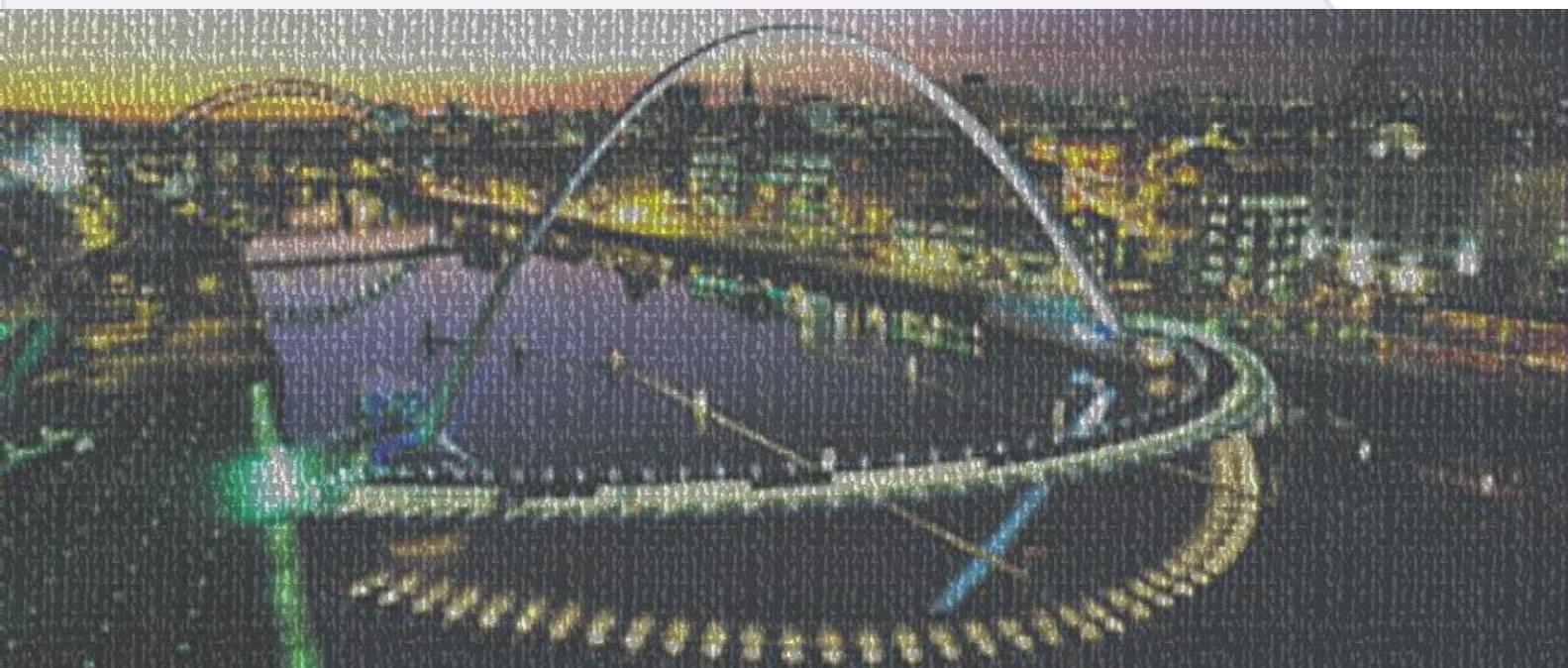


Language, Learning, and Context

**Proceedings of the 42nd Annual Meeting
of the British Association for Applied Linguistics**

Newcastle University, 3-5 September 2009



Edited by
Andrew Harris
& Adam Brandt

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

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First published in CD-Rom format 2010
(ISBN: 978-0-9559533-2-3)
By the British Association for Applied Linguistics

Published in book format 2017

ISBN: 978-1-9999369-2-1

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Meetings Secretary Report

1

Erik Schleef
University of Manchester
31st October 2009

BAAL 2009 Newcastle (3rd – 5th September)

The conference theme of BAAL 2009 was “Language, Learning and Context”. Circa 300 delegates attended the conference. Plenary speakers were David Crystal (Bangor University), Bethan Benwell (University of Stirling) & Liz Stokoe (Loughborough University), and Pauline Rae-Dickins (University of Bristol). The conference was organised by the School of Education, Communication and Language Sciences (ECLS), and the Centre for Research in Linguistics and Language Sciences (CRiLLS).

Very many thanks and congratulations to Chris Jenks and other staff and students at Newcastle University for a highly successful conference. Delegate feedback forms and emails abound in comments such as “very friendly and informative conference – very good sessions – excellent plenaries – wonderful experience – student helpers and conference chair were wonderfully helpful and friendly – we enjoyed the variety of sessions – great conference!”.

The majority of delegates who filled in forms rated the venue as ‘good’ and ‘very good’. Almost all delegates who filled in forms also rated the programme and the quality of sessions as “good” or “very good”. The number of papers submitted has increased from last year (see Table 1 and Figure 1). 343 abstracts were submitted to the conference organisers, and 186 were accepted this year. The number of accepted papers has decreased somewhat this year (54% this year compared to 69% last year). Poster submission and acceptance has increased again this year. There was a prize for best poster displayed at the conference which went to Tess Fitzpatrick and Jon Clenton from Swansea University for their poster “Exploring the usefulness of a test of productive vocabulary”.

	04 Sub	04 Acc	05 Sub	05 Acc	06 Sub	06 Acc	07 Sub	07 Acc	08 Sub	08 Acc	09 Sub	09 Acc
.
Individuals	106	69	146	92	232	141	277	100	197	127	246	114
Colloquia abstracts	50	50	41	41	13	13	18	14	8	8	12	12
SIGs	27	22	29	17	47	24	47	17	72	52	50	30
Posters	27	19	11	21	11	22	14	10	21	21	35	30
TOTAL	210	160	227	171	303	200	352	141	298	208	343	186

Table 1: Submitted (Sub.) and accepted (Acc.) papers from 2004 to 2009

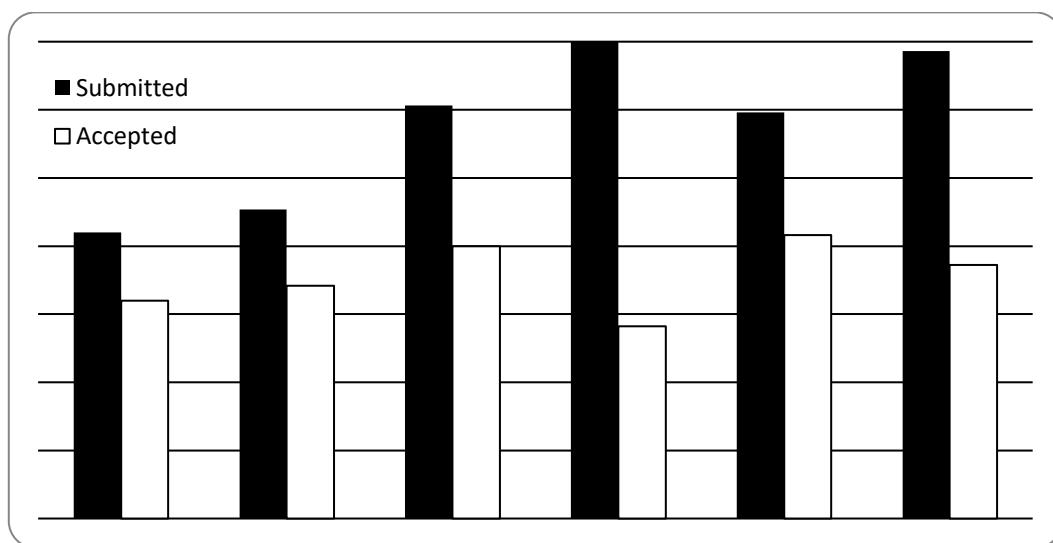


Figure 1: Submitted and accepted papers from 2004 to 2009

There were three proposed colloquia: Learning Foreign Languages Across Contexts, Language and Neoliberalism, Multimodal Analysis – The State of the Field. There was one invited colloquium: Emerging Contexts: Staff-Student Presentations.

Five SIG Tracks were organized: ‘Corpus Linguistics’, ‘Language Learning and Teaching’, ‘Gender and Language’, ‘Psycholinguistics’, and ‘UK Linguistic Ethnography Forum’.

BAAL gives two international scholarships (one of which is the Chris Brumfit award) and ten UK student scholarships. This year there were 46 international scholarship applications and 30 UK applications. A scholar from Serbia, Ksenija Bogetic, received the International Scholarship, and one from Egypt, Muhammad Abdel Latif, was selected for the Chris Brumfit award.

Routledge sponsored a drinks reception before dinner on Thursday night at which the new journal *Classroom Discourse*, edited by Steve Walsh, was launched. Palgrave sponsored a reception on Friday night at which the BAAL book prize was announced. The 2009 BAAL book prize was awarded to: Wei, L. and M.G. Moyer (eds) (2008): *The Blackwell Guide to Research Methods in Bilingualism and Multilingualism*. Blackwell. The BAAL Gala dinner was held at Newcastle's Civic Centre on Friday night. It was accompanied – not by the usual ceilidh – but a disco band from Macclesfield. The conference closed the following day with a tribute to Peter Martin and Johannes Eckerth, the last of the three plenaries, and closing remarks by several representatives of BAAL and Newcastle University.

2 It is more recursive than this: toward a new conceptualization of the composing process

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Writing is a complex problem-solving activity in which the writer processes different types of knowledge and carries out several mental operations. Attempting to define and integrate the mental operations involved in writing and the factors influencing them in one interactive system, writing researchers have proposed general models so as to help us understand what is involved in the act of composing, what factors influence it and why some writers are better than the others (Grabe, 2001: 41). Influenced by the process-oriented writing research conducted in the 1970s, several writing models have been proposed from the early 1980s onwards. The models proposed by Flower and Hayes (1980), Kellogg (1996), and Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) might be the frequently cited ones.

In their most influential model, Flower and Hayes (1980) describe composing as having three main cognitive processes: a) planning: generating ideas for writing and deciding how to write them; b) translating or text generation: turning ideas into written text; and c) revision: evaluating the written text and making any necessary changes to improve it. Though Flower and Hayes state that their cognitive model has three components, monitoring can be regarded as a fourth component in their model. According to them, monitoring plays the role of ‘a writing strategist’ that evaluates the progress of each process performed. In Hayes’s (1996) revised model, the labels planning, text generation, and revision were replaced by reflection, text production and text interpretation, respectively.

Kellogg’s (1996) model encompasses three composing components: a) formulation: setting goals, generating and organizing ideas and translating ideas into linguistic messages; b) execution: programming the output of translation by handwriting or typing, c) monitoring: reading the output and editing it. On the other hand, Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) describe the functions the four composing components in their model as follows: “The proposer is a prelinguistic source that produces ideas to be expressed. The translator converts the pre-linguistic ideas into strings of language with appropriate word order and grammar. The reviser evaluates both proposed

and written language, and the transcriber turns the content of the articulatory buffer into written language” (p.84).

While these three cognitive models limited the components of the composing process to three or four, the present study found that it can be conceptualized as having six main composing components: planning, monitoring, retrieving, reviewing, text-changing, and transcribing. The present study derived its data from 19.5-hour think-aloud protocols generated by 30 Egyptian EFL student writers. The study views planning as the behaviours signalling that the writer is proposing ideas or text for writing, and monitoring as what signals that the writer is reflecting upon or organizing the proposed or written idea/text or the way of composing. That is, monitoring is the reflective and organizing component of the composing process. Retrieving, on the other hand, indicates that the writer is searching for ideas or text, and retrieving the proposed or written text. As for reviewing, it includes the behaviours signalling that the writer is verifying the meaning of the proposed or written text, scanning the text written, and doing any type of reading to guide them in focusing attention on the task or checking the text written against the assigned prompt, assessing progress achieved so far, checking the appropriateness of the written text, or in finding what to write next. Transcribing means translating proposed ideas and/or text into written language, while text-changing refers to the changes writers make to their texts include revising changes influencing the meaning of the text and made at the word, phrase or sentence level, and editing changes not influencing the meaning of the text but made at grammar, spelling or punctuation levels.

A main contribution of the present study is its clear-cut conceptualization of composing process components. The components proposed by the study are more fine-tuned than the ones in the three models. For example, while the present study differentiates between reviewing and text-changing, Flower and Hayes, Kellogg, and Chenoweth and Hayes integrate them in one component, i.e. revision, monitoring and reviser, respectively. Moreover, the study categorizes the text-changing component into two sub-components: revising and editing. Formulation in Kellogg’s model is matched to ideational planning, textual planning, monitoring and retrieving components in the present study. Similarly, text generation in Flower and Hayes’s model incorporates textual planning, retrieving and transcribing components proposed by the study.

The present study has expanded the definition of monitoring in Flower and Hayes’s model to include goal setting and process organizing behaviours,

i.e. task-management behaviours, which fit in their planning component. These behaviours have been described as ‘procedural planning’ by some researchers, e.g. Victor (1995). That is, they are not regarded as ideational or textual planning behaviours. The importance of retrieving and textual planning components proposed by the present study is that they can signal writers’ composing problems, i.e. writers using more textual planning and retrieving behaviours are likely to encounter difficulties in their writing. In contrast, writers using more monitoring behaviours are likely to have fluent composing processes. The fine-tuned conceptualization of monitoring and retrieving components adds to the originality of the study.

The more clear-cut composing components and sub-components used in the present study allow researchers to investigate the composing process from a different angle. When analysing writers’ think-aloud protocols using the components and sub-components proposed by the study, their composing processes are expected to be shown as more recursive than when analysing their protocols using the components in these three models. That is, because this conceptualization calls for analysing writers’ composing behaviours in a more analytic way, researchers are expected to identify more behaviours in writers’ think-aloud protocols and in turn to find writers switching from one component to another more recursively.

The three models of Hayes and Flower, Kellogg, and Chenoweth and Hayes describe the functions of their proposed components in the composing process rather than the interactional patterns among them or the way they interact with the writer’s long-term memory variables. The writing process results revealed by the present study, along with those of the previous ones reviewed, indicate that we still lack a cognitive model that better describes or predicts the interaction among these components, i.e. how allocation of efforts to one component influences the efforts allocated to another. Moreover, this model needs to explicate how L2/FL writers’ composing components are shaped by their different linguistic knowledge, and writing skill and affect levels. Future research adopting the composing process analysis approach proposed by the present study to investigate writers’ composing processes can pave the way for building such a model.

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Acknowledgements

This paper is based on a part of my PhD research. I would like to thank the Institute of Educational Studies, Cairo University, for their four-year sponsorship of my PhD research. I would like also to acknowledge the support given to my research by the International Research Foundation for English Language Education (TIRF) and thank the TIRF Board of Trustees for granting me the 2008 Sheikh Nahayan Doctoral Dissertation Fellowship Award.

3 A technology-enhanced English language project in Greece

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Nowadays, computer-mediated language programmes can be used by teachers all over the world in order to increase students' learning capabilities and autonomy. There are a lot of Information and Communication Technology systems (ICT) available for teachers and programme developers to use in order to enhance learning and introduce innovation in their teaching.

I present an evaluation study which was concerned with an innovative English language learning programme at an adult evening school in Greece. It concerned a class of students who studied English exclusively in the computer lab for the whole semester. Its aim was to investigate whether students could have better results in second language learning by Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) than with the conventional classroom learning (text books, a standard course schedule, etc.) and whether a computer-based language learning environment can make a big difference in the language learning and teaching process. It concerned a class of 12 adult students in a Secondary Education level school. The course took place 3 hours per week and was held entirely in the computer lab. The teachers planned a course outline and presented it to the students at the beginning of the semester. They intended it to be effective and interesting so they negotiated it with the students who could add or change activities in the outline. Moreover, students had the possibility to practice at their own pace. Students were asked to fill in questionnaires in order to find out their opinion about this CALL programme as well as their willingness to have computer-mediated programmes in the future. Teachers were also asked to fill in questionnaires and also to report their observations during this project. The evaluation was carried out at the end of the programme (summative).

Rationale of the project

Technology-enhanced language learning can make language learning more stimulating because it is different from the usual classroom practice and students can work at their own pace. It can promote learner autonomy and there is an abundance of web resources instead of one or two textbooks. Also,

audio-visual methods can be widely used. According to Roger Broadie, a Chief Executive of the European Education Partnership (<http://www.eep-edu.org>), some aspects of the currently prevailing pedagogy compared with pedagogies appropriate to ICT-rich learning environments are:

ICT-rich Pedagogy
Pupil controlled and autonomous work dominates.
Collaborative work, locally, nationally and globally, dominates.
The student takes increasing responsibility for progress; students learn through guided application.
The teacher enables students to access various learning environments, physical and online, both in and out of school.
Hyperlinked, interactive, visual and aural approaches dominate learning.
The real world, peers, teachers and other adults are the prime focus of learning.

Figure 1: Pedagogies appropriate to ICT-rich learning environments

Project methods

For the above project, various methods were used such as web resources, purpose-built exercises (vocabulary-grammar-syntax), virtual visits to museums and sights. Moreover, students were asked to send emails to their friends and take part in chats with peers (synchronous and asynchronous communication). The purpose of this evaluation study was to support the program, and to get feedback which would be used for development and not for accountability. It also aimed to communicate the value of innovation for learning and provide the teacher with new developmental directions. The focus was on learning processes, not just the test scores.

Data Analysis

Students' questionnaires showed that 17% of the students were 18-30 years old, 33% were 30-40 years old, 42% were 40-50 years old, and 8% were 50+ years old. 67% of the students were female and 33% were male. All students reported that they fully understood the course structure and details, and at the beginning of the course the vast majority of them (83%) reported that they liked the way the course was organized. An overwhelming majority

(92%) stated that they used several resources in the lab whereas 8% disagreed with that. 58% of students were able to interact effectively with their classmates whereas 42% disagreed with that. There is the same percentage for interacting effectively with the instructors. 58% of students were able to interact effectively with their instructors whereas 42% were not. 92% of the students found this course more useful than the conventional classroom language learning while all of them found the course interesting and informative. 58% of students think that the use of cooperative learning was interesting whereas 42% disagreed with that. 83% believe that the course was intellectually challenging and 17% disagreed. 83% said that the course met their educational needs and 17 % were not satisfied. All of them believe that ICT can make learning more effective. Data analysis showed that the majority of students enjoyed using ICT for language learning because they believed that it makes learning more interesting and fun. They also reported that they are willing to have computer assisted learning in other subjects too. Teachers also liked this new experience and claimed that it helped them prepare more interesting outlines, negotiate them with their students and pay attention to the individual learners' needs.

The results of this evaluation can be used as a positive feedback:

- institutions can use it for future language programme development
- teachers can use it for self-development and their curriculum design
- students can benefit because they will promote their autonomy and find a new means for learning

The development of learner autonomy may lead to a renegotiation of the teacher-student relationship. The exploitation of ICT holds out much promise for improving the quality, flexibility and effectiveness of education.

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Prosodic cues in turn-taking

4

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One of the central questions in conversation analysis is how participants are able to accomplish orderly turn-taking. In projecting transition relevance places (Sacks et al. 1974), at which the floor may legitimately be shifted from one speaker to another, participants rely not only on syntactic cues, but also on prosody (Wennerstrom 2001). Despite its prominent role in utterance interpretation, however, prosody remains comparably neglected in discourse studies to date. The present analysis aims to address this gap by exploring the role of particular prosodic cues in the synchronization of turn-taking in spontaneous conversation. Prosody is viewed in light of discourse organization, with a focus on how participants employ prosodic cues to negotiate turns and satisfy varying discourse needs and cognitive states. Thus, the principal goals that underlie the analysis are (i) to provide an empirical account of the role of prosody in interaction, (ii) to identify specific prosodic cues relied on when projecting turn completion and (iii) to examine the prosodic realization of instances where turn-taking rules are broken.

The material used consists of three recorded conversations in American English, totalling 47 minutes in length, transcribed using the transcription methods of DuBois et al. (1993). The participants were native speakers of American English, between 22 and 30 years of age. The recording took place in informal settings and the participants were not familiar with the purpose of the recording. The approach taken is based on acoustic analysis, applied to discourse-level data.

The analysis examines the notion of projectability (e.g. Furo 2001, Hutchay and Wooffitt 2008) – an interlocutor's ability to anticipate when a turn is likely to end. The material shows that participants in conversation choose to take the floor not only on the basis of syntactic completion, but that they also project turn completion onto particular prosodic cues. These cues are perceived by listeners slightly in advance of the end of a turn and they enable participants to anticipate turn-completion before it actually occurs.

In the analyzed material, three most common, instrumentally verifiable prosodic cues have been identified that are perceptually effective as markers of TRPs: pauses, final lengthening and decrease in intensity. The majority of turn-shifts are preceded by at least one of the three cues. The most common of these cues are pauses, occurring in 34% of turn-shifts. However, it is impossible to claim that any pause, or any prosodic cue in general, can be taken as a stable and direct indicator of the speaker's turn intentions. In the present material, participants frequently pause in the middle of a turn, and the presence or absence of pauses is shown to be commonly manipulated for strategic reasons, such as pausing midturn in order to avoid interruption in long TCUs. The second TRP cue is final lengthening, or the lengthening of syllables at the end of an intonation unit. The material shows that final lengthening is found most frequently on the final syllable in the intonation unit, but the effect is also found to spread on the preceding syllable. The third cue involves a decrease in intensity, which is shown to be commonly associated with the giving away of a turn. In many cases, the turn gets quieter and quieter, so the next speaker takes over, which may help to move the conversation forward.

Apart from such legitimate transitions, real-time conversation involves many instances of interruption, where the basic turn-taking rules are broken. The present analysis, however, shows that interruptions are characterized by certain general principles in their phonetic realization and are ultimately related to the rule-set, rather than being simply disruptive or random. On the basis of their motivation and discourse function, three interruption types have been identified: turn-competitive, cooperative and misprojectional. *Turn-competitive interruptions* occur when one speaker attempts to take the floor while the current speaker has not completed the turn and intends to continue. They can potentially disrupt the flow of interaction and alter the ongoing conversational topic. This type of interruption is shown to be prosodically marked, typically involving a prominent rise in pitch, and sometimes loudness. *Cooperative interruptions* are essentially non-competitive, mainly uttered to support the main speaker's point, which has a consequent influence on prosody. The pitch height for this type of interruption is significantly lower than for competitive interruption, though usually still raised in order to realize interruption. Finally, the third category of interruptions may be termed *misprojectional interruptions*. They are distinguished from the other two types as the described communicative, cognitive and emotional motivations are here entirely absent. The interruption is merely the result either of a misinterpretation of a point as a TRP or failure to acknowledge the beginning of the other speaker's turn

(misprojecting TRP points). Their pitch level is typically in line with the average values for the region. Table 1 below shows the average pitch values for the three types. What is worth noting here is the difference in pitch levels of almost 100 Hz between each type, with the actual pitch level depending on the degree of disruption.

turn-competitive	407
cooperative	317
misprojectional	218

Table 1: Average pitch values (Hz) for the three interruption types

All these findings, both the legitimate prosodic TRP cues and the phonetic realization of interruption, can be situated within a basic model of turn-taking that acknowledges the role of prosody. The contingencies of turn taking are shown to be sensitive to prosodic signals, which work together with syntax and visual cues to mark TRPs. If none of these signals are present, the disruption must be compensated somehow, which can be achieved prosodically, most notably through a rise in pitch level.

To conclude, the analysis has shown that prosody plays a key role in the complex local negotiation of discourse. The three prosodic cues that are identified (pauses, final lengthening and a decrease in intensity) are shown to be significant resources in identifying turn completion and situating one's own participation in conversation. However, interactants can manipulate this prosodic information strategically to achieve particular interactional goals, which points to the fact that prosodic features do not indicate speaker intentions directly and independently. Further, the examination of the prosodic cues in realizing interruptions has also revealed notable systematicity, with pitch levels depending on the level of disruption, thus showing orientation to the turn-taking rules. What emerges from the material is that such elements play a role in the co-construction of interaction, as resources that are fundamentally related to the basic set of conversational rules. A basic model of turn-taking is thus proposed, assuming that if the rules are to be broken, this can be compensated prosodically. At a more general level, the analysis points to the fact that prosodic study derived from spontaneous speech may provide a deeper understanding of both prosody and conversation structure.

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5

Multilingual label quests: a classroom practice in a migratory educational context

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Introduction

The notion of ‘label quests’ was first coined by Heath (1986) to refer to “language activities in which adults either name items or ask for their names” (*ibid.*: 168) during adult-child interactions. A prototypical example would look like this:

Example 1

1. Adult: what is this/
2. Child: a cat
3. Adult: yes (.) a cat

Label quests (LQs) are also typical classroom language activities and have been widely identified in classroom talk studies as being a useful teaching strategy in bi/multilingual classroom contexts (e.g. Arthur, 1996; Martin, 1999; Martin et al. 2006). However, scholars have not yet described the interactional mechanism of this teaching strategy and, more precisely, how it can be conducted in more than one language. Therefore, this paper aims to show the interactional organisation of LQs, investigating at what level of the LQ language alternation occurs.

Data set and methods

The discussion in this paper is drawn from a Conversation Analysis of a set of classroom interaction audio-recorded in an induction classroom for newly-arrived migrant children in France. In this induction classroom, eight languages were co-present (French, English, Spanish, Japanese, Polish, Lithuanian, Peul, and Arabic). I have analysed LQs conducted in more than one language in light of Schegloff’s framework of sequential organisation (2007), which accounts for “expansions” embedded within the minimal unit of the LQ. Three different structural organisations of LQs emerged; among which were what I propose to call ‘multilingual label quests’ (MLQs).

An example of multilingual label quest

I define MLQs as interactional sequences where labels are named or elicited in languages other than the medium. In our corpus, MLQs are interactional sequences where French is the ‘medium of classroom interaction’ (Bonacina and Gafaranga; submitted) and within which other languages are allowed at two specific levels: seconds or pre-second insert expansions (what I call Type 1 of MLQ) and post-expansions (what I call Type 2 of MLQ). Extract 1 gives an example of MLQ of Type 1.

Extract 1¹

1. Teacher: ça s'appelle comment/
what is it called/
2. Alexia: ah! (.) **es una historieta!** <Spanish>
ah! (.) it's a cartoon!
3. Micaela: que (.) comme (.) il parle-
that (.) like (.) that speaks-
4. Brianna: en anglais on dit **comics** <English>
in English we say comics
5. Teacher: voilà (.) exactement (.) exactement (.) en anglais on dit/
there you go (.) exactly (.) exactly (.) in English you say/
6. Brianna: **comics** <English>
comics
7. Teacher: **comics** <English> (.) et en japonais/ (.) Sheido/
(.) en japonais/
comics (.) and in Japanese/ (.) Sheido/ (.) in Japanese/
10. Sheido: **manga** <Japanese>
cartoon
11. (.)
12. Teacher: hein/
uh/
13. All: **manga** <Japanese>
cartoon
14. Teacher: **manga** <Japanese> ((T writes it on the board))
cartoon
[...] ((The teacher asks in Lithuanian and in Peul))
60. Teacher: et en français donc personne sait comment ça s'appelle en
français ça/

¹ Transcription conventions can be found at the end of the paper.

*and in French so no one knows what it is called in French
this/*

62. (.)

[...] ((Children suggest answers that are not ratified by Teacher))

73. Teacher: ça s'appelle des bandes dessinées!

it is called a cartoon!

74. All: bandes dessinées!

cartoon!

Here, the teacher is trying to elicit the French label ‘bande dessinée’ (in English, ‘cartoon’) from her pupils. The first pair part of the MLQ (line 1) does not have its second pair part until many turns later (line 73) since pupils have difficulties finding the requested French label². However, the pupils still orient to the LQ by providing the label in their first language(s) in lieu of a second pair part. For instance, line 2, Alexia shows understanding (“ah!”), pauses and gives the label in Spanish. Line 4, Brianna gives the English label, signalling that it is not the expected French label (“en anglais”). The teacher acknowledges these turns (line 5) as leading to pre-second insertions. Between lines 5 to 60, the teacher initiates what might be called ‘translation quests’, that is, interactional sequences where the translation of a label is named or elicited. Line 5 to 7, the teacher initiates a translation quest into English: line 5 is the first pair part, Brianna’s answer line 6 is the second pair part and the teacher’s repeat line 7 is the sequence closure third. Then, line 7 to 60, the teacher initiates translation quests into Japanese, Lithuanian and Peul (a language from Senegal)³. Structurally speaking, these four translation quests are all embedded in the wider MLQ at the level of pre-second insertions. Lastly, the teacher reiterates the first pair part lines 60-1 and gives the French label line 73 – the second pair part of the MLQ. Pupils repeat in a chorus the new French label line 74 – which is the sequence closure third of the MLQ.

In brief, this extract shows that language alternation is orderly and part and parcel of the multiple layers of MLQs. It also indicates how traditional teaching practices such as LQs can be structurally expanded to accommodate the functional use of language alternation in classroom talk.

² Being newly-arrived migrants, these pupils are learners of French as a second language.

³ The full extract could not be reproduced due to space constraints.

Transcription conventions

The conventions follow largely Jefferson (2004). Other key conventions are below:

Bold A *bold font* indicates a stretch of talk uttered in a language other than French.

Word A *grey italicised stretch of talk* indicates a free translation into English.

<> *Left/right carats* contain the indication of the language in which the preceding stretch of talk was uttered.

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6

The vocabulary performance of native and non-native speakers and its relationship with learning style

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Introduction

Research into L2 lexical diversity performance has found it to be highly variable (Jarvis 2002). This study examines whether learning style is a factor associated with the variability found in L2 texts. Native speakers were used as a benchmark in order to establish whether variability and any associations with learning style were also inherent in L1. The participants were first year university engineering students who comprised of 20 native speakers and 16 non-native speakers of various first language backgrounds. The vocabulary used was taken from the students' assignment to describe laboratory demonstrations. Two pieces of work from the same learner were collected to help ensure reliability.

The texts were analysed for lexical diversity by using a measure, D , which is based on mathematically modeling how the type-token ratio⁴ of any given sample falls with a greater number of running words (Malvern *et al.* 2004). The higher the D value means the greater the diversity. In this study, *D-Tools* software (Meara and Miralpeix 2007) was used to calculate the statistic. The value of the D statistic is labelled $D1$ for the first set of reports, and $D2$ for the second. All participants were also tested for learning style based on Skehan's (1998) Memory-Analysis framework by using two tests of language aptitude (Meara *et al* 2001): Memory (LAT B visual memory for paired associates) and Analysis (LAT C grammatical sensitivity). Both tests used a fictional language so as not to discriminate against non-native speakers.

⁴ Different words are 'types' whereas every running word form is a 'token'.

Results

Memory and Analysis groups

The participants were grouped firstly according to LAT B (Memory) and then LAT C (Analysis) scores and categorised into three sub-groups based on Meara *et al's* (2001) interpretation of the percentage of people who fall into the bottom 30%, middle 40%, and top 30% (see Table 1 below).

LAT B (Memory)		LAT C (Analysis)	
74-100	Top 30% of all scores	70-100	Top 30% of all scores
43-73	Middle 40% of all scores	60-69	Middle 40% of all scores
0-42	Bottom 30% of all scores	0-59	Bottom 30% of all scores

Table 1: LAT B (Memory) and LAT C (Analysis) scores and their interpretation

Lexical diversity (D) across Memory and Analysis groups

The *D* statistic from the two reports was then analysed using box and whisker plots to highlight the variability across different sets of data. Figures 1 and 2 show the *D* values from each report of native and non-native speakers grouped according to their Memory scores (LAT B).

With non-native speakers, the higher the Memory (LAT B) score, the greater the variability in lexical diversity (*D*). This pattern appears to be more marked in Figure 2 than in Figure 1. No pattern emerges from the median *D* values across the sub-groups of each data set. Higher Memory scores tend to be associated with greater lexical diversity for non-native speakers but this is a non-linear relationship. The native speaker box-plots show considerably less variability than non-native speaker across the different sub-sets of Memory.

In Figures 3 and 4, the participants are grouped according to their Analysis scores (LAT C). The pattern for the non-native speakers in Figure 3 suggests that the greater the Analysis score (LAT C), the more tightly clustered the *D* value. The second set of data in Figure 4 suggests that the greater the Analysis score, the lower the median *D* (diversity) value. The next section examines non-native speakers mean diversity (*D*) and learning style, but this time across Text 1 and 2 in order to find any intra-variability and stability.

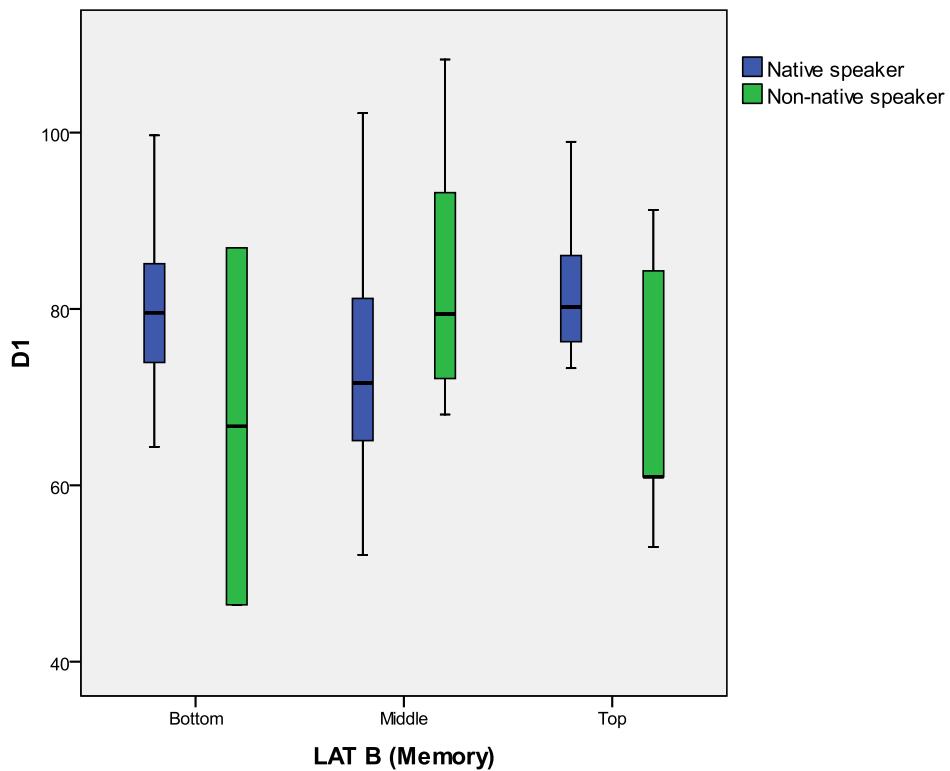


Figure 1: Lexical diversity (D1) across the Memory groups

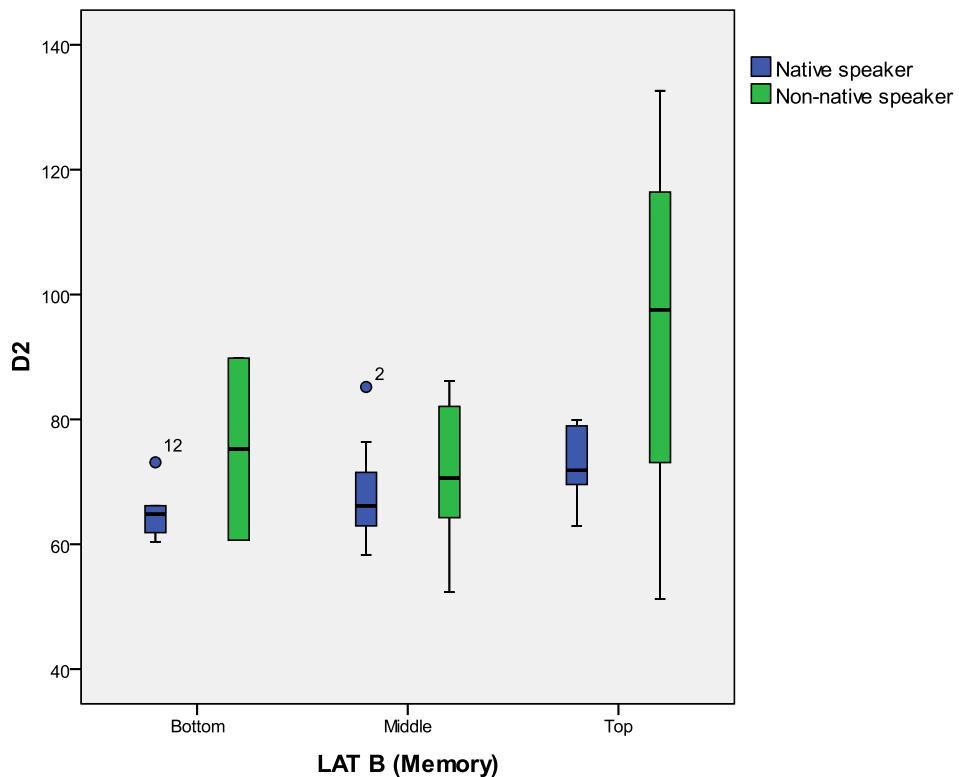


Figure 2: Lexical diversity (D2) across the Memory groups

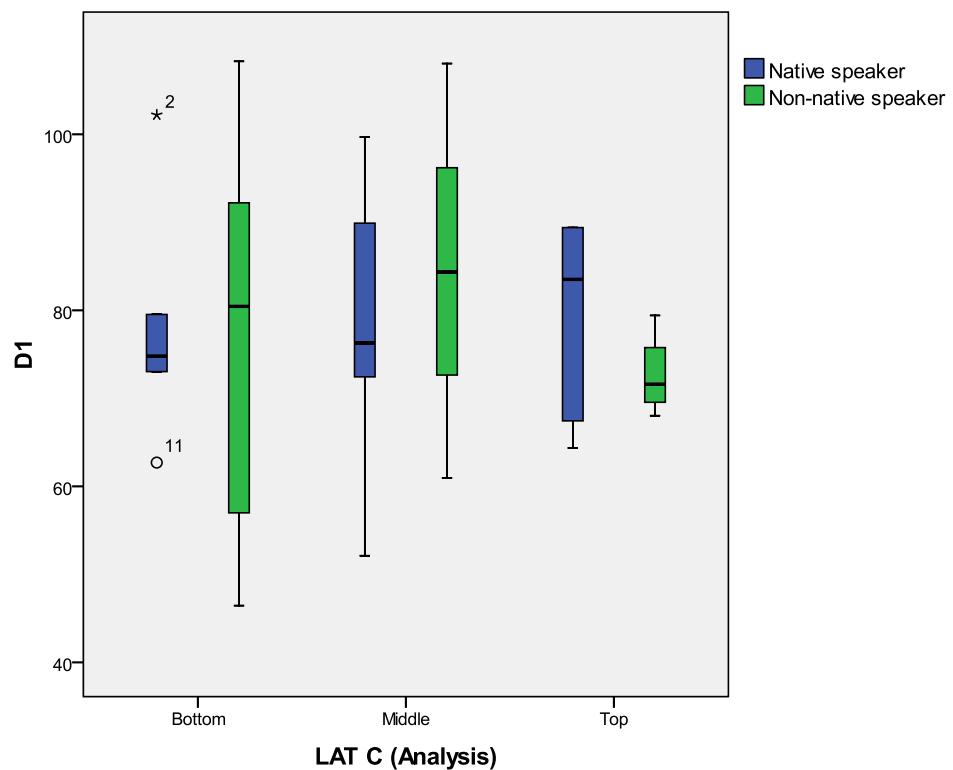


Figure 3: Lexical diversity (D1) across the Analysis groups

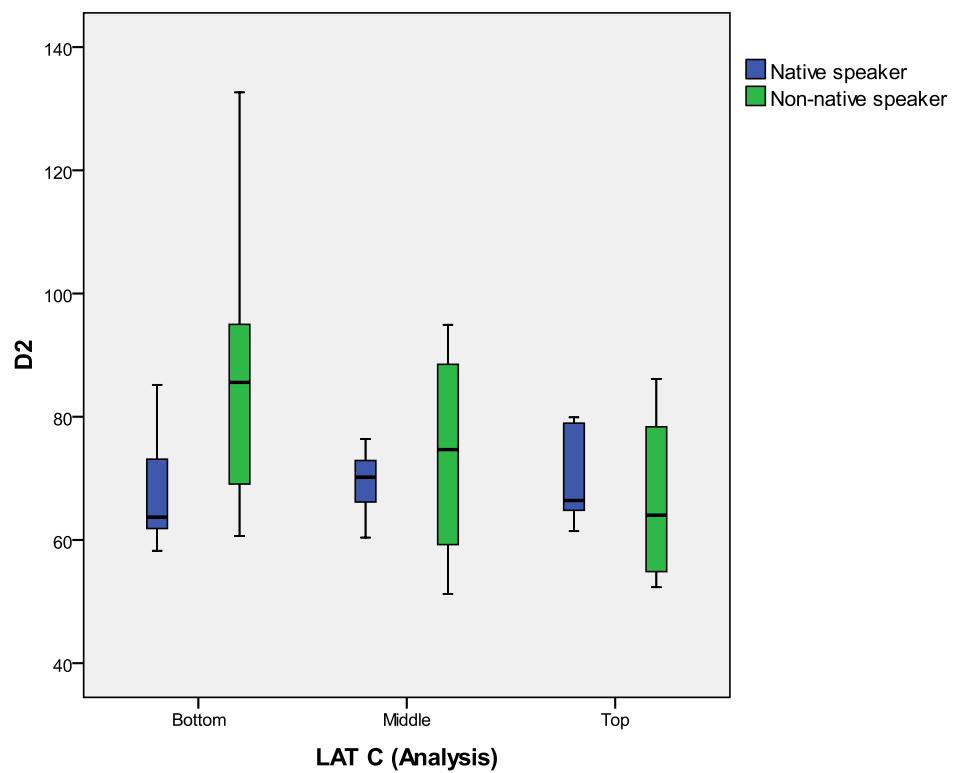


Figure 4: Lexical diversity (D2) across the Analysis groups

Mean diversity (D) of texts 1 & 2 across Memory & Analysis groups
Figure 5 shows that the participants' mean lexical diversity tends to be erratic from Text 1 to Text 2.

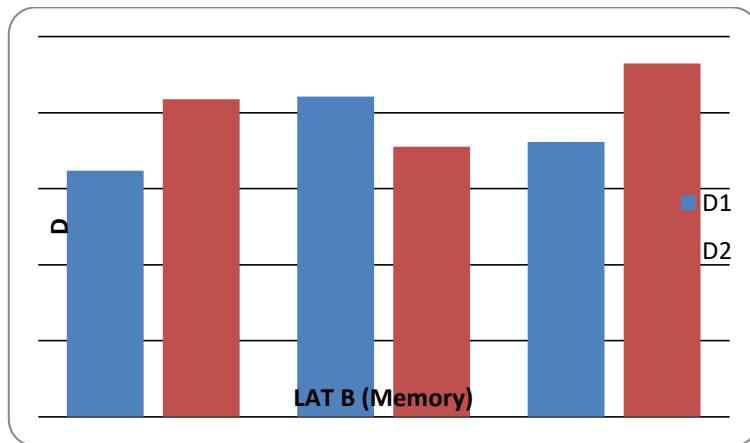


Figure 5: Mean diversity (D1 & 2) and LAT B (Memory)

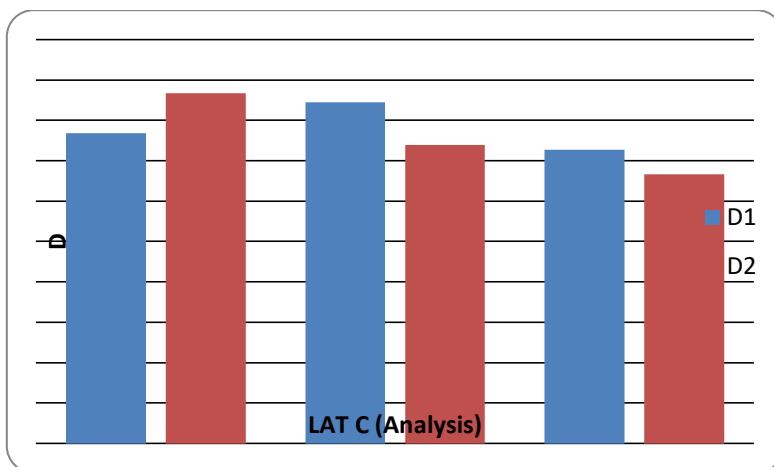


Figure 6: Mean diversity (D1 & 2) and LAT C (Analysis)

In Figure 6, we can see that beyond a certain threshold, the higher the Analysis, the lower the diversity. The middle and top Analysis groups both show a lower diversity for the second text compared to the first, whilst the bottom group does not.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to find any patterns of L1 and L2 lexical diversity profiles, grouped according to strengths and weaknesses in Memory and Analysis. Clear cut differences in levels of diversity between native and non-native speakers were not found. However, when the data was analysed in

terms of Memory and Analysis strengths, patterns in diversity (*D*) for L2 participants emerged. High Memory tends to be associated with unpredictable lexical diversity scores. High Analysis learners, on the other hand, are more stable in their *D* scores. Native speakers do not mirror this pattern. These results suggest that L2 diversity profiles are more variable than L1 profiles and this variability can be associated with learning style. It is possible that native speakers may over-learn lexis which could then cancel out any effects of learning style. Non-native speakers who have a predisposition to analyse language seem to be stable in their lexical diversity, whilst those who memorize lexis seem to be erratic in their patterns of lexical diversity.

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7 Computer-based and paper-based writing assessment: a comparative text analysis

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Background

Cambridge ESOL, a worldwide assessment agency, is involved in a programme of launching computer-based versions of many of its paper-based tests. It is important that the issues of comparability between administration modes continue to be explored to ensure that the tests remain a valid measure of language proficiency. This exploratory study focussed on the comparability of computer-based (CB) and paper-based (PB) writing assessment.

Russell and Tao (2004) describe two variables that may influence students' writing scores and thus comparability: mode of composition for students and mode of presentation for raters. If the mode of composition effect is decreased by giving the candidates the choice of mode in which to compose written assessments, the mode of presentation effect is increased. Studies have shown that there may be differences in the way that raters perceive typed and handwritten scripts, and that they may score them differently (Powers, Fowles, Farnum and Ramsey, 1994 and Russell and Tao, 2004). Examiner training and standardisation can help ensure that any presentation effects are minimised as far as possible. In order to train raters in the presentation effect and how to avoid it, we need to look at differences in appearance between the texts and how they arise.

The study builds on research from overall score and sub-element score comparability studies by focussing on the comparability of text and linguistic features in an assessment context. An informal letter writing task from live administrations of Cambridge ESOL's Preliminary English Test (PET) was used and the resulting scripts from paper-based and computer-based administrations collected. Two matched samples of texts were chosen and the following linguistic and text features analysed using Wordsmith Tools (Scott 1998), RANGE (Nation and Heatley 1996) and SPSS:

- Lexical resources: text length, standardised type-token ratio, lexical sophistication, comparison of wordlists generated from the texts and comparison of these to the PET word list
- Frequency of typos/spelling errors that do and do not impede comprehension
- Organisation in terms of sentences and paragraphs
- Surface features for example punctuation and capitalisation

Findings and discussion

This study revealed that outputs were similar in length; this is unsurprising as there is a word limit of 100 words. However there was evidence to suggest differences in the breadth of lexis used; the CB texts had a higher standardised type-token ratio. It could be hypothesised that in CB mode, when revision is easier, text could have been altered to avoid use of token repetition and hence achievement of a higher standardised type-token ratio. Analysis using the Range Programme also gave evidence of less token repetition for CB texts. Consistency analysis was used to show which words were common and unique to mode and the proportion of words shared. There were no types used extensively in one mode that were not used in the other and comparison of the fifty most frequently used types in each administration mode showed that only 6 words differed between the modes. When compared to the publicly available PET word list, vocabulary was found to be appropriate in both modes.

Both modes produced similar rates of errors; however the nature of the errors differed. Many of the CB errors could be attributed to typos, whereas for PB they were the results of illegible handwriting. In terms of organisation, it was found that the organisation in terms of sentences and paragraphs was different between the modes. However, when the results were looked at in more depth, it was found that some candidates used punctuation inaccurately, which affected the frequency statistics. For example, failure to use any full stops resulted in zero sentences.

There appeared to be few differences in surface features in texts produced via the two administration modes, with both showing problems with punctuation and capitalisation. This is possibly a reflection of the candidates' low proficiency. It was found that errors in punctuation were more noticeable in the CB scripts; the author found that it was easy to miss errors in the handwritten scripts. This is an issue for raters; training needs to incorporate

discussion of this fact and how to address it. This is especially important for studies using less experienced raters.

This study reveals that informal letter texts composed by hand or by computer under timed assessment conditions, do show some variation in certain linguistic and text features. This study should be considered a starting point from which to further explore text-level differences across writing modes, covering additional proficiency levels and writing genres. Other text features could also be analysed, for example structure, cohesion and larger lexical chunks. Study of the writing process using protocol studies would add insight into the composition process and perhaps shed light on why differences and similarities between the texts are found. There would also be value in exploring how the differences found effect the rating process.

The results from this study have a number of implications for teachers, testers and raters. For teachers, issues of capitalisation, punctuation and paragraphing can be highlighted. If teachers are made aware of areas in which candidates are having problems, then these can be addressed at classroom level. For language testers the differences found between the texts written in different modes can be built into rater training; both for the interpretation of mark schemes and for dealing with the presentation effect.

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8

Intercultural team teaching: a study of local and foreign EFL teachers in Taiwan

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In some non-English-speaking countries where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL), team teaching of English is becoming more and more popular. The birth of “EFL team teaching” can be seen as one of the by-products of economic and cultural globalisation and since its implementation demands recruitment of native English speakers to teach English as a foreign or second language to non-native English learners. “EFL team teaching” can also be seen a practice that fosters economic and cultural globalisation.

“EFL team teaching” generally refers to a teaching method conducted by a native speaker (NS) of English and a non-native speaker (NNS) of English, both of whom form a teacher team to teach EFL to learners whose native language is not English. Such a form of teaching was initiated in Japan in the late 1980s as a means to achieve ‘internationalisation’ (McConnell, 2000) and has become a popular teaching approach in EFL classrooms since then (Wada & Cominos, 1994). Soon it spread to other East Asian countries (Benoit & Haugh, 2001), where Taiwan is no exception. In 2001, a local city government in Taiwan implemented an EFL team teaching programme that recruits foreign English teachers (FETs) to teach English together with local English teachers (LETs) on a regular basis to primary school students in all grades, as a response to the new “Grades 1 to 9 Curriculum” that was implemented in the same year. However, many problems seemed to arise, such as poor communication and collaboration between teachers that resulted in ineffective lessons in the EFL classroom (Yen et al., 2003).

One of the motivations of my research project (Chen, 2009) was to explore the EFL team teaching phenomenon in Taiwan and to help EFL team teachers to identify possible causes of various issues. The study aimed at understanding ‘EFL team teaching’ from the insider’s perspective with a focus on teachers’ team teaching effectiveness, which was my primary research goal. My other motivation was to examine whether the notion of “intercultural team teaching”, a term used by Carless (2004), could be justified by empirical data, which was my working hypothesis of the study. With that in mind, I assumed that “intercultural competence” (IC) could be one of the factors that affected teachers’ team performance, which would

depend on whether the team teachers themselves saw IC as one of the factors that affected their team teaching. Therefore, my primary task was to obtain *emic* and rich data that were not imposed or led by the above conjecture.

To achieve my research goals, I adopted Spradley's (1979) "ethnographic interview" techniques to interview EFL team teachers in either of the two languages, my native language (Taiwanese Mandarin) or my foreign language (English), depending on the participant's choice. The interview data were recorded and transcribed verbatim in the two interview languages without translation to ensure data trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I also adopted Glaser's (1998) and Thomas' (2006) qualitative data analytic approaches to code my data. Moreover, I identified and discussed two methodological issues, that is, power relations between the interviewer and the interviewee (Winchitz, 2006; Chen, forthcoming) and how to conduct qualitative data analysis in more than one language (Chen, 2009).

After analyzing the LETs' and the FETs' conceptualisations of EFL team teaching, I identified five key factors that might affect their team effectiveness, namely, *Professional Capacity*, *Language Capacity*, *Team Capacity*, *Intercultural Capacity*, and *Situational/Relational Variable*. Based on these factors, I proposed a model called "intercultural team teaching capacity" (ITTC) (*ibid.*). It should be noted that the first four can be seen as trainable elements for the "individual", while the last concerns contextual situations and a relational/situational variable between "two or more people", which is something that may not be predictable and has never been identified in existing literature. The ITTC model can be summed up as follows:

$$ITT = f_1 (PC, LC, TC, IC) + f_2 (SRV), \text{ where}$$

PC = Professional Capacity

LC = Language Capacity

TC = Team Capacity

IC = Intercultural Capacity

SRV = Situational/Relational Variable

f₁ = function of one individual

f₂ = function of multiple individuals

This model not only identifies key factors of intercultural team teaching (ITT), including the intercultural element, but also justifies the notion and the terminology of ITT. The notion of ITT could replace other descriptive terms in literature, such as "co-teaching" and "team teaching", and make

evident the specific nature of the ITT phenomenon not captured by those terms. In addition, the ITTC model may challenge or complement existing theories. For instance, the ITTC distinguishes trainable factors from untrainable ones that a person may need in intercultural encounters, which is not included in Byram's (1997) "intercultural communicative competence" (ICC) model.

The ITTC model provides a useful conceptual framework that may contribute to the current research on team teaching in EFL classrooms, TESOL, ELT, multicultural team management and intercultural communication. The findings may also provide theoretical bases that allow EFL teacher trainers to work on ITT pedagogy and to improve existing pre-service teacher education and in-service EFL teacher training. Moreover, the key factors identified in the ITTC model may allow teachers involved in ITT to be aware of what one can or cannot do when seeking for ways to improve teamwork and reduce interpersonal issues efficiently. In view of this, the need for the team teaching programme managers in Taiwan to offer external support to current LETs and FETs is justified. Since more effective and informative in-service teacher training may enable future team teachers to be better equipped with the necessary capacities for ITT, the chances of poor inter-teacher communication or ineffective team teaching might be reduced, and the chances for successful team-taught lessons might increase, which could ultimately benefit the learners.

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9

Shifting perspectives and (re)positioning subjects: language learning and transcultural dialogue in electronic learning environments

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Within the context of a class on culture delivered in an innovative online learning environment, this paper examines the effectiveness of technology (e.g., webcams, videoconferencing, collaborative web-design) in fostering transcultural and language learning. By establishing an online community of inquiry (Garrison, Anderson & Archer 2000) – or electronic learning community (ELC) – the objective is to provide a framework within which learners can engage in a true, meaningful, transcultural dialogue. Rooted in sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne 2006), this class uses a socio-constructivist (Vygotsky 1978) approach to learning in which learners become active agents in their educational experience, in which cognition is a developmental process mediated by language, cultural artifacts, objects, concepts, and activities. This process is facilitated by the teacher, among others. By the same token, this class envisions culture learning as a trajectory, a “developmental and ongoing process, which engages the learner cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively” (Paige et al. 2000: 50). This approach is based on an intersubjective, dialogical, and negotiated conception of culture. Hall (1966) emphasizes a subjective component of culture in which culture is seen as communication, a web of significance or a system of interconnected signs, concepts, and symbols that warrant interpretation. Culture, thus, is viewed as discourse, a social semiotic practice (Kramsch 1998, 2002).

If culture mediates all human experience, learning a foreign culture also means learning one’s own culture (Hall 1966). Consequently, within the context of foreign language learning, the negotiation and construction of cultural meaning (i.e., culture learning) has to happen through the interweaving of the native and the target cultures. Culture learning has to go through the juxtaposition, comparison, and interaction between the culture of the learner (C1) and the foreign culture (C2) (Bakhtin 1981; Kramsch 2000). Kramsch further argues that C1 and C2 are themselves aggregated constructs of multi-faceted perceptions. These different perceptions have to be taken into account as they influence and shape each other; individuals shape culture as much as they are shaped by it. Thus, meaning is not within

the individual itself, but rather in the interplay between the self and the other. Consequently, understanding does not come from the individual's own observation and knowledge construction but through human interactions (Bandlamudi 1994; Bakhtin 1986; Kramsch 1993, 2000). Learning culture, then, entails a dynamic trajectory that necessarily starts with – and goes through – an introspective gesture of acknowledging and mobilizing one's own cultural background and identity.

In this telecollaborative project, learners learned French and American cultures and they also examined in-depth their own as well as their partners' cultural values, attitudes, beliefs, and perspectives. After an initial class-on-class videoconference during which the American students met and introduced themselves to their partners located at a French school, the classes were divided in groups of four learners (2 French – 2 American). The course subsequently proceeded with a mixture of weekly webcam group sessions and class discussions. During the first two webcam sessions, each group chose a cultural topic to investigate, usually something that puzzled them and that they wanted understand on a deeper level, a discovery process they pursued over the course of the semester (about 10 webcam sessions). To achieve these objectives, learners – turned (qualitative) researchers – had to design a research protocol using all instruments at their disposal (e.g., documents, archives, bibliographical sources), creating others (e.g., surveys, questionnaires, interviews), as well as writing reflective journals, thus engaging in a true cognitive apprenticeship in which they became more autonomous, self-reflective learners. At the end of the semester, all groups presented the results of their investigation to both classes in the form of a website and presentation.

The purpose of this case study was to examine the evolution of one learner in such an environment and to investigate issues of process and learning trajectory, focusing primarily on how she negotiated the following four elements:

1. Her own sense of identity
2. Her perspective on American culture
3. Her perspective on French culture
4. Her perspective on the relationship between French and American culture, more specifically, how she envisioned the possibility of a transcultural dialogue

Moyra was a 21-year old woman majoring in French, English, and theater. She started the course as an inveterate Francophile and was also politically engaged. Her American partner, Abby, majored in political science and their French partners, Philippe and Frédéric, were computer-science engineering students. The group's research project focused on the relationship between educational systems, elitism, and competitiveness. Analysis of the data (observations, journals, interviews), showed an initial difficulty to communicate due to the technological medium and Moyra's attitude toward technology, as well as her own relationship to language. She and her partners also clearly encountered linguistic and cultural barriers. Progressively, Moyra discovered her affinities with her French partners (vs. her American partner) and her reflections/interviews showed that communication became easier as her comfort level with the technology, her partners, and her/their language mistakes, increased. She also faced her own Americanness through introspection, self-questioning, and ultimately redefinition of her own identity. Throughout the semester, she took steps toward establishing her own transcultural stance and explicitly formulated her own definition of culture learning. Ultimately, Moyra reached a point where she thought about transcultural encounter in a more constructive way ("The beauty is in the trying, not the fear"), something of a mutual invitation, backed up by a much deeper knowledge of the culture(s), as well as a repositioning and understanding of her posture.

Examining Moyra's trajectory as part of a larger community (and triangulating it with other students' data) provided invaluable insights into issues of process and culture learning in ELC, especially as regards the way in which learners experienced the transcultural encounter and transitioned from a self-centered to an intersubjective perspective. As the ELC environment facilitated the dual gesture of introspection and opening necessary in culture learning, learners were able to question and (re)negotiate both their own cultural identities and their interlocutors' cultural identities, thus positioning themselves in a dynamic transcultural stance between these two identities/cultures.

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10

French comprehension and perception of English regional accents

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Introduction

The teaching of English in France has always been based on a standard model, usually Received Pronunciation (RP). Abercrombie (1956) suggests that RP is not necessarily the easiest accent to understand, particularly for foreigners. It is only recently that the notion and differences between regional varieties have started to be introduced into some French universities. The aim of this study is to contribute to the understanding of non native listener's perceptual comprehension of British regional accents. There is little research on how non-natives deal with variation as most studies deal with the perception of non-native speech by native speakers (Bradlow and Bent 2003). Although non-natives also have to cope with various types of variation, this kind of work is very limited. Nygaard & Queen (2002) have shown that accented speech is significantly less intelligible than speech produced by talkers from one's own dialect or accent group. One particularly important study has dealt with the comprehension and identification of regional native speech by native and non-native listeners (Hanson and Ikeno 2007). They found that certain accents are perceptually more confusable with each other. These accents are usually easier to understand compared to more distinguishable accents that can be harder to understand.

Experiments

We set up two different experiments and used the read passage of the IViE corpus (Intonational Variation in English) which includes a total of nine English varieties. The accents are Cambridge, which was taken as being the standard form, London (Jamaican bilinguals), Liverpool, Leeds, Bradford (Punjabi bilinguals), Cardiff (Welsh bilinguals), Newcastle, Belfast and Malahide. The subjects were 15 second year French students majoring in English. The first experiment aimed to measure the subjects' comprehension of the regional varieties. The subjects were asked to write down orthographically what they heard. They listened to a total of 27 sentences, three sentences per accent a maximum of four times each. But can non-

natives adapt to these regional varieties? The second experiment was based on the comprehension errors from the first test. The subjects saw a word appear on a computer screen and had to say if they had heard the word in the standard accent or in a regional accent, in both or in neither. Both tasks used the programme Perceval (a Computer Driven System for Experimentation on Auditory and Visual Perception).

Results and Discussion

The results for the first experiment (write what you hear) are given below in proportion of errors.

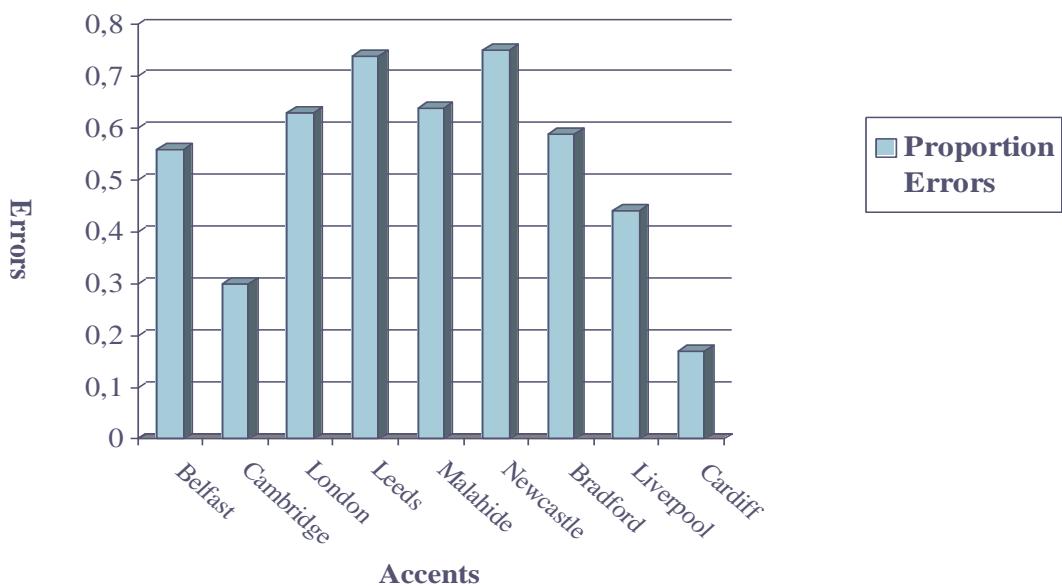


Figure 1: Proportion of errors by accent

The proportion of errors were the lowest in the Cardiff accent (0.17) followed by the Cambridge accent (0.3). Cambridge is the nearest to R.P. with which they should be the most familiar. Leeds and Newcastle had the highest proportions of errors with very little difference: 0.74, 0.75. In the Liverpool, Belfast, Bradford, London and Malahide accents errors varied from 0.44 (Liverpool) to 0.64 (Malahide). The word error analysis showed that the same misunderstandings occur with the majority of the subjects.

In the second experiment, the items presented in the standard (Cambridge) accent were better recognised compared to all of the regional accents: Standard: 0.78, Regional: 0.65. the results show that it is easier to say that

the word was heard in both utterances than in neither. The Cardiff and Liverpool accents got the highest correct scores, as was the case in the previous test.

The overall results would suggest that there is a difference in listening to one accent and trying to differentiate it from another accent. For example, Belfast got less errors in the comprehension test but did poorly when compared with the Cambridge accent. More research is needed to explain this phenomenon and to try to have a better understanding of the different processes of the perception and comprehension of regional accents in a second language.

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11 Technical vocabulary and collocational behaviour in a specialised corpus

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Introduction

For learners of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), where the focus is on language in context rather than on grammar or structure, the most serious difficulties are almost certainly lexical. Rapid vocabulary expansion, therefore, should be a major goal for such learners, but the question remains as to exactly what words they need to know.

Previous studies have had some success in producing specialised word lists which can help ESP learners reach satisfactory levels of reading comprehension (e.g., Ward 1999; Konstantakis 2007). My own research has led to the creation of a word list from a corpus of 100 pharmacology articles (360,000 running words), using frequency and range criteria (Fraser 2007). The most frequent 2,000 words in this list provide a respectable 90% coverage of the pharmacology corpus (it is generally accepted that 95% is the threshold for comfortable comprehension: see, e.g., Laufer 1989, 1992; Hirsh & Nation 1992). However, in each of these studies the focus has been on single words, with multiword expressions and frequently occurring collocations largely being ignored. With the advance of corpus linguistics there has been increasing awareness of the importance of multiword items (see, e.g., Gardner 2007) and the value of collocation in determining the technicality of a word (e.g., Ward 2007). The present paper is an attempt to address this issue.

Investigating the Collocational Behaviour of Technical Words

An examination of the words in the pharmacology list shows that surprisingly few of them can be considered to be strictly technical, and many more are potentially confusing polysemous “cryptotechnical” words (e.g., *control, expression, vehicle, block*) whose technical sense may not always be apparent. However, just because certain words have the potential to be used with a technical meaning, it does not necessarily follow that they *are* being used in that way.

To determine how cryptotechnical words behave in the pharmacology corpus, and whether they are indeed being used with their specialised meanings, their most frequent collocations were investigated. The vast majority (94%) were found to be used with specialised meanings, with many being used exclusively this way. Often, the technical meaning is closely related to the core general or academic sense (e.g., *delivery*, *regulation*, *release*, *distribution*, *resistant*, *stable*). However, the words are sometimes used with quite different meanings (*channel*, *bind*, *medium*, *vehicle*). Although the meaning in pharmacology is frequently an extension of general meaning, sometimes the technical sense is truly hidden (e.g., *medium*, *potential*). A few words are used equally with both general and specialised senses (e.g., *potential*, *order*, *significant*). Some words might be labelled “cryptoscientific”; these are words such as *mean* and *population* that are used in a wide range of scientific disciplines.

Concordance analyses show that many of the words are found in frequently occurring clusters. If a significant number of these combinations of words are compounds functioning in the same way as individual words, or are found to be highly specific to the field in a way that single words are not, we ignore them at our peril. To investigate this, the multiword items that occur with unusual frequency in a corpus of pharmacology research articles were identified and examined in some detail.

Identifying Multiword Items

Although much can be learned about the lexical characteristics of specialised texts using relatively small corpora, preliminary investigations with a 500,000-word corpus indicated that a larger corpus would be needed to throw up a sufficient number of potentially important multiword items. To this end, the WebBootCaT toolkit (Baroni & Bernadini 2004, software available at <http://www.sketchengine.co.uk/>) was used to create a 5-million-word corpus of pharmacology articles on the web. WebBootCaT works by using “seed words” selected by the compiler and sending permutations of these terms to the Yahoo! search engine, with the top ten hits for each query being taken. The seed terms used were words that my previous frequency lists had shown to be among the most important in pharmacology (e.g., *receptor*, *drug*, *antagonist*).

It was then possible to extract key multiword expressions by statistical comparison of the resulting corpus with a reference corpus. A “Top 100” list was compiled based on the frequency and saliency of the items, the first fifty of which are shown in decreasing order of frequency in Table 1.

1	et al	16,341	18	cell death	829	35	muscle cell	531
2	such as	2,119	19	plasma membrane	795	36	calcium channel	530
3	in vivo	1,693	20	in response to	794	37	in the absence of	511
4	protein kinase	1,660	21	cardiac myocytes	764	38	skeletal muscle	510
5	action potential	1,655	22	amino acid	763	39	adrenergic receptor	471
6	in vitro	1,644	23	cell culture	744	40	protein synthesis	452
7	growth factor	1,274	24	nitric oxide	734	41	tyrosine kinase	439
8	as well as	1,217	25	synaptic transmission	706	42	these findings	416
9	fatty acid	1,184	26	spinal cord	653	43	blood pressure	391
10	membrane potential	1,181	27	signal pathway	627	44	glutamate receptor	390
11	in the presence of	1,120	28	smooth muscle	612	45	inhibitory effect	384
12	heart failure	930	29	has been shown to	608	46	nerve terminal	379
13	nervous system	909	30	motor neuron	584	47	binding protein	371
14	endothelial cell	905	31	potassium channel	574	48	guinea pig	363
15	in contrast	880	32	term potentiation	563	49	these studies	356
16	T cell	867	33	ion channel	548	50	we find	352
17	for example	830	34	gene expression	545			

Table 1: Key multiword items in 5 million-word BootCaT corpus

Characteristics of multiword items

The length of the most frequently occurring multiword items was investigated and, as Figure 1 shows, fewer than 20% of these were found to

consist of more than two words. There are approximately equal numbers of “fixed terms” and “co-occurring word patterns”. Fixed terms function as single-word units, cannot be split, and have a meaning that may not be discernible even if the words making up the unit are known (see Table 2). Co-occurring word patterns are those frequently occurring collocations which are not fixed (e.g., *protein synthesis* can be rephrased as *synthesis of protein*). There is also a sizeable proportion (25%) of multiword expressions that can be considered to have a role in structuring the discourse of the text (see Table 3). Almost all of the three- or four-word items belong to this category.

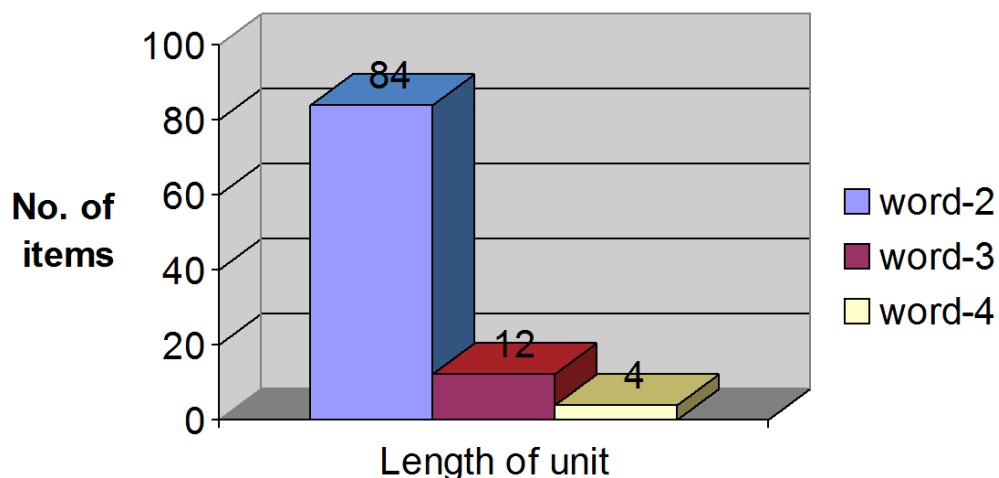


Figure 1: Length of Top 100 Multiword Items

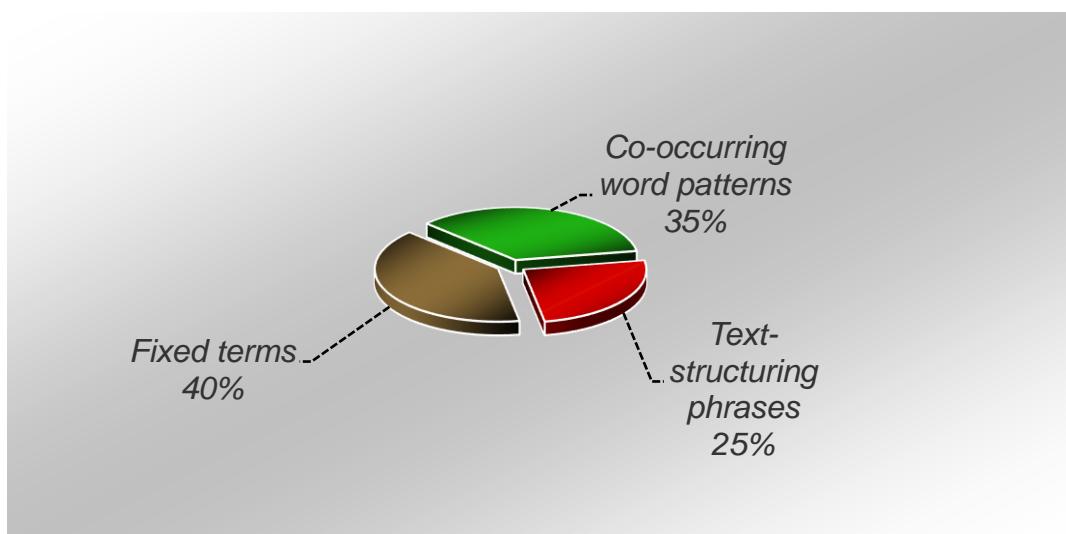


Figure 2: Types of Multiword Item

action potential	in vivo
amino acid	mast cell
blood pressure	membrane potential
central nervous system	monoclonal antibody
clinical trial	myocardial infarction
coronary artery	neuromuscular junction
endothelial cell	protein kinase
et al	pyramidal neuron
fatty acid	sarcoplasmic reticulum
free radical	sensory neuron
growth factor	side effect
guinea pig	spinal cord
heart failure	skeletal muscle
in vitro	smooth muscle

Table 2: Key multiword terms (technical)

as a result	no effect on
as well as	on the other hand
for example	play a role
has been shown to	previous studies
has no effect	results suggest that
important role	such as
in contrast	the fact that
in the absence of	these findings
in the presence of	these studies
in this study	we find that

Table 3: Key text-structuring collocations (sub-technical)

Conclusion

WebBootCaT has proved to be an extremely valuable tool in the creation of a large specialised corpus, and the advantages of using a larger corpus have been clearly demonstrated with regard to multiword expressions. Potentially useful items (terms and text-structuring sequences) were extracted from the 5-million-word corpus, many of which would not be picked up in a small corpus due to their relatively low overall frequency of occurrence. Important information has also been provided on the collocational environment of single-word terms. Lists that offer collocational information may be of more “productive” use for ESP learners than traditional single item word lists (i.e., of use in academic writing as well as reading classes).

Future investigations into the creation of word lists might expand and refine the Top 100 list of multiword items, as there are many potentially useful items bubbling under the 100. It is also necessary to ensure that the list contains items with a wide range across pharmacology articles, and to determine the most suitable cut-off frequency and range values. Questions we can now no longer avoid include the problem of how exactly “word” should be defined; indeed we should now ask ourselves whether the concept of “word family” is a useful one for our purposes. We also need to determine how multiword items can best be integrated into a single list of words for use in the ESP classroom.

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12

Transnational contexts for sojourner English language learners in schools

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International students have been classified as sojourners, or as visitors whose migration has been voluntary, and temporary in that they plan to return home, and whose acculturation is therefore relatively stress free (Berry et al 1987) and unproblematic for host communities and sojourners alike. These optimum migration conditions do not necessarily extend to their children, who have not usually chosen to attend school in the UK, and for whom a year away from familiar school, extended family, and friends who speak the same language may feel like eternity.

Here we explore features of the transnational contexts these children experience (cf Warriner 2007 *et al*), specifically how children are positioned and thus can learn in school, through a focus on two families, each with four children. Different experiences may be attributable to age and English proficiency on arrival (e.g. Cummins 2000), but also reveal the influences of contextual features on learning.

Children arrive in schools today in the context of government policy and guidance that promotes the welcoming of new arrivals, and opportunities for using the home language in schooling as illustrated by these abridged extracts from the DCSF guidance (2007: 10-11) with numbers 1-7 added:

New Arrivals Excellence Programme Guidance

1. “All new arrivals including refugees, asylum seekers and economic migrants from overseas have the right to enjoy a welcoming, safe and stress-free environment...
2. They need to know that they are valued and... belong even if their stay in your school is short.
3. They need... their bilingualism... recognised as a positive...[in] their intellectual development
4. They need opportunities to use their home language to support their learning... of English.

5. It is important that they are made to feel part of the normal lessons and learning environment as soon as possible in order not to experience marginalisation and exclusion.
6. All new arrivals must be given learning opportunities that are accessible, relevant and purposeful within the context of the National Curriculum.
7. New arrivals need to be able to see themselves, their languages, culture and identity reflected not only in the classrooms but also in the wider school and through an inclusive curriculum.”

We ask ‘How do parents with four children report their diverse experiences in schools?’ and ‘What can we infer about how well schools are meeting the new arrivals guidance?’ with a focus here not on transnational families, translocal affiliations, or translingual practices, but on transcultural capital especially English language and transcultural identities especially their relationships, positioning, and participation.

The data here is from interviews from the beginning and end of the first year in the UK. In the family from Mexico, the father is a student, the mother homemaker, and the four children, aged 15, 13, 8 and 4, all had some English on arrival. All attended urban state schools with large white British majority populations.

In the family from Gaza, the mother is a student, the father is a homemaker who soon took up part time employment, and the four children, aged 10, 7, 6 and 4, had no English on arrival. They all attended an urban state primary school with many other ‘international’ children. They were very reassured by initial meetings with teachers and head teacher who said that “within 6 months your children will speak very fluent English.” While the parents did not believe it at the time, they acknowledged later that it was an accurate prediction. These two families allow us to see variation within schools, and comparisons that parents are able to draw across the different experiences of their children.

In both families the oldest child was the least integrated. The Mexican boy had learnt some English in Mexico but did not like it; his parents described him as ‘absolutely disconnected’. This was not helped by his being placed in the year below his age group, where he was unwilling to use English at school or to rehearse English with his parents at home. The oldest Palestinian girl also settled in least. She relied heavily on Arabic, having been given an

Arabic speaking buddy initially, and stayed close to other Arabic speaking children.

The second child in both families had significantly different experiences from the first day. On the first day, the 13 year old Mexican boy reported that he had made friends with British boys who had asked him about his watch and its functions. The teacher reported that he was very popular, keen to discover new things, and usually surrounded by friends.

Similarly, the second girl in the Palestinian family, aged 8, was extrovert, a strong character, who made friends easily with English and Arabic speakers. She spoke fluent English in 6 months, and was engaged, involved and happy at school.

The third child in both families was perceived as needing more support. The 8 year old Mexican girl was very dependent on other students, and shy to ask the teacher if she did not understand. By the end of the year a possible hearing difficulty had been identified. Similarly, the 7 year old Palestinian girl communicated through pictures at first, but found English very difficult, which the parents thought might be because she had not been to school before, and was not literate in Arabic.

The youngest children, both four year olds, were easily integrated into reception classes, where many children were starting school and where learning was based in play. They therefore received extensive support in settling in, and the least demands in terms of educational expectations, particularly language based expectations. By the end of the year both were very happily settled, and fluent in conversational English.

To conclude, the children's experience and success in learning English and in English followed the predictions of Cummins' earlier work. Perhaps the current policies do not go far enough for these children. The oldest two and the second youngest two would have benefitted from more education in their first language; both schools, we would argue, failed to meet the guidance in paragraphs 3, 4, 5, 6 or 7.

A longer version of this paper is available from the authors.

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13

Semantic and grammatical interference effects in sentence production

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Introduction

The effects of contextual variables on language production have mostly been explored using picture-word interference studies. Their results suggest that the interference effect of semantic context is confined to category coordinates (Kroll & Stewart 1994; Damian & Als 2005, etc.). Recently, however, the effect referred to as semantic interference has been shown to be irrelevant to the general property of lexical retrieval mechanism (Finkbeiner & Caramazza 2006; Mahon & Caramazza 2009). On this view, the ‘normal’ effect of semantic context on correct lexical selection events should be facilitatory (Mahon & Caramazza 2009).

Likewise, experimental studies of grammatical priming have led to the conclusion that grammatical features of a distractor word such as gender and number have no inhibitory effect on the selection of the grammatical features of a target word (Schiller & Caramazza 2002; Costa *et al.* 2003; Bordag & Pechmann 2008).

This paper approaches the controversial issue of the interference effects of semantic and grammatical context through an analysis of naturally occurring Russian speech errors (‘slips of the tongue’). Unlike the existing experimental studies that use picture-word interference paradigms to explore the effects of contextual variables on sentence production, evidence from speech errors suggests that both semantic interference and grammatical feature interference are major effects implicit to language production mechanism.

Semantic interference

To explore the interference effect of semantic context, 152 examples of contextual semantic substitutions (cases of lexical retrieval failure when a word semantically related to a distractor word from the current utterance is

substituted for the target word) were analyzed both in terms of word association norms and in terms of co-occurrence frequency of the word pairs involved in contextual semantic substitutions.

Šel **utrom**, naverno, *snežok* nebol'šoj
Was **morning:INS** probably *snow* light (adj)

Šel **zimoj**, naverno, *snežok* nebol'šoj
Was **winter:INS** probably *snow* light (adj)

It must have been snowing lightly in the morning / in the winter

To test the hypothesis that contextual semantic substitution errors and verbal associations represent the same kind of lexical relationship, the distractor-target and distractor-error pairs were compared to word association norms from Russian Word Association Thesaurus (a distractor word was regarded as a stimulus and the target and the substitute words, as its associative responses).

Paired t-tests comparing the response frequencies of the target and the substitute reveal that the frequencies tend to be significantly higher for the error words ($t(144) = 4.12, p < .001$).

For each distractor-target and distractor-error word pair, the strength of co-occurrence of the two words in the Russian National Corpus was estimated using Mutual information (MI) and T-test (see Stubbs 1995). Fisher's test shows that the co-occurrence strength of distractor-error pairs is significantly higher than that of distractor-target pairs ($p < .05$).

The comparison with the rates of co-occurrence and with word association norms suggests that contextual semantic substitutions reflect associative rather than semantic relationships between words. Even when the distractor and the error are semantically related, they are also associatively related and (with the likely exception of synonyms) tend to co-occur frequently in speech and texts. Besides, the interference effect is not confined to category coordinates and seems to reflect a general property of lexical retrieval mechanism in natural language production.

Grammatical interference

Once a lexical node is selected, there is another process responsible for the selection of the word's grammatical features. An analysis of 154 contextual substitutions of a grammatical feature such as case, number, gender and person, resulting from the interference of a grammatical feature of an "interloper" (a distractor word form from the current sentence, either preceding or following the target word), reveals that a word's grammatical feature can be overwritten by the similar feature of a distractor word within the current utterance.

Im by **menja** v pomošč
they:3PL.DAT would 1SG.GEN in help

Im by **mne** v pomošč
they:3PL.DAT would 1SG.DAT in help

I wish I were there to help them

(The target genitive case form of the pronoun 'I', *menja*, is replaced by the dative case form *mne* due to the interference of the dative case form *im* of the pronoun 'they').

Speech error data suggest that the selection of grammatical features is generally a competitive process and that grammatical features, like lexical nodes, can spread activation to other words within the current sentence (see spreading activation theories of semantic memory, e.g. Collins & Loftus 1975; Dell 1986).

This conclusion runs counter to most theories of lexical retrieval, which claim that although the selection of lexical nodes may be competitive, the selection of their grammatical properties is an automatic consequence of lexical selection (Caramazza *et al.* 2001; Schiller & Caramazza 2002; Costa *et al.* 2003). Contrary to this view and in line with Schriefers (1993), evidence from Russian speech errors points to competitive nature of grammatical feature selection. Moreover, unlike picture-word interference studies which focus on the interference effect exerted by the gender or number feature of a distractor word, contextual grammatical feature substitutions show that the list of interfering grammatical features is not confined to gender and number.

Conclusion

In conclusion, unlike the experimental studies of semantic and grammatical priming, Russian speech error data suggest pervasive within-speaker interference of both word meanings and grammatical features throughout the sentence production process. The interference effects can be accommodated by assuming that while a lemma activates its associative field, a lexeme seems to activate a field of its grammatical features, spreading activation to other words within the current sentence.

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14 Multilingual students' attitudes towards, and practices in, language learning in the context of language policy in UK

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Introduction

The aim of this study has been to explore language attitudes towards, and practices, in language learning among teenage multilingual immigrant students in England, who are competent in a number of linguistic varieties. The study was carried out in the context of an EU funded research network, Languages in a Network of European Excellence (LINEE). (www.linee.info)

Our main areas of research included:

- Language use, within and beyond the school domain
- The impact of social networks, such as friendship groups, on language learning
- Role of prior knowledge and strategies in language learning
- Multilingual student attitudes towards their own and other languages
- The role of institutional language policy in promoting or discouraging students' multilingualism

Theoretical background

The study referred to three areas of theory:

1. Milroy's (1980) social network theory, whereby close social ties (e.g. within the family) are supposed to foster language maintenance and withstand pressure from outside, while open networks facilitate language shift.
2. The claim that learners' prior metalinguistic awareness (L1 plus L2) plays a role in the development of individual multilingualism (Jessner 2006, 2008).

3. Recent analysis of policy for education for migrants, which has shown that the most urgent concern of mainstream teachers is to ensure children acquire the dominant language (Edwards 2004), and that the potential inherent in multilingualism as a resource for learning is not valued in mainstream education (Mondada and Gajo 2001).

Methodology

The researchers carried out visits to two different education institutions catering for 11-16 year-old students (school) and students aged 16+ (college). Data was collected by means of:

- 1) Observations of multilingual students in several classes
 - 2) Focus group and individual interviews with multilingual students
 - 3) Questionnaires completed by students in the 16+ institution (multilinguals and others)
- Most of the participating multilingual students were first generation immigrants.

Findings

Reports of language use at home indicated that multilingual students use home language with parents (often alongside a second language learnt in another country before arriving in UK), home language with grandparents, and home language plus English with siblings.

At school it was found that multilingual students tended to sit next to other multilingual students or students who speak the same language, and bonded with other multilingual students rather than with monolingual students. They speak English as a common language with a sprinkling of other languages. They are interested in understanding/learning the languages their multilingual friends speak.

Strategies to learn languages include use of family member or friend, use of L2 or L1 websites, and dictionaries. Some students claimed to recognise the similarities in form and lexicon between languages and used this information to assist their learning. Many students claimed to find learning languages easy if they are similar to those they know. On the other hand, students with

Asian-based languages claimed Romance languages were 'difficult' as they are too dissimilar.

Multilingual students claim to value the fact that they speak more than one language. However, all of them see English as important and many younger multilinguals claimed not to enjoy learning languages other than English. The older students equate learning English with success later on. Some claim that speaking English helps them make more friends. At the same time having other students in the class who speak the same language is helpful because they can support each other.

Some are concerned they may lose their home or second language if there is no opportunity, or they are not allowed, to speak them at school. For example some students only speak their home language with a parent or grandparent. Some report the use of the media to help them maintain their language – a substitute for social networking – if there are only a few people around to speak their home language with. In some cases, however, the students' own parents believe the home language is not worth maintaining in the new setting, and most parents actively encourage their offspring to learn English.

There is no explicit policy for multilingualism in either institution studied. English is the de facto dominant language of communication, teaching and learning, with other languages at the margins. It was found that pupils at the school are not always allowed to sit with multilingual friends and students' multilingualism is sometimes discouraged with pupils being rebuked for using their home languages. Although at college, students' multilingualism is acknowledged and tolerated, the main aim of teachers here too is to develop students' skills in English.

Conclusions

Our data partly confirm the claim (Milroy 1980) that social networks play a part in the maintenance of the home language, but only if that language is widely spoken in both home and school. Most students feel closest to their home language but are only able to use it with a parent or other family member/s (i.e. networks are weak). Open networks, such as those typical in educational settings, facilitate language shift. English is often the lingua franca between siblings at home as well as between multilingual groups at school, and they embrace English as part of their identity and as a means to progress. At the same time students make some efforts to maintain their

personal multilingualism, which gives them an identity and is a means of contact and friendship with other multilinguals in their peer group, despite the fact that this peer group uses mainly English. Our data suggest then that, although multilingualism has positive value for individuals, the use of English is considered as high status and positive linguistic capital.

Our data confirm Edwards' (2004) findings that the main aim of schools is to immerse students in the dominant language, which reinforces the status of English. Schools do little to foster the strategies that multilingual students use for learning languages. However, our data also confirm that these students' metalinguistic knowledge of two or more languages may assist with the learning of other languages, as claimed in e.g. Jessner's work.

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15

Craft and context: understanding language teaching

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This paper sets out a craft view of language teaching as a way of understanding classroom practice, informing language pedagogy policies and facilitating ongoing learning by experienced teachers. Our analysis is based on data from a practice-based, continuing professional development (CPD) and research project⁵ in the UK ESOL context. Teachers working with researchers and CPD trainers identified and analysed episodes from their own classrooms. Then, in collaborative workshops, buddy groups and individual interviews, they explored the factors which shaped these classroom episodes.

The craft has five overlapping and interdependent components which reflect both the complexity and the intuitive nature of teaching. It has major cognitive and social dimensions, and provides a basis for teachers to understand their practice, and identify directions for personal and professional growth. It illustrates how teachers over time accumulate knowledge of language, language learning, and curriculum issues and use these to manage the social space of the classroom. It draws on the work of Sennett (2008) and Wenger (1998) to analyse teaching as situated, continuing, purposeful learning which shapes a professional identity. The five components we are currently working with, illustrated by extracts from teacher interviews are as follows:

Analytic, cognitive activity (ACA)

Analytic, cognitive activity, evident in planning, and particularly in interactive decision-making in the classroom. This aspect of the teacher's work is about remembering and connecting, so that the classroom works as a learning and social space for all students.

⁵ The research study – Integrating Systematic Investigating into the Teaching of English (InSITE) – was funded by the Annual Research Grant Award (ARGA) of the University of Bristol, and the Centre for British Teachers (CfBT)

Most thought about my lessons probably occurs in class as the lesson unfolds. I may spend very little time planning beforehand or reflecting afterwards, but while I am teaching, I will be constantly questioning the best way to proceed in order to create the best learning opportunities for the group; be this in consideration of social or pedagogical factors, or both.

You can't programme a computer to do that kind of interaction but yet when it happens it's kind of patterned [...] the way these aspects of interaction are fitted together to more or less meet the requirement of every situation.

Learning awareness (LA)

Learning awareness, evident in decisions about language as learning data, and analysis of students' needs, and the potential of materials and tasks. Whereas the learning awareness of novice teachers draws on received knowledge, experienced teachers use accumulated insights to identify opportunities and predict difficulties.

[...] you might have a prepared example but if that doesn't work then you often feel like that's still not quite satisfactory and that learning is not really taking place and there's a lot of compliance, people are just nodding but really they haven't got it yet.

I don't really use a lesson plan. I have an idea of what I want to do, and then you bring the stuff out of them, and by the end I want to know how they're going to use it.

Social, affective and cultural factors (SAC)

Social, affective and cultural factors, reflecting the respect and mutuality which characterise the classroom as a social space. This component is evident in the ways teachers make use of real interpersonal communication in the classroom, and give feedback which has the potential to sustain motivation and learning.

In my opinion, good teaching depends upon the culmination of many things, [...] vitally, respect for learners. [...] Personality

must surely play a part, but more important than this is the internal philosophical and moral fibre of the teacher. I do not believe that caring, and empathy, can be taught.

[...] CPD stretching back over the years [...] If there is one underlying constant, it is to foster an atmosphere of openness and joint enterprise, where students know I am there to support them.

Classroom continuity (CC)

Classroom continuity, evident in ways teachers build on shared history in the classroom and maximise links across lessons through planned re-cycling and impromptu connections in the classroom discourse.

[...] What I actually said was that you cannot use the words 'like for like' using my hands to demonstrate this expression. The student sitting next to this girl, just the week before, had asked what expression he could use in a particular situation. The expression that I offered him was 'like for like', so as I used the expression in my explanation of the use of synonyms, I turned to him as I was speaking to check he remembered the phrase—he smiled and acknowledged that yes he had remembered.

An example recently [...] she came in with attitude [...] she sat in the corner [...] she put on her earphones. I asked her [...] I talked to her [...] I went through the paper with her [...]. This week she came in on time, smiling. [...] she said: 'I'm sorry....

Curriculum policy context (CPC)

Curriculum policy context, evident in the ways the teacher integrates the set curriculum, such as the required materials, syllabus and examinations. Experienced teachers work with such requirements, integrating them into their preferred lesson shapes and activities.

[...] it became much more formal, and ILPs - Individual Learning Plans and the ESOL curriculum [...] you just became much more accountable in what you were doing

I like the rigour offered by essay writing, revision and exams.

This analysis provides for Applied Linguistics a way of conceptualising teaching as professional practice rather than as application of language learning theories or delivery of pre-packaged programmes. In addition to contributing to CPD goals, such as the development of sponsored and independent professionalism (Leung 2009) guiding language classroom research which is relevant to practice and to teachers, the craft perspective facilitates understanding of the ways aesthetics, investments and historicity shape classrooms, and thus guides innovation and development in language classrooms.

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16 Request strategies and internal modifications in Japanese learners of English

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Introduction

This paper reports request realization strategy in Japanese learners of English as compared to British English and Japanese speakers. Although request realization strategy is one of well-researched speech acts in cross-cultural pragmatic studies (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper 1989; Fukushima 1996; Takahashi 1996), with the exception of Faerch & Kasper (1989), few studies have explored request strategies with the use of internal modifications which can be regarded as politeness strategies. This paper aims at reporting more detailed request realization strategy focusing on the use of internal modifications.

Method

A discourse completion task (DCT) was designed to elicit data from forty-six graduate students: sixteen British English speakers (BEs), thirteen Japanese learners of English (JEs) and seventeen Japanese speakers (JJs). The DCT consisted of four situations which differed in the rank imposition of a request (low and high) and the relative power between interlocutors (equal-status and hearer-dominance). The analytical framework of the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) framework (Blum-Kulka *et al.* 1989) was adopted, but slightly adjusted for analytical purposes. Three major types of request strategies: direct (e.g. *Open the window*), conventional indirect (CI) (e.g. *Can you open the window?*) and non-conventional indirect (e.g. *It's hot in here!*) and two types of internal modifications (IMs): syntactic (e.g. tense: *was, could*, aspect: *be -ing*) and lexical/phrasal downgraders (e.g. subjectivizer: *I wonder*, downtoner: *possibly*) were involved in the design. Research questions exploring differences in the use of request strategies and IMs among the three language groups (LGs) were set for quantitative and qualitative analyses.

Results and Discussion

Results from the analysis of strategy types show that CIs are most frequently used by the LGs and in a similar proportion (BEs 90.6%, JEs 84.6%, and JJs 85.3 % in overall situations). This suggests, at a glance, that there is no considerable difference in the use of CIs among the LGs. However, it should be noted that classifying individual utterances into categories conceals differences that are particularly noticeable in the use of IMs as shown in the examples below. (Note: All the examples belong to the CI type, specifically subcategorized as a hedged performative in the CCSARP framework. In the hedged performative, the performative verb is either modified by a modal verb or a verb that expresses intention.)

BE: I was wondering if I could possibly ask you about changing my appointment time with you for tomorrow. (Sit4_BE_SUB2)

JE: I came here to ask you to reschedule the appointment. (Sit4_JE_SUB2)

JJ: 訂正のお願いに伺いました。 (Sit3_JJ_SUB5)

*teisei-no o-negai-ni ukagai-mashi-ta
correction-particle humble honorific-ask -particle come-humble
honorific-polite form-past
(I) came (here) to ask (you) to correct (the mark).*

Quantitative and qualitative differences are observed in the above examples. Firstly, more IM types are employed by BEs than JEs and JJs. Specifically, the BEs employ four types of IMs to modify the performative verb *ask*, namely, subjectivizer (*I wonder*), tense (*was/could*), aspect (*be -ing*) and downtoner (*possibly*). In contrast, the JJs employ only tense (*came*) as the IM. Among the JJs, no IM is employed as the past tense does not function as an IM in Japanese. In fact, the use of tense is the single most frequent IM in JEs (30.8%), whilst BEs show a frequent use of tense (39.1%) and a combination of IMs (34.4%). This suggests that JEs are less elaborated in the use of IMs as compared to BEs.

Secondly, results suggest a qualitative difference in the choice of verb to modify the performative verb. Although BEs do not show the use of such a verb in the present study, the common verb used is *want* (e.g. *I want to ask ...*). Yet in the JE and JJ examples, the verb *come* is employed. In fact, this form is conventionally used as a request form in Japanese. This suggests that the choice of verb by the JEs is due to pragmatic transfer. However, this raises the question as to whether tense in JE is employed as an IM. Since past

tense is not used as an IM in Japanese, the tense identified in the JEs may be merely a literal translation of Japanese and not an IM.

Moreover, it should be noted that JJs show an elaborated use of honorifics which does not fit into the CCSARP framework. Specifically, in the example, the performative verb itself is modified with a humble honorific (*o-negai*), and the verb *came* expressing the speaker's intention is modified with another humble honorific (*ukaga-u*) and polite form (*masu*). Though the use of honorifics has been under-represented in previous studies (Fukushima 1996), it is necessary to include this form in the analysis in order to properly describe detailed cross-linguistic differences.

Conclusion

This study reveals detailed differences in the use of IMs among the LGs. In particular, a limited use of IMs and pragmatic transfer are observed among JEs and JJs show an elaborated use of honorifics. It is postulated that if the limited use of IMs has posed communication problems for learners, offering various IMs in teaching materials can help them to achieve their requestive goal which in turn enhances their pragmatic competence. Owing to the limitation of space, the discussion only focuses on a few examples. It is hoped that this paper can illuminate the detailed differences in the use of IMs and honorifics which have tended to be overlooked in analyses using the CCSARP framework.

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Informal language learning contexts: multilingualism in a family

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Research on multilingualism has mostly focussed either on *individual* (e.g. bilingual language acquisition) or *societal* issues (e.g. bilingual education, linguistic rights). To overcome this split, we chose family as a research focus. Our aim was to explore family as a system with *family-internal and family-external connections* in which linguistic resources, that is, different languages, provide different affordances and carry different meanings and ideologies. Since informal learning contexts have largely been neglected in studies in both SLA and multilingualism, we wanted in particular to investigate these. Further, we wished to examine the potential of multimodal means in data collection.

Our conceptualization of language draws on Bakhtinian notion of heteroglossia, a concept that is generally used to characterise the diversity of usages in language communities. Hence, the linguistic resources that are afforded to people are seen as heteroglossic, but also, culturally and historically conditioned, carrying ideologies and values. Further, we argue that also personal repertoires of language users are heteroglossic, or 'multilingual' in that they vary by context and situation. Which resources are chosen in a given situation and used is a complex interplay between historical, cultural and social constraints and situational affordances.

In order to study language users' own perception of their linguistics choices and their repertoires, we have interviewed multilingual families living in a fairly monolingual environment in central Finland. In this paper we concentrate on a family of five, parents and three children aged 4-10. While the mother speaks Finnish as her mother tongue, the father's native language is English. More occasionally, also other languages are used. The data was gathered with the help of a visual activity in which family members were given a picture of a clock where they were supposed to mark down how they used different languages during one day. The task was followed by an interview. The interview was carried out by two interviewers of which one spoke Finnish as her mother tongue and the other English, both being fluent in the two languages.

In the study, we explored the functions of different languages in a multilingual family, and also how language users themselves saw the relationship between the different languages and their own language use in different contexts. The analysis of the data suggests that language resources are indeed situated and position the language users in particular ways. In the family-external relationships, English was considered an insufficient resource in dealing with the local authorities, while it was a valued resource in media environments, such as television or computer games. Finnish, in turn, was needed particularly for institutionalized communication (at schools, in the workplace, at nursery). Within the family, the two languages seemed to have rather fixed roles and values: Finnish was used when communicating with the mother and also with friends in the Finnish-speaking environment while English was used with father and in ‘family meetings’.

The multimodal ways of data gathering proved to be useful (see also Pietikäinen *et al.* 2008). The visual clock activity allowed all family members’ voices to be heard, and seemed to help both children and adults in depicting their daily language use. Also, the activity had a tuning-in effect: it helped the participants to reflect upon the topic and express their views on the significance of multilingualism in the interview that followed.

To sum up, the results highlight the variability in the use of different linguistic resources but they also show that the family members saw multilingualism as an important asset that helps to understand other people’s perspectives. Finally, choosing family with its family-internal and family-external systemic relationships as a research focus seemed to yield important information that helps to connect the social and individual aspects of multilingualism.

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Second language learners and real-life contexts of writing

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Formulaic sequences are significant in vocabulary acquisition and use. In writing various content phrases and metatextual expressions are important in creating a coherent and cohesive text. There are quite a few studies on phrasal expressions and second language acquisition (SLA), but connected to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) phrase are understudied. In this paper, we wanted to see how phrases in two typologically different languages, Finnish and English, appear in learner texts.

The data were collected as part of the CEFLING project that examines how L2 proficiency develops across CEFR levels. The participants were 12-15-year-old students who studied either English as a foreign language or Finnish as a second language. Each wrote 3-4 texts that were rated using the CEFR scale by four trained raters. For this study, we chose two texts that represented different levels of formality, a message to the teacher and a message to an internet store. Of these, we picked 15 texts per task and per level in each language. For practical reasons we concentrated on levels A1-B1; there were very few texts on B2 level, all of which were included in the analysis. Thus, we ended up with 192 texts altogether.

Defining and identifying something as a formulaic sequence is not without problems (cf. Wray 2008). We included various types of fixed phrases as formulaic sequences, for instance, collocations, prepositional phrases in English and verbal structures in Finnish. We scanned the performances for sequences, and categorized the sequences according to their functions, following Moon's (1998) classification (based on Halliday's (1994) model). In addition to formulae we looked at cohesive links as cohesion is significant in L2 lexical development (e.g. Crossley & McNamara 2009).

Moon (1998) divides sequences into informative, situational, organizational, evaluative and modal. Of these, we paid special attention to modality and organization, and in this respect, extended our analysis to single orthographical words. Since both texts were e-mail messages, we also analysed beginning and ending of the message. This was necessary because

coherence and fluency have a big impact on rating, and simply relating formulae to the general proficiency estimate was not enough.

Usually, texts get longer when the level of proficiency increases. This also means an increase in the number of formulaic sequences. Thus, numbers alone do not tell much which is why we placed special emphasis on the quality of the sequences.

Table 1 shows that there was more variation in the use of sequences from one level to another. Sequences also got more idiomatic once proficiency increased. The results show that, contrary to level descriptions, sequences already exist at A1. Even A1 performances can be described as whole texts although they may fail to complete the task. The attempts to be coherent were mostly limited to the (over)use of co-ordinators. Modality at this level consisted of imperatives and statements though there were some clumsy attempts to be polite. When the students reached level A2, imperative forms had been replaced by conditionals, and in English, the students were aware of the effect of *please*. The presence of metatext was noticeable and, even though its role in Finnish is not as big as in English, it appeared in both languages. Collocations became more idiomatic as early as at A2.

B1 seemed to be a real threshold level in other functions, particularly situational. This resulted in texts taking the recipient into account. B1 also showed more variation in the use of sequences, implying wider vocabulary.

To sum up, the results show an increase in some types of sequences, and moreover, a change in their quality and variety from one CEFR level to another. This was contrary to CEFR level descriptions that depict A1 texts as consisting of separate words. On the other hand, defining what is meant by a sequence turned out to be problematic: most research on formulae is English-based, but Finnish, being an inflectional language, portrays different types of vocabulary items.

A1	English	Finnish
Organizational	<i>thats why</i>	<i>sitten</i> ‘then’, <i>vielä</i> ‘yet’ beginning and ending of the message usually missing
Situational	Prepositional phrases <i>from Finland, out from school</i>	<i>eilen</i> ‘yesterday’, <i>kaksi kertaa</i> ‘two times’, <i>joskus</i> ‘sometimes’

A1	English	Finnish
Modal: Very straightforward some attempts to be polite	<i>I want you send</i> <i>If you can, Can I have</i>	<i>Haluan että</i> ‘I want that’ <i>Haluasin vaiha</i> ‘I would like to change’
Collocations	<i>work well, good and beautiful</i>	<i>toimia huonosti</i> ‘does not work’, <i>saada rahat takaisin</i> ‘get money back’
Conjunctions Overuse of co-ordinators, some subordinators	<i>so, and, but</i>	<i>ja</i> ‘and’, <i>koska</i> ‘because’
A2	English	Finnish
Organizational metatext	<i>I want to tell you about, the first reason is</i>	<i>Ongelma on se, että</i> ‘the problem is that’
Situational	<i>last week,</i> <i>in your shop</i>	<i>viikon aikana</i> ‘during the week’, <i>pari päivää sitten</i> ‘a couple of days ago’
Modal More appropriate and polite	<i>I wud like a new better game</i> <i>I like you to send anser quigly please 9.</i> <i>Give me please the homeworks.</i>	<i>jos on mahdollista</i> ‘if it is possible’, <i>kiitos paljon</i> ‘thank you very much’
Collocations more target-like	<i>high temperature</i>	<i>tulla läksyjä</i> ‘get homework’, <i>sammuttaa tietokone</i> ‘switch off the computer’
Conjunctions More frequent and idiomatic	<i>because, that</i>	<i>siis</i> ‘accordingly’, <i>kun</i> ‘when’
B1	English	Finnish
Organizational more metatext	<i>This e-mail is about; the reason is that, first of all, secondly, that's all</i>	<i>Minulla on pari kysymystä</i> ‘I have a couple of questions’, <i>Haluisin myös tietää</i> ‘I would also like to know’
Situational Numbers increase	<i>for a week, last Friday</i>	<i>viikon päästä</i> ‘after a week’, <i>vihdoinkin</i> ‘at last’
Modal More frequent and idiomatic	<i>Please, answer me soon;</i> <i>I want to ask you some questions,</i> <i>I would be very happy if you could send</i>	<i>voisitko kertoa</i> ‘Could you tell’, moderation: <i>saanko</i> ‘can I have’
Collocations	adv+adj combinations	<i>asentaa peli</i> ‘install the game’, <i>se (burana) vaikuttaa</i> ‘it (Paracetamol) has an effect’
Conjunctions	the number increases several clauses in a sentence	more variety, the number increases <i>joten</i> ‘thus’, <i>joko-tai</i> ‘either-or’

Table 1: Idiomaticity and variation in sequences in written performances from one level to another

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19

The return to the 'homeland': the contextual nature of language and identity construction in the case of Pontian Greek adolescents

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Introduction

The aims of this study were to investigate language and identity construction, and specifically the role of language in identity negotiation. This was done through consecutive semi-structured interviews with four Pontian Greek adolescent females, who migrated to parts of Northern Greece in the early 1990s. The females speak Modern Greek, Pontian Greek and three of them also speak Russian. It is important to note that there is a historical link between Pontian Greeks and Greece, and as such, this has implications on revealing different facets of identity negotiation, even between Greek and Pontian Greek, where the latter is officially a linguistic variety of the first (Agtzidis 1997; Anthemides 2002; Mackridge 1991).

The study constitutes a linguistic ethnography (Rampton 2007; Blommaert 2007) and uses language socialization and language ecology to explain the interactive relationship which exists in identity negotiation and development. This justifies the exploration of context. Context is a significant part in presenting both micro- and macro- social influences on language and identity. The contexts of school, family and the peer group were researched in the study.

Theoretical background

Language socialization is used to explain the relationship between language and culture (Ochs 1986; Ochs & Schieffelin 2008; Schieffelin & Ochs 1986; Ochs 2002). This link is viewed as an “interactional display” (Ochs 1986: 2). It is therefore a process where the individual is socialized and simultaneously socializes others in the environment. I use language socialization to explain how ethnic and cultural identities are shaped and developed through linguistic codes spoken in context. The latter plays an important role in language socialization. Cultural beliefs and practices are transmitted through

socialization, which in turn is done through language. As a result, social interactions are important in transmitting linguistic and cultural practices (Blum-Kulka 2008) and the relationships formed “...contribute to the development of identities...” (Pahl 2008: 115). Hence, language socialization is both culture- and context-dependent.

Language ecology studies the interaction between any given language and its environment (Haugen 1972: 325). Socialization is linked to language ecology, as it deals with language, not in isolation, but as found in the natural context, where cultural and societal, as well as personal and situational, factors shape language evolution (Kramsch & Steffensen 2008). Lemke (2002) and van Lier (2002) both agree on the social function of language and the importance of the environment in identity development. As such, both approaches interact and complement one another and help to explain and justify the reciprocal relationship between culture and language.

Language and Identity

Language and its link to identity cannot be denied (Edwards 1985; Gudykunst 1988, Tabouret-Keller 1997), although this may not be absolute. There are historical, social and contextual circumstances which may affect the degree to which language indexes one's ethnicity (Fishman 1997). Depending on the context, an individual may employ the use of a linguistic code, purely for functional purposes, irrespectively of allegiance to his/her ethnic group (Torras & Gafaranga 2002). What is noticed is the concept of ‘fluidity’ in attempting to determine the relationship between the two predominant concepts, which has to be explained by taking into consideration the social context, as language is not merely a symbol of one's ethnicity, as traditionally believed. In circumstances where more than one linguistic code is used, it is important to observe which function language serves, far from essentialising the nature of identity.

Positioning and identity negotiation

Positioning involves social interaction through discursive practices (Davies & Harré 1990). Although this theory is limited on the conversation level, I expand on it and stress the importance of larger dynamics in social constructs, which are not limited on the interlocutor level, but show the interaction between the micro- and macro-social context, i.e. institutions,

such as the school or the nation/state, which may influence a certain type of positioning.

In explaining how the individuals negotiate their identities I use Pavlenko & Blackledge's (2004) categorization of identities: assumed, imposed and negotiable. Assumed is an accepted identity; one the individual feels comfortable with. Imposed is not negotiable but rather forced upon and caused by external pressures. Negotiable identity can be contested by both sides.

Identity negotiation as presented in the data

The data reveal that identity expression changes according to the context. The adolescents portray a strong Pontian Greek identity at home, where the use of Pontian Greek is dominant, although this is not absolute in all cases. Use of Russian and Greek exists, but there are signs of particular patterns of family socialization, which suggest that the girls have assumed a Pontian Greek identity at home, which however can be imposed due to the parents' insistence in maintaining their ethnicity.

In the peer group, the girls appear to use Greek as the main language, with some use of Pontian Greek or Russian. However, their peers are predominantly Pontian Greek as well as, or less so, members of other linguistic minorities e.g. Russian, Georgian. In this case, a Pontian hybrid identity is maintained, which however is negotiable through all linguistic codes, and is probably the only context where such negotiation takes place. The multiple and changing nature of identity is evidenced.

At school, a pattern of imposed identities is identified. This is due to the fact that it is a Greek speaking environment. On the one hand, the girls appear to have developed a Greek cultural identity due to school socialization. However, they do not present a complete attachment with Greek culture, due to the existence of discrimination and stereotypes from Greek peers. The latter explains their choice of peers/friends, who are not Greek. Linguistically though, they exhibit a Greek identity, but it is done for functional purposes, since they cannot negotiate their Pontian Greek identity, for the reasons described.

Conclusion

The data revealed that socialization is important in identity negotiation and can explain its changeable nature. It is confirmed that identities are context-dependent and complex. An overlap among the types of identities exists, while expression of ethnic and/or cultural identity did not always coincide with a respective linguistic identity. Finally, the extent to which a linguistic variety i.e. Pontian Greek, constitutes a ‘dialect’ is not significant, since the social function of the linguistic medium is more important.

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The development and validation of CDSs for Japanese college writing courses

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Introduction

In this ICT-driven, globalized world, English, especially written English, has become the dominant medium of communication in all venues; thus, increasing importance has been added to English writing education (Warschauer, 2000). However, English writing education in Japan still focuses on local-level textual aspects (vocabulary, grammar and mechanics) rather than global ones such as organization, content and logical development. Consequently, teachers spend much time correcting local-level mistakes, which reduces more meaningful and dynamic teacher-student interaction concerning global textual areas.

On the other hand, the concept of Can-do statements (CDSs) as an integral part of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) are based on functional, practical use of language and at the same time, designed to tap “student language awareness” (Council of Europe, 2001). A Can-do statement is a detailed, realistic description of the student’s ability, such as “The student can write a basic paragraph that describes his/her preferences or opinions with logical supporting sentences.” An evaluation based on such a functional statement is much more reliable than a test score.

The application of CDSs to Japanese college writing education seems to solve the above two problems by creating the objectives that address the real-life needs of English writing in a globalizing world, and making college instruction more student-centered and raising learner awareness of what is required in meaningful written communication.

Yet, we cannot directly apply CEFR’s writing CDSs which espouse the borderless European situations to our EFL situations, where the types and conditions of communication as well as the learning environment are different. Thus, an attempt was made to create a localized/modified CDSs for a university writing course, after a year-long close validation process, both quantitative and qualitative.

Overall study design

A detailed validation was conducted, both quantitative and qualitative, with the various aspects of validity that Weir delineated in his 2005 article for *Language Testing* in mind. First, a series of adjustments were made by reflecting the results of pre-questionnaires given to teachers and students soliciting their responses to the first draft of CDSs (inductive validation). Then, the student self-check lists and teacher assessment scales were developed based on the modified CDSs (as course objectives). In developing teacher assessment scales, the results of various past studies on the advantages and disadvantages of using holistic and analytic scales were referred to (Weigle, 2002).

Next, the pilot test was conducted to validate the localized CDSs in three different orientations: those of users, curriculum constructors, and assessors. The actual teaching was done based on the syllabi covering the in-house CDSs, also using the student self-check lists and teacher assessment scales. The results of post-questionnaires, class observation and interviews with both students and teachers were used to further modify the CDSs (deductive validation).

Inductive validation

Pre-questionnaire to students and teachers

Approximately 300 students in the university's 3 placement levels (Basic, Intermediate and Advanced) answered the pre-questionnaire to check the appropriateness and difficulty level of each Can-do statement. Also 15 teachers who teach them were requested to check the validity of all the CDSs including appropriateness, applicability and difficulty level.

Based on the responses both from students and teachers, a series of modifications was made to the original Can-do lists for 3 levels.

Preparation of the piloting

First, the curriculum was developed based on the Can-do objectives that include various genres of writing: narrative, expository, argumentative, and work-related functional modes. Then, the teaching material, in the forms of both existing textbooks and customized supplements were collected and/or

produced. Secondly, student self-check lists and teacher assessment scales were developed for different genres of writing and for the 3 different levels.

Basically, the evaluative points in teacher assessment scales correspond to the items in the student check-lists, but extra attention was paid to make student check-lists easy and simple without the use of technical expressions (see Table 1 as an example of a sublist for expository writing).

Deductive validation

A series of pilot tests was planned strategically so that the piloting wouldn't disrupt the present teaching based on the required syllabi. In each pilot test dealing with a different genre of writing, all the aspects of the CDS-based curriculum were tested for its validity, reliability and feasibility, using both quantitative and qualitative analyses.

The present experiment

In this presentation, the validation results of one genre (unit) of our planned CDS-based curriculum, namely, "expository writing with good support" was reported as a representative part of our on-going study.

Experimental design

Subjects and procedure

Nine classes of three different levels were used for the experiment with approximately 320 students. Teachers were provided with class objectives pertaining to "expository writing with good support" with teaching material. Each class was taught 4 times according to the given plan. The piloting procedure is as follows.

1. Students responded to the self-check lists.
2. A pre-writing test was given in the first class.
3. Four classes were taught based on the given objectives and using the teaching material provided.
4. A post-writing test was given in the last class.
5. Students responded to the same self-check lists again.
6. Teachers assessed the students' pre- and post-writings using

- the given assessment sheets.
7. Teachers responded to an open-ended post-questionnaire.

Analysis

The following statistical analyses were conducted and the overall project evaluation was done, reflecting teacher feedback and the interviews with selected students.

1. Comparison between the student responses to the self-check lists before and after the instruction.
2. Comparison between the scores of teacher assessment of pre- and post-writing tests.
3. Correlations between student self-assessment and teacher assessment.

Results

The following results have been obtained thus far.

1. Though significant improvements were exhibited by the students at all levels, those in the advanced class rated their own improvement lower than the counterparts at intermediate and basic levels. This might be caused by their increased awareness, hence sensitivity to different aspects of writing.
2. There were significant differences in the average scores of both student self-check list and teacher assessment given before and after the experiment. However, some items (CDSs) representing local-level aspects of writing, notably grammatical and vocabulary control, showed less differences compared to global-level items.
3. As to the students' improvements obtained in terms of the scores of teacher assessment, Intermediate-level students showed more improvements than Basic- or Advanced-level ones.
4. Though there was no significant difference among the scores of teacher assessment within the same level, the differences between pre- and post- student check lists (in other words, the improvements perceived by the students themselves) seem to have been affected by the teacher (who taught the class).

Writing Assessment Sheet (for Intermediate-level)

<1=This student cannot do this at all 2=poor 3=fair 4=good 5=excellent>

1. Organization

This student can write either a long paragraph (more than 200 words) with clear distinction bet. topic sentence, supporting detail and conclusion(ending), or a short essay with clear distinction bet. introduction, body and conclusion.

1 —— 2 —— 3 —— 4 —— 5

2. Content

This student can include sufficient knowledge/facts relevant to the thesis statement to keep readers interested.

1 —— 2 —— 3 —— 4 —— 5

3. Idea Development

This student can develop ideas in a step-by-step manner from general to specific.

1 —— 2 —— 3 —— 4 —— 5

4. Cohesion/Consistency

This student can establish cohesion between sentences and consistency among ideas in a short essay (or a long paragraph).

1 —— 2 —— 3 —— 4 —— 5

5. Quality of support and reasoning

This student can use proper supporting statements/examples for the thesis at the paragraph level.

1 —— 2 —— 3 —— 4 —— 5

6. Sociolinguistic control

This student can use expressions appropriate to the topic, fulfill situational requirements and address the audience appropriately.

1 —— 2 —— 3 —— 4 —— 5

7. Grammatical control

This student can use multiple-clause structures including simple subordinate clauses and those with simple relative pronouns.

1 —— 2 —— 3 —— 4 —— 5

8. Conjunctions/transitions/discourse markers

This student can use typical conjunctions/transitions correctly.

1 —— 2 —— 3 —— 4 —— 5

9. Vocabulary

This student can use high-frequency vocabulary understandable words and idiomatic language most of the time.

1 —— 2 —— 3 —— 4 —— 5

10. Mechanics

This student can use correct punctuation most of the time.

1 —— 2 —— 3 —— 4 —— 5

**Table 1: Example of CDS-based teacher assessment sheet
(for expository writing unit)**

Implications and future study

We are now in the process of further modifying the “expository writing CDSs” used in this experiment based on different insights gained by both quantitative and qualitative validation.

The same process has been going on in other genres (units) of writing. The difficulty we have faced throughout this process of developing the “localized” CDSs for the curriculum and assessment scales is the estimation of where to draw the line when different kinds of validity are in conflict with each other.

Also, an even greater challenge lies in the decision-making that encompasses the limitations deriving from feasibility/practicality and maximization of student interests, motivation and achievements.

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Cultural obstacles on acquiring logical development by Japanese engineering undergraduates

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Introduction

The issue of the logical inadequacy of Japanese ESL learners has been raised in English speaking academe, and is usually explained by the cultural influence of different rhetoric patterns of discourse: circle development of discourse (Kaplan, 1966), or writer-oriented, quasi-inductive organization of a text (Hinds, 1990). However, there seems to be evidence that this inadequacy might be derived from their unfamiliarity of writing logical pieces of discourse, and insufficient intake of the English discourse structure.

After the World War II, a Japanese educator Muchaku introduced the idea of writing essays to endure the hardship. This idea was welcomed to the public and schools encouraged pupils to put down their feelings and ideas as they feel. Since then, the instruction in writing in Japanese has been mainly focused on writing itself, and organization or the use of language have not been regarded as important. Thus, before the academic level, students' experience of writing has been limited. In fact a survey made by Benesse Corporation in 2009 suggests that only 26.5% of undergraduates worked on formal essay-writing training at the high school level; In case of engineering students the percentage drops to 12.9%. Therefore, it is quite reasonable for Japanese students to make a written text that does not have formal organization. It often includes an inconsistency between the beginning and ending. Students do not doubt that this is ambiguous because for them the purpose of writing to express their opinion to others or convince others is a novelty.

On the other hand, before the university level, EFL instruction is mainly focused on accuracy at the sentences or phrase level. Although students are familiar with the written pieces of English which have a logical development, they do not have sufficient opportunities to take in the structure. In addition to this, Japanese language does not have salient cohesive markers such as

pronouns, definite articles, and conjunctives as in English. Students know the use of these markers, but they lack the actual training of using them.

As a result, when the students start their study at university, they have great difficulty in producing a written piece of English: lack of fluency, inadequate use of cohesive markers, and lack of organizing ideas. In order to encourage the students' fluency in writing and to introduce them to the formal organization of English text, they should have some confidence in making a set of text before making them consider the organization of the idea along with the English discourse structure.

Students' Profile

35 Japanese engineering undergraduates participated in the tasks. Their level of English was not low: upper-intermediate (average TOEIC score: 537.86), but their experience of using English was quite limited. Approximately 67% of them did not have the experience of talking or writing about themselves in English, and 95% did not have the experience of making a piece of text in English.

Methodology

In order to enhance the fluency in writing, two tasks were introduced during the compulsory reading coursework held once a week for seven weeks: Five-minute free-writing (Task1) and Paragraph Reproduction (Task 2).

Task 1 was to encourage students' confidence by increasing the working vocabulary in English. The students were asked to write on a topic related to their coursework for five minutes, and then to count the number of words per minute so as to record it as a graph. In the task, the content and organization of ideas were not emphasized, although the teacher maintained that the development of ideas can help them to write more. The written texts were subsequently collected to check the development of coherency by counting the number of sentences which retained the same idea.

After a few trials of Task 1, Task 2 was introduced. In order to raise the awareness of discourse structure and to enhance the intake level, the task was devised along with the Suzuki & Itagaki's (2009) modified version of the second language acquisition model (Ellis, 2003; Gass & Selinker, 2001;

Richards, 2002). A short paragraph of about 100 words was elicited from the course book already taught, so it was assumed that students already reached the input stage; they knew the vocabulary and understood the content. After the five-minute memorization of the paragraph (intake stage), they were asked to reproduce the paragraph in 5 minutes. In this reproduction, the students had to integrate their knowledge of the language with the content (integration stage). The most important part of the task was the next part of eight-minute self-correction: students compared their writing to the model paragraph (accessing the model language). To help them memorize the order of ideas, target expressions were introduced while doing this. Afterwards, students reproduced the same paragraph again in five minutes to reinforce the knowledge (output), and then their reproduction was self-corrected again. After each self-correction, the number of words, target expressions, and sentences that were correctly reproduced was counted.

Students' behavior and comments during these tasks were monitored and recorded by the teacher. After the seven weeks, the students were asked to write about changes they experienced.

Results

After seven trials of the two tasks, the students' confidence in writing in English increased. This may be because their fluency improved; the average words per minutes increased from 11.2 to 16 words, and coherent series of sentences from 3.11 to 5.2 sentences. Also, the rate of sentence reproduction improved significantly after the self correction from 20% to 40% (Cf. words from 45.6% to 73.6%, and target expression from 28% to 58%).

These two improvements seemed to affect their awareness of contextual development and organization. Although they still had illogical development of their text and inferential leaps after the trials, positive comments showing the awareness of contextual development and organization were elicited; "*I am now thinking in an English way*", "*I usually think about the consistency of my text while writing*", and "*I sometimes feel irritated when I think about how to organize my text*".

Conclusions

During carrying out Task 2, students could identify and confirm the features of the language that may disturb them in expressing their ideas.

At the same time, repeating free-writing encouraged students to notice the features of the language, by hypothesizing and testing their observation without inhibition.

Combining these two tasks seems to help the students create a mental map of the language along with the contextual development. These may be promising as introductory tasks for those who are not used to writing in English to fill the gap for academic writing.

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Becoming local: exploring adolescents' sociolinguistic limits and potential⁶

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Introduction

Since 2004, Britain has witnessed the “largest single wave of in-migration that the British Isles have ever experienced” (Salt and Millar 2006: 335). Polish workers and their families accounted for 64.4% of immigration from the “new” (A8) EU nations to the UK in 2004. We report initial findings from a research project investigating the acquisition of sociolinguistic variation in English by adolescent Polish immigrants living in Edinburgh. We question to what extent Polish adolescent immigrants are acquiring the variable grammar of their local peer group. To do this, we examine the speech of some Polish adolescents living in Edinburgh and compare their use of the (ing) variable with that of Edinburgh-born adolescents. Our findings suggest that Polish adolescent migrants are acquiring both ‘local’ Edinburgh constraints on (ing) variation and ‘supra-local’ constraints found to operate on (ing) in other varieties of British English and American English. We exemplify this with the pattern of grammaticality constraints operating on (ing) for these teenagers.

Data collection

Fieldwork on this project took place at a high school in Edinburgh. Linguistic production data were collected from 16 Polish migrants living in Edinburgh. Linguistic data were also collected from 16 Edinburgh-born teenagers attending the same school as the Polish adolescents to provide a benchmark for the types of ‘Edinburgh English’ to which these Polish adolescents are regularly exposed. Sociolinguistic interviews were carried out between all participants and the third named author, a female researcher from Edinburgh. Speakers were also recorded performing a short reading task of 17 sentences that was designed to elicit a wide range of different phonological variables. The conversation and reading-task data were transcribed orthographically

⁶ We would like to thank the ESRC for funding this research (RES-000-22-3244).

using ELAN (<http://www.lat-mpi.eu/tools/elan/>), resulting in a time-aligned corpus of around 100,000 words.

Analysis

As a first step in our analysis, we explored the variable realisation of (ing) (with variation between [ɪŋ] and [ɪn] in unstressed syllables) in this corpus. We extracted all tokens of (ing) from the conversation and reading passage data (1388 tokens) and coded these data for a range of different social and linguistic constraints often found to operate on (ing) variation in English⁷. We then subjected the data to a multivariate analysis to determine which social and linguistic factors constrain the realisation of (ing) among each of the two speaker groups in Edinburgh⁸.

Results

Our results suggest that certain constraints on (ing) appear to have been adopted wholesale from the local peer group by the Polish adolescents, some have been adopted but do not exactly mirror the local peer-group pattern and some constraints operating on (ing) for the Polish adolescents are entirely different to those found among the local adolescent peer group. However, the most common pattern is of ‘transformation’ of constraints among the L2 learners. The Polish adolescents typically either produce a different version of the native-speakers’ variable grammar by re-ordering the internal hierarchy of existing constraints or they adopt new constraints on (ing) which are not apparent in (or not relevant to) the UK-born adolescents⁹.

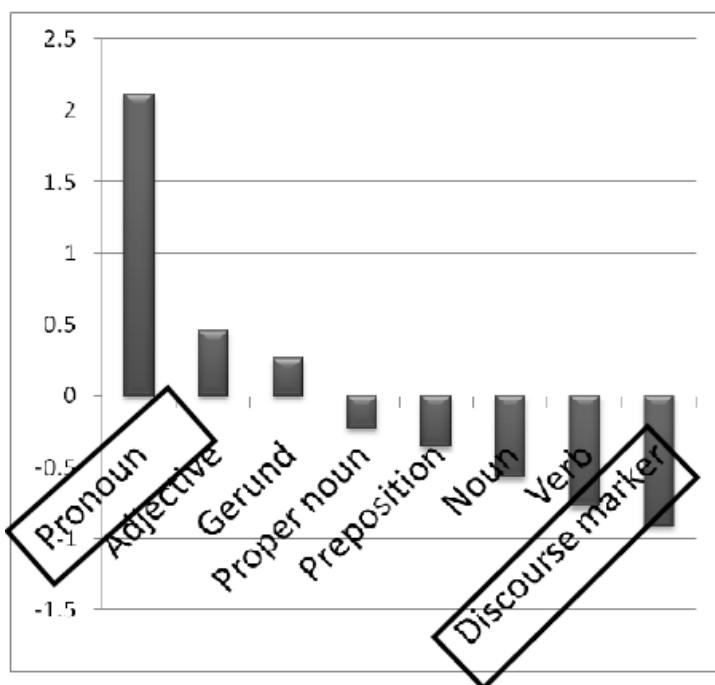
An interesting example of this emerges with respect to the treatment of the grammatical category constraint among these two groups of Edinburgh-based speakers. The most consistently demonstrated linguistic constraint on

⁷ Predictor variables included preceding and following phonological context, grammatical category of the lexical item, number of syllables in the word, previous realisation of the (ing) variable, lexical frequency, speech style, sex of speaker and the speakers’ attitude towards the local Edinburgh accent (see Schleef, Clark & Meyerhoff (in preparation) for further details).

⁸ Rbrul (Johnson 2008) was used to run a mixed-effect multiple regression analysis in which the individual speaker was also included as a random effect. Full details of this regression can be found in Schleef, Clark & Meyerhoff (in preparation).

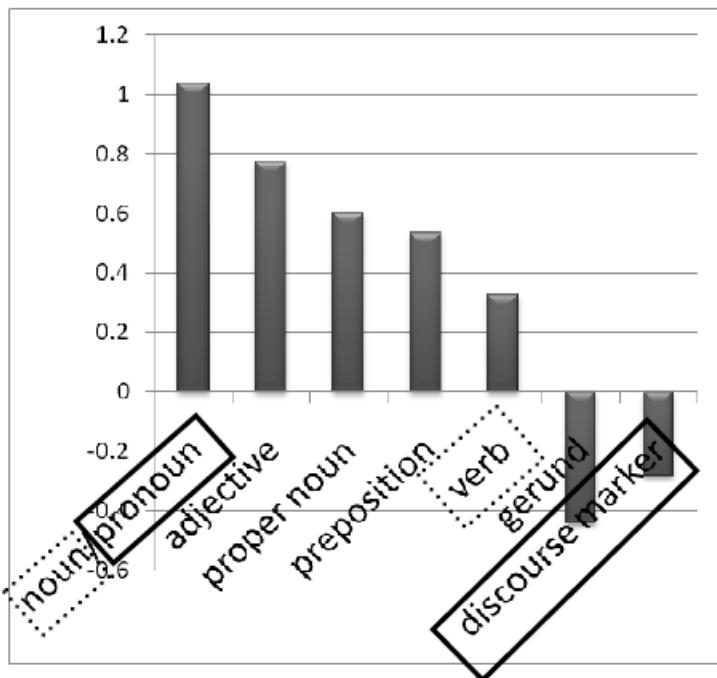
⁹ A detailed discussion of this point can be found in Schleef, Clark & Meyerhoff (in preparation).

(ing) in English is that it is often subject to a type of grammatical conditioning that Labov labels the 'nominal-verbal continuum' (2001: 88). Put simply, verbs favour apical realisation of (ing), nouns favour velar realisations of (ing) and gerunds (which have properties of both nouns and verbs) fall somewhere between these two extremes. For Edinburgh-born adolescents, there is no evidence of a nominal-verbal continuum, however a very clear pattern emerges with respect to the *-thing* compounds (*something*, *everything*, *anything*, *nothing*): *-thing* compounds which behave as pronouns (e.g. 'I don't know *anything* about it') favour the velar variant and *-thing* compounds which behave as discourse particles (e.g. "I don't know about it, or *anything*") favour the apical form. Polish adolescents living in Edinburgh seem to have acquired this local constraint. However, (ing) variation among Polish adolescents in Edinburgh also seems to be influenced by a nominal-verbal constraint. This pattern becomes particularly apparent when we chart the log-odds from the regression analysis for each of the speaker groups (see Figures 1 and 2).



Grammatical conditioning of (ing) among Edinburgh-born adolescents. Regression log-odds plotted against grammatical category

Figure 1: Grammatical conditioning of (ing) among Edinburgh-born adolescents



Grammatical conditioning of (ing) among Polish-born adolescents living in Edinburgh. Regression log-odds plotted against grammatical category

Figure 2: Grammatical conditioning of (ing) among Polish-born adolescents in Edinburgh

For Polish adolescents living in Edinburgh, the *-thing* compounds behave very differently depending on whether they are used as pronouns or discourse markers (highlighted in solid rectangular blocks in Figure 1 for the Edinburgh-born adolescents and in Figure 2 for the Polish-born adolescents). This can be taken as evidence for the acquisition of a local grammatical constraint on (ing). However, among Polish adolescents living in Edinburgh, nouns favour a velar variant of (ing) more than verbs and gerunds (highlighted in dashed rectangular blocks in Figure 2). It is not clear where the input for this nominal-verbal pattern has come from among the Polish adolescents (possibilities include previous exposure to an British-based system of English in Poland, exposure to other varieties of English in the wider community and the media, or exposure to teachers using Scottish Standard English in Edinburgh) but its existence among the Polish adolescents living in Edinburgh can be taken as evidence of the acquisition of a 'supra-local' constraint on (ing) because this is the pattern most often associated with English. In other words, Polish adolescents in Edinburgh seem to be employing both the 'local' and the 'supra-local' constraints on (ing) with respect to grammatical category.

Summary and conclusions

Our findings are in line with other research on the sociolinguistics of second language acquisition: Polish adolescents learning English in Edinburgh have acquired only “partial mastery of the constraints on variation observed by L1 speakers” (Uritescu et al. 2004: 354). However, in the case of the grammatical category constraint, this depends on the definition of ‘L1 speakers’ because Polish adolescents display patterns of variation that are typical of both local L1 speakers in Edinburgh and other L1 speakers of ‘British English’ or ‘American English’. This in itself is an interesting finding and one which requires further investigation. However, we must also bear in mind as we interpret this result that “sociolinguistic competence cannot be understood in terms of a single variable” (Howard et al 2006); a fuller linguistic analysis dealing with variation from different levels of the grammar is necessarily our next step.

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23 SV expressions as a rhetorical device in British broadsheet editorials

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Introduction

Pairings of subjects and verbs, as in attribution and averral, contribute to expressing stance, as discussed in studies of evaluation (Bednarek 2006). Editorials send favourably or unfavourably biased views and provocative messages to readers (Bhatia 1993: 170-174) and reveal the stance of each newspaper in terms of subject. For example, Hawes and Thomas (1996: 160) indicate that *The Sun* employs more pronominal subjects, while *The Times* uses more institutional ones. However, they did not release the tokens but used few texts, which hinders proper generalisation.

This research targets subjects as rhetorical devices by compiling well-balanced corpora from British broadsheet editorials. Specifically, it addresses these questions:

- (1) What do subject-verb pairings reveal about broadsheet editorials?
- (2) What rhetorical functions and effects do subject-verb combinations have in newspaper editorials?

Methodology

For this research, four editorial corpora of about 250,000 words each were prepared from British quality newspapers.

Target corpora	Tokens	No. of texts
<i>The Times</i>	250,152	462
<i>The Guardian</i>	250,279	471
<i>The Independent</i>	250,309	464
<i>The Daily Telegraph</i>	249,990	619

Table 1: Target corpora

From the target corpora, which were annotated by *Machinese Syntax*, subject-verb pairings were retrieved by *Perl* in lemmatised forms with their frequencies. These subject-verb combinations in an editorial corpus were referenced with those in the other editorial corpora, based on the log-likelihood ratios. Thus, our reference corpus was a set of three corpora other than a target corpus.

Our approach is similar to keyword analysis in identifying specialised vocabulary by comparing a target corpus and a reference corpus and in looking at items with a statistically higher/lower frequency (positive keywords/negative keywords). However, we differ from keyword analysis in dealing not only with words but with grammatical phrases. More importantly, we can capture outstanding lexical subjects as well as pronominal subjects.

Results and discussion

The results indicate that British editorials can be divided into two groups. One group is made up of *The Times* and *The Guardian* and characterised by non-human, lexical subjects including labelling nouns (e.g., *matter be*); expletives (*it involve*); general/non-authorial reference (*many believe, research suggest*).

No.	SV items	Freq.	LL
1	it involve	10	21.60
2	matter be	14	17.84
3	essence be	7	13.96
4	assertion be	5	13.86
5	virus mutate	5	13.86
6	it be	1173	13.57
7	china begin	4	11.09
8	circumstance be	4	11.09
9	failing be	4	11.09
10	he require	4	11.09

Notes: $p < .001$

Table 2: SV from *The Times*

No.	SV items	Freq.	LL
1	worry be	8	16.47
2	danger be	21	15.74
3	it need	30	14.96
4	labour need	6	11.46
5	many believe	4	11.09
6	researcher suggest	4	11.09
7	they begin	4	11.09
8	US be	8	11.01
9	that mean	27	10.65
10	problem be	42	10.48

Notes: $p < .01$

Table 3: SV from *The Guardian*

The labelling noun includes implicit evaluation and encapsulates the previous text, creating textual coherence (Francis 1994). Impersonal constructions such as *it be* and *it need* have the effect of detachment and evaluation (cf. Godsden 1993). General or non-authorial reference sharply contrasts with sourced references in academic writing (Bednarek 2006; Hunston 1995). This use is probably due to high intertextuality across newspaper articles.

The other group consists of *The Independent* and *The Daily Telegraph*, with statistically higher frequencies of human, pronominal subjects; thus, *we*.

No.	SV items	Freq.	LL
1	this be	464	54.40
2	we see	38	43.70
3	we have	77	31.55
4	we recognise	13	22.32
5	we need	35	21.80
6	we note	10	21.59
7	we remember	14	19.78
8	we learn	16	18.40
9	he fly	6	16.63
10	Taliban be	6	16.63

Notes: $p < .0001$

Table 4: SV from *The Independent*

No.	SV items	Freq.	LL
1	we have	71	21.84
2	we say	19	20.74
3	we know	40	18.61
4	we be	76	18.07
5	he make	36	15.06
6	we hope	25	14.41
7	we doubt	7	13.97
8	policy have	5	13.87
9	we remark	5	13.87
10	we suspect	9	13.20

Notes: $p < .001$

Table 5: SV from *The Daily Telegraph*

The first interpretation of *we* in the pairs is editorial *we*, but there is a degree of ambiguity between exclusive *we* and inclusive *we*, according to their verbs. *We* and verbs of utterance (*we say*) are strongly associated with exclusive *we*; only editorialists are engaged in this activity. Verbs of subjective evaluation, as in *we hope*, *we suspect*, enhance the reading of exclusive *we*. In fact, this is often used as a final comment in closing a text. In contrast, the combination of *we* and cognitive verbs (as *we have seen...*) involves readers in sharing cognitive activities so as to confirm their statement.

Conclusions

From the results, it appears that *The Times* and *The Guardian* were not so exhortative against general views in terms of SV pairings but manipulated cohesive devices such as labelling to express their views implicitly. In contrast, *The Independent* and *The Daily Telegraph* made the case in straight and tactful ways, using two types of *we*. Exclusive *we* has the effect of making editorial voices outstanding, distinct from others (possibly other newspapers). Inclusive *we* involves readers in sharing the experience and softening the writer's voice as a kind of hedge.

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Language, learning and context: developing students' critical thinking in Hong Kong secondary school English writing classes

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Developing students' critical thinking has been a significant educational issue in many countries, such as the United Kingdom and Singapore. Educational psychologists have pointed out that critical thinking is fundamental to schooling in the 21st century, stressing that in the information age thinking plays a significant role in one's success in life. In terms of language education, cognitive psychologists emphasize that learners need to 'use their minds to observe, think, categorise and hypothesise' (William & Burdens, 1997, p.13) in order to work out how a language operates. Specifically, the cognitive operations involved in the composing processes that writers employ further confirm the close link between good writing and careful thinking.

In 1999, a new set of guidelines (CDC, 1999) requiring teachers to develop students' critical thinking through the English language subject was issued to all secondary schools in Hong Kong. The latest curricular methodology, which stresses the importance of involving students in the processes of thinking, and of using and applying the language for genuine communication, calls for nothing less than a new interpretation of both teaching and learning in the local educational context. However, as Morris (1996) pointed out, a gap between the intended and implemented curriculum is a common phenomenon in Hong Kong. The present study aims to shed light on the extent to which critical thinking comprises part of teaching and learning in English language education in local secondary schools.

Regarding developing students' critical thinking, the literature indicates that engaging students actively in critical thinking processes through effective use of questions and critical discussion in a context that values inquiry (D' Angelo, 1971) could contribute to students' development of both critical thinking skills and attitudes. But, Bourdillon and Storey (2002) have warned that teacher questions have to be handled appropriately. For instance, students are given too little thinking time to respond to challenging questions. They are not given the opportunity to ask questions or to contribute to the classroom discourse. The space of learning for students'

critical thinking development created in the classroom should aim to raise students' awareness of constructive uses of critical thinking, so that they can employ it more gainfully in their learning and future lives.

The three teacher participants, i.e. Lai, Mei and Fun (pseudonyms) were identified through existing university contacts. The schools where they were teaching are two of the many local schools using Chinese as the medium of instruction in most subjects. A case study approach was adopted to capture what happened in their classrooms during a three-month data collection period. With a focus on the close link between students' thinking and writing development, classroom observations and interviews were conducted to investigate the space of learning created for students' critical thinking development in writing classes. The classroom data were analysed based on the space of learning framework (Tsui et al, 2004). To counter potential bias, the results were presented to the teachers involved for validation. Due to the reasons of space, the complete interview findings are reported in a different paper.

The significant pattern that emerged across the three cases, i.e. ineffective questioning, reveals a continual failure to create an adequate space of learning for students' critical thinking development. Ineffective questioning emerged resulting from a number of factors, including brief waiting time and a predominance of lower order questions. As observed in the lessons, Fun and Lai seemed to be following a pre-conceived 'recitation-script' (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988, p.14) and so were not open to learning and thinking opportunities that arose. And, the questions the three teachers asked or the way they handled the questions mainly required students to play the role of a code breaker to locate information from the texts given.

The data reveal also a striking finding, i.e. students were constantly deprived of the time and space to engage in different composing processes in the writing lessons. The data show that Lai and Fun adopted primarily a product-oriented approach towards writing, i.e. their students were always supplied with writing ideas and were told exactly how to organize their work. Only Mei's students were allowed to engage in genuine communication with their teacher about various aspects of the writing tasks but most of them had difficulty expressing themselves in English. The situation improved when Mei violated the school language policy and allowed them to express themselves in Chinese.

The study reveals that the critical thinking syllabus was not translated into the three teachers' classroom practices. On the whole, the required space of learning aimed at helping students see and experience the critical features of critical attitudes or the opportunity to actually engage in critical thinking was hardly found in the writing lessons. In their interviews, the three teachers stressed that improvements had to be made in the school and broader contexts before the critical thinking syllabus could be implemented successfully but they did not seem to be aware of the significant impact of classroom context on student critical thinking development. The findings point to the need of helping frontline teachers understand the important role context plays in teaching and learning in the local educational context.

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Distributed scaffolding in an internet quiz: identifying situated learning practices

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Scaffolding has proved to be a powerful metaphor for assisted performance. Although the term first gained currency through Wood *et al*'s seminal article in 1976, its circulation was no doubt fuelled by the Vygotskian emphasis on the role of social interaction for human cognitive development and learning (Vygotsky 1962, 1978). This study combines what Mondada and Pekarek Doehler (2004) term as two 'strong' socio-interactionist approaches to SLA: sociocultural theory (originating particularly in the writings of Vygotsky and his Russian compatriots) and Conversation Analysis (CA). A 'strong' socio-interactionist position treats social interaction as "the most basic site of organized activity where learning can take place" (*ibid.* 502). This framework also questions language competence and learning as separate constructs divorced and abstracted from the social processes and activities in which they are embedded. Instead learning is to be conceived as an emergent, situated and distributed process. It is emergent in that learning is dynamic; it is situated because of its embeddedness in a locally contingent social practice; and it is distributed by virtue of the fact that the learning process is assisted or scaffolded by interaction with others and mediating artefacts.

Scaffolding as a metaphor for graduated support has come to be extended since its genesis in the 1960s, making a breakthrough into classroom research in the 80s. Initially characterised by an asymmetric balance in knowledge, it was subsequently extended to include peer scaffolding, or collective scaffolding, particularly in the work of Donato (e.g. 1994). More recently the scaffolding potential of computer-based tools has attracted considerable attention (c.f. special issues of *Journal of the Learning Sciences* 2004, vol 13.3 & *Educational Technology Research and Development* 2008, vol 56.1). It is in this literature that the term *distributed scaffolding* has arisen (c.f. Puntambekar and Kolodner 2005). I use the term *distributed scaffolding* here to describe pupils' situated learning practices; thus not only is scaffolding mediated through the teacher's help, but also through peer interaction as well as the assistance afforded by higher-level cultural tools, such as online computers. Although many of the studies investigating the scaffolding affordances of computers are grounded to varying degrees in sociocultural

theory, there is a general lack of empirical analyses of distributed scaffolding practices *in situ*. This study is designed to contribute towards filling this gap.

Here the learning context is the computer lab of a Swedish school, where year 8 pupils, who are learning English as a second language, are doing an Internet quiz in pairs. The quiz involves matching up 20 questions and their jumbled answers with the help of the Internet. The items include people, places, festivals and vocabulary. By using a multimodal microanalysis of video-recorded interaction, the study identifies the scaffolding practices deployed in carrying out the task. The conclusion drawn from this analysis is that scaffolding can be characterised as a distributed phenomenon. Students make suggestions to each other about how to carry out searches, for example, or spell words to each other when they notice each other's errors. Furthermore, they call on the teacher's help when they get stuck on finding out the meaning of unknown items of vocabulary; indeed, using online dictionaries generally seems to be fraught with difficulty. Search engines, such as Google, also provide support by prompting alternative spellings: e.g. "Did you mean felicitous" when a search item is misspelt as "felicitous".

In conclusion, one might ask what we gain from the theoretical concept of distributed scaffolding. Firstly, the scaffolding metaphor is already an established metaphor for different forms of assisted/guided performance. Thus modifications to the metaphor may add to its salience in describing learning processes. Furthermore, seeing scaffolding as a distributed phenomenon helps to highlight the different forms of mediation involved in situated learning, i.e. mediated through different cultural tools, including language and culturally constructed tools. The extended metaphor of *distributed* scaffolding also allows us to see learners as active agents of their own learning, engaged both in mobilising the assistance they need and actively incorporating (or not) the assistance offered. On the downside, the scaffolding metaphor is already a fuzzy concept with many uses (with & without theoretical underpinnings). Moreover, in the literature there is much idealising about what constitutes 'true' scaffolding (e.g. 'fading' or 'takeover', c.f. van Lier 2004:151), rather than examining what processes are actually mobilised in situated interaction. This study shows the importance of focussing on the learning process from a participant's perspective through empirical analysis to avoid simply reifying an idealised concept.

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A comparison of Irish immersion students' attitudes and motivation to Irish in the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland

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Evidence from the research conducted to date in Ireland shows that students in Irish immersion schools achieve high levels of fluency and comprehension, considerably exceeding the levels achieved by students who take Irish only as a single school subject (Harris, 2006). Concern has been expressed by teachers that the productive skills of speaking and writing acquired by Irish immersion students do not reach native speaker levels and students appear to use a range of forms which depart from target norms (Ó Duibhir, 2009). This phenomenon has also been found in immersion programmes in other countries (Harley, 1987; Swain, 2005).

A quantitative design was adopted to study the attitudes and motivation of 10-12 year old Irish immersion students to learning and speaking Irish. A modified and adapted Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) was used to gather the data (Dörnyei, 2009; Masgoret, 2003) from Sixth Class students ($n=172$) in eight Irish immersion primary schools in the Republic of Ireland and from Primary Seven students ($n=46$) in four immersion schools in Northern Ireland. The AMTB consisted of 57 statements with Likert-type responses followed by four open-ended write in items. The purpose of the AMTB was to gather background information about the nature and strength of pupils' attitudes and motivation in relation to Irish.

	schools	pupils	age
Republic of Ireland	8	172	11 yrs (64), 12 yrs (103), 13 yrs (5)
Northern Ireland	4	46	11 yrs

Table 1: Participants

The AMTB contained the following nine scales:

- Integrativeness scales –** 1. Attitude to Irish speakers and
2. Integrative orientation to Irish;
Motivation scales – 3. Desire to learn Irish,

4. Motivational intensity to learn Irish and
5. Attitude to learning Irish;

Other scales –

6. Instrumental orientation to Irish,

7. Parental encouragement;

Non-AMTB based scales –

8. Irish-ability self-concept and

9. Use of Irish by all-Irish school pupils.

The responses of the participants indicated that Irish-medium pupils in the present study, in both the Republic of Ireland (RoI) and Northern Ireland (NI), have a very positive attitude and motivation to Irish. An independent-samples t-test was used to compare the item mean scale scores across the two school types. This test revealed no significant differences between NI and RoI pupils except for *Instrumental orientation to Irish*. This may be the result of a greater perceived utility of ability in Irish for employment purposes in RoI over NI.

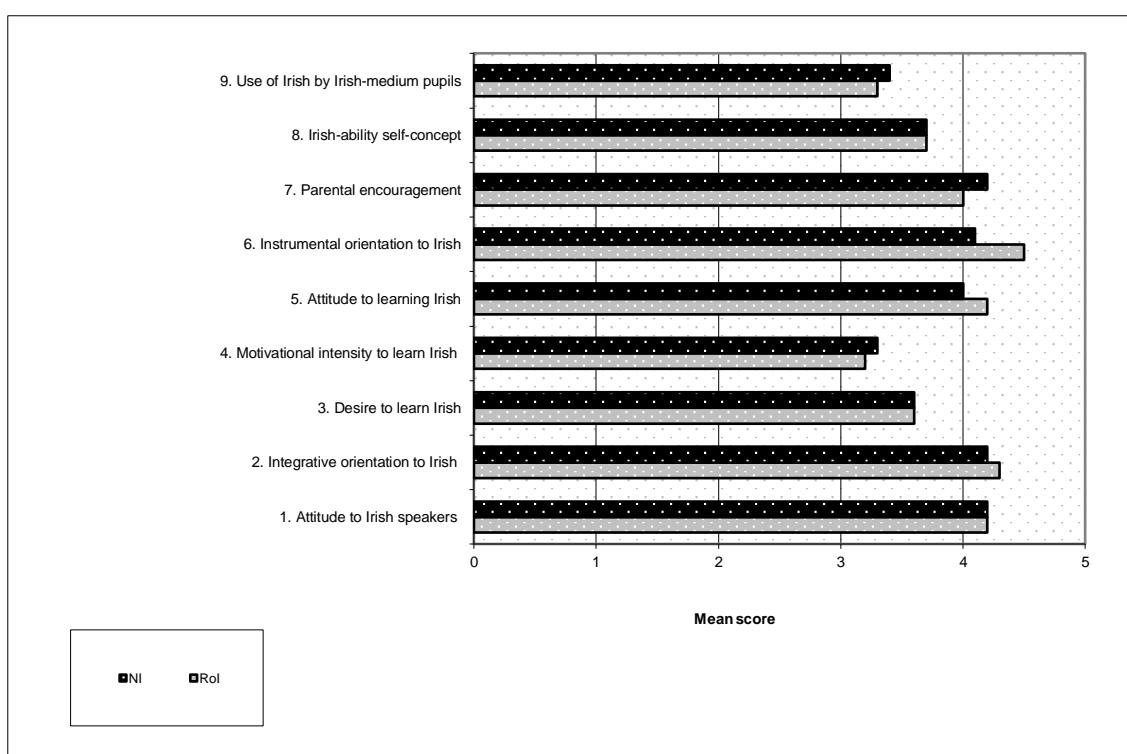


Figure 1: Item mean scale scores for Irish-medium pupils in RoI and NI

The main influences driving this positive attitude and motivation appear to be the fact that Irish is the heritage language of Ireland and that the pupils see it as an important part of Ireland and the Irish people. A large majority (91.4% NI and 83.7% RoI) of them think for example that: ‘People in our country who only speak English should try harder to learn the Irish

language'. The support that they receive from parents and teachers was also shown to be an important influencing factor.

When individual items were examined a number of interesting facts emerged. Pupils in both jurisdictions tend to be less concerned about their oral language accuracy when conversing with peers than when conversing with teachers. They are also aware that they make mistakes when they are speaking Irish but that it would be too much trouble to correct these errors. This is despite the fact that they wish to learn as much Irish as possible and would like to be able to speak it like a native speaker. A discernable pattern emerged whereby items in the questionnaire that require passive support for Irish received a more positive response from students than those requiring more active support. This may indicate that while the students have strong positive attitudes and motivation to Irish, they may not be sufficiently strong to motivate them to learn to speak Irish with greater accuracy. The fact that the pupils responded that their use of Irish was confined mainly to the school and school activities may affect their motivation in this regard.

When the standard deviation (SD) was calculated for a number of items, it was found that the responses of pupils in NI had a greater SD. When these items were examined in further detail it was revealed that the NI pupils were stronger in agreement/disagreement than pupils in RoI. This does not mean that the NI pupils had a stronger attitude or motivation to Irish but that they were more definite in their opinions.

In summary, the results indicate that Irish-medium pupils in both RoI and NI have very positive attitude and motivation to Irish. Items that require passive support tend to receive a more positive response. Teachers, parents and the Irish language as a symbol of identity were important motivating factors. The pupils have little exposure to Irish outside of school and school activities. Potential exists to extend this, particularly in the case of NI pupils. As the pupils do not tend to monitor the accuracy of their output, the role of the teacher is crucial in 'pushing' them to speak with greater accuracy. It may also suggest that a greater emphasis on analytic approaches over experiential ones are required in the latter grades of primary school immersion programmes.

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Acknowledgements

The researcher would like to thank SCoTENS for a research grant towards the cost of this project.

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Three turn sequences in reading classroom discourse

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Introduction

In classroom discourse the prototypical teacher-student interaction consists of recurring three-part sequences. This sequence is generally known as teacher initiation, learner response, and teacher follow-up or feedback (IRF) in the British school (Sinclair & Coulthard 2005), and initiation, response and evaluation (IRE) in the American school (Mehan 1979).

However, IRF/IRE sequence is not without its criticism. It is thought to limit meaningful student participation because teachers have the rights to initiate speech, to distribute turns and evaluate students' utterances, whereas students have much more restricted participation rights, opportunities to ask questions and negotiate meaning (Cullen 2002; Lee 2007; Markee 2000; McCarthy 1991; Walsh 2002). On the other hand, Seedhouse (2004) contends that IRF is not unnatural because it appears in parent-child interaction and that it suits the core goal of learning or education.

Research on IRF/IRE concentrated on what types of questions are initiated in the first turn and to what extent they are pedagogically effective (e.g. questions that introduced negotiation elicited substantive student contributions) and the role of the third turn with its functional categories (e.g. focus on form / content; recasts, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition) (Cullen 2002; Hellerman 2003; Lee 2007; Nassaji & Wells 2000). These studies in general claim that IRF/IRE sequences need not to have a restrictive function and can be used to create communicative, more life-like, teacher-student interaction.

This study

The purpose of this study was to examine three turn sequences in L2 reading classroom discourse at different proficiency levels to find out the patterns of these sequences, the content and function of first and third moves in the sequence and to see whether uptake/repair occurs in response to the third

turns. Conversation analysis (CA), which is data-driven analysis of the structure of talk (ordinary conversation or institutional contexts) (Markee 2000) was used as a research method.

CA terms

From a CA perspective, conversation is organized in terms of sequences, the most basic example of which is adjacency pairs. Adjacency pairs are sequences of two utterances that are produced by different speakers and are ordered so that a particular first part requires a particular second (Schegloff & Sacks 1973, as cited in Levinson 1983). However, it is often the case that adjacency pairs are embedded with insertion sequences and strict adjacency is not observed (Levinson 1983). Minimal form of a sequence is two turns but there are expansions such as third turn which are called sequence-closing third (e.g., oh, okay, or assessments such as great) (Schegloff 2007). They are integral part in classroom context and some are preferred (i.e., positive assessment) while some are dispreferred (i.e., negative assessment)

According to Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks (1977), a central conversation device is the organization of repair. Conversational repair has three parts: trouble source (anything impeding communication), repair initiation, outcome (the success or failure of repair attempt). Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks maintain that there is a preference for self-initiation and self-repair over repair by others. However, in classroom IRF/IRE sequences, there is the prevalence of other (i.e., teacher) initiated repair (Macbeth 2004).

Data and analysis

Two different reading classes at intermediate level and two different reading classes at advanced level were audio-recorded at a state university. Participating teachers and students were native speakers of Turkish. The data consisted of approximately six class hours total. Lesson structure was the same in all the classes: pre-reading tasks followed by reading the texts and while-reading tasks. Turn-taking, adjacency pairs, preferences, repair were examined in teacher-student interaction sequences.

Results

Pedagogic goals in the pre-reading activities at both levels were to activate the relevant schemata for the subject /concepts in the reading passage, to promote discussion, to tap students' opinion and personal knowledge. Pedagogic goals in the while-reading (comprehension) activities at both levels were to check comprehension by getting students to answer single answer questions (multiple choice, true / false questions) from the book.

The data analyzed revealed that initiation-response-evaluation/feedback pattern is not restricted with three turns and in fact there are embeddings between the first and third turns.

First turns were always initiated by the teacher. The teacher introduced the topic but the students introduced subtopics and self selected in the pre-reading activities whereas in the while-reading activities the teacher designated turns. Moreover, first turns were either display or referential questions. Referential questions occurred in discussion parts in the pre-reading activities more often while display questions occurred in the multiple choice or true/false type comprehension and vocabulary questions. Referential / negotiable information questions opened up the possibility of giving the role of primary knower to the students as they question students' opinions and personal knowledge. This resulted in a more genuine conversation where asymmetry of knowledge was balanced (Heritage 1997).

Third turns showed a variety in function and content. Based on the response in the second turn, the teacher decided how to proceed and this was not usually in the form of evaluation. In the pre-reading activities at the advanced level focus was on content and even when the students made grammar mistakes, they were not corrected by the teacher. The third move was usually reframing of the initial question for moving the conversation on, co-constructing information together with the students rather than imposing the teacher's opinion or judgment. From a repair perspective, there was other-initiated repair by teacher in terms of clarification requests, as in normal conversation and this was followed by self-repair by students.

In the pre-reading activities at the intermediate level, focus was on not only on content but also on form. There were other-initiated other-repairs by the teacher (mostly recasts). However, recasts were not intrusive in the flow of the interaction and they did not always lead to self-repair. This result may be

attributed to the possibility that teachers are worried that there could be fossilization in the interlanguage of the students.

In the while-reading activities at both levels, the third move was used not only for guiding and facilitating exchanges but also for monitoring students' understanding. There was no explicit correction in the follow-up move (dispreferred turn), and sometimes the teacher delayed her response by using a preface (e.g. hmm). Unlike pre-reading activities, here self-repair initiated by using a recast was observed in the data.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that teachers can change the organization of interaction according to the needs of the students and their own pedagogical aims. If teachers prefer to create grounds for more meaningful, genuine conversations, they can do this by manipulating their first and third moves. Nevertheless, this will not change the fact that they are in a classroom for the purpose of teaching and learning.

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The difference women make: a critique of the notion of a ‘women’s style’ of language in political contexts

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Researchers agree that there is a set of linguistic features that are routinely and stereotypically associated with feminine and masculine speech in the workplace. Holmes (2006) finds that these aptly highlight the dominant cultural expectations of gender appropriate behaviour. However, women in the workplace have been found to use the competitive features associated with male styles and men have been found to use consensual features associated with female styles (Mullany 2007). There is also some evidence to show that women are engaging in ‘double voice’ discourse and undertaking more of the conversational ‘work’ in institutions than their male counterparts (Baxter 2008). This complex set of contested and relational practices suggests that there is no straightforward relationship between gender and styles of workplace discourse.

Within political science there has also been a discussion about a feminised ‘style’ of politics. The claim for the existence of a feminised style often forms part of wider debates around the substantive representation of women (Lovenduski 2005). This notion of a ‘style’ is a fairly vague term which can relate to the way women dress, to the topics they raise and the language they use in the debating chamber. Here I am particularly interested in the elements of this notion of style which relate to communication and language. This idea of a feminised speech style contends that women bring a ‘consensual’ or non-adversarial communication style to politics. This is also a common perception of women MPs who consider that they have a feminised style of politics (Childs 2004).

It is therefore evident that the notion of a female, consensual style and a male competitive or adversarial style is *ideologically salient* to women MPs in the House of Commons, and to researchers in political science. However, there is a distinct lack of evidence showing these styles exist. As political scientists point out: ‘the dominant explanation put forward by women themselves is that they ‘do’ politics differently – but this is very difficult to test empirically’ (Cowley and Childs 2003, 365). This is a central point as the majority of these studies into the ‘women’s style’ of politics rely on

interview data, or often take as a starting point observations about the feminised style as reported in the media. These methods are unlikely to illuminate the discussion about gendered styles, as interviewees and journalists are not likely to yield an accurate description of politicians' behaviour (linguistic or otherwise). My own research into the language used by men and women MPs in the House of Commons (Shaw 2000, 2006) supports the findings from research into language and gender in the workplace (cited above) by showing that both women and men use adversarial language in the debating chamber.

Given these findings, why does this notion of a 'women's style' persist in political science? Part of the reason may be that political science is dominated by methodologies that are not able to uncover the complexity of these issues. Quantitative accounts of gendered voting patterns and statistical measures of the amount of times different politicians use a 'gender term' do not seem very sophisticated tools for accounting for the interwoven, fractured and competing pressures experienced by MPs. There is a lack of highly contextualised, detailed studies of behaviour in these political contexts. There may also be an unwillingness to engage with theoretical ideas about the performative nature of gender and the multiplicity of speakers' identities. This in turn might be the case because there is hard-won ground to be lost here. Women are still struggling to gain equal political representation (The House of Commons is currently only 20% women) and a 'difference' agenda may be seen as a way of improving this representation. Women in politics may perceive that there is an advantage to be gained from the belief that they bring a 'civilising' influence to historically male-dominated, adversarial forums.

However, this may be a risky strategy as there are inevitable consequences to perpetuating these stereotypical notions of male and female speech styles. Clare Walsh (2001: 6) suggests that the value placed upon co-operative discourse strategies by some feminists may 'have contributed to the creation of a gendered split *within* the public sphere, by reinforcing the prevailing view, including among women themselves that they are naturally suited to relatively low-status roles'. It may also make it harder for professional women to perform in adversarial contexts, firstly because more pressure is put on women to perform a 'civilising' role and secondly because women must 'manage their femininity carefully because if they do not 'display the acceptable feminine style in these incredibly gendered environments, they risk being labeled as somewhat strange and grotesque' (Puwar 2004:75). This, in turn, means that they cannot simply 'don the male costume and

mimic the male performance’ (Puwar 2004:ibid). Most significantly, this emphasis on a feminine consensual style may actually exclude women from politics by making them feel that they cannot participate successfully in adversarial contexts.

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Language and gender in African contexts

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This paper does not report an empirical study. Rather, it looks at some issues raised when considering the topic of ‘Language and Gender in African Contexts’, and sketches out what might be included in a research programme.

There is a large gap in the literature here. Plenty can be found on the linguistics of African languages, including the functioning of *grammatical* gender (e.g. Katamba, 2006), and indeed on African sociolinguistics (e.g. Djite, 2008). There is also a huge amount of work on development and gender, for example the education of girls, and literacy programmes in Africa for women. But the topic of gender and language (using *language* in the sociolinguistic and discourse senses), though also very fruitful, is, to date, badly under-explored.

This is not to say that Africa is a *particularly* ‘special’ continent. Every continent is surely ‘special’ in some way. And anything that happens in one continent varies hugely within that continent. More importantly, anything that happens in one continent has ‘echoes’ outside it. It is important to avoid even the suggestion of essentialism. Rather, something (‘X’) may be characteristic of a given African context – but is not a defining feature relevant to all its members, and is unlikely to be characteristic forever.

What do we mean by ‘African contexts’? ‘Context’ extends to the historical, the socio-political and the geographical. Geographically, contexts would extend from the entire continent through to a short-lived Community of Practice, taking in along the way the Sub-Saharan/North Africa distinction, nations, provinces and other regions, ethnic groupings (including those which cross national boundaries), towns, villages, settings (such as markets and courts) – perhaps extending to the diaspora.

How do we (can we?) ‘characterise’ African contexts? To stick my neck out, a few suggestions are: cultures of orality, multi-lingualism/multi-ethnicity, respect for the elderly, strong family networks, gender differentiation, and

sharp juxtapositions of the traditional and the modern – relative to some of the ‘Western’ world. These characteristics have implications for topics, research questions and data.

Topics related to specific languages include functions of the verb *marry* (and related lexis), the equivalent of which in Kinyarwanda (spoken in Rwanda) and Setswana and Ikalanga (spoken in Botswana) requires a male subject and female object, i.e. a man can ‘marry’ a woman, but not *vice versa* (Kimenyi, 1992). So in Kinyarwanda ‘Yohaáni yaróongoye Mariyá’, i.e. ‘John married Mary’, can be said, but not *‘Mariyá yaróongoye Yohaáni’. We can posit an association between this and the marriage institution itself.

Sociolinguistic topics include the familiar ones of gender and language/dialect choice (considering questions of prestige and brokership), gender variation in tone (see e.g. Pearce (2009) on Kera in Chad), and alternative language styles (for example, the new use by young women of ‘Student Pidgin’ in Ghana (Dako, 2002). Also of interest is *hlonipha*, a ‘language of respect’ characteristic of a dialect of Sesotho, which entails women being expected not to use certain lexis associated with sex, but instead ‘baby language’ equivalents. This does not serve them well when reporting sexual assault (Hanong Thetela, 2002).

In terms of discourse, *names* in many African languages are of interest because they are often lexically significant, and indeed gendered. Titles can also be important, in a particular gendered way. For example, married women academics in one Nigerian workplace tend to be known as ‘Dr Mrs’ (Mustapha, n.d.). African languages have their own terms of abuse for women (as do all languages) as well as gendered metaphors and proverbs; for the latter, how (and in what contexts) they are used are as of much interest as the proverbs themselves. And, of course, there are (gendered) discourses surrounding a whole range of issues, for example, affirmative action (and the Beijing Declaration), sexual violence, domestic assault, HIV-AIDS, girls’ schooling, domestic labour and childcare. There is also scope for the study of institutional discourse, e.g. in traditional and modern courts, traditional pre-marriage advice sessions, and parliament.

For Stylistics, topics include gender representation in the language of modern and traditional songs, myths and folklore (as orature sites), and in novels/plays by African writers, and of African women, men and gender relations by non-Africans.

One key issue here is feminism, which has underpinned much language and gender study. In many African contexts, feminism has associations of being anti-family and anti-men. As everywhere, there are misunderstandings here, but these cannot be swept under the table. And there is now a journal called *Feminist Africa*....

Why am I, a UK citizen, resident in the UK, writing about language and gender in African contexts? Isn't this a form of neo-colonialism? I hope not. Non-Africans cannot and should not embark on such a project without being part of a wider network of African researchers (which I am). But surely non-Africans do have something to offer. One is the ethnographic 'outsider perspective' through which we can 'make strange' (and hence facilitate the exploration of) a little of what is familiar to our African colleagues (just as they can with non-African contexts). Secondly, much of Africa, like everywhere else, is now distinctly 'global', and we are all a part of that.

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Identifying the common problems in English-to-Japanese consecutive interpretations performed by Japanese interpreting students: comparing student interpreters with Japanese professional interpreters

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Introduction

The purpose of the present research is to identify the possible causes for the problem that Japanese student interpreters encountered when they consecutively interpreted English (L2) to Japanese (L1). In the previous research (Takahashi, 2009), it was found that problematic omissions were one of the common problems among student interpreters. In the present research, the interpretations performed by student interpreters were compared with those performed by professional interpreters and the possible causes for problematic omissions were identified by analyzing the differences between student interpreters and professional interpreters.

Study

In the previous research (Takahashi, 2009), nine student interpreters, namely, five post-graduate students and four mature students were asked to consecutively interpret four different English texts. After interpreting, they were asked to reflect upon their interpretations by comparing their interpretations with the original English texts.

As Pinkerton and Grainger (2007) argue, there is no standard to assess interpretations in general. Therefore, the method that Bariks (1971) applied to evaluating simultaneous interpretations was adapted. However, the omissions and errors were counted in terms of a chunk. The definition of the chunk was in line with Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics. As a result, it was discovered that problematic omissions of interpretations were one of the common problems for the student interpreters. This means that the original sense of the English texts was distorted by the omissions of interpretations (qualitative reduction) and it

does not necessarily mean summarization of the English texts (quantitative reduction).

In order to compare student interpreters with professional interpreters, three professional interpreters having at least a six-year working experience were asked to interpret the same English texts and their interpretations were analyzed by the same method as was used for the student interpreters. In addition, two methods were used: one quantitative; the other qualitative. In the quantitative method, the number of characters included in the transcribed interpretations was counted. It is a common way of measuring the quantity of speeches, writings and translations in Japan, whereas English uses the number of words. In the qualitative method, the omitted vocabulary was examined.

Results and Discussions

The mean percentage of omissions made by student interpreters was 26.4 percent ($SD = 11.24$) in terms of the number of chunks. The rate for the professional interpreters was 6.3 percent. In addition, the mean amount of interpretations performed by the professional interpreters was 2726 characters and for students was 2144 characters, which was 21.4 percent less than the professional interpreters. These figures support the finding that the student interpreters made omissions while consecutively interpreting.

As for the omitted vocabulary, the proper nouns, such as Spencer Schumacher, the name of the teacher, Cynthia Brockman, the name of the school psychologist, Hilary Duff, a Disney star, and Normandy Elementary School, were included in the omitted vocabulary. Such words as ‘attendance’, ‘with in cell’ and ‘bleeding’ were also included. According to the student interpreters, ‘attendance’ sounded like ‘tendance’, ‘with in cell’ sounded like ‘with itself’, ‘bleeding’ sounded like ‘breezing’ and ‘Normandy’ sounded like ‘Normally’. Therefore, they became confused, resulting in omissions. The three professional interpreters interpreted properly. The context should not have permitted the words with these pronunciations, even if they sounded like such. This indicated that the student interpreters were not able to follow the text. As the student interpreters were preoccupied with phonetic perception of the words, it was too much to come up with even a hypernym for the words. This finding was also supported by their comments: they were not able to understand what it was all about. So they were not able to interpret.

This also means that the student interpreters had a difficulty in speech perception, which is exemplified by the students' post-study interview. All but one student interpreter complained about their poor perception of the vocabulary. Ur (1984) mentions that identifying the right phoneme(s) is the students' main problem at early stage of learning.

As for omitted vocabulary, eight out of nine student interpreters had a problem with a word 'backpack'. Among these eight, three student interpreters were not able to utter even a single Japanese word. Four of them provided interpretations with wrong meanings. The English original text was: "The backpacks started going home when teachers saw that so many kids came to school hungry on Monday." The sentence followed the preceding narration, which was designed to provide a context. Moreover, the three interpreters were able to convey the accurate meaning.

Conclusion

All the student interpreters in the study had already achieved a TOEIC score over 900. However, when they were asked to interpret, they seemed to place too much focus on individual words. Thus their interpretations were based on a 'word-for-word' process, without following the context, which often resulted in problematic omissions. This means that the student interpreters relied only on the bottom-up listening approach, which did not allow the student interpreters to guess from the context. In addition, they seemed not to comprehend meaning even at a "chunk-for-chunk" level, but perceived the words first and interpreted at a "word-for-word" (Gerver, 1969). Selescovitch and Lederer (1989) also argue that interpretation is conveying the sense of one language into another language. According to Gile (1995), mere recognition of words is not enough for comprehension during interpreting.

Educational implications

Students must acquire "top-down" processing of comprehension in order to understand a text. Therefore, it is recommended that gist listening practice is introduced as part of training. At the same time, it is necessary for teachers to know the level of speech perception abilities of the interpreter students and to examine whether the level of students' listening abilities are adequate.

Future study

Since students complained about their poor speech perception, there is a need to examine listening abilities of both student interpreters and professional interpreters by administering speech perception tests in order to establish a relationship between speech perception abilities and interpretations.

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31 Two critical tips to motivate EFL learners to read extensively

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The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of Starting with Simple Stories (SSS) and Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) on motivating EFL learners to read extensively. Over the past decade, extensive reading (ER) has rapidly been spreading among people of all ages in Japan. One of the causes of this favourable trend is the spread of the new style of ER, called SSS, which was advocated by Sakai in the late 1990s (Sakai 2002). Furthermore, it has been promoted by the SSS study group and the Japan Extensive Reading Association (JERA) members. Using the SSS method, learners are encouraged to read many easy books, which are considered ‘i, 2 or 3’ level, at the beginning of ER. By finishing many books, however easy they are, learners feel a sense of accomplishment, which leads to self-confidence. This encourages learners to read more and creates a virtuous circle. At the same time, reading easy books enables them to recognize words automatically. This facilitates the learners’ smooth shift to higher levels of books.

According to Krashen (1993), reading proficiency can be improved by free voluntary reading (FVR), which refers to any in-school program where students are provided a short time for reading that requires no book report to be written or after-reading tasks. SSR is one type of FVR. The effectiveness of SSR has been shown by many teachers and practitioners to assist in developing students’ reading proficiency in their L1 (e.g., Henry 1995, Pilgreen 2000). Krashen claims that FVR or SSR is also effective for second and foreign language learners in bridging the gap between the beginning and advanced level by consolidating the learner’s foundation in the language allowing him/her to acquire higher levels of proficiency. The most crucial benefit of SSR is that it gives busy learners time to read, and by reading among peers they can greatly improve their power of concentration. Also, in the foreign language classrooms, in particular, teachers can monitor learners’ reading performance and give them appropriate advice on the spot.

This study was carried out in two institutions:

- 1) A total of 37 students from Toyota National College of Technology participated in ER performing 45-minute SSR per week for four years. Before the ER course was implemented in 2003, the average TOEIC score of the students of this college had been lower than 350, which was much lower than that of the average score of university students across Japan. The participants of the current study, however, were greatly motivated to read by the new style of ER method, SSS and SSR, and continued reading for four consecutive years. They read several hundred easy-to-read books in the first year and covered a total of 690 thousand words in median throughout the four year course. They said that reading English texts without concurrent translation was unexpected but a fascinating experience. Every year their TOEIC score was raised by approximately 40 points, and during the fourth year of the ER course, they raised their average TOEIC scores to 517 and surpassed the university students whose average was 500. The participants were then divided into three groups according to their reading amount and their TOEIC scores were compared with their former counterparts who had had no ER. Even the group who read least, approximately 310 thousand words on the average, scored 435. This score was significantly higher than the former non-ER group, who were not able to maintain a score over 350.
- 2) A total of 72 participants from four groups in Kinki University participated in ER for one academic year. Groups 1A and 1B performed the 30-minute SSR per week. Reading easy books at the beginning of the ER course, they read 155 books (145,000 words) on the average under the guidance of the teacher. Conversely, 48 participants from groups 2A and 2B had no SSR and were required to read outside of class. Lack of SSR means not only no reading time in class, but also no monitor or guidance by the teacher on the spot. Participants from 2A chose difficult books from the beginning and read only 22 books (55,000 words) throughout the year on average. In contrast, group 2B read easy books at the beginning and covered 56 books (57,000 words) throughout the year.

As a result, groups 1A and 1B, who had SSR and SSS, showed statistically significant gains at $p < .001$ on the Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading post test. Group 2B, who performed no SSR but followed SSS style, gained significantly at the $p < .05$ level on the same test. In contrast, 2A, who mainly read a small number of difficult books, showed insignificant gains (Tables 1 & 2).

	<i>N</i>	Pre-EPER		Post EPER	
		<i>M</i> (Min-Max)	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i> (Min-Max)	<i>SD</i>
1A	36	16.3 (7-27)	4.10	20.4 (11-35)	5.15
1B	36	25.4 (13-51)	7.22	30.0 (17-47)	6.88
2A	24	22.5 (14-32)	5.06	24.7 (10-43)	7.16
2B	24	24.8 (11-37)	5.84	27.1 (14-43)	7.37

Table 1. Pre- and the Post EPER Test Scores

G	N	M	SD	SEM	t	df	Sig
1A	36	4.08	4.40	0.73	5.57	35	.000**
1B	36	4.56	5.07	0.85	5.39	35	.000**
2A	24	2.21	5.82	1.19	1.86	23	.076
2B	24	2.29	4.43	0.09	2.54	23	.018*

Table 2. Paired sample t-tests for the pre- and the post EPER tests

Note: ** $p < 0.001$, * $p < 0.05$

In conclusion, the above two studies illustrate that for a successful ER program at an EFL context, it is necessary to provide learners with time to read in class (SSR) under the guidance of a teacher and to encourage learners to read easy books at the beginning of ER (SSS).

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Bridging the gap between grammar instruction and intercultural communication: some applications of Cognitive Linguistics to the EFL classroom

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Utilizing the essential notions of Cognitive Linguistics (Langacker 2008, Talmy 2000, Slobin 1997) and those of Applied Cultural Linguistics (Nisbett 2003, Sharifian and Palmer 2007), we have shown that grammar instruction for EFL students can be exercised together with the development of knowledge on intercultural communication. We proposed a culturo-linguistically motivated model of grammar instruction that was underpinned with cognitive-linguistic notions such as *figure-ground alignment* and *cultural conceptualization*.

Developing an understanding of intercultural communication is one major goal of current EFL education, and there are many previous studies that obtained insightful results (e.g. Mckay 2009). However, such research tends to focus on “upper” level learners in that the subjects, in broad terms, have already acquired essential formal/grammatical skills and show a considerable fluency in English as a non-native speaker.

Our presentation argued that even with earlier stage grammar instruction, intercultural perspectives could be incorporated, and it was suggested this approach could serve as a footing for learners to develop their intercultural understandings at a later stage, while EFL classes in the earlier stages still tend to structure formal instructions and intercultural communication as different phases. This research targeted Japanese college students who had little experience of living/studying abroad, but who had started learning English for those purposes.

In the presentation, the following three grammatical explanations were focused as its case studies: motion construction, passive construction, and reflexive construction, which had, in particular, been considered as grammatical areas that Japanese learners of English were poor at handling well. As shown in two slides from our presentation below, we used pictures to show the students how differently English speakers tended to construe the

same pictures in spontaneous descriptions from Japanese speakers, and we provided them with the grammar instructions that put a special emphasis on such differences. For the reflexive construction, for instance, the instructions include “Try to see a motion (change) as being motivated by some potential force even if you can not see it objectively, especially if you want to put an emphasis on spontaneity, no external agent, or dynamic nature of the situation.” (See figure 2 below.) For each construction discussed here, presenting pieces of real-life students’ writing, we concluded that there were significant differences between before and after the instructions.

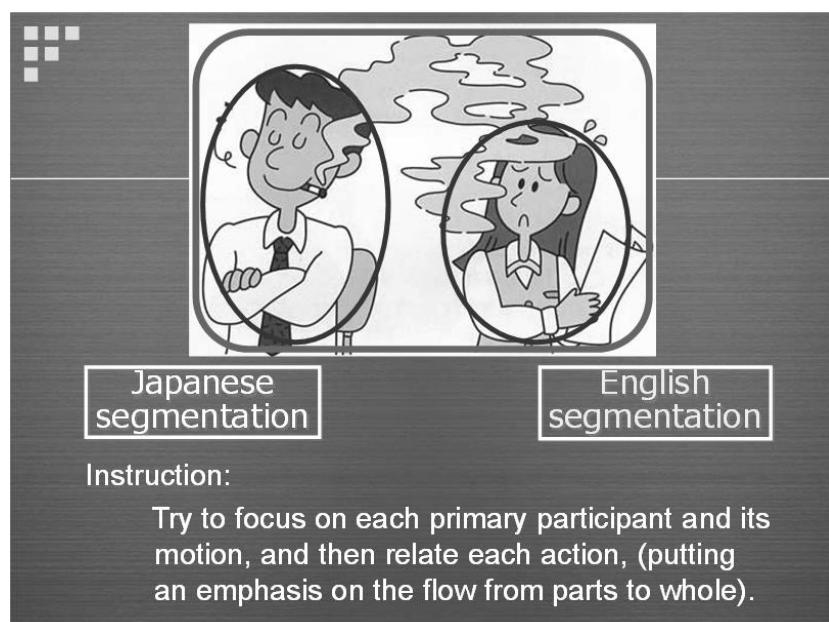


Figure 1: Passive Construction

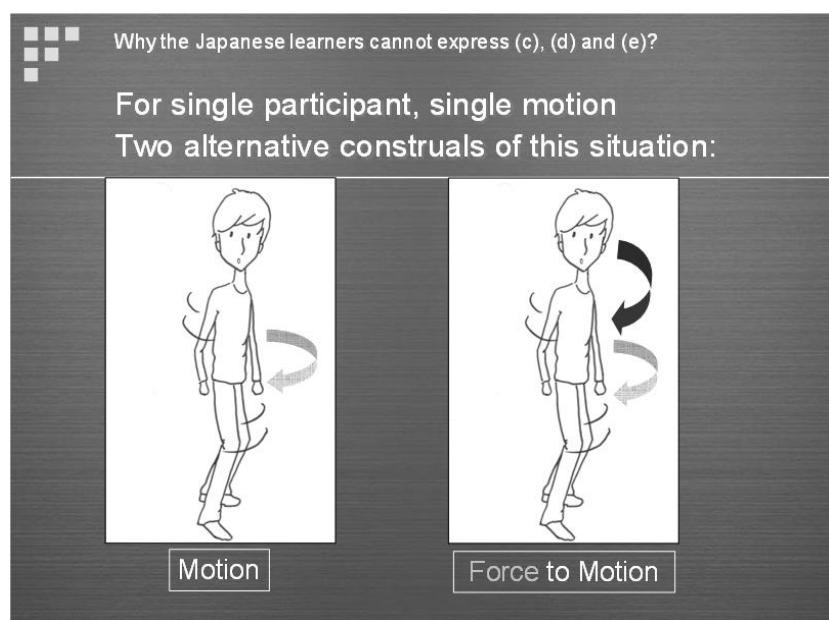


Figure 2: Reflexive Construction

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Lexical development across second language proficiency levels: a corpus-informed study

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Lexical development is explored using measures such as lexical variation (vocabulary range), lexical density (proportion of content words) and lexical sophistication (proportion of infrequent/rare words). These may be insufficient for identifying differences between L2 proficiency levels, so a broader approach is suggested, additionally exploring lexical bundles (extended collocations) in L2 output.

Studies have investigated bundles in spoken or written L1 English across registers or disciplines (e.g. Biber & Barbieri 2007; Cortes 2004) and L2 acquisition of collocations (e.g. Durrant & Schmitt 2009; Howarth 2001) although most focus on ‘advanced learners’ or competent NS. This study explores lexical progression in general purpose English L2 texts. Our dataset consists of 100 passing *Cambridge Certificates in ESOL Skills for Life* (SfL) writing scripts (36,000 words) sampled from the Cambridge Learner Corpus (CLC; 36 million words). We selected 20 candidates from each of five levels (Entry 1, Entry 2, Entry 3, Level 1, Level 2 - representing levels A1-C1 of the *Common European Framework of Reference*; CEFR). Candidates wrote 53–1003 words which provided 2,300–14,000 words per level. Unambiguously misspelt words were corrected.

Our word-level analysis explored lexical variation through STTRs (using WordSmith Tools, Scott 1999) and D-measure (using D_Tools, Meara & Miralpeix 2004). We investigated lexical sophistication using Web Vocabprofile and lexical density using Range (using Cobb’s Compleat Lexical Tutor). Our findings suggest that the average length of words, sentences, number of different words used and lexical variation increase with proficiency. Lexical density, however, did not differentiate between proficiency levels. Lexical sophistication showed that the largest proportion of words was from the first 2000 most frequent words, which generally decreases with increasing proficiency; the proportion of academic and off-list words increases with level, suggesting that this measure differentiates well between the lower proficiency levels (E1-3) and the higher proficiency levels (L1-2). Off-list words showed a progression from proper nouns and

words referring to everyday objects at the lower levels to words denoting more complex abstract notions and activities at the higher levels.

At the level of multi-word sequences, we identified and analysed recurrent 4-word lexical bundles across levels, having calculated their normed frequency (using Biber & Barbieri 2007's 40/million cut-off), and selected those produced by three or more writers. Lower proficiency learners (E1/2) used a limited set of bundles (6/27 types) mostly taken from the input. E3 learners mostly relied on their own resources (23 types), which resulted in fewer re-used bundles. Higher proficiency learners (L1/2) used even fewer bundles from the task prompts but more overall (66/91 types), suggesting greater creativity; task prompt re-use was 63-26% of lexical bundle types from lower to higher levels.

Following Biber & Barbieri (2007), Cortes (2004) and Nekrasova (2009), we functionally classified bundles into: referential (identifying an object or attribute); discourse (indicating discourse structure); stance (conveying attitudes and epistemic evaluations) and special conversational (expressing politeness, inquiry and report). The most frequent bundles overall were referential, the number and variety of which increased from E1 to L2. Discourse bundles were rarely used at lower levels; only at L1/2 did learners use them much more often. Stance and special conversational bundles exhibited a gradual increase in number and variety with proficiency. The analysis of functions of lexical bundles in L2 output provides insights into the development of discourse organisation and reveals that communicative need may inform their use. Whilst referential bundles dominate at all levels, other functions are increasingly used at higher levels. Stance and special conversational bundles are used more often than discourse bundles by lower proficiency learners which may indicate that they are required earlier, possibly for establishing an immediate connection with interactants. Discourse structuring bundles are the second most frequent category for higher proficiency learners, which could be due to learners' increased proficiency and the need to structure more complex messages.

Key factors behind L2 acquisition of lexical bundles could be a low degree of perceptual salience, since many bundles are incomplete structural units; structural or semantic complexity; or their specific discourse functions. Input frequency may also be important; this is one avenue for further research.

Overall, we suggest that lexis produced by learners clearly becomes more complex with every proficiency level. We found that enhanced frequency

measures are informative in identifying vocabulary progression across proficiency levels. The average length of words and sentences, the number of word tokens and types as well as lexical diversity and sophistication differentiated between levels, increasing in number and proportion with proficiency. WordSmith Tools and Compleat Lexical Tutor, and to a limited extent, D_Tools, were found to be useful software for investigating lexical progression. The frequency and functions of lexical bundles are also useful differentiators between language proficiency levels. Learning conventionalised word strings starts emerging after the lowest proficiency level but becomes truly productive only at later stages of second language acquisition which correspond to SfL levels L1/2 (B2/C1 on the CEFR). Lexical bundles are rarely used by the lowest proficiency SfL learners, which suggests that they rely on learning individual words rather than conventionalised multi-word sequences. Use of conventionalised strings starts developing from E2 level, but they are used more productively only at higher proficiency levels.

This study combined qualitative and quantitative approaches to lexical progression in L2 general purpose writing. It has implications for the field of L2 acquisition, for language testers who can follow this methodology to strengthen the validity argument for writing tests, and also for teachers who could use this study to raise awareness of lexical development, especially of lexical bundles, which may help to focus preparatory work for general purpose language qualifications and suggest ways of analysing their students' work.

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Language, Learning, and Context

Proceedings of the 42nd Annual
Meeting
of the British Association for
Applied Linguistics
Newcastle University
3-5 September 2009

Edited by
Andrew Harris & Adam Brandt



ISBN: 978-1-9999369-2-1