiary Level Self-Access Facilities in Hong Kong*. Hong Kong: ESEP, City University of Hong Kong.

H Holec. 1980. *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Nancy: Centre de Recherches et d'Applications Pedagogiques en Langues. Council of Europe.

T A Singelis, H C Triandis, D P S Bhawuk, & M J Gelfand. 1995. Horizontal and vertical dimensions of individualism–collectivism: A theoretical and measurement refinement. In *Cross-Cultural Research* 29, pp240–275.

53 Utilizing the Hybrid Intercultural Language Learning Environment

Aki Siegel
Rikkyo University
siegel@rikkyo.ac.jp

Introduction

This study explored the effects of a new kind of language learning context, a hybrid intercultural language learning environment (HILLE). HILLE is a combination of an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, an immersion program, and a study abroad program. Recently, several universities in Japan have invited large numbers of international students to their institutions to create an on-campus environment similar to a study abroad, in an EFL context. In addition, they have introduced dormitory rooms shared by domestic Japanese and international students to facilitate intercultural exchanges. Furthermore, students are required to take major courses taught in English that provide an immersion program situation. However, the impact of this unique environment on students' language development remains unexplored.

Recent studies on the relationship between language learning and the learning context have shown that pre-post test designs are insufficient in explaining what is enhancing or hindering the learning, thus microgenetic (Kinginger, 2008) and microanalytic (Wilkinson, 2002) approaches are necessary to understand the details of the learners' engagement with the learning context. Drawing on this previous research, this study aims to explore the effects of the HILLE on overall English language proficiency, and the effects of the interactions, especially in the dormitories, may have on it.

The Study

A one-year longitudinal case study was conducted with four Japanese students studying at a HILLE in a Japanese university. Approximately 30 hours of conversation recordings in the dormitories, interviews, journals, and language proficiency test scores were collected and analyzed to track language development within the HILLE. Video recordings were done for 30 minutes, twice a month with international students of the participants' choice. The videos were then transcribed and analyzed using conversation analysis. The TOEFL results showed, on average, a large gain between April 2010 and January 2011. This could be a basis to claim HILLE as an

effective language-learning environment. However, the individual participant's scores were diverse, especially for two participants, Ami and Tomoko, were contrastive. While Ami had a sharp gain of 100 points, Tomoko hardly changed in her total score and her listening scores decreased. What lead to the difference between these two students? Data from the interviews and journal entries showed little difference in the students' motivation, study hours, contact hours with international students, and confidence in communication. However, when analyzing their video recordings using conversation analysis (Sacks et al., 1974), differences started to emerge.

Different Orientations to the Context

From the analysis, Ami was found showing orientation to sequences, such as Extract 1, as language-teaching language-learning opportunities. Ami would initiate repairs (line 545), orient to IRF sequences (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) (line 546-548), and repeat the trouble source word in a sentence (line 546). These language-learning sequences that diverge from the main conversation topic were distinct features of Ami, and she mentions in her interview that this repetition is a conscious act. Ami was constantly self-monitoring her word usage and was trying to learn from the conversations. Ami in her journal entries, interviews, and video recording shared her experience of learning about different cultures. However, compared to the language learning aspect, it seems to be less significant.

544 Ami: Yeah (.) very che:ap(1.0)a::nd (.) da mmh:::
545→ °how to say°nigiyaka >°mm°<=
546→ Hang: =AH:: LIVELY (.) lively
547→ Ami: YEAH lively↑
548→ Hang: mmh:
549→ Ami: yeah it's very lively
550 Hang: ah:::

Extract 1: Ami Hang July

In contrast, although in a similar word search sequence (Extract 2), Tomoko covered up her embarrassment or incompetence (Wilkinson, 2007) with the quick repetition, laughter, and overlapping utterance with Pham (line 111-112, 114), rather than using it as a learning opportunity. During interviews, Tomoko discussed that she had learned most about other cultures from conversations with international students, and that the

members in the dormitory "became like a family" at the end of the year. Although she reflected on her fluency and language ability during the first two months, for the rest of the year, journal entries shifted more towards the content of the conversation and her enjoyment of it.

108	Tomoko:	an ai ha:ve (2.2) AH:ah ((clap)) (1.0)
109		the intransi(.)i'o:f (.)eei pee(.)°yuu°?=
110→	Pham:	=$ohohoho an introduction [of eei pee yoo:(.)right?$
111→	Tomoko:	[>$introduction↓(.) sorry
112		introduction$<
113→	Pham:	.hhh [$oh ai see$
114→	Tomoko:	[>$ya: introduction of$< (.) DAT was (.) prii:
115		(.) good

Extract 2: Tomoko Pham May

Discussion

Applying Batstone's (2002) framework of "communicative context" and "learning context" to the data, it seems that Ami was utilizing the HILLE as a language-learning context while Tomoko was placing more prominence on the communicative context of the HILLE. As suggested at the conference, there is a need to analyze the international partners' utterances in more detail and other developmental factors of the participants. However, from the current study, it could be said that HILLE has the potential and opportunity to foster learners' language abilities, but learners need to orient to the environment as a language-learning environment, and need to consciously utilize it to improve their own language ability.

Notes

This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 23720303.

References

Rob Batstone. 2002. Contexts of engagement: a discourse perspective on 'intake' and 'pushed output'. In *System* vol 30, pp1-14.

Celeste Kinginger. 2008. Language Learning in Study Abroad: Case Studies of Americans in France. In *The Modern Language Journal* vol 92, pp1-124.

Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff, & Gail Jefferson. 1974. A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation. In *Language* vol 50, pp696-735.

John Sinclair & Malcolm Coulthard. 1975. *Towards an Analysis of Discourse*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.

Ray Wilkinson. 2007. Managing linguistic incompetence as a delicate issue in aphasic

talk-in-interaction: On the use of laughter in prolonged repair sequences. In *Journal of Pragmatics* vol 39, pp542-569.

Sharon Wilkinson. 2002. The Omnipresent Classroom during Summer Study Abroad: American Students in Conversation with Their French Hosts. In *The Modern Language Journal* vol 86, pp157-173.

54 Advancing L2 listening pedagogy: Process-based Listening Instruction

Joseph Siegel
J. F. Oberlin University, Tokyo
siegel@obirin.ac.jp

Introduction

Listening has begun to get much needed attention from second language (L2) teachers and researchers, and for good reason. It is the language skill used most often by both first language (L1) and L2 users. However, methods for teaching L2 listening have included mere exposure to the L2 and a focus on comprehension questions. These methods do little to provide holistic, scaffolded listening practice that can help novice L2 listeners make noticeable progress in the L2 listening competency. Therefore, this paper, part of the Language Learning and Teaching SIG Track, introduces Process-based Listening Instruction (PBLI) as a possible advancement on previous L2 listening pedagogy.

Key components of PBLI

The following elements have been identified in the literature as crucial for competent listeners (see Lynch & Mendelsohn, 2002; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). However, they are often neglected in more traditional listening pedagogy. PBLI recognizes each of these elements and makes a systematic attempt to address each component during a listening lesson:

- Top-down processing: Mental activities that access the knowledge and experience that a listener brings to the listening event, such as background knowledge, schema, and life experience.
- Bottom-up processing: Mental activities that derive information from actual acoustic input, including phoneme recognition, parsing, and syntactic knowledge.
- Metacognitive strategies: Those strategies that manage the listening event, such as preparing for, monitoring, and evaluating, as well as orchestrating cognitive strategies.
- Cognitive strategies: Mental strategies that are used to engage directly with the input, including comparing predictions with input and focusing on key words.
- Socioaffective strategies: Strategies that acknowledge the interactive and social role of listening, such as cooperating with partners, giving feedback to speakers, and asking for clarification.

Though important, these components have yet to be organized into a pedagogic sequence that teachers can use.

PBLI in practice

PBLI is a methodological perspective on listening that combines the five elements into a single classroom sequence in which the teacher introduces and demonstrates each element and then facilitates student practice. Teachers also promote the transfer of each element to other listening texts. Teachers using PBLI give explicit, scaffolded attention to each key component of listening using one text at first and show students how these elements can be applied to other listening situations.

What follows is the current recommended PBLI sequence (which may be adjusted as more research is done):

1. Teacher selects PBLI teaching points: The teacher listens to a text and identifies processes and strategies that they used to understand the text. Teachers should aim to find teaching points that correspond to the five key components of listening.

2. Activate students' top-down processing and metacognitive listening strategies: This can be done with pre-listening questions, by building up expectations, and/or referencing background knowledge.

3. Focus on cognitive strategies: The teacher models their own listening processes to students in a "think aloud" explanatory activity (Goh, 2008). The text is then replayed so students can apply their teacher's listening model to the text.

4. Highlight bottom-up processing: Complete activities such as line-by-line dictation or connected speech activities using the text as source material.

5. Use socioaffective strategies: Provide plenty of chances for learners to check with partners and/or ask for clarification or repetition.

6. Extend the listening experience to other texts and genres: Using additional texts, encourage listeners to transfer what they've learned from the original source text to other listening events.

Discussion

A qualitative study using questionnaires and interviews was conducted with 120 Japanese university students taking an intermediate level English course to determine their views on PBLI in general, its effectiveness, and how PBLI compares to other approaches to L2 listening. Questionnaire data showed that a majority (97) of students found PBLI useful. Moreover, 115 students reported that the teacher modeling of listening processes helped them to listen better. They also believe PBLI will aid them in future listening encounters, specifically in English content courses, in conversations, and when travelling.

The interviews (n=38) shed more light on student perceptions of PBLI compared to their previous L2 listening classroom experiences. Regarding approaches that focus solely on multiple choice comprehension questions, one student stated: "In high school, we listened and solved the problem. It was not useful [because in] conversation, there are no options." Another student reported that having explicit instruction in *how to* listen was new for him: "[Our teacher] told us how to listen…and the point of listening…[but our previous teachers] just tell us 'listen' and that's all. Not more than that." A general conclusion drawn from the interview data is that university students desire explicit listening instruction and advice from their language teachers.

During the Question and Answer session following this presentation, two noteworthy points were raised. First, uncertainty remains as to who might provide a better listening model: a teacher who shares a common L1 with the learners or a native L2 user. While many L2 learners have the goal of listening like a native user, studies comparing the approaches to listening instruction used by L1-speaking and native user teachers could help explore this issue. A second issue discussed was how to evaluate the extent to which learners can apply the five components mentioned above to novel listening encounters. Most listening tests rely on product-based displays of competence that often involve a combination of skills. Therefore, perhaps more interactive or reflective means of listening assessment should be considered.

While the PBLI sequence may be an improvement on previous L2 listening pedagogies, further investigation and more widespread use in classrooms are needed.

Note

This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 24720280.

References

Christine Goh. 2008. Metacognitive instruction for second language listening development: Theory, practice and research implications. In *RELC* vol 39 2 2008, pp188-213.

Tony Lynch & David Mendelsohn. 2002. Listening. In N. Schmitt (ed.), *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*, Arnold: London, UK, pp193-210.

J. Michael O'Malley & Anna Uhl Chamot. 1990. *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.

55 Facilitation Effects of Text Repetition on EFL Reading Comprehension Depend on the Hierarchical Structure of the Text

Shuichi Takaki
Graduate School, University of Tsukuba
Japan Society for the Promotion of Science
s1130037@gmail.com

Introduction

Text repetition is one of the major forms of instruction used in L2 reading classrooms, and many studies have found that it facilitates reading comprehension (Mills, Simon, & tenBroek, 1998; Raney, 2003). There are various explanations for how text repetition affects reading comprehension. Whereas there are many studies supporting the facilitation effects of repetition, a few studies have not fully supported the effectiveness of text repetition on reading comprehension. For example, Callender and McDaniel (2009) found that repetition of text had little influence on reading comprehension. The effects of repetition were found only when the text macrostructure was taken into account. However, the study showed the possibility that the repetition effect depends on text macrostructures, and repetition effects differ according to the importance of the information in a text. That is, the more important text information is, the more comprehension of it is facilitated at a second reading. Therefore, the present study examines the repetition effects on L2 reading comprehension in terms of hierarchical text structure based on information importance. It may be predicted that text repetition facilitates understanding of relatively important information (e.g., main ideas) more than trivial information (e.g., details).

An experimental study was conducted. A total of 29 Japanese EFL university students (i.e., they had studied English for at least six years).They had diverse majors (e.g., humanities, education, engineering). An expository text composed of 393 words was used in this study. In order to define the hierarchical structures of the texts (see Figure 1) the text was divided into idea units (IU) following Ikeno (1996). Forty nine Japanese EFL university students including the participants of this study made importance ratings for each IU (5-point Likert scales). A cluster analysis with mean importance ratings as variables was conducted and four clusters were found (Taniguchi, 1999). The summary writing task was attached with the text. The summary writing task reflects the readers' mental

representation. Based on a pilot study, the length (250 words) and time allotment (10 minutes) were determined. In order to eliminate the effects of L2 writing skills on summary writing, participants were instructed to make summaries in their L1 (i.e., Japanese). The experiment was conducted by participant. The expository text was shown on a PC screen sentence by sentence. Participants read the text at their own pace before they worked on the summary writing task. They reread the text and worked on the summary writing tasks again in the same way as the first time. After reading the text and writing the summary twice, they made importance ratings for each IU.

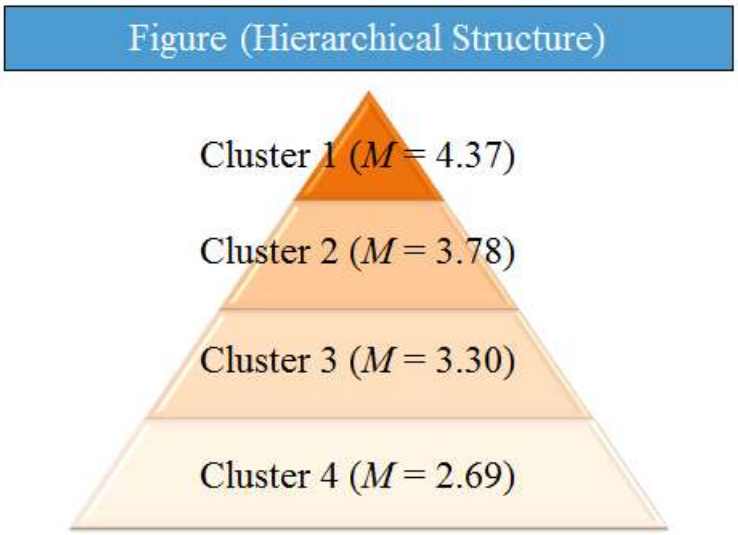


Figure 1: Clusters identified in expository text

As for the scoring of the summary, two independent raters judged whether each IU of text was included in their summaries. The rating criterion was whether two-thirds of the information of each IU were produced. The agreement rates in inter-rater reliability were 85.19%. The average production rates of IU as a whole text and those in each cluster were calculated. The data of four students were excluded from the analysis because they could not accomplish any of the tasks accurately or completely. In order to examine whether repetition effects depend on the hierarchical structure of a text, multiple analysis of variances (MANOVA) was conducted, whose dependent variables were the mean production rates in each of the four clusters, with the number of reading time (once or twice) as an independent variable. The significant level was set at $\alpha = 0.05$.

As a result of the MANOVA, the effect of the number of reading times on summary production rates was found to be significant, following Wilks Lambda, F (4, 21) = 6.01, p = 0.002, multivariate η^2 = 0.53. Following the

post hoc test, the effect of the number of reading times on Cluster 1, Cluster 2, and Cluster 3 was found to be significant ($p = 0.020$ at Cluster 1, $p = 0.034$ at Cluster 2, $p = 013$ at Cluster 3). The mean production rates in Clusters 1, 2, and 3 increased significantly from the first reading time to the second reading time. The results of statistical analysis showed that repetition effects were found in Cluster 1, Cluster 2, and Cluster 3. In qualitative analysis, these effects of repetition on L2 comprehension were examined in detail.

Three types of data were chosen in terms of the difference in total production rates between the number of reading times (i.e., the first and second reading times): participants benefited by repetition, participants not benefited by repetition, and participants inhibited by repetition. Change ratios of the production rates of each cluster from the first to the second reading were calculated. As for the four participants benefited by repetition, production rates of all clusters increased at the second reading. Increased ratios were noted for Cluster 1 and Cluster 2, which is consistent with the results of statistical analysis. Concerning five participants not benefited by repetition, the production rates of Cluster 1 and Cluster 4 increased at the second reading, which was inconsistent with the results of statistical analysis. However, the change ratios were almost the same among Cluster 2, Cluster 3 and Cluster 4. Moreover, the change ratio of Cluster 1 was larger than that of other Clusters. In addition, there were two participants inhibited by repetition. The production rates of Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 increased at the second reading, whereas those of Cluster 3 and Cluster 4 decreased at the second reading, though the change ratios were not large. However, text repetition increased the production rates of Cluster 1 and Cluster 2, taking into consideration that the total production rates decreased at the second reading.

Two following interpretations of the results can be made. First, even L2 readers are sensitive to the importance of information in a text. That is, readers attempt to comprehend and memorize the important parts of a text more than the others. According to Millis et al. (1998), text repetition frees up the cognitive resources of readers at the second reading. Text repetition allows readers to use those resources to deepen the understanding of important information in a text. Second, another explanation of the results is based on the context-dependent model (Raney, 2003). The repetition effects depend on the extent of elaborateness of the mental representations constructed at the first reading. Readers constructed more elaborate mental

representations of important parts of the text at the first reading, and thus those parts benefited by text repetition at the second reading.

References

Aimee A Callender & Mark A McDaniel. 2009. The limited benefits of rereading educational texts. In *Contemporary Educational Psychology* 34, 2009, pp30-41.

Osamu Ikeno. 1996. The effects of text-structure-guiding questions on comprehension of texts with varying linguistic difficulties. In *JACET Bulletin* 27, 1996, pp51-68.

Keith K Mills, Seymore Simon & Nicolaas S tenBroek. 1998. Resource allocation during the rereading of scientific texts. In *Memory & Cognition* 26, 1998, pp232-246.

Gary E Raney. 2003. A context-dependent representation model for explaining text repetition effects. In *Psychonomic Bulletin and Review* 10, 2003, pp15-28.

56 Lecturer Interviews on Content Teaching in Tertiary English-Medium Degree Programmes

Dietmar Tatzl
FH Joanneum University of Applied Sciences, Graz, Austria
dietmar.tatzl@fh-joanneum.at

Introduction

English-Medium Instruction (EMI) enables tertiary institutions to offer degree programmes that facilitate internationalisation, attract regular students from around the globe and increase the employment prospects for graduates. The FH JOANNEUM University of Applied Sciences, Graz, Austria also runs masters' courses fully taught in English. Most lecturers of such programmes, however, are non-native speakers of English and therefore use a foreign language for teaching.

Participants and interview questions

This contribution presents the results of small-scale qualitative research in the form of lecturer interviews carried out between May and June 2011 at the author's institution (Tatzl, 2011). The author attempted to probe into perceptions of content teaching through the medium of English as a foreign language. For this purpose, a group of eight (n=8) lecturers affiliated with business and engineering degree programmes were interviewed by means of a semi-structured questionnaire. The group included seven German native speakers from Austria and one Slovenian native speaker. Six of the participants were male, two were female, and all of them had two to five years of English-medium teaching experience. The lecturers fell into the following age groups: one was between 24 and 30 years old, six were between 31 and 50 years old and one was between 51 and 64 years old.

The interviews were based on these pre-formulated questions:

1. What do you think are the impacts of English-medium instruction on students' language skills?
2. What do you think are the impacts of English-medium instruction on students' content knowledge?
3. What are the impacts of English-medium instruction on your teaching methods?

4. What would you say are the most pressing issues in your course(s)?
5. Which changes are you going to make to your course(s) next semester?
6. Have you participated in any of the English language courses offered to lecturers teaching in English-medium programmes by the university?
7. Which support measures would facilitate teaching in English for you?
8. What are your goals for the future?

(Tatzl, 2011: 255)

Results

A qualitative analysis of content teachers' transcribed answers resulted in clustered themes of their perceptions. The complete data set generated from all eight questions and lecturers formed the basis of these clusters. The main themes that emerged in the context of the first question were *linguistic progress*, *increased practice* and *vocabulary building* but also the impression that EMI showed *limited effects* on students' language skills. Concerning the second question about effects on content knowledge, the data revealed the theme of *access to broader knowledge* on the positive side, whereas scepticism became evident through statements referring to *no impact*, *comprehension gaps*, *reduced attractiveness of lectures*, *difficulties with exams* and *decrease in content*.

Regarding teaching methods in the third question, most responses fell into the category of *no direct impact*. However, there were many different single statements that attested to more possibilities for materials selection, more need for explanations, more practice, more repetition, translations of terms, discussions as comprehension checks, more breaks, more careful preparation, more written materials, new methods, native-speaker models and grading of content only. Furthermore, two comments identified a *slower pace of delivery* in English-medium lectures.

Data related to the fourth question on pressing issues in respondents' courses can be grouped into *grading and examinations*, *workload*, *time*, *language for mathematics* and *use of mother tongue*. There were also comments such as *limited possibilities of expression* and *students' inhibition about speaking in English*.

With respect to the fifth question, changes to courses are headed by the categories *new content due to curriculum changes* and changes caused by the introduction of *new tools and methods*. The sixth question revealed that two out of eight lecturers had attended preparatory courses for teaching their subject through English, whereas six had not. Data for the seventh question, about desired support measures, unveiled that, in the main, existing support was sufficient. Nevertheless, there were also statements requesting easier *access to materials, translation and proofreading services* and *English language support for students*. Data connected with the eighth question on lecturers' goals for the future revolved around *professional development, course updates, adaptation of methods, preparation of new courses* and *content coordination with other lecturers*.

Discussion of results

Even though the data stem from a case study carried out at a single institution and thus lack generalisability, the lecturers' answers allowed for the identification of themes inherent in EMI that may prove relevant to similar educational settings. Despite lecturers' general approval of EMI, the linguistic gains for students remain controversial among this group of interviewees. A similar picture emerges with respect to content learning, but lecturers noted the access to broader knowledge as a benefit for students. The data revealed little explicit awareness of changed teaching methods but several implicit comments that did point to considerable alterations of methodology when teaching through English. Assessment was mentioned as an issue (cf. Evans & Morrison, 2011, p. 207). Lecturers' participation in English-language courses was low (cf. Björkman, 2010: 180), but interviewees showed basic satisfaction with existing support measures. More specific support, however, would be desirable. In principle, the data suggested there is a strong interest in professional development and course updates.

Conclusions

Tertiary English-medium instruction has considerable effects on teaching style, methodology and pace of delivery. Lecturers active in EMI may find it outside their responsibility to assess students' linguistic performance. In order to make EMI successful, a minimum network of voluntary support measures needs to be in place.

References

Beyza Björkman. 2010. *Spoken Lingua Franca English at a Swedish Technical University: an investigation of form and communicative effectiveness*. Published

doctoral thesis. Stockholm University: Stockholm, Sweden.

Stephen Evans & Bruce Morrison. 2011. Meeting the Challenges of English-Medium Higher Education: The first-year experience in Hong Kong. In *English for Specific Purposes*, 30(3), doi:10.1016/j.esp.2011.01.001, pp198–208.

Dietmar Tatzl. 2011. English-Medium Masters' Programmes at an Austrian University of Applied Sciences: attitudes, experiences and challenges. In *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(4), doi:10.1016/j.jeap.2011.08.003, pp252–270.

57 Anthropomorphism in the discourse of IT support forums and blogs

Klaus Thiele
Aston University
thielekp@aston.ac.uk

Introduction

The importance of this topic can be traced back empirically because IT (information technology)-related LSP (language for special purposes) has permeated public discourse (Wichter, 1991; Buch and Kämmerer, 2000).

IT LSP and online genres

IT LSP can be subdivided and hence defined by its genres. The main online genres are forum- and blog entries (Askehave, 2005; Herring, 2005; Kwasnik, 2005; Rowely-Jolivet, 2011). The actants in the online genres examined constitute experts- and non-experts of varying levels on a continuum. In other words, it is not known to what extent the actants are professionally involved with IT. Sometimes, somebody makes a comment and reveals about themselves that e.g. they have been working in IT for ten years. This act of self-disclosure is the only way of finding out who the people are who post online. The setting of the genre is online, written, and incurs inherent delays, which means that there is not always an immediate reaction to a post. The communicative purposes of these online genres include explaining and evaluating IT hard- and software (e.g. *I see no inherent superiority in either side*), reassuring oneself (about solutions, how often a problem occurs etc.).

Anthropomorphism

The notion of anthropomorphism can be defined as the product or process of projecting human qualities onto non-human entities, based on existing or perceived similarities (Glück, 2000). Previous research on anthropomorphism in an IT-related context includes Hänke (2005), Izwaini (2003), Busch (2000) and many more studies. The major functions of anthropomorphism include expressing new concepts (Zhu, 2003: 277) and construction of reality (Busch / Kämmerer, 2000).

Corpus Overview and Analysis

The table shows the data for the study, a corpus of English and German forum- and blog entries about Apple hard- and software. The tokens are

roughly equally distributed between both languages and form a total of just under one million tokens.

Language	**Tokens**
German	485,687
English	479,738
Total	**965,425**

Table 1: Tokens in corpus

The analysis combined the use of word- and keyword lists, concordances and a detailed analysis of selected examples. The concordances were selected based on the most frequent words that could be related to anthropomorphism, e.g. *behaviour*. This procedure was chosen to limit the number of examples to analyse in this small study and in order to deal with instances of anthropomorphism that have the strongest empirical backing because they are based on the most frequent items in the corpus.

Preliminary Results

The overarching trend in both German and English data was THE COMPUTER IS A HUMAN BEING, which is expressed in terms of *odd/inconsistent behaviour* or by saying that *das iBook G3 macht eine gute Figur* (the *iBook G3 is in good shape*), or *sleek, sexy computer hardware*. So computers were presented as autonomous intentional agents and the aspect of looks and beauty was applied to computers in order to evaluate them positively. No examples were found referring to beauty in a negative way e.g. in terms of 'ugly' computers. Such negative evaluations were only made about behaviour, not about looks, which is because the computer's 'behaviour' (hard- and software issues), and not the looks, cause the problems.

Besides criticising or evaluating, other functions of anthropomorphisms are simplifying and concretising complex technical concepts, which often co-occurs with filling lexical gaps. This can be realised by omitting technical details, such as in *you can also have a non-working baseband and still have an iPhone-- although it will behave more like an iPod Touch*. Similarity is expressed in terms of *behaviour* and the technical details are implied instead of making them explicit, namely that the phone-specific features of a non-working iPhone would be absent, which is why the iPod Touch is mentioned. The same function is realised by this example*: the Baseband is one of those things Mrs. Bootloader checks on when she's waking up the*

iPhone. Again technical details are skilfully omitted by a person who has contributed to a blog that specialises on hacking iPhones and other Apple devices. It appears that the blogger has technical knowledge and deliberately uses anthropomorphic metaphors and hence simplifies the complex background on how the different parts of an iPhone interoperate which makes it understandable for laypeople.

This study has revealed the most frequent functions of anthropomorphic metaphors that were used in German and English forum- and blog posts. The functions and types of anthropomorphism (simplification of technical concepts etc.) were consistent across languages and genres. More detailed, contrastive corpus-based research about anthropomorphic and other types of metaphors in specialised IT discourse is required because of the omnipresence of IT.

References

Inger Askehave & Anne Ellerup Nielsen. 2005. Digital genres: a challenge to traditional genre theory. In *Information Technology & People* 18 2005, pp120-141.

Albert Busch & Kai Kämmerer. 2000. Die tropische Konstruktion von Wirklichkeit. Metaphern und Metonymien als gemeinsprachliches Veranschaulichungsgerüst in Printmedien. In Albert Busch & Sigurd Wichter (eds) *Computerdiskurs und Wortschatz: Corpusanalysen und Auswahlbibliographie*. Peter Lang: Frankfurt am Main, pp125-204.

Helmut Glück. 2000. Anthropomorphismus. In *Metzler Lexikon Sprache*, Metzler / Directmedia: Berlin, p693.

Sven Hänke. 2005. Anthropomorphisierende Metaphern in der Computerterminologie - Eine korpusbasierte Untersuchung. In Norbert Fries & Svetlana Kiyko (eds) *Linguistik im Schloss*. Linguistischer Workshop Wartin. Czernowitz: Bukrek.

Susan C Herring, Lois Ann Scheidt, Eliah Wright & Sabrina Bonus. 2005. Weblogs as a bridging genre. In *Information Technology & People* 2005 18, pp142-171.

Sattar Izwaini. 2003. A corpus-based study of metaphor in information technology. In *Corpus Linguistics* 2003, pp1-8.

Barbara H Kwasnik & Kevin Crowston. 2005. Introduction to the special issue: Genres of digital documents. In *Information Technology & People* 2005 18, pp76-88.

Elizabeth Rowley-Jolivet & Sandra Campagna. 2011. From print to web 2.0: The changing face of discourse for special purposes. In *LSP Journal-Language for special purposes, professional communication, knowledge management and cognition* 2011 2, pp44-51.

Xiaoan Zhu. 2003. Die kognitive Funktion der Metapher in der deutschen Fachsprache. In Jianhua Zhu & Thomas Zimmer (eds), *Fachsprachenlinguistik, Fachsprachendidaktik und interkulturelle Kommunikation: Wirtschaft - Technik - Medien*. Peter Lang: Frankfurt am Main, pp273-284.

58 Intermediate Listeners' Needs for Listening Comprehension in the English as a Foreign Language Context

Marisa Ueda
Ritsumeikan University, Japan
marisa@ec.ritsumei.ac.jp

Introduction

Study's Background

In the past, most listening strategy studies focused on more skilled and less skilled listeners.

However, English listening skills of 68.1% of Japanese learners remain at an intermediate level, 166–330 on the listening portion of TOEIC®, according to its 2011 official report. Moreover, about 90% of my students are intermediate listeners (ILs) every year. Therefore, this study focuses on ILs.

Definitions

Listening: the understanding of spoken English in a non-collaborative situation; the listener's role is to only interpret a speaker's utterance.

Dictation: the act of speaking aloud words and phrases in a sentence and not reading aloud from a text. Listeners cannot use their knowledge of grammar or background context, but can only use acoustic information to interpret the spoken words and phrases.

Listening strategy/strategies: a listener's conscious intention to manage incoming oral speech, particularly when the listener knows that s/he must compensate for the incomplete input or partial understanding (Rost, 2002, p. 236).

Intermediate listeners: those whose TOEIC® listening scores range between 166 and 330. Maximum attainable score on the listening portion of TOEIC® is 445.

'Bottom–up' processing (BUP): an action or procedure that begins by gathering small items and combining them to form holistic ideas, i.e. from individual parts to the whole (Lynch and Mendelsohn, 2002).

'Top–down' processing (TDP): an action or procedure that begins with broad, global notions and moves towards information units decreasing in size, i.e. from the whole to constituent parts (Lynch and Mendelsohn, 2002).

Two Theories

Schneider and Shiffrin (1977) propose that two cognitive processing types exist in learning—controlled and automatic human information. Controlled processing involves a sequence of cognitive activities under active control, to which the subject must pay conscious attention. Automatic processing (AP) involves sequences of cognitive activities that occur automatically without the necessity for active control and usually without conscious attention.

In language learning, dictation is a controlled process (BUP) because it involves decoding of phonemes. The identification of individual words is considered to be either AP or TDP in listening strategies.

Anderson (1995, p.379) proposed a cognitive framework of language comprehension: perception, parsing and utilisation. In listening, perception is the encoding of acoustic input. In parsing, words are transformed into a mental representation of the combined meaning of the words. In utilisation, a listener may draw upon different types of inferences to complete the interpretation. When perception takes more time, comprehension suffers.

Study's Purpose

Raising the level of English listening comprehension for Japanese learners by examining the effect of two teaching methods on ILs.

Experiment Hypothesis

Dictation training would be more effective for ILs.

Method

Participants

First-year students of the Faculty of Economics at a private university in Japan.

Procedure

Using the first lesson of the listening part of TOEIC® in Week 1, 65 ILs were selected and divided into three groups: 10 in control group (CG), 31 in dictation training group (DTG) and 24 in listening strategies training group (LSTG). From Week 2, both DTG and LSTG received 30 min of

training[9] as part of a 90 min regular class, once a week for 13 weeks until Week 14. The instructions were given in Japanese.

DTG were informed about what they would learn on that day. Then, they were asked to dictate the missing words by listening only once to a CD supplementing a textbook. Next, the answers were given and they listened to the CD while looking at the answers to combine written words/phrases with acoustic information. Finally, they listened to the CD again without looking at the answers to comprehend the words/phrases purely with the acoustic information.

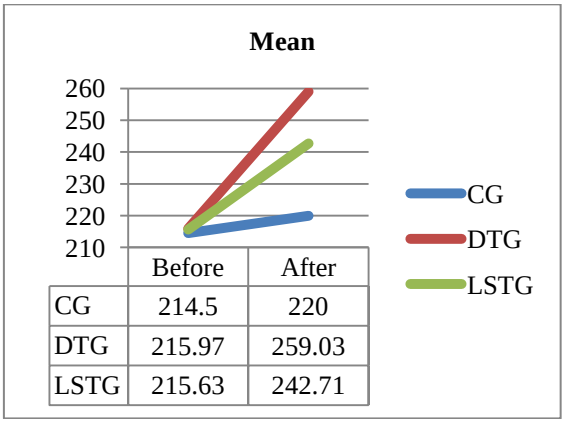
LSTG were first instructed about the listening strategies for that day. Second, they undertook some listening tasks that involved the strategies. Third, the answers and feedback were provided.

In Week 15, all attempted the listening part of TOEIC®. The scores of Weeks 1 and 15 were compared.

Materials

For DTG, materials were designed based on a textbook with a CD (Rost and Stratton, 2001) with various patterns of reductions and contractions. For LSTG, the materials were designed by the author of this article with various types of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. (e.g. content/function words, working memory, note taking strategy, inference, discourse markers, background knowledge, scanning, skimming, monitoring comprehension).

Results



	Before	After
CG	214.5	220
DTG	215.97	259.03
LSTG	215.63	242.71

Figure 1: Scores BEFORE and AFTER the Experiment

[9] Because a syllabus and a textbook are strictly and inflexibly assigned, 30 min was the maximum time given for the experiment.

ANOVA

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	7146.93	2	3573.46	2.45	0.0945*
Error[S(A)]	90377.92	62	1457.71		
B	16451.36	1	16451.36	35.87	0.0000***
AB	6130.04	2	3065.02	6.50	0.0027**
Error[BS(A)]	29251.10	62	471.79		

* p < .10, , ** p < .005, *** p < .001

Table 1: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

pair	r	nominal level	t	p	sig.
2-1	3	0.0166667	3.455	0.0007528	s.
2-3	2	0.0333333	1.933	0.0555212	n.s.
3-1	2	0.0333333	1.942	0.0543529	n.s.

MSe = 964.750152, df = 124, significance level = 0.05000

Table 2: Means on Factor A (Ryan's Method)

Discussion

The result agree with the two above-mentioned theories: information processing and language learning process involve gradual steps and levels. Therefore, it seems logical that DTG performed better in post-test. The results indicate that ILs have not yet reached a stage that focuses on a TDP, such as listening strategies training; i.e. listeners are willing to suspend their comprehension of the utterance until they have the whole of it.

Conclusion and Suggestions

DT is more effective for ILs than LSTG (with the training given once a week for 30 min in the participants' first language).

Suggestions: More participants, especially in CG, and comparisons with other training methods that combine dictation training and listening strategies training is recommended.

References

Anderson, J. 1995. *Cognitive psychology and its implications*, 4th Edition. Freeman: New York.

Lynch, T. & Mendelsohn, D. 2002. Listening. In N.Schmitt (Ed.), *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*, pp193-210. London: Arnold.

Rost, M. 2002. *Teaching and researching listening*. Harlow: Longman.

Rost, M. & Stratton, R. 2001. *Kanzen koryaku Listening 25 no Tessoku (Listening in the real world)*. Tokyo: Longman.

Schneider, W. & Shiffrin, R. 1977. Controlled and automatic information processing:

I. Detection, search and identification. In *Psychological Review*, 84, pp1-55.

TOEIC テスト. 2011. *Data and Analysis 2011*. Retrieved on 26 November 2012 from http://www.toeic.or.jp/toeic/pdf/data/DAA2011.pdf

59 Learner codeswitching: Can it be used as a tool for L2 fluency development?

Maria Vrikki
University of Oxford
maria.vrikki@education.ox.ac.uk

Background Information

The paper presents a quasi-experimental study that aimed to investigate whether learner codeswitching can be used as a tool for L2 oral fluency development.

Past research on learner codeswitching has proposed that the L1 is an important cognitive tool that allows for higher mental activities to take place (e.g. planning, organising and monitoring) when learners engage in task completion (e.g. Antón & DiCamilla, 1999). The reason behind its facilitative role is the fact that the L1 allows for *metalanguage* to occur, which is the off-the-record language that learners use among themselves in order to reach a common understanding about how they are going to complete the task.

However, I attempt to build on this conclusion by proposing a way of taking advantage of this unique contribution of the L1 in favour of L2 development. In particular, I examine the *recycling* process of metalanguage from the L1 to the L2 through a *task repetition plus feedback* package (TR+), which involves providing feedback before repeating a task.

As past research has suggested that same-task repetition enhances fluency (e.g. Bygate 2001), my hypothesis predicted that allowing L1 use would eventually develop L2 fluency. More specifically, I hypothesised that allowing L1 use would enhance learners' *willingness to communicate* (WTC), which accounts for the probability of them to speak when free to do so (MacIntyre *et al.*, 1998). In addition, greater amounts of metalanguage would occur, which would then be recycled into the L2 through relevant feedback. With increased WTC and L2 metalanguage, extensive L2 practice would take place. According to Anderson's *Adaptive Control of Thought Model* (1983), extensive practice would enable proceduralisation processes, which are necessary for fluency development. The following figure presents this hypothesis graphically.

Two research questions were formulated:

1. Do the conditions have any effects on WTC?
2. Do the conditions have any effects on fluency, without any detrimental effects on accuracy?

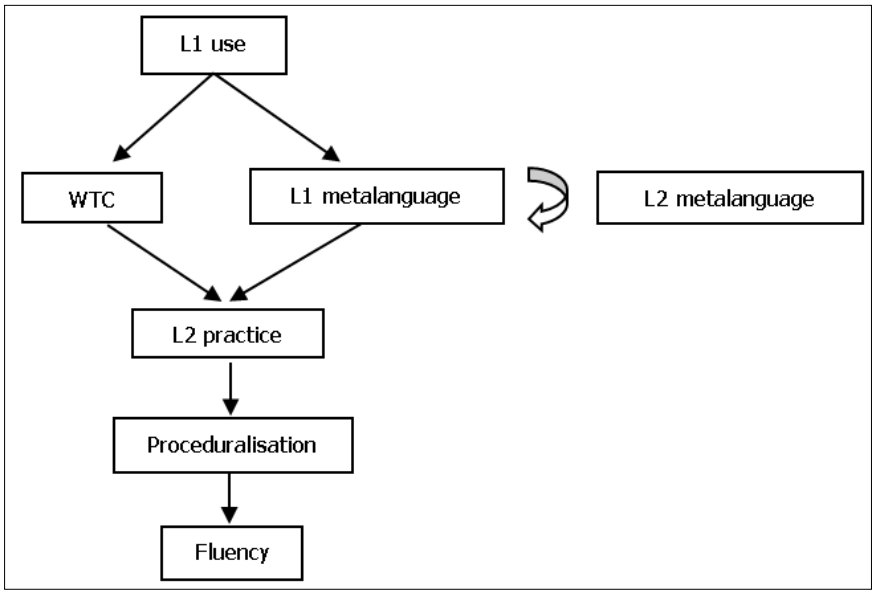


Figure 1: Graphic representation of hypothesis

The study

Sample

The target population was 6th grade primary school students (11 to 12-year-olds) in urban Cyprus. A total of 75 students, who came from three different schools, were recruited through the *non-probability convenience sampling procedure*. These students spoke Greek as their L1 and received 40-minute English lessons at school twice a week.

Intervention

An eight-week intervention was conducted during the EFL lessons of the participating classes. While the lessons were carried out as normal, during the last ten minutes of each lesson, the participants completed a task (one per week) as part of the intervention. The three groups completed the same tasks, but they differed in terms of the conditions under which they completed them. Each school represented a different condition:

- The *Codeswitching (CS) group*, who tested the hypothesis, was allowed to use their L1 when necessary during task completion on the first session of the week. On the second session of each week, they received a handout with L1 metalanguage they used translated into the L2 and then they repeated the task.

- The *English-only (EO) group* completed the tasks under L2-only conditions. On the second session of each week, they received a handout with the correct versions of erroneous utterances they had produced and then they repeated the task.
- Finally, the *Comparison (COM) group* completed the tasks once a week with no language instructions.

Oral production tests were used as pre-, post- and delayed post-tests (2 weeks later) in order to measure the effects of the intervention.

Results

Research Question 1

In order to investigate the effects of the intervention on WTC, the oral production tests were analysed quantitatively in terms of *speaking time* and *L2 syllables*.

With the results of the L2 syllables variable only contributing to this investigation, it was found that the CS group produced significantly more L2 syllables after the intervention than both the other groups.
In response to RQ1 therefore, it was argued that task repetition with CS *plus* leads to increased WTC.

Research Question 2

For RQ2, the oral production tests were analysed in terms of *fluency* (speech rate, mean length of runs, pause rate, repetitions, reformulations, incomplete words), *content* (verb ratio, L1 syllables, idea units) and *accuracy* (percentage of error-free clauses, percentage of correct verb use).

Three results can be reported based on these variables:

1. The mean length of runs variable showed that the experimental groups did significantly better than the comparison group after the intervention.
2. The CS group did not end up using significantly more L1 syllables than the other two groups, suggesting that the incorporation of the L1 does not necessarily lead to excessive L1 use.
3. The experimental groups had significantly higher accuracy rates than the comparison group after the intervention.

Based on these findings, it was concluded that TR+ leads to more fluency (based on MLR only), without undermining accuracy. No conclusions could be drawn after comparing the two types of the TR+ package.

Conclusions

Although the full circle of the hypothesis could not be confirmed, the above findings suggest that TR+ is a promising package with positive effects on oral production.

It is believed that longer interventions of the same kind with larger samples will give more time for learners to go through all the processes predicted by the hypothesis and eventually develop fluency.

References

John R Anderson. 1983. *The Architecture of Cognition*. MA Harvard University Press: Cambridge.

Marta Antón & Frederick J DiCamilla. 1999. Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in L2 classroom. In *The Modern Language Journal* vol 83 (2), pp233-247.

Martin Bygate. 2001. Effects of task repetition on the structure and control of oral language. In M Bygate, P Skehan & M Swain (eds), *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing*. London: Longman, pp23-48.

Peter D MacIntyre, Richard Clément, Zoltán Dörnyei, & Kimberly A Noels. 1998. Conceptualising willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. In *Modern Language Journal* vol 82, pp545-562.

60 Chinese business students' participation in case-based small group discussions in British seminars

Liyuan Wang
Jiangxi University of Finance and Economics
Department of English and Languages, Coventry University
liyuanw@uni.coventry.ac.uk

Background

Chinese business education differs from Western business education in many respects, especially in approaches to Case Studies. In the West, Case Studies are taught by discussion-based methods (Jackson, 2004) to develop analytical and soft management skills. Case studies in China are used to illustrate business theories and, students are informed, western case method adopts a more practical approach mainly dealing with factual information. However although the western method may appear to be more concerned with professional practice, in fact the development of theoretical knowledge remains one of the main teaching objectives (Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Currie & Tempest, 2008).
What little there is in EAP literature seems to create the false impression that the case method was more problem-based than experienced, and that international students only needed to be prepared to cope with a very structured case teaching and learning environment.

According to Li and Nesi's (2004) experiment, the Chinese group discussed a non-academic question by contributing long turns and constantly initiating new subtopics; British students tend to contribute shorter turns, agreeing with each other until new subtopics are introduced. Both groups discussed in their mother languages. It remains unclear how Chinese students from China and students with a western style of educational background behave in small group discussions in seminars in the West.

The group of Chinese students I investigated studied on a two-site business degree programme. They studied in a Chinese institute for two years and in a British institute for one year, which leads to a Bachelor degree in International Business from the British institute. In Britain they learnt with non-Chinese students enrolled on a standard business programme.

Methods

I made a one-month visit in the Chinese institute, observed five business classes and five English classes, interviewed three business lecturers, three English lecturers and five students. In the British institute, I observed 40 hours of seminar discussions and recorded 10 pieces of small group discussions including seven mixed groups (discussing in English) and three homogeneous Chinese groups (discussing in Chinese). The recording was analysed by IRF framework. The Chinese participants in the recording were interviewed about their perception of what happened in the recording. I also did an investigation with six British business lecturers, six Chinese business lecturers from China and six Chinese students on the programme about their preferred group discussion methods. The participants ranked three excerpts from my transcripts of discussion recording according to how well they thought they facilitated the acquisition of content knowledge. All the data was processed via Nvivo 9.

Major findings

The study found the case-based small group discussion was a major teaching and learning technique in the British institute which offers six hours of lectures and six hours of seminar discussions. All the seminars and assignments were about case studies based on small group discussions. On the other hand there was no seminar in the Chinese institute. Business lecturers often stated factual information about companies and business activities to illustrate how theories were employed. English lecturers occasionally used small group discussions to practise students' debating skills.

I found from the discussion recording that the Chinese students showed disagreement by asking questions, for example, 'what is strategy?'. The question was raised when a British student had initiated an opinion about a management strategy for a case company. She ignored the Chinese student's question. However, the Chinese student said in the interview that she expected an argument.

In the interviews with the Chinese participants in the recording, they tend to use 观点 (opinion) to cover both contributions which are verifiable i.e. '事实' (facts) and contributions which are open to debate i.e. '观点' (opinions). Their problem with distinguishing 'fact' and 'opinion' is reflected in their group discussion and written assignments. In western countries 'fact' and 'opinion' are considered to be fundamental and worth educating. In business education, students are expected to explore and

identify factual information and opinions in order to develop 'managerial thinking' (Lundberg et al. 2001).

I identified three discussion styles from the recording data. The Chinese students often responded to preceding speakers by abruptly initiating a relevant but new subtopic. I call this method as a spiral style. They only showed agreement sparingly. The students said they wanted to demonstrate their autonomy and critical thinking. Non-Chinese students often built on each other's contribution and seemed to consider each other's contribution as cumulative; this discussion method is perceived by the Chinese students as impolite.

The Chinese students also tended to make long turns proposing new subtopics and arguments within one turn in order to present their individual opinions. They seemed to discuss for consensus; non-Chinese students prolonged the discussion process and aim for a divergent result.

The excerpts used in the investigation represent the three discussion styles: a) cumulative; b) spiral; and c) individual, without interaction. The British business lecturers ranked a) as the best; half Chinese lecturers ranked a) as the best and half chose b); five students chose b) as the best and one chose a).

Implications

The study suggests EAP preparation for both Chinese and non-Chinese students about group discussion skills and pragmatic competence.

References

Craig C Lundberg, Peter Rainsford, Jeff P Shay & Cheri A Young. 2001. Case writing reconsidered. In *Journal of Management Education* 25(4), pp450-463.

Graeme Currie & Sue Tempest. 2008. Moving towards reflexive use of teaching cases. In *The International Journal of Management Education* 7(1), pp41-50.

Hilary Nesi & Sheena Gardner. 2012. *Genres across the disciplines: Student writing in higher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jane Jackson. 2004. Case-based teaching in a bilingual context: perceptions of business faculty in Hong Kong. In *English for Specific Purposes* 23, pp213-232.

Meng Li & Hilary Nesi. 2004. Exchange patterns in small-group discussion: a comparative study of Chinese and English discourse in peer group, divergent discussion tasks. In *The East Asian Learner* 1(2), pp13-30.

61 Ol problem/s blong transcription: How can the 'flexibly bilingual' use of English and an English-lexified pidgin best be captured?

Fiona Willans
King's College London
fiona.willans@kcl.ac.uk

Introduction

"Transcribers bring their own language ideology to the task. In other words, all transcription is representation, and there is no natural or objective way in which talk can be written" (Roberts, 1997: 167). The question I address here is how my own ideological position is reflected in the way I transcribe English and Bislama, the English-based pidgin spoken in Vanuatu.

Ideologies

I am aware of three aspects of my own ideological position. Firstly, it irritates me to see different spellings of the same word within a newspaper article written in Bislama, thus perpetuating the belief that the language is unsystematic and 'can't be written'. Secondly, students are punished for speaking Bislama in school, which I find unacceptable (and illogical, as it is an official language). As a result of these two aspects, I want to represent Bislama as a systematic, rule-governed code in my transcription, on equal terms with English. However, the third element of my ideological position is that my analytic framework follows the move away from bounded 'languages' towards thinking in terms of linguistic 'features' or 'resources' (e.g. Blackledge & Creese, 2010). This encourages me to reject traditional linguistic boundaries, and aim to represent the fluidity of participants' language use. Blackledge and Creese achieve this by using a single font type to transcribe the "flexibly bilingual" use of resources, rather than using different types for different 'languages'.

However, this only addresses half of the problem when dealing with a pidgin and its lexifier. There are many lexical similarities between Bislama and English, often leaving it unclear which 'language' is being used, but each has been codified with a different orthography. Choosing which spelling to use thus fixes each element as belonging to one 'language' or the other. Moreover, applying consistent rules to determine when one

phrase is written as 'Bislama' and another is written as 'English' appears to resist the essence of "flexible bilingualism".

Options

The following are three representations of the phrase translated in Standard English as 'the government is reorganising the languages that we teach in schools':

1. gavman hem i rijoganaesem lanwisis blong yumi tijim long ol skuls.

2. government hem i reorganisem languages blong yumi teachem long ol schools.

3. gavman hem i reorganise/em lanwis/es blong yumi tijim long ol skul/s.

In traditional code-switching terms, the matrix language appears to be Bislama, as all grammatical items are features of this language. Ambiguity concerns only the five lexical items. I therefore begin with the principle that an item can be considered Bislama or English if it is listed in a dictionary of the respective language. The items 'gavman'/'government', 'lanwis'/'language', 'tij'/'teach', and 'skul'/'school' are listed for both languages, presenting two possible spellings for each. The fifth item 'reorganise' is not listed as a Bislama item, therefore suggesting it to be an 'English' verb.

At the morphological level, –Vm is the Standard Bislama transitive suffix, thus suggesting that a verb suffixed -Vm is Bislama. However, since the verb 'reorganise' does not have a Standard Bislama form, is the first case a Bislama verb deriving from English, or an English verb stem to which a Bislama suffix has been added? Meanwhile, the suffix –s is the Standard English plural suffix (plurals are marked in Standard Bislama with a pre-nominal morpheme 'ol'). Therefore, are the plural nouns English, or Bislama noun stems with English suffixes? This is particularly relevant for the final noun phrase which contains the plural marking associated with both 'languages'.

Phonology-driven rules need to be considered for the spelling of these suffixes. In (1), the suffix –em has been selected for 'rijoganaesem'(rather than –im or –um), due to the phoneme in the preceding syllable, since this

phoneme determines the vowel of a Bislama transitive suffix (cf. tijim); for the plural form of 'lanwis', however, should the suffix be represented as –is, following the same principle, as in (1), or as –es, as in (3), according to the English spelling rule, given that it is an element of English morphology?

Representations

In (1), every lexical item is represented as Bislama, with 'rijoganaesem' and the plural suffixes written according to orthographic principles of Standard Bislama. In (2), every lexical item is represented as English, with the Bislama transitive suffix added to two verbs that are, otherwise, written as English. In (3), all lexical items are represented as Bislama, if they are recognised lexicographically as Bislama, but the non-Bislama 'reorganise' remains English. Suffixes are written according to the orthographic rules of the 'language' to which they are considered to belong, and a boundary has been created between the stem and the suffix, where these are considered fusions from different 'languages'.

Ideologies again

The options represent different ideological standpoints: (1) suggests that Bislama has a flexible range of vocabulary (cf. the view that Bislama is a restricted language that can only be used in limited situations, and thus cannot be used in formal education). However, (1) also presents what might be considered an Anglicized version of Bislama, due to the plural suffixation and the incorporation of a non-Bislama item 'reorganise' (cf. a purist ideology). (2) presents what is often referred to as 'Broken English', since all vocabulary is recognisable as English, but the grammatical structure is not (despite the systematic nature of the Bislama grammatical structure). (3) avoids the labels of both Anglicised Bislama and Broken English, but artificially separates the two 'languages' in a way that does not capture the fluidity of the speech.

The example discussed here does not show the extent of the difference between the three representations. However, throughout long data transcripts, the different ideological positions become very apparent. I have chosen to follow the approach of (3) throughout, validating both 'languages' in their own right, but thereby falling short in the attempt to erase the boundaries between them.

References

Adrian Blackledge & Angela Creese. 2010. *Multilingualism: A critical perspective*.

Continuum: London, UK.

Celia Roberts. 1997. The politics of transcription. Transcribing talk: Issues of representation. In *TESOL Quarterly* vol 31 1, pp167-172.

62 'More pleasant on the ear': Language ideologies in choral singing in Trinidad

Guyanne Wilson
University of Muenster

Choral music literature generally asserts that '[w]hen singing all music (except folk music) we should strive for a standard pronunciation, free of any regional dialects,' (Kaplan, 1985: 57), but does not consider the complexities that arise when multiple standards co-exist. This paper discusses information garnered from questionnaires and interviews with choral conductors and singers in Trinidad. It reports their preferred accents for choral singing, along with their reasons for selecting them, and considers what these may reveal about language attitudes and ideologies in Trinidad.

In Trinidad, a former British colony, an English-lexicon creole, Trinidad English Creole (TEC), is spoken alongside an emerging variety of Standard English, Trinidad and Tobago Standard English (TTSE). Early research on language attitudes in Trinidad revealed overall negative attitudes towards TEC, and a quasi-diglossic situation where Standard English dominated more formal domains and TEC dominated more casual settings (Winford, 1976). Subsequent research (Mühleisen, 2001) showed amelioration in attitudes towards TEC, but noted that domain specialisation persisted. Youssef (2004) however demonstrates that domain specialisation does not entail exclusive use of either variety, but rather consists in a systematic mixing of the two varieties, resulting in 'a blended variety which captures the appropriate level for specific situations' (Youssef 2004: 44). Nevertheless, Standard English remains the language of power, despite TEC's identity and solidarity associations. Youssef (2004) further confirms that while Trinidadians claim TEC as their own, they distance themselves from Standard English, the linguistic 'property' of Great Britain.

In the questionnaires, conductors were asked to identify firstly the accent they used to model words for their singers, and secondly their preferred accent for choral singing. Table 1 below shows the conductors' responses to these questions.

The table shows that the conductors overwhelmingly report using British accents when modelling words for singers, and also require that singers use British accents when they sing. Only one conductor reported using a

Trinidadian accent when modelling words for his choir in non-folk song contexts, and none of them identified this as the preferred accent overall. Several conductors reported preferring singers to use a neutral, non-national accent, half of these limiting Trinidadian accents to folk songs. These preferences are also present in the conductors' interviews. On one hand, conductors claim that 'singing in English […requires] British […but] if you're singing calypso then you could use our way of speaking.' On the other hand, conductors believe that 'there seems to be an international standard now […] Everybody strives for that […] It's not so much where you come from or because it is British or because it is American but because it is easier on the ear and it makes more musical sense.'

	Standard British	**Standard American**	**Standard British with Trinidadian in folk songs only**	**Standard Trinidadian (all songs)**	**Neutral and Standard Trinidadian in folk songs**	**Non-national / Neutral**
Modelling words	12	1		1		
Preferred accent overall	9	0	1	0	2	2

Table 1[10]: Accents conductors: (i) use when modelling words (ii) prefer singers to use

A similar predilection towards British English emerges in the choristers' interviews. Most claim that their conductors prefer 'the Queen's English' or themselves believe that the most appropriate accent for choral singing is 'British all the way.' However, some assert the use of a 'choral pronunciation', which they say 'is not a different accent. It's just to get it out.'

Several reasons are given for the bias towards British accents. They are favoured for aesthetic reasons, perceived as conducive to the production of a more acceptable musical tone. Furthermore, British accents are felt to be more accurate, where Trinidadian accents are purported to be filled with 'mispronunciations.' British accents are subsequently reported as being superior to Trinidadian ones. Finally, British accents enjoy favour for historical reasons. Articulations of these views are seen in Table 2.

Outside of local music, TEC accents are generally viewed as an impediment to good choral pronunciation. One conductor, for example,

[10] Black squares= option unavailable; 0= option not selected

notes that 'spoken Trinidadian deviates from the printed requirements' of English, while one singer believes that speakers who routinely use Creole structures may find it 'kind of hard […] to speak Standard English.' More than being an obstacle, TEC is also a source of reprimand, and even ridicule. Singers report that their conductors, 'actually [get] annoyed at the way how we pronounce things' and that their conductors 'shout it at [them] and tell [them they're] not supposed to sing it like Trinidadians.'

Reason	Conductors	Choristers
Aesthetic	'The longer vowels that you might associate with the British are more satisfactory because […they] are more pleasant on the ear'	'People might say that and sound ugly'
Accurate	'We don't want mispronunciation […] We don't want *dis* and *dat'*	'British normally pronounce their words how it's supposed to be pronounced'
Superior	'They'd want to take them to a different place, a different level […] of a higher standard'	
Historical	'The British [accent], we've been used to that, we've been taught'	

Table 2: Reasons for British bias

Participants' responses reveal adherence to the standard language ideology present in choral singing literature. With some exceptions, they nevertheless link the standard to a clearly identified regional group, British speakers, dismissing the possibility of using both TEC and TTSE in classical music. Thus the findings confirm earlier claims of domain specialisation for Standard-Creole use, and reveal that the colonial variety, British English, retains its hegemony, at least ideologically. Furthermore, 'them' and 'us' ownership claims to TEC and Standard English respectively persist.

References

Abraham Kaplan. 1985. *Choral Conducting*. Norton: New York, USA.

Susanne Mühleisen. 2001. Is 'bad English' dying out? A comparative diachronic study of attitudes towards Creole versus Standard English in Trinidad. In *Philiogie im Netz* 15, 2001, pp43-78.

Donald Winford. 1976. Teacher attitudes toward language variation in a Creole

community. In *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* 8, 1976 pp45–75.

Valerie Youssef. 2004. 'Is English we speaking': Trinbagonian in the twenty-first century. In *English Today* 80 vol 20, 2004, pp42-49.

63 Chinese Learners' Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Vocabulary Size

Peiling Xing & Eoin Jordan
Xi'an Jiaotong – Liverpool University
Peiling.Xing@xjtlu.edu.cn
Eoin.Jordan@xjtlu.edu.cn

Background and Aims

Enrollment at English-medium universities in Mainland China has greatly increased in recent years. This project investigated newly enrolled Chinese students at one such university, aiming to measure their vocabulary size, ascertain their vocabulary learning strategies, and discover whether students with large vocabulary sizes employed significantly different learning strategies to those with small vocabulary sizes. It is hoped that the results will improve educators' understanding of Chinese students entering English-medium university environments.

Literature Review

Recent research suggests that readers require knowledge of approximately 98% of a text in order to understand it (Schmitt, 2008). Analysis of the British National Corpus (BNC) using this figure suggests that 8000-9000 word families are necessary in order to read a wide range of authentic texts, such as novels or newspapers. Learning such a large amount of vocabulary is a significant challenge, so there is a need for investigation into effective methods of vocabulary learning (Schmitt 2008). In response to this, researchers have attempted to frame language or vocabulary learning as models. Oxford (1990) proposed a strategy system which contains direct strategies (memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies) and indirect strategies (metacognitive, affective, and social strategies). Schmitt (1997) divided vocabulary learning strategies into discovery stage strategies and consolidation stage strategies. Macaro (2006) proposed a cognitive framework which includes: subconscious activity and learner strategies; features and combination of learner strategies; learner strategies and second language processes; strategic plans and motivation; learning styles and cognitive styles; and language skills that have strong interaction with one another. Xing (2009) has combined linguistic and non-linguistic strategies, motivation and the stages of vocabulary learning into one comprehensive representation of vocabulary acquisition.

Methodology

The sample of the project consisted of 105 first year students at Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University (XJTLU). They had just started the first semester of a two year intensive EAP programme at the time of the study.

Nation's Vocabulary Size Test (Beglar 2010) was used in an online format (www.vocabularysize.com) to measure students' receptive English vocabulary size up to 14,000 word families, and a questionnaire developed by Xing (2009) was used to investigate the students' vocabulary learning strategies. This questionnaire examined seven types of strategies including Discovery, Consolidation, Application Stage strategies, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective and Social strategies. The data obtained was analysed using descriptive statistics and the Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Discussion

The first aim of this research was to ascertain participants' vocabulary sizes at the beginning of their EAP studies. The results show that the participants' mean vocabulary size was 5181 word families (n=105; SD=2038). Comparing this with Laufer's (2001) finding that China English majors' vocabulary size was approximately 4000, and also considering that the senior undergraduate's CET band 6 test theoretically requires students to achieve 5300 receptive words (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996), the current sample's vocabulary size of 5180 word families appears quite high.

This study also investigated the vocabulary learning strategies that participants used before they entered XJTLU. A Wilcoxon signed-rank test indicated that the participants used all seven categories of vocabulary learning strategy in the questionnaire. The first major finding from the participants' Discovery and Consolidation stage strategies was that the techniques they used were often quite mechanical. This could be the result of being in a highly test-driven pre-university teaching and learning environment, with little emphasis on using language for communication. The second important finding from the Application Stage strategy results was that the techniques used were very textbook-focused and exam-driven. Meanwhile, activities such as watching movies or TV programs in English, and listening to English songs were participants' main English learning activities outside of class.

As well as the findings above, the Compensation strategy results suggested that participants had no problems expressing themselves when they encountered unknown words, and the Metacognitive strategy results

suggested that participants did have sufficient awareness to reflect and plan their learning. Learners' Affective strategy responses highlighted ways in which they relieved stress, caused by making mistakes and learning vocabulary in general. Finally, the Social strategy section indicated that the learners' use of social interaction was quite limited, which may be a result of their previous learning environment and course design.

This research also examined whether participants with large vocabulary sizes employed significantly different learning strategies to those with small vocabulary sizes. In order to create a clear distinction, the top 35 and the bottom 35 participants were selected, according to their vocabulary size scores, to form two groups for comparison. This analysis revealed that the higher group were more active in Discovery, Consolidation, and Application Stage strategies usage; they reported not only completing the tasks checked by their teachers, but also working hard on all required activities. In contrast, the lower group appeared to only do work that was checked. These results suggest that the motivating factors for the two groups were different.

Examination of Compensation strategies results suggested that the higher group used a wider range of techniques to facilitate communication. Metacognitive strategies were also better managed by the higher group, who appeared to regularly reflect on the effectiveness of their learning; the lower group did not report doing this. In the Affective strategies section, it appeared that the higher group had some strategies to regulate their emotions and cope with the pressure from their studies, while the lower group did not seem to have such awareness. Neither group appeared to demonstrate a good understanding of the Social strategy techniques; this may be the result of a lack of emphasis on communicative skills in traditional Chinese teaching environments.

Conclusion

The major purpose of this study was to investigate first year Chinese university students' English vocabulary size and previous vocabulary learning strategies. The findings suggest that educators need to raise students' awareness of Metacognitive strategies, and guide them to use more effective vocabulary learning strategies in general.

References

Batia Laufer. 2001. Quantitative evaluation of vocabulary: How it can be done and what it is good for. In C Elder, K Hill, A Brown, N Iwashita, L Grove, T Lumley,

& T McNamara (eds), *Experimenting with uncertainty*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

Martin Cortazzi and Lixian Jin. 1996. Changes in learning English vocabulary in China. In H Coleman and L Cameron (eds), *Change and Language*. Multilingual Matters: Clevedon, pp153-165.

David Beglar. 2010. A Rasch-based validation of the vocabulary size test. In *Language Testing* vol 27 2010, pp101-118.

Ernesto Macaro. 2006. Strategies for Language Learning and for Language Use: Revising the Theoretical Framework. In *The Modern Language Journal* vol 90 3, pp320-337.

Norbert Schmitt. 2008. Instructed second language vocabulary learning. In *Language Teaching Research* vol 12(3) 2008, pp329-363.

Norbert Schmitt. 1997. Vocabulary learning strategies. In N Schmitt and M McCarthy (eds), *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition, and Pedagogy*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.

Rebecca Oxford. 1990. *Language Learning Strategies: What every teacher should know*. Heinle and Heinle: Boston.

Paul Nation. 2001. *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.

Peiling Xing. 2009. *Chinese Learners and the Lexis Learning Rainbow*. Peter Lang: Oxford, UK

64 A Centering Analysis of a Comparable Learner/Native-speaker Corpus

Mitsuko Yamura-Takei[1] & Etsuko Yoshida[2]
[1]*Hiroshima Shudo University*
[2]*Mie University*
takeim@shudo-u.ac.jp
tantan@human.mie-u.ac.jp

Introduction

A comparable corpus of learner and native-speaker production may have a considerable impact on language pedagogy as it can provide information about how learner production differs from a target model and thus can provide information on potential difficulties for learners. The aim of this corpus study is to identify learner-specific tendencies in discourse-level features, rather than well-studied lexico-grammatical patterns, with particular attention to coherence created by reference to discourse entities.

Methodology

The data used for this study was collected from 63 learners of English at a university in Japan (EL) and 40 native speakers of English at a U.S. university (ENS). In collecting data, a video episode of Pingu, a Swiss clay animation, was presented to students to prompt production of a written narrative (i.e., synopsis writing). The data was first divided into a series of utterances that are defined as tensed finite clauses in this study. The total set of 1,229 (EL) and 1,272 (ENS) utterances was then analysed in the framework of Centering Theory (Grosz et al., 1995). This theory proposes to model the local mechanisms that create local coherence by operating on the discourse entities in each utterance within a discourse segment. The fundamental assumption of centering is that people continuously update their local attentional focus (called CENTER) as they incrementally process a discourse. Different ways of updating CENTER are formulated as the types of TRANSITION from one utterance to the next. The types are called continuation (CON), when the same entity continues to be CENTER, retaining (RET), when a new entity is introduced while retaining an old CENTER, and shifting (SHIFT), when CENTER is shifted from the old entity to a new one. An utterance which does not share any discourse entities with an immediately preceding one is labelled NULL.

Below is an example of a smooth transition sequence (CON->RET->SHIFT->CON), in which focus is first placed on “Pingu” (U2-U3) and is then moved to “parents” (U4-U5).

U1: The movie begins with Pingu sitting at the table.
NULL
U2: **He** seems to be unhappy
[Pingu] **CON**
U3: because **he** does not want to eat vegetables.
[Pingu] **CON**
U4: **His** parents are happily talking.
[Pingu -> parents] **RET**
U5: and **0** (are) not paying much attention to Pingu.
[parents] **SHIFT**
U6: Finally, his **parents** offer him a potato.
[parents] **CON**

We compared our EL/ENS data in the distribution of the TRANSITION types, and also in the syntactic positions (subjects, objects, possessives) and language forms (zeros, nouns, pronouns, demonstratives) that CENTERs take. We calculated two-tailed probabilities for the difference between two independent proportions in the ENS/EL data and examined the statistically significant cases ($p<0.001$; indicated in bold in the tables below) in order to describe EL characteristics and hence potential difficulties/weaknesses.

Results and Discussion

The TRANSITION type distribution is similar as summarized in Table 1, and is roughly analogous to previous corpus analyses: CON is most frequently used, followed by, in descending order, RET, SHIFT and NULL (Hurewitz, 1998). The NULL proportion of the data seems to be within a reasonable range. It is interesting to note, however, that ENS data contain more NULL-labelled clauses.

	EL		**ENS**	
CON	530	43.1%	521	41.0%
RET	300	24.4%	277	21.8%
SHIFT	240	19.5%	241	18.9%
NULL	**159**	**12.9%**	**233**	**18.3%**

Table 1: TRANSITION type distribution

As for the syntactic positions for CENTERs presented in Table 2, both ENS and EL realize the majority of CENTERs in subject positions,

followed by possessor positions. EL exhibits less frequent use of CENTERs in object positions.

	EL		ENS	
subject	785	73.4%	785	75.6%
object	**11**	**1.0%**	**27**	**2.6%**
possessor	238	22.3%	202	19.4%
other	36	3.4%	25	2.2%

Table 2: Syntactic positions for CENTER

Now let us turn to the language forms used for CENTERs in Table 3. Here, "zero" refers to elided subjects in conjoined subordinate clauses, as in the U5 example above (with zero indicated as 0).

	EL		ENS	
zero	97	9.1%	**230**	22.1%
pronoun	**703**	65.8%	464	44.7%
noun	266	24.9%	**344**	33.1%
other	4	0.4%	1	0.1%

Table 3: Language forms for CENTER

EL prefer to use more pronouns but fewer zeros and nouns for CENTERs than ENS do. Less frequent use of zeros is apparently due to EL's tendency to construct a discourse with short choppy clauses, rather than conjoining two or more clauses when possible, as exemplified in the following discourse segments taken from the EL/ENS data.

EL

1: **Pingu** finally ran away.
2: At first **he** was angry. [CON]
3: But **he** missed his parents. [CON]

ENS

1: **Pingu** then leaves the house,
2: **0** yells at it, [CON]
3: and then **0** runs away. [CON]

This is mainly observed in the CON utterances, and is statistically verified in Table 4.

		EL		ENS	
CON	**zero**	**67**	**12.6%**	**168**	**32.2%**
	pronoun	**327**	**61.7%**	**215**	**41.3%**
	noun	135	25.5%	138	26.5%
	other	1	0.2%		
RET	zero	2	0.7%		
	pronoun	**223**	**74.3%**	**165**	**59.6%**
	noun	**74**	**24.7%**	**112**	**40.4%**
	other	1	0.3%		
SHIFT	**zero**	**28**	**11.7%**	**62**	**25.7%**
	pronoun	**153**	**63.8%**	**84**	**34.9%**
	noun	**57**	**23.8%**	**94**	**39.0%**
	other	2	0.8%	1	0.4%

Table 4: CENTER forms in TRANSITION type

EL's tendency to pronominalize CENTERs is also observed in the RET situation where ENS use nouns more often. Examples are shown below.

EL

1: So **his** father and mother angry.
2: **He** apologized to his father … [CON]
3: but **his** father didn't excuse for that. [RET]
4: **He** was angry (and left home) [CON]

ENS

1: Pingu was upset,
2: so **he** ran away from home. [CON]
3: **Pingu's** parents waited for him .., [RET]
4: but **he** didn't return. [CON]

Likewise, in the SHIFT environment, EL and ENS are contrasted in their choice of CENTER forms, as evidenced in the sample segments from each subset below.

EL

1: Pingu does not like vegetables.
2: **his** parents ate fishes, [RET]

3: but **they** made him eat potato. [SHIFT]
4: **He** was angry, [SHIFT]
5: **he** threw potato at his mom. [CON]

ENS

1: but Pingu didn't want to eat it and 0 threw it at her.
2: **Pingu's** father was upset, [RET]
3: and **0** scolded Pingu. [SHIFT]
4: **Pingu** ignored his father, [SHIFT]
5: and **0** began acting badly. [CON]

As Table 4 shows, ENS use zeros, pronouns and nouns roughly equally.

Conclusion

We have presented the centering-based analysis results of our comparable EL/ENS corpus. Although the TRANSITION type distribution is similar, there is a clear contrast in their CENTER form choice. EL tend to frequently realize CENTERs in the pronominal forms, while ENS allow more variety. The choice of referring expressions is not a matter of right or wrong but rather a preference in order to establish a reasonable degree of coherence while balancing between ambiguity and redundancy. Therefore, it is hard to provide explicit and systematic instruction unlike hard rules of lexico-grammatical levels, but knowing the differences between native-speakers' and learners' performance would be a good starting point for teachers to guide their students. Also, more detailed analysis could offer more pedagogical insights. For example, we would like to further investigate ENS's variety of CENTER form choices in relation to the TRANSITION sequence patterns to better characterize native speaker norms.

References

Barbara J Grosz, Aravind Joshi & Scott Weinstein. 1995. Centering: A Framework for Modeling the Local Coherence of Discourse. In *Computational Linguistics* 2(21), pp203-225.

Felicia Hurewitz. 1998. A quantitative look at discourse coherence. In M Walker, A Joshi, and E. Prince (eds), *Centering Theory in Discourse*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, pp273-291.

Multilingual Theory and Practice in Applied Linguistics

Proceedings of the 45th Annual Meeting
of the British Association for Applied Linguistics

6-8 September 2012
University of Southampton

Edited by Alasdair N. Archibald

ISBN: 978-0-9559533-5-4