A CASE STUDY IN THE RESTRUCTURING OF LINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE

AMONG ADULT ESL STUDENTS

by

RONALD JOHN FAZIO

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Department of Language Education

The University of British Columbia
Vancouver, Canada

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ABSTRACT

This study examines two cases of Japanese learners involved in an eight-month university exchange program in Canada. Case A, comprised of one male and one female subject, was classified as containing "advanced" speakers of English, while Case B, also composed of one male and one female subject, was classified as containing "novice" speakers of English. For the first time in their careers as second language students, these subjects experienced a task-based, process approach to learning mediated through student group membership.

The study attempted a psycholinguistic analysis of individual styles of second language acquisition (SLA) through an examination of the use of three kinds of performance features: self repairs, repeats and hesitation pauses. It also attempted to draw a sociolinguistic portrait of these subjects as learners whose strategies for language acquisition were related to educational and cultural factors.

Although the findings in psycho- and sociolinguistic areas of inquiry were inconclusive regarding the role of restructuring, the results indicated that changes in procedural knowledge regarding strategic behaviour occurred for both cases, and that a more autonomous attitude towards group control of behaviour was articulated by the Case A subjects. Changes in

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orientations to learning as measured by performance feature use were not significant, although a trend towards decreased use of hesitation pauses in Case B suggested a reduced reliance on unverbalized planning. Finally, both cases demonstrated growth in the use of such reading strategies as scanning for main ideas and using contextual clues.

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CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Restructuring has been advanced by a number of researchers (Rumelhart & Norman, 1978; Cheng, 1985; Karmiloff-Smith, 1986; McLaughlin, 1990) as a means of explaining the nature of first and second language acquisition. Restructuring is seen as a process where higher order cognitive knowledge re-organizes lower order linguistic knowledge into forms approximating those of the target language. In this way, "bits and pieces" of grammatical and lexical knowledge gradually develop into native speaker fluency, in the case of first language learners. For adult second language learners, native speaker levels of fluency are rarely, if ever achieved; rather, the restructuring of linguistic knowledge would appear to play an integral part in the development of a functional and evolving interlanguage, where non-systematic variability of form gradually gives way to systematicity (Ellis, 1985a).

One way of explaining the restructuring process is to examine conceptions of and changes in knowledge. A related concept in cognitive psychology may be that of the development of procedural knowledge and practical expertise in a given field (Anderson, 1983). Procedural knowledge—a knowledge of the steps involved in

actualizing a goal--has been studied by cognitive

psychologists under the premise that "mind is better

construed in terms of what it can do than in terms of what

it 'knows'" (Kolers & Roediger, 1984, p. 440). Thus,

procedural knowledge has been studied with reference to

socialization processes and expert-novice communication

among professionals--areas requiring a situation-specific

type of knowledge transcending a merely factual

understanding. In second language acquisition, procedural

knowledge would appear to be operative in language

learning strategies (Faerch & Kasper, 1987; O'Malley &

Chamot, 1990), in that these strategies constitute

knowledge of specific procedures necessary to put

pedagogical material to practical use, or to clarify

misunderstandings.

Performance features--aspects of oral production such

as self repair, hesitation pauses, and repeats--are

thought to be indicators of strategic behaviour (Faerch &

Kasper, 1983c). Seliger (1980) has argued that performance

features may be indicative of either "planful" or

"corrective" orientations to second language production.

As such, performance features would appear to be component

parts of procedural knowledge in that they are the

external manifestations of a cognitive decision-making

process. Seliger's classification provides an interesting

conceptual framework upon which to analyze the function

and importance of performance features vis-a-vis strategic behaviour and second language acquisition.

In summary, the current understanding of restructuring among adult learners of a second language is incomplete. What is known, based on observations of these learners, is that the restructuring process is almost always incomplete before fossilization of interlanguage forms appears, and that a number of socio-cultural and motivational variables interact with the cognitive processes involved in restructuring. The development of procedural knowledge appears to be a fundamental component of restructuring but, when placed within a broader perspective, it would also seem to play an integral part in the learning of socio-cultural norms of communicative behaviour. For the second language learner, these norms of behaviour may inhibit the restructuring process when they are not in accord with the communicative behaviour of target language speakers. Thus, restructuring may not be a purely linguistic process; the degree to which a learner successfully acquires a second language may depend on the degree to which he or she adapts to culturally-determined (i.e., "practical") dynamics of communication.

Purpose of the Study

This study investigates the restructuring of procedural knowledge in four Japanese undergraduate students over a four month period. The students were

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members of an exchange program studying in Canada and had
newly-begun their program of studies during the period of
data collection.

Specifically, this study attempts to analyze the
restructuring of procedural knowledge in three areas
related to second language acquisition: 1) performance
features as they relate to oral production; 2) learning
strategies in the acquisition of grammar, pronunciation,
and reading, writing, listening and conversational skills;
and 3) knowledge, potentially culturally-determined, of
small group dynamics as this relates to the second
language learning process.

Practical Significance of the Study

The phenomenon of groups of Japanese students
spending prolonged periods of time studying at Canadian
universities and other educational institutions is a
relatively new one. It is a trend very likely to
accelerate in the future, however. Of prime importance to
curriculum developers and instructors involved in this
type of program, then, is a well-developed understanding
of the psycho- and sociolinguistic behaviour of Japanese
language learners. This is especially true in light of
apparent differences in the nature of second language
education in Japanese and Canadian institutions, and the
effects of culture and strategy use on Japanese learners'
acquisition of English in a Canadian academic setting.

To summarize this chapter, the restructuring of knowledge is seen as a complex cognitive process where linguistic knowledge is refined into target language norms. Procedural knowledge has been argued here to be a key element in restructuring. This type of knowledge may be the means by which a learner develops strategic behaviour. More fundamentally, cultural norms may be a form of procedural knowledge. Thus, in order to examine the concept of restructuring thoroughly, it may not be sufficient merely to analyze changes in linguistic output over time. Rather, an overall picture of the phenomenology of language learning must also be created in order to help explain how learners attempt to refine their knowledge of both linguistic and sociolinguistic systems.

Toward this goal, Chapter 2 will review the literature related to the psycholinguistic processes involved in restructuring. The discussion will also deal with culturally-determined patterns of communication which, it will be argued, play a role in the restructuring process. Chapter 3 will list the research problems of the study and describe the methodology employed in the case studies. In Chapter 4, findings related to longitudinal changes in strategic behaviour will be presented, and tentative explanations for these changes will be offered. Chapter 5 will outline the limitations and implications of the research, and then present general conclusions

regarding the restructuring of procedural knowledge

related to strategic behaviour and patterns of

communication.

CHAPTER 2:

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter seeks to expand upon the areas
introduced in Chapter One. Thus, cognitive theory as it
relates to procedural knowledge and second language
learning will be discussed, as will the relationship
between procedural knowledge and restructuring.

An analysis of communication styles in Japanese
culture will also be undertaken. Especially important here
will be a discussion of the prominence of the group in
Japanese culture and the impact this prominence has on
Japanese learners of English. This cultural analysis will
be carried out for the specific purpose of attempting to
elaborate up the relationship between culturally-grounded
knowledge and the process of restructuring. Finally, a
typology will be developed based on communication and
learning strategies.

The Cognitive Perspective

Anderson (1983) argues that procedural learning
"occurs only in executing a skill" (p. 215). He calls
procedural learning sequences "productions", involving
"data-action" pairs which, if present in memory, serve as
a guide to action (pp. 5-6).

Procedural knowledge is contrasted with declarative
knowledge, or cognitive units which are, according to
Anderson, "such things as propositions (for example (*hate,*

Bill, Fred)), strings (*one, two, three*), or spatial images (a triangle above a square)" (p. 23). The distinction between the two types of knowledge has been put in simpler terms by Ellis (1985), who refers to procedural knowledge as "knowing how" and to declarative knowledge as "knowing that" (p.166). The procedural-declarative knowledge dichotomy is seen by Anderson (1983) as a facet of a "unitary theory of cognition" (p. 1), in which individual cognitive processes, including language, are representations of the same overall framework. Thus, within Anderson's theoretical structure, language acquisition is but one embodiment of a set of principles basic to human cognition. Specifically, syntactic development of a child's first language "mirrors the structure of procedural control" (p. 261).

Cognitive Theory and Second Language Acquisition

McLaughlin (1987) argues that the "internal representations" central to language acquisition are language-based (pp. 133-134). The procedural knowledge inherent in language acquisition involves propositions related to the lexical, syntactic, and pragmatic rules of language use. These propositions are developed gradually through practice, as part of the overall cognitive process (Anderson, 1983, p. 267; McLaughlin, 1987, p. 134).

The cognitive framework, then, provides one theoretical underpinning for the study of learners'

strategies within the second language acquisition process, in that it links strategic behaviour with procedural knowledge, and posits that "language and cognition [are] seen to be inextricably interrelated" in memory storage (O'Malley & Chamot, p. 55). This would seem to indicate that strategic behaviour is linked to a process of cognitive development that learners experience along with their linguistic knowledge. It thus raises an important question related to the development of both linguistic and strategic knowledge: do these intertwined branches of knowledge grow together as a result of the same overall cognitive process, or does strategic (procedural) knowledge act as a metalinguistic regulator of linguistic (declarative) knowledge? The following section will attempt to deal with this question.

Automaticity and Restructuring

Studies (Clark & Clark, 1977; Wode, et al., 1978) have shown that children learning English as their first language initially acquired the correct past tense forms of irregular verbs (e.g., went, came), but then went through a phase of reformulation of these irregular forms to products of the regular rule (e.g., "goed" or "wented", "comed"). This phase, in turn, was replaced by the correct usage of both regular and irregular forms of the past tense.

The first stage of this process, the acquisition of

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irregular past tense forms, provides an example of

automaticity, described by McLaughlin (1990) as follows:

> The development of any complex cognitive skill is
> thought to require building up a set of well-learned,
> automatic procedures so that controlled processes are
> freed for new learning. From a practical standpoint,
> the necessary component is overlearning. A skill must
> be practiced again and again and again, until no
> attention is required for its performance (p. 115).

In an earlier theoretical framework of cognitive

development, Rumelhart and Norman (1978) describe

automaticity somewhat differently, using the notions of

"accretion" and "schema tuning" (p. 51). Schema are seen

as "acting data processing units" (p. 44), and the learner

is able to add ("accrete") knowledge within schema so long

as it falls in close approximation with the existing

organizational framework ("default values") of the schema.

"Schema tuning" (p. 51) will also occur, where slight

adjustments are made to the organizational framework to

accommodate slightly variant data.

While seen as a necessary condition for language

acquisition, automaticity is not in itself a sufficient

condition (McLaughlin, 1990; Lightbown, 1985). This is

because as learners detect new information or find new

patterns in the language, a cognitive restructuring of

this information is necessary. Rumelhart and Norman (1978)

see restructuring as the construction of new schema based

on the old framework, but do not speculate on the actual

cognitive processes involved. Howard (1985) has elaborated upon the important concepts of top-down and bottom-up processing. Bottom-up processing deals with the learner's "picking up" of diverse pieces of lexical and syntactic knowledge, while top-down processing describes the cognitive operations necessary to the integration of linguistic knowledge within meaningful frames of reference (pp. 291-292). Karmiloff-Smith (1986) argues for a restructuring process involving three phases. In the initial, or "procedural phase" (p. 173), children attend to the external stimulus of hearing, for example, past tense forms and proceed to incorporate them, in a data-driven, bottom-up manner, as unanalyzed chunks into their speech. In the second phase, the child "goes beyond success", and "works on ...earlier (successful) procedural representations as problem spaces in their own right" (p. 174), by employing a top-down analysis of existing data. (This process can be compared with "denativization" [Andersen, 1989], and "hypothesis formulation and testing" [Schachter, 1986]). The third phase, a "conceptual phase" (p. 174) involves a full restructuring where the external stimuli of phase one and the internal processing of phase two are incorporated into a fully-developed ability to use the past tense forms of the English language.

In a similar though less structured description, Cheng (1985) argues that restructuring involves the

reintegration of the elements of a learning task into a new form possessing new components which are more accurate representations of the task. Implicit in this description (and explicit in that of Karmiloff-Smith), is the idea of the learner striving for successful communication, and then going "beyond success" (Karmiloff-Smith, 1986, p. 174) to a complete mastery of the task.

Restructuring, then, is seen as the means toward mastery (Lightbown, 1985), although most learners of a second language never attain native-speaker fluency. McLaughlin (1990), reporting on research by Ard and Gass (1987), hypothesized that:

> development in a second language may involve the interaction of lexical and syntactic processes, with restructuring occurring as one or the other process predominates (p. 122).

It may be insufficient, however, to argue that the learner functioning in a foreign culture restructures linguistic knowledge only. Given the apparent relationship between restructuring and procedural knowledge, and Anderson's (1983) assertion that procedural and declarative knowledge are a single element in a larger cognitive framework, it would seem reasonable to infer that a restructuring of culturally-based knowledge is also a fundamental part of the language learning experience. This would also hold true, of course, for culturally-bound

conceptions of the nature and goals of education and the learning process as these relate to SLA.

A tentative answer to the question posed above on the nature of the relationship between strategic and linguistic knowledge (see p. 8) may now perhaps be attempted. Through strategic analysis, the learner appears to initiate a process of discovery related to the internal logic of the rules--syntactic, lexical and, perhaps, pragmatic--of a specific language. When enough information has been obtained about this internal logic, a process of restructuring occurs. Strategic and linguistic knowledge thus appear to be different yet closely related, with the former type of knowledge providing procedural pathways to gain access to declarative knowledge inherent in linguistic systems. If it is indeed the case, other questions must be asked. One such question would relate to the dynamic between strategies an restructuring. For example, are strategies of a more cognitively complex nature born of the restructuring process as in a feedback loop, or do strategies remain constant through time? Another area of inquiry relates to consciousness, strategy formation, and second language acquisition. To what extent, for example, are strategies conscious processes? Finally, in relation to SLA, what mi the actual correspondence be between what learners <u>say</u> the know of the second language and their <u>operative</u> cognitive

representations of linguistic forms and functions? These
questions will be examined below in subsequent sections of
this review.

Consciousness and Second Language Acquisition

According to McLaughlin (1990), cognitive theory
posits an "active, constructive, and planful" learner (p.
113). While cognitive theory must account for the
strategies people use in learning, McLaughlin stresses
that this does not imply that learners are always
consciously aware of the strategies they employ. Faerch
and Kasper (1987) argue that declarative knowledge is
usually found in conscious memory, while procedural
knowledge is automatically and unconsciously used unless a
breakdown in communication forces conscious recourse to
procedural strategies.

Schmidt (1990) examined several notions of
consciousness with reference to second language learning.
Specifically, three categories of consciousness were
examined: 1) "noticing and subliminal perception" in
connection with the manner in which input becomes intake;
2) "incidental learning", or the extent to which input is
consciously acted upon; and 3) "implicit learning", or the
role of consciousness in hypothesis formulation (p. 138).
Based on his own diary entries while learning Portuguese
(Schmidt & Frota, 1986), Schmidt concluded that forms
frequently noticed by the learner may become part of his

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or her production, but may not necessarily contribute to learning or intake, depending on the degree to which the form is processed by the learner. Subliminal perceptions, argues Schmidt, do not play a role in second language acquisition. This argument, however, appears to be open to question, in that subliminal perceptions could provide a stimulus to schema tuning (Rumelhart & Norman, 1978), or to restructuring (Karmiloff-Smith, 1986; McLaughlin, 1990). The various frameworks now available in the literature do not appear to discount subliminal perception as a source of cognitive development.

Like Faerch and Kasper (1983b), Schmidt (1990) sees incidental learning occurring to the greatest extent when the demands of the language task force the learner consciously to process the needed input into intake.

The Questions of Interface and Introspection

Several researchers and commentators have advanced positions on the degree, if any, to which second language learners are able to "interface" a consciously-_learned_ knowledge of language rules with subconsciously-_acquired_ ability (the emphasized words are Krashen's [1981, 1982] terminology). Krashen (1981, 1982) has advocated a non-interface model in his input hypothesis, where "learning" a rule does not effect linguistic performance because the learner must subconsciously "acquire" knowledge at the

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level most appropriate for personal advancement in the stage of acquisition that he or she is at.

Sharwood Smith (1981), on the other hand, has articulated the most complete model of full interfacing. He calls the conscious representation of a well-defined body of grammatical knowledge "explicit" knowledge. "Implicit" knowledge, conversely, is the "feel" that a learner has for grammatical felicity (p. 159). Sharwood Smith has hypothesized that interface occurs when explicit and implicit knowledge merge as output. This output, along with the utterances of other speakers, forms input which is channelled back to the learner in the form of refinements upon both explicit and implicit knowledge. Swain (1985) found that this "comprehensible output" formed an important basis for both the testing of learners' hypotheses regarding linguistic forms and the negotiation of meaning between speakers.

Seliger (1979) posited a weak interface model where language rules are seen not as representations of the learner's actual knowledge of the language, but as potential catalysts in increasing learning speed and accuracy. He has compared the language learner to the professional linguist, in that both attempt to form hypotheses regarding the structural components of a language based on observation and experimentation (Seliger, 1983). The comparison ends after this rather

superficial similarity, Seliger argues, because the conscious, metalinguistic explanations of language learners are not the same as their internal representation of the language. Seliger bases this view on his (1979) study of native and non-native speakers' knowledge of the usage rule for the English indefinite pronouns ("a" and "an") compared with their actual use of these forms.

While agreeing that Seliger's distinction between conscious and subconscious representations of linguistic forms is an important one, Cohen (1987) argues that research in this area has shown that learner's reports about how their own learning takes place can be used to reconstruct the learning phenomenon (Cohen & Robbins, 1976), and that the degree to which conscious processes are involved in production needs to be re-examined (White, 1980; Ericsson & Simon, 1980).

In summary, the discussion of the interface between conscious and unconscious acquisition of language, and the larger questions of the role of consciousness in attaining linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge offers useful insights into the role played by the strategies of language learners. At the very least, introspective reports on these strategies are important in furthering knowledge of what students are actually experiencing in class, as opposed to what instructors and curriculum developers feel students should be doing in class

(Hosenfeld, 1976).

Restructuring and Culturally-based Knowledge

The discussion to this point has focussed on restructuring as it applies to the psycholinguistic processes of second language acquisition. However, another significant concept has been alluded to above, and now needs to be discussed at greater length: the concept of restructuring as it may apply to changes in sociolinguistic knowledge generated through exposure to a foreign culture (e.g., learning strategies appropriate to the Canadian university setting). Because longitudinal studies documenting change in sociolinguistic behaviour among Japanese living in foreign cultures are largely unavailable, studies examining various aspects of education (ESL or otherwise) using Japanese subjects will be dealt with here. It is hoped that such studies will present us with characteristics of the Japanese student of English which can be examined for change in the course of the present study.

Reid (1987) assessed the learning style preferences of several ethnic groups, including Japanese. These learning styles were divided into six categories:

1) Visual learning: reading, studying charts

2) Auditory learning: listening to lectures, audiotapes

3) Kinesthetic learning: experiential learning, that

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is, total physical involvement with a learning

situation

4) Tactile learning: "hands on" learning, such as

building models or doing laboratory experiments

5) Group learning

6) Individual learning (p. 89)

The group of Japanese learners in Reid's study

consisted of 130 persons of varying ages, academic

backgrounds and time spent in the United States. The

findings indicated that:

For reasons yet unknown (although culture may
certainly play a role), Japanese speakers did not, as
a group, identify a single major learning style...(p.
96)

Interestingly, group learning was the only category rated

by the Japanese as a negative learning style preference.

Reid did not, however, monitor her subjects for changes in

attitude toward learning orientations over time; nor was

the structure of the group learning in any way elaborated

upon. This is significant because, while various

commentators (Nakane, 1971; Shimahara, 1979) have noted

the great importance of group membership and harmonious

group relationships in Japanese society, this observation

has not led to any significant amount of research in group

dynamics among Japanese second language learners.

The context in which learning takes place may also

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serve to be a determining factor in the development of learning styles. For example, in a longitudinal study of communicative preferences and competence in an individual Japanese learner of English, Schmidt (1983; cited in Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, p. 69), found no evidence of the gradual acquisition of creative language based on the repertoire of formulaic speech possessed by the subject of his case study. In fact, Schmidt noted that his subject, Wes, appeared to rely heavily on memorization as a means of communication. Yet, as Schmidt notes, Wes was viewed as an excellent communicator of English in the naturalistic environment in which he used the language. Thus, within the context of Wes's learning environment, formulaic speech and the learning strategies it generated appeared to be of greater importance than the acquisition of rules for creative speech (cf. Ellis, 1984 and Wong Fillmore, 1979).

In the area of intra-cultural communication, Gass and Varonis (1986) studied gender differences in negotiation for meaning among adult Japanese second language learners. Same and mixed-gender dyads were given three tasks, consisting of a conversation task and two picture-description tasks. The findings indicated that the members of the mixed-dyads initiated more negotiation than their counterparts in the same-sex dyads. Gass and Varonis concluded:

> What we have seen in this study is a situation of
> unequal partnerships. Men took greater advantage of
> the opportunities to use the conversation in a way
> that allowed them to produce a greater amount of
> "comprehensible output", whereas women utilized the
> conversation to obtain a greater amount of
> comprehensible input (p. 349).

The authors also speculated that "the overall
dominance of men in the conversation may be influenced by
cultural norms" (p. 349). As was the case with Reid's
study, a measure of longitudinal changes in these patterns
that might be indicative of the effects of restructuring
was not a part of the research design. Also, because the
study dealt with dyadic behaviour, the role of larger
group dynamics was not studied.

In the Gass and Varonis study, leadership roles in
directing learning processes appeared to be a
predominantly male prerogative. In a study attempting to
isolate other qualities of leadership in learning
situations, Dearing and Rogers (1990) studied group
dynamics among the scientists who had formed study groups
in Japan's Tsukuba Science City. While this study is
obviously not directly related to group work among
Japanese second language learners, it does offer insights
into the nature of the Japanese study group.

Dearing and Rogers note that the concept of the
informal study group was in itself revolutionary when

these groups were first formed at Tsukuba. We might infer from this that group work generally is not a common process within the Japanese educational system.

Case studies of some of the study groups revealed the importance of group leaders:

> Leaders were important in the establishment and operation of the study groups we analyzed. Each group was formed and guided by a strong-willed, energetic researcher; several of these were known as excellent researchers by their peers (p. 221).

Dearing and Rogers maintain that the members of these groups reaped the benefits of meeting other researchers with whom they shared common professional and/or social interests.

Implications of this study for group work in the second language classroom must, of course, be stated with caution, owing to differences between scientific study groups and group work in the second language class. However, it is possible to isolate components of the study group which may be applicable to Japanese learners of English. First, the selection of group leaders on the basis of perceived excellence in the field of study may be a general characteristic of group formation. Second, in the second language classroom, we might expect group members sharing common social and, perhaps, professional characteristics to form strong communicative bonds. While very positive in itself, this could, in the context of a

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foreign learning environment, have the less desirable
effect described by Bishop's similarity-attraction theory
(cited in Scarcella, 1990, pp. 342-343), where non-native
speakers sharing similar "interaction norms" tend to stay
together in groups largely exclusive of those having other
kinds of interactive behaviour. That this is the case in
cultural interactions among Japanese seems to be supported
by commentators such as Yoneyama (cited in Midooka, 1990)
and Midooka (1990), who note that the "degree of intimacy"
(Midooka, 1990, p. 482) between speakers determines the
style of communication followed. This characteristic is,
of course, true of communicative interaction in many
societies; anthropological studies would seem to indicate,
however, that for Japanese, both inter- and intra-group
patterns of communication are complex and well-defined
(Midooka, 1990).

Midooka argues that within the Japanese group itself,
the hierarchical arrangement of members is of fundamental
importance. This is elaborated upon by Nakane (1970):

> The vertical relation which we predicted in theory
> from the ideals of social group formation in Japan
> becomes the actuating principle in creating cohesion
> among group members. Because of the overwhelming
> ascendance of this vertical orientation, even a set
> of individuals sharing identical qualifications tends
> to create a *difference* among these individuals (p.
> 25).

According to Midooka (1990), factors involved in

determining a person's hierarchical rank include age, position, experience, and wisdom and knowledge (p. 483). As has been noted above, Dearing and Rogers (1990) found that group leaders in scientific study groups seemed to be recognized as "excellent researchers", a categorization determined at least partially in Midooka's above criteria.

In summary, a number of characteristics related to Japanese culture and norms of communication have been discussed here. The information gleaned from the studies discussed above should prove helpful in assessing Japanese subjects' developing styles of communication when living in a foreign culture. Such an assessment might also, then, serve to indicate the degree to which culturally-held procedural knowledge is restructured. In the second language classroom, we might expect such restructuring to take place in two vital areas: 1) changes in the nature of group dynamics and 2) changes in the types of strategies employed by students in the classroom.

Types of Strategic Behaviour

The purpose of the discussion to this point has been to elucidate the concepts of procedural knowledge and restructuring as they apply to second language acquisition and, to a lesser degree, to culturally-based norms of communicative interaction. Having done this, it is necessary to discuss basic types of strategic behaviour in

the hope that this knowledge will guide the development of a typology of second language learners' strategies.

The first factor that must be considered in the selection of any typology of learning strategies is the current disarray in this area of research. Several researchers and writers have commented on the lack of standardization of terms and typologies in research regarding second language learners' strategies (Tarone, 1980; Raupach, 1983; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983; Ellis, 1985; Willing, 1987; Chaudron, 1988; and Skehan, 1989). Willing (1987) argues for the need to relate second language learning strategies to second language acquisition generally. Tarone (1980), however, cautions that diligence must be exercised in examining differences among bodies of research in terms of both the conceptual framework used and the phenomena observed, so far as these influence the classification of strategies. In addition, Corder (1983) notes the confusion regarding the classification of "learning strategies" and "communication strategies", and speculates that the difficulty may reside in the fact that different interpretations can be placed on the same baseline data, i.e., the interlanguage of the speaker (p. 16).

Secondly, the relationship between strategic behaviour and procedural knowledge must be considered. Faerch and Kasper (1983a) have applied the

"learning-acquisition" distinction to interlanguage theory. "Learning" is defined as "the processes whereby the learner discovers the rules ... of L2 and gradually comes to master them, thereby developing a continuum of IL systems" (p. xvii). "Communicating" is seen as "the ways the learner uses his IL system in interaction" (p. xvii). Declarative knowledge is seen as the "substance" of learning, while procedural knowledge is thought to mediate between declarative knowledge and linguistic production (Faerch & Kasper, 1987). Thus, procedural knowledge, in this conceptual framework at least, guides the learner in knowing when and how to apply specific strategies; it also is the means by which automatization occurs (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b).

McLaughlin (1987) extends Faerch and Kasper's concept of procedural knowledge to account for the restructuring of knowledge, although O'Malley and Chamot (1990) appear to argue that such an extension was not made by Faerch and Kasper themselves, who remain within a bottom-up, structural analysis, as opposed to a top-down, cognitive approach. It is possible, however, to find in Faerch and Kasper's analysis a combination of two theoretical perspectives: their analysis of a speaker's interlanguage provides a "picture" or "statement" of the declarative (bottom-up) knowledge of the speaker, while the same speaker's procedural (top-down) knowledge may be traced,

at least partially, through an examination of his or her strategies for language use. The ultimate goal of this latter examination would be to provide us with a description of the cognitive processes involved in learning a second language.

A third factor in selecting strategies for a typology that is responsive to learners' introspective reports on strategic behaviour in the classroom is that of learner consciousness of the use of strategies. Faerch and Kasper (1983b) define communication strategies using the primary criterion of "problem-orientedness" and the secondary criterion of "consciousness" (p. 31). Their primary criterion appears to be generally accepted by other writers as important (Tarone, 1981; Ellis, 1985); that is, a learner will not employ a communication strategy unless a problem in communication first exists. The second criterion, consciousness, is much more problematic. As Tarone (1981) argues, it is difficult to classify the degree of consciousness inherent in a strategy. Recognizing this problem, Faerch and Kasper (1983b) define communication strategies in such a way as to allow for varying degrees of consciousness:

> Communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a certain goal (p. 36).

We might therefore expect variation among individuals

regarding consciousness of communication strategies, in that some learners may have automatized strategies which once operated on a conscious level or, depending on the situation, a normally unconscious strategy may become consciously accessible (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b).

The issue of consciousness is important in guiding research as to what type of introspective reports experimental subjects might realistically be expected to give. Cumming (1990), for example, found that in the case of French L1 speakers introspectively commenting on their English writing processes, consciousness did not appear to be a factor in gaining access to L1 forms, but that it was a factor in making comparisons between L1 and L2 forms (See Schmidt (1981), however, for another view, where a learner was not able to establish an effective interface between L1 and L2.).

In addition, research has indicated that learner-initiated modification of IL forms is at least potentially available to NNS working together in problem-solving or conversational groups (Morrison & Low, 1983; Porter, 1986; Gass & Varonis, 1985; Rulon & McCreary, 1986; Berwick, 198 In keeping with Faerch and Kasper's definition of communication strategies, we might well expect that a multiplicity of communicative problems arises in the types exchanges documented by the research. We might equally expect, then, that learners would be conscious of the

strategies they employ to negotiate meaning in these exchanges, and that these strategies would therefore be open to introspective examination. As Tarone (1981) suggests, however, it would be extremely difficult to quantify the degree of consciousness involved in the learner's modification of his or her interlanguage.

Thus, introspective reports of communication strategies might well be incomplete or inaccurate. There does, however, appear to be one key area of strategic behaviour as it applies to communication strategies in interlanguage development that is relatively accessible to the researcher to study without having to rely on subjects' introspective reports. This is the area of performance features. According to Seliger (cited in Faerch & Kasper, 1983c, pp. 213-214), performance features are elements of oral communication which are indicative of planning for or executing strategic behaviour. Highly automatized in nature, they can perhaps be seen as the smallest observable elements of procedural knowledge embedded within the interlanguage of the learner. These elements include features such as self-repairs, pauses, and repeats.

That the analysis of performance features might provide important clues as to the basic production orientation of the learner is a concept discussed by Faerch and Kasper (1983c). After noting the need for more

research on the use of performance features among second
language learners, Faerch and Kasper draw on Seliger's
(1980) categorization of language learners as either
"planners" or "correctors". In this model, "learners who
carefully plan their utterances before they start talking"
(i.e., planners) use a lot of filled and unfilled pauses,
while "learners who start on the execution of their
utterances before they have established a complete plan"
(i.e., correctors) make extensive use of repeats and
self-repair (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p. 223). An analysis
of these performance features, then, might provide the
researcher with two basic orientations (i.e., planning and
corrective behaviour) of subjects to oral production.

Learning Strategies

O'Malley et al. (1985a) conducted research into the
learning strategies employed by second language learners.
While Faerch and Kasper (1983b) define communicative
strategies largely in terms of changes in interlanguage
structures brought about through necessity and conscious
planning, O'Malley et al. examine learning strategies in
terms of the cognitive processes that occur with the use
of certain strategies. The theoretical foundations of
their work appear to rest on generative processing
(Witrock, Marks & Doctorow, 1975), which characterizes
learning as a complex, interactive process between content
and memory. In addition, O'Malley et al. cite Brown's

(1982) findings that learning strategies are not effective unless metacognitive processes are combined with cognitive processes to provide focus and direction to learning.

O'Malley et al. (1985a) found that cognitive strategies constituted by far the largest percentages of strategies employed by the two groups of subjects (beginning and intermediate levels) that they observed. Of the cognitive strategies observed, most fell into categories such as "cooperation" "question for clarification", "note-taking", and "repetition" (p. 39). O'Malley et al.'s primary interest appears to lie in defining broader cognitive and metacognitive categories of strategic intent. This is in contrast to Faerch and Kasper (1983b), who attempt to give a typology of communicative strategies induced largely from structures available in learners' interlanguage.

In summary, it must be noted that there is no definitive typology of the strategies used by learners of second languages, and that researchers have not reached a consensus on the theoretical underpinnings best suited to approach this area of study. Of definite importance, however, are approaches based on the study of interlanguage theory, as exemplified by Faerch and Kasper (1983b), and cognitive theory, as applied by O'Malley et al. (1985a). The researcher developing a typology within these frameworks would need to consider carefully the

methodology for data collection, because subjects'
instrospective reports might well prove unreliable in
yielding accurate data on communication strategies, while
learning strategies would appear to be more accurately
identified through subject introspection than through
researcher observation.

A Typology of Second Language Learners' Strategies

The following typology is synthesized from the above
discussion. While it is far from exhaustive, it does
provide insight into common communicative and cognitive
strategies employed by second language learners. The
strategies in the typology have been selected and, in some
cases, modified, in an attempt to avoid overlapping
definitions of types of strategic behaviour. As an
inductive typology, it attempts to draw a number of
streams of thinking about strategic behaviour into a
single outline, but may not adequately reflect a
particular learning context, such as the one identified in
this study.

It is expected that this typology would be revised
to fit the data collected in the research project. Two
basic areas of strategic behaviour have been chosen for
representation--performance features and communication
strategies. The former area is important in providing
characterizations of the subjects in accordance with
Seliger's notion of learners as being oriented towards

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planning or corrective behaviours. The second area,

communication strategies, is divided into functional

reduction and achievement strategies. The former category
is

    I. PERFORMANCE FEATURES (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c)

    A. Self repair (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c)
       A.1 False starts
       A.2 New starts

    B. Repeats (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c)

    C. Hesitation pauses (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c)
       C.1 Filled pauses
       C.2 Unfilled pauses

    II. COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b)

    A. Functional reduction strategies (Ellis, 1985)
       A.1 Topic avoidance (Tarone, Cohen, & Dumas, 1983)

    B. Achievement strategies (Ellis, 1985)
       B.1 Subject repeats all or part of interlocutor's words, in order to clarify meaning (Abraham & Vann, 1987).
       B.2 Question for clarification (O'Malley & Chamot,1990)
       B.3 Appeal to authority (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b)
       B.4 Comprehension check (Berwick, 1988; Gumperz, 1990)
       B.5 Restructuring (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b)
       B.6 Translation (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990)

<u>Figure 1</u>. A typology of strategies related to learning a

second language.

primarily concerned with avoidance strategies, while the

latter pertains to strategies used by speakers who wish to

remain with the conversational topic, but who lack the

lexical or syntactic means to do so (Ellis, 1985). These
categories of behaviour have been chosen here in the hope
that they will reflect the subjects in passive and active
modes of strategic behaviour, as indicated by their use of
reduction and achievement strategies respectively. It is
hoped that the specific strategies chosen are amenable to
observation and, to some extent at least, the conscious
recollection of the subjects.

Summary

The study of the development and use of strategies is
a complex field, relying on different theoretical
frameworks and producing typologies that vary greatly,
both qualitatively and quantitatively, in their attempts
to define and delimit components of learners' strategies.
It would appear that strategic knowledge is a kind of
procedural knowledge which interacts with declarative
knowledge to produce context-appropriate linguistic forms.

Cultural patterns of communicative behaviour appear
to play an important role in defining the actual
phenomenology of learning as it relates to the aspirations
of learners. Initially at least, learners studying in a
foreign environment will be bound to some extent by these
culturally-conditioned patterns. It is also quite likely
that learners employ culturally-determined patterns for
the selection and use of strategies in new learning
environments, but it would seem almost inevitable that

cultural norms of the foreign learning environment will gradually begin to influence this process over time. These culturally-determined patterns, in conjunction with specific characteristics related to the ages and goals of the group members themselves would serve to define the type of language socialization process that takes place (i.e., formal or informal, academic or general, instrumental or integrative acquisition of the target language). The socialization process would likely determine appropriate types of strategic behaviour through a gradual process of matching strategy use with favoured outcomes. Finally, restructuring would come about as the learner experimented with the various aspects of this equation in an attempt to develop equilibrium within the language environment. Figure 2 serves to illustrate the factors that may be involved in the overall restructuring process. This figure deals with differing kinds of procedural knowledge related to the sociolinguistic acquisition of a second language, and relates to the research problems listed in Chapter 3, which attempt to document changes over time in these types of procedural knowledge that might be attributed to restructuring. Chapter 3 will also provide a detailed description of the research site as well as an explanation regarding the selection of the cases.

```
        >---------> Linguistic Input
        |                    |
        |                    V
Learner's cultural        group            Canadian
background        <---->   norms   <----->  cultural
        |                                   dynamics
        |                    |
        |                    V
        |              SOCIALIZATION
        |                    |
        |                    |
        |                    V
        |          STRATEGIC BEHAVIOUR
        |                    |
        |                    |
        |                    V
        |             RESTRUCTURING
        |                    |
        |                    |
        |                    V
        ^----------------OUTPUT
```
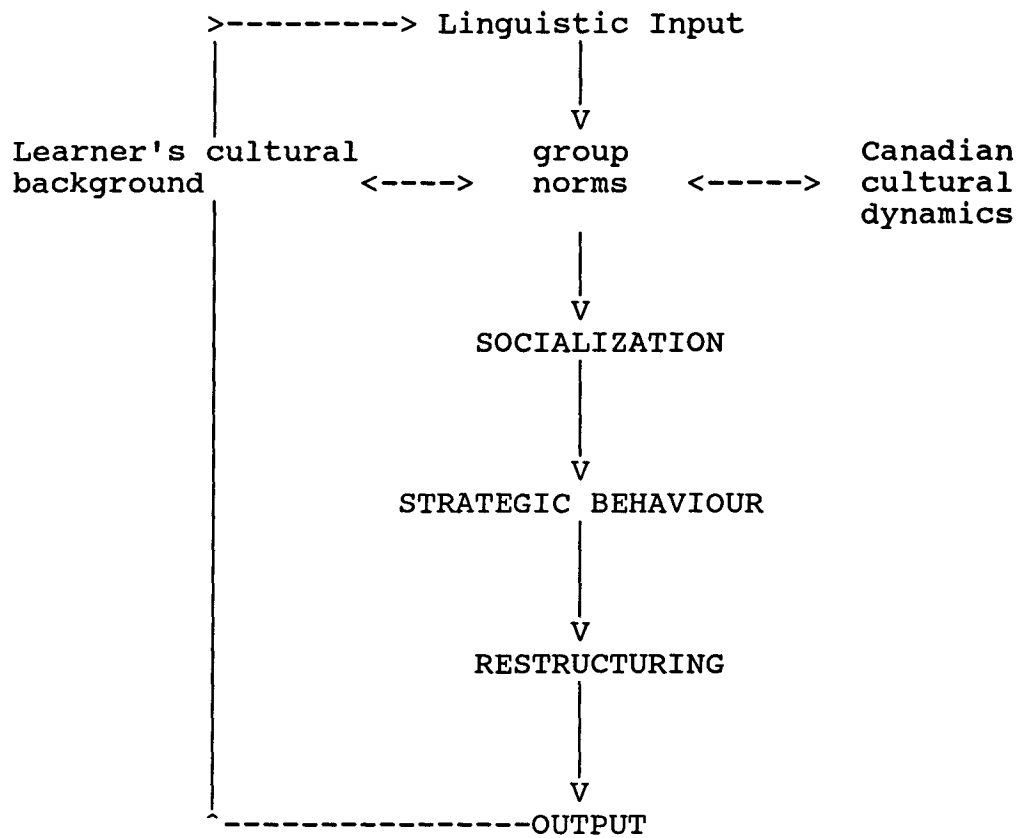
Figure 2. A model of the factors involved in restructuring.

CHAPTER 3:

METHODOLOGY

In order to gain insight into the assumptions that were developed in the preceding chapter about the nature of restructuring, a longitudinal case study involving two pairs of learners was developed. Politzer and McGroarty (1985) maintain that in any study of longitudinal changes in strategic behaviour, variables such as age, sex, cultural background and previous experience with the target language should be controlled. In addition to demonstrating how these factors were controlled for, this chapter will outline the research problems of the study and describe the research site.

Research Problems

The following research problems relate to the purposes of the study (pp. 3-4 above); they have been refined and enlarged upon, however, in order to reflect questions that developed from the process of interaction with the data.

1) Is quantitative change in performance feature use observable in NS-NNS interactions (interviews) and NNS-NNS interactions (in class group sessions)? [related to question 1, p. 4]

2) What introspective knowledge do the subjects possess regarding their use of performance features? [related to question 1, p. 4]

3) To what extent is cultural background responsible for

the dynamics of communication observed in the group sessions? [related to question 3, p. 4]

4) What are the introspective reports of the members of each case regarding the use of learning strategies, and are there differences over time in the nature of these reports? [related to question 2, p. 4]

5) Are the types of behaviours and behavioural change observed in questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 related to the process of restructuring? [related to questions 1, 2 and 3, p. 4]

The Research Design

Purposeful Sampling Strategies

Case study analyses were carried out on two pairs of subjects involved in the UBC-Ritsumeikan Academic Exchange Program. Case A had achieved "advanced" (2, 2+) ratings on the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), while the subjects in Case B were rated at a "novice" (0+) level (see Appendix A for a description of the OPI). Information related to the cases is summarized in Table 1.

The OPI was used as the instrument of assessment because it provides a valid measure of conversational ability, which is of fundamental importance in the task-oriented group work that formed the basis of classroom observation.

The OPI was administered to the subjects in May, 1991, before they left Japan. The interview team, composed of University of British Columbia (UBC) staff as well as

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local native speaking English teachers, had been trained
in conducting the OPI prior to the May administration. It

Table 1

Composition of the Cases

Case	Subject (Sex)	OPI Rating
A (advanced)	Atsuko (F)	2
	Kenji (M)	2+
B (novice)	Midori (F)	0+
	Ryuzo (M)	0+

was not possible to test for inter-rater reliability
regarding the evaluations given each of the four subjects
during this administration. However, three of the four
subjects--Atsuko, Midori, and Ryuzo--were evaluated by the
same interviewer, a fact which would suggest a fairly high
standard of consistency in evaluation.

The four subjects were selected from among nine
students who had initially volunteered to participate in
the project. The final selection of subjects was made on
the basis of OPI ratings and gender, so that the advanced
and novice cases contained both sexes.

Data Collection Strategies

Initially, the four subjects were interviewed
regarding their educational backgrounds, knowledge of
language learning strategies, and objectives in learning

English. The interview used was an adaptation of the questionnaire employed by Abraham and Vann (1987) (see Appendix B). The subjects then underwent a series of four video-taped classroom observation sessions followed by semi-structured interviews. In the final interview, the subjects were asked to re-answer questions about the use of strategies that had been asked in the initial questionnaire. The data gathering process began in October, 1991, and continued until January, 1992, although no fieldwork was carried out in December.

Classroom observation was carried out in the form of video-taped sessions where one or more of the subjects was involved in small group language learning activities. Two sections of a course entitled *Intercultural Communication in Second Language Learning*, or English Education 379 (ENED 379) (see Appendix C), were chosen, as this course offered frequent opportunities to video-record students working cooperatively in pairs or small groups on a wide variety of communicative tasks.

Participants retrospectively viewed these sessions with the researcher, generally in the late afternoon of the same day as the video-tapes had been made. During the course of these interviews, the subjects were asked to explain their reactions to the content and purpose of the video-taped activity. They were also asked about strategies for effective communication. A Japanese-English

interpreter was present during the interviews of the two Case B subjects, but this was deemed unnecessary for the Case A subjects after the first interview.

It would be appropriate to comment here on the reliability of the interpretations. The four subjects wanted to answer the interviewer's questions in English as often as possible, so that a total of only 12 translations of their responses are found in the data. The procedure that emerged during the interviews was that if a subject did not understand a question, he or she would ask for it to be translated into Japanese. Having heard the question in Japanese, the subject would usually answer in English, asking for the interpreter's help only if it became very difficult to communicate meaning fully.

Reliability was checked in two ways. First, in the case of the interpreter translating the question and the subject responding in English, the researcher was able to judge immediately if the subject's answer logically corresponded to the question asked. In 100% of the cases of this type of interpretation, answers corresponded with questions, leading to the conclusion that interpretation was highly reliable.

Second, in order to assess the reliability of the interpreter's translations of subject responses, a second interpreter was called upon. Five of the possible twelve subject responses, or approximately 40% of the pertinent

data, were randomly selected and re-recorded on a separate cassette tape. The second interpreter was then asked to translate these five responses. The researcher judged that the meaning as translated by the second interpreter was virtually identical to that given in the original interpretation in four of the five samples, for an inter-rater reliability of 80%. In the fifth sample, the second interpreter reported that she had had difficulty hearing the recorded voices properly, and thus could not understand the conversation. The reliability of the interpretations would thus appear to be very high, both in the subjects' responses given in Japanese and in the explanations of the researcher's questions translated into Japanese.

Instrumentation

Data were collected in the form of observation records (video-tapes and written transcripts), interview records (cassette tapes and written transcripts) and field notes. Written transcripts were coded for the use of performance features on the part of the four subjects. Coding was replicated on approximately 25% of the recorded transcripts by a graduate student who had been trained in the use of the coding system. Initially, two pages from the sample were coded independently by the researcher and the graduate student. This coding was then compared and differences were discussed. After complete agreement had

been reached on each item coded in these initial pages, the student-assistant continued to code the rest of the sample, while the researcher reviewed the coding already applied to the entire corpus of data. Inspection of the sample determined that an inter-rater reliability of 86% had been achieved.

One of the subjects was unavailable for the second observation/interview; it was therefore decided, in view of the short time lapse between observations 1 and 3, not to report on the coding of the transcripts for observation/interview 2. However, any retrospective analyses on language learning strategies provided by the three subjects present for this observation/interview were taken into account for their value in revealing strategic development and sociolinguistic adaptation.

Two important issues related to instrumentation--the development of a typology of strategies and the use of video-taped data in classroom research--will be discussed below. The former issue will contain a definition of terms.

Development of a Typology of Strategies

Initially, the coding of transcripts was performed using a typology of 12 performance features and strategies (see p. 31). In that typology, which was synthesized from the literature, strategic behaviour was divided into two major types: communication strategies and performance

features. After a preliminary coding of the data using this typology, however, it was found to be ineffective as a tool of analysis and an inefficient basis for applying conceptual thinking in SLA to the task of data analysis. In addition, the ambiguity of certain codes became problematic (e.g., restructuring and self repair), while other items rarely appeared in the data (e.g., translation).

In order to deal with these difficulties, it was decided that communication strategies be omitted from the working typology, and that the coding of performance features (including comprehension checks) would be the first priority. Performance features were salient in the data and supported straightforward coding. They could also be applied directly to a conceptual underpinning in the form of Seliger's (1980) suggestion that basic orientations to learning (i.e., "planning" and "correcting") might be observed through the subject's usage of performance features. This data can also be compared with the introspective comments of the subjects related to learning styles, an option not readily available through an analysis of communication strategies, which are often inaccessible to conscious processing (Faerch & Kasper, 1987). The working typology is outlined in Figure 3.

The study is also concerned with achievement

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strategies in broad areas of classroom performance such as

PERFORMANCE FEATURES (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c)

A. Self repair (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c)
   A.1 False starts
   A.2 New starts

B. Repeats (Faerch and Kasper, 1983c)

C. Hesitation pauses (Faerch and Kasper, 1983c)
   C.1 Filled pauses
   C.2 Unfilled pauses

D. Comprehension check (Berwick, 1988; Gumperz, 1990)

Figure 3. Working Typology.

listening, reading, writing, conversation, and pronunciation. However, rather than working deductively from a typology of cognitive strategies in these areas, it was decided to rely on the introspective reports of the subjects as to the specific strategies that they employed. These reports were then applied to an analysis of longitudinal change within learning strategies. This decision was taken because of the fact that observation alone is at best an incomplete and unreliable methodology in determining learning strategies actually used by the subjects (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). The subjects' introspective reports, however, tended to elucidate upon areas of strategic development in conjunction with a growing consciousness of the demands placed upon them by the learning environment in the areas of reading, writing,

listening, conversation, and pronunciation. This would appear to be in accordance with Witrock, Marks and Doctorow's (1975) notion of generative processing, which relates content to memory in cognitive processes, and with Brown's (1982) findings that metacognition serves to provide focus to learning experiences.

<u>Definition of Terms</u>

The following list provides definition for the terminology used in the final typology.

<u>Performance features</u>: aspects of oral communication indicative of planning for or executing strategic behaviour (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c).
Performance features included in the typology are:
- Hesitation pauses:
  - Filled pauses: "pauses which involve some non-lexical vocal cord activity like *er, um, ah,* or gambits like turn-internally used starters (*well*) or cajolers (*I mean, you know*)" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c, p. 215).
  - Unfilled pauses: "silent pauses" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c, p. 215).
- Repeats: "...repetitions which can stretch from a single phoneme up to several words" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c, p. 215).
- Self repair: "A self-initiated, self-completed

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repair" of a feature of oral production Faerch &
Kasper, 1983c, pp. 215-217). Self repair falls into
two basic types:

-False starts: "a self repair...placed immediately
next to the item to be repaired (the trouble
source)" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c, p. 216).

-New starts: the self-repair is "placed at a later
point in the same speaker's turn, normally at a
plausible completion point" (Faerch & Kasper,
1983c, p. 216).

-Comprehension check: a rising intonation after a
key lexical item or prepositional phrase, indicating
that the speaker is attempting to verify the clarity
of the utterance (Berwick, 1988; Gumperz, 1990).

The Use of Video-taped Data

The use of the video-tape as a research tool has been
well documented in the field of SLA research (Rubin, 1975;
Mehan, 1977; Saville-Troike, 1984; Wong-Fillmore, 1985).
It is seen as a tool allowing for an "external memory" of
a research event (Mehan, 1977), since it can be viewed
repeatedly. Participants can be encouraged to view video-
taped data and provide feedback on their performance or
verify the interpretations of the researcher (Watson-
Gegeo, 1988). Controversy does exist, however, regarding
the ethical problems inherent in the use of video-taped
data, particularly when participants are "textualized",

and thus disempowered as autonomous individuals capable of careful reflection and change (Tobin & Davidson, 1990).

These ethical considerations were kept in mind during the periods of data gathering and analysis, in respect both to the integrity of the four subjects and in the awareness that the data collected were far from presenting a complete picture of the phenomenology of learning among these subjects.

Selection of Site

In September, 1991, The University of British Columbia and Ritsumeikan University, Kyoto, Japan, jointly launched a program of instruction on the UBC campus. During the first year of the program participants included 100 second and third year Japanese undergraduate students (50 male and 50 female) from Ritsumeikan University. These students were divided into five classes of twenty students each, and studied at UBC for an eight-month period, from September to April, 1991-92.

The students came from various academic backgrounds. The largest groupings included students from the fields of International Relations (37), Social Sciences (19), Business Administration/Economics (16), and Letters (17). The latter group included students majoring in English. At the time of entry into the program, TOEFL scores among these students ranged from 480 to 583, with the majority of students scoring in the 500-540 range, indicating

learners of upper intermediate ability.

The program designers--from both the Canadian and Japanese sides--prioritized a program of instruction emphasizing academic discourse and intercultural communication. In the first term (September-December, 1991), all of the students studied a program of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) designed to prepare them for regular undergraduate course work. These courses were entitled *Intercultural Communication in Second Language Education* (English Education 379, or ENED 379), *Second Language Education Practicum* (Education 395, or EDUC 395), and *Academic Discourse in Second Language Education* (Education 490, or EDUC 490).

Students whose TOEFL scores fell in the 550-579 range had the opportunity, in the second term of the program (January-April, 1992), to audit two courses offered in the Faculty of Arts, including *Understanding Culture and Society* (Anthropology 100) and *Asian International Relations* (Political Science 365). Students scoring 580+ on the TOEFL were allowed admission into any undergraduate course offered at UBC, in addition to the two Arts courses. Of the one hundred Ritsumeikan students in attendance, only five had gained access to this privileged status by the start of the second term. After four attempts at raising their TOEFL scores to sufficiently high levels during the first term, 68 of the students were

still below the 550 level, and thus repeated the EAP courses listed above (with EDUC 395 being optional). Anthropology 100 and Political Science 360 "parallel courses", which were team taught by visiting professors from Ritsumeikan University and Canadian lecturers, were also provided for these students in the second term. Those students auditing regular UBC courses were also required to enroll in the two EAP courses taken by the group whose TOEFL scores were below 550; they were also enrolled in the parallel courses.

In addition to regular course work. students were able to attend optional language laboratory sessions, where they could use various cassette and video tapes as study aids. An optional "Individual Study Program" (ISP) was also offered once a week for ninety minutes. In these ISP sessions, students were able to choose from among various types of activities, including conversation and pronunciation workshops, a class offering instruction in idioms, a writing workshop, computer skills training and, in the second term, a "movie of the month" discussion group.

The Classes

Atsuko and Kenji, the advanced speakers, were members of the "Alpha" section of the English Education 379 class which began in September, 1991, while Midori and Ryuzo, the novice speakers, were members of the "Beta" section of

this course. A brief explanation of the course format would be in order here. Every Monday morning, a guest speaker delivered a lecture to the entire Ritsumeikan student body on a topic appropriate to ENED 379 course content. Such lectures included topics in language learning, native land claims in Canada, and Canadian holidays. During the Tuesday through Thursday class sessions, instructors and students would analyze and amplify the lecture topic delivered in the plenary lecture. In both Alpha and Beta classes, pair and small group work was the preferred means of exploring these lecture topics. These group sessions ranged from tasks such as answering comprehension questions based on the guest lecturer's talk to preparing and delivering topic-specific debates or conversations. The instructors of Alpha and Beta classes demonstrated a remarkable degree of uniformity in class organization. Classes in which video-taped observations were carried out generally began with a brief, instructor-led introduction and explanation of the task being assigned, followed by a short question period. Students would then break up into pairs or groups, usually for about thirty minutes, while the instructor offered assistance and answered questions. Finally, the entire class would meet again, in order to discuss the outcomes of the task assigned or, in the case of longer tasks such as debates, to report on progress made. Thus, while the

material for group work was not identical in Alpha and
Beta classes, the thematic issues, as well as the approach
to learning, were similar.

A descriptive analysis of the two classrooms is given
in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Analysis of Alpha and Beta Classes

Class	N		OPI		TOEFL	
Alpha	F:	n=12	2	n=9	$\overline{X}=$	528.90
	M:	n= 8	2+	n=7	s=	28.51
		N=20	3	n=4	range=96	
Beta	F:	n= 8	0+	n= 7	$\overline{X}=$	507.55
	M:	n=12	1	n=13	s=	17.98
		N=20			range=60	

The final classroom observation took place in follow-
up course, Education 316: *Communication Skills in
Educational Settings*. Classes did not contain the same
populations of students, and all students had different
instructors. However, during the one classroom
observation that occurred under these new circumstances,
it was noted that the instructors were following the same
basic teaching format as they had previously employed.
Also, the four subjects were, for this one observation at
least, all working with students who had been in their
respective ENED 379 classes the previous term. Thus, no

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new or intervening variables were observed that made this final observation qualitatively different from the earlier observations.

Summary

In this study, four subjects comprising two, two-person cases were observed in order to analyze the types of strategies they used in task-oriented group sessions as well as in conversation with a native speaker of English. In addition, these students were interviewed in order to gain further understanding of their metacognitive knowledge of the processes involved in learning a second language. The subjects were selected on the basis of gender and conversational ability as rated by the OPI.

The assumption has been made that these four learners are representative of the "typical" UBC-Ritsumeikan exchange student. Although this assumption must be stated cautiously, it does appear valid because of the similar ages and cultural and educational backgrounds of the subjects.

As will be seen in Chapter 4, the educational backgrounds of the subjects appear to be remarkably similar, a fact which further supports the argument that results obtained from the study of these four subjects are generalizable to the immediate population of UBC-Ritsumeikan exchange students. Chapter 4 will also present findings related to the five research problems stated

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above.

CHAPTER 4:

RESULTS

In this chapter, an initial examination of similarities in the four subjects will be followed by an analysis of the two cases. The findings from each case will then be presented and analyzed with specific reference to the research questions posed in Chapter 3. A basic goal of this chapter, then, is to examine longitudinal change in strategic behaviour, while taking cultural and gender-related factors into account. A second goal is to comment, cautiously, on the role of restructuring in longitudinal changes in strategic behaviour.

Homogeneity of Experience

During the initial interview, questions adapted from Abraham and Vann's (1987) questionnaire revealed great uniformity in the language learning experiences of the four subjects prior to their arrival in Canada. Before analyzing the individual cases in detail, it would be useful to examine this homogeneity of experience.

Each of the four subjects grew up in Japan, within uniformly monolingual home and school environments. None had travelled outside of Japan before engaging in their studies in Canada. Each began studying English formally in junior high school, and continued studying English and another foreign language (L3)--German, Mandarin, or

French--throughout their high school and university educations. The Japanese education system, being highly product oriented (Shimahara, 1979), would appear to de-emphasize the process of language learning embedded in communicative task activities in favour of activities such as grammar study, reading and translation exercises (Duppenthaler, Viswat & Onaka, 1989). Each subject reported that the latter types of exercise constituted the basic activities of classroom work and assignments for homework. Textbooks used included class readers, as well as the audio-lingually oriented *New Horizons* series. English teachers reportedly spoke little English, aside from reading and grammar exercises, in the junior and senior high school classrooms, but slightly more at the university level. Group work and communicative conversational exercises were rarely, if ever used in the English language classroom. There were native speaking English teachers in high school and university, although contact with them was minimal, ranging from two or three periods per year in high school, to two hours per week for one university term.

Attendance and attention in class, at the university level, at least, did not appear to be of great importance, as indicated in Atsuko's statement:

> Japanese way is just giving homework, and we do
> the homework, but the part of the homework is

decided beforehand, so I know, just complete, what I was given is enough to attend the class. ...So after finishing...what I did in my home, I will be free, so I don't concentrate on my class very much (Oct. 6, 1991).

Based on the information given by the four subjects, then, we may conclude that the task-oriented, student-centred methodologies practised by the instructors of Alpha and Beta classes constituted a new learning experience for the Ritsumeikan students.

At Ritsumeikan University, the four subjects were taught English for two hours per week, over the period of one term, by a native English speaker. While this is perhaps of no significance methodologically (i.e., in that the subjects unanimously reported on the novelty of the small group, task-based classroom assignments that they experienced after arriving in Canada), it may help to explain certain intonation features apparently acquired by the four subjects prior to their arrival in Canada, particularly the rising intonation associated with comprehension checks.

An interesting distinction emerged between the novice and the advanced pairs of subjects regarding attendance at school- or university-sponsored English clubs. While none of the subjects belonged to this type of club in junior or senior high school, both of the Case A subjects reported belonging to an English club at University. Atsuko had

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been a member for one year, and Kenji for four months.

Outside the school, access to English-speaking foreigners also appeared to vary between the two cases. In a needs assessment questionnaire completed by the Ritsumeikan students prior to departure, Ryuzo and Midori both reported a complete absence of contact with foreigners, while Kenji and Atsuko noted quite frequent contact with foreign friends. The questionnaire did not stipulate, however, whether these foreign friends were English speakers or not, which might explain the apparent contradiction in a statement given later by Kenji, who said that he had no English speaking acquaintances in Japan.

All of the subjects reported frequent contact with English films and music (the former of course having Japanese subtitles), but none listened to more linguistically demanding broadcasts, such as the *BBC World Service* or the *Voice of America*.

The Cases

The ensuing discussion will attempt to relate research findings to the research problems given above (pp. 37-38). The number and title given to each sub-heading in the following discussion of results for Cases A and B therefore refers to the corresponding research problem.

Case A: The Advanced Speakers

The two subjects in this case, Atsuko and Kenji, displayed different characteristics as learners and communicators. Atsuko generally appeared to be relaxed, cooperative, and loquacious in small group activities, while Kenji often seemed reticent and quite tentative in his offerings to the group. The following discussion will describe linguistic and strategic development between these two subjects.

1) The Use of Performance Features

Figures 4-7 illustrate the use of performance features as they relate to corrective and planful behaviours for the two Case A subjects. In Figures 4 and 5, corrective behaviour in each group session (G) and interview (I) was calculated by adding the frequencies of repeats and self repairs (Appendix D) and then finding the mean. The percentages of occurrence were calculated by finding the means of the three percentages for repeats and self repairs in each interview and group session. In measuring planful behaviour, the mean frequencies and percentages of filled and unfilled pauses were calculated for each interview and group session.

In both the planful and corrective categories, the ratio between mean percentages and the total number of performance features overall is represented as a total at the end of the horizontal axis. The dates of each group

session and interview are given in Appendix D.
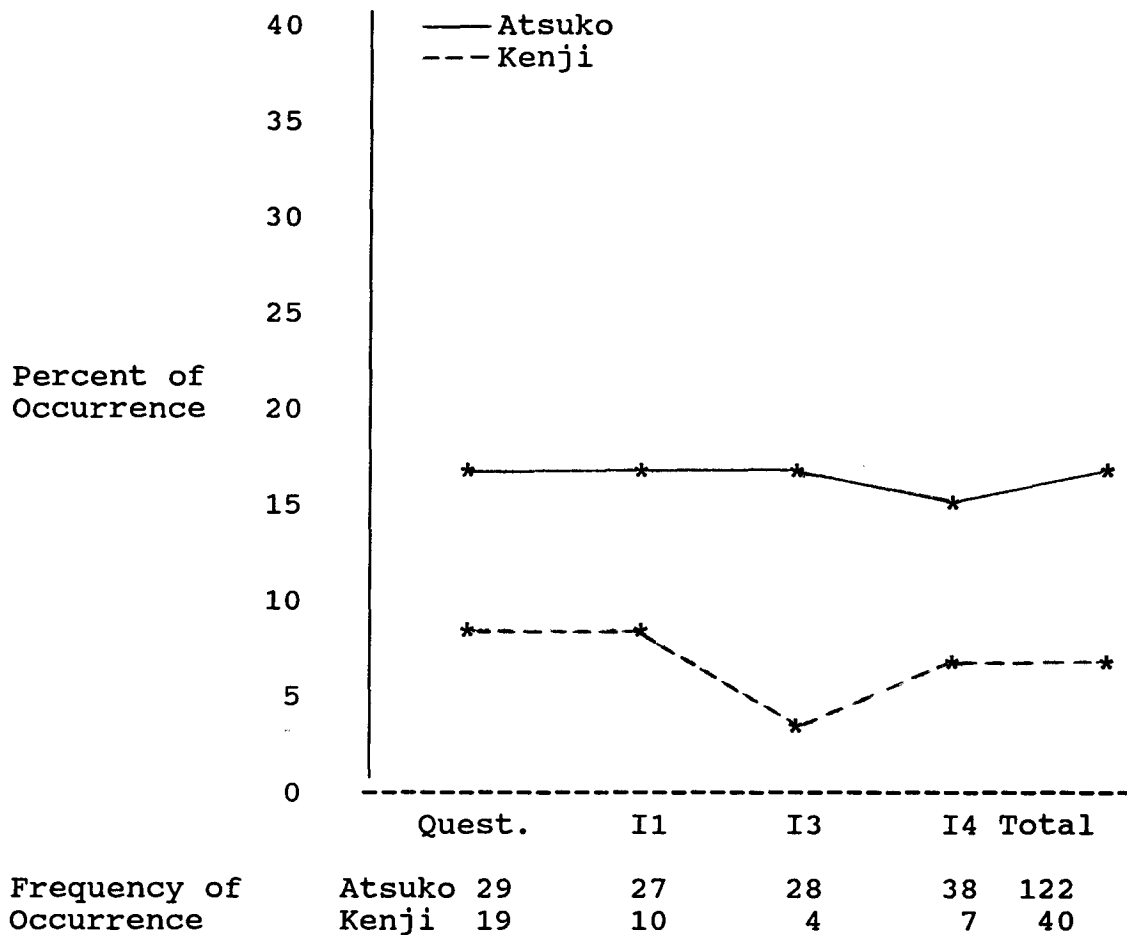
Figure 4. Comparison of Case A corrective performance features by questionnaire/interview.

For both subjects in this case, the number of performance features in the group sessions was much less than the number found in the retrospective interviews. We would expect that the number of performance features in the group session category is relatively small, because the interviews were longer than the video-taped sessions.

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| | | 40 | ——Atsuko |
| | | | — — —Kenji |
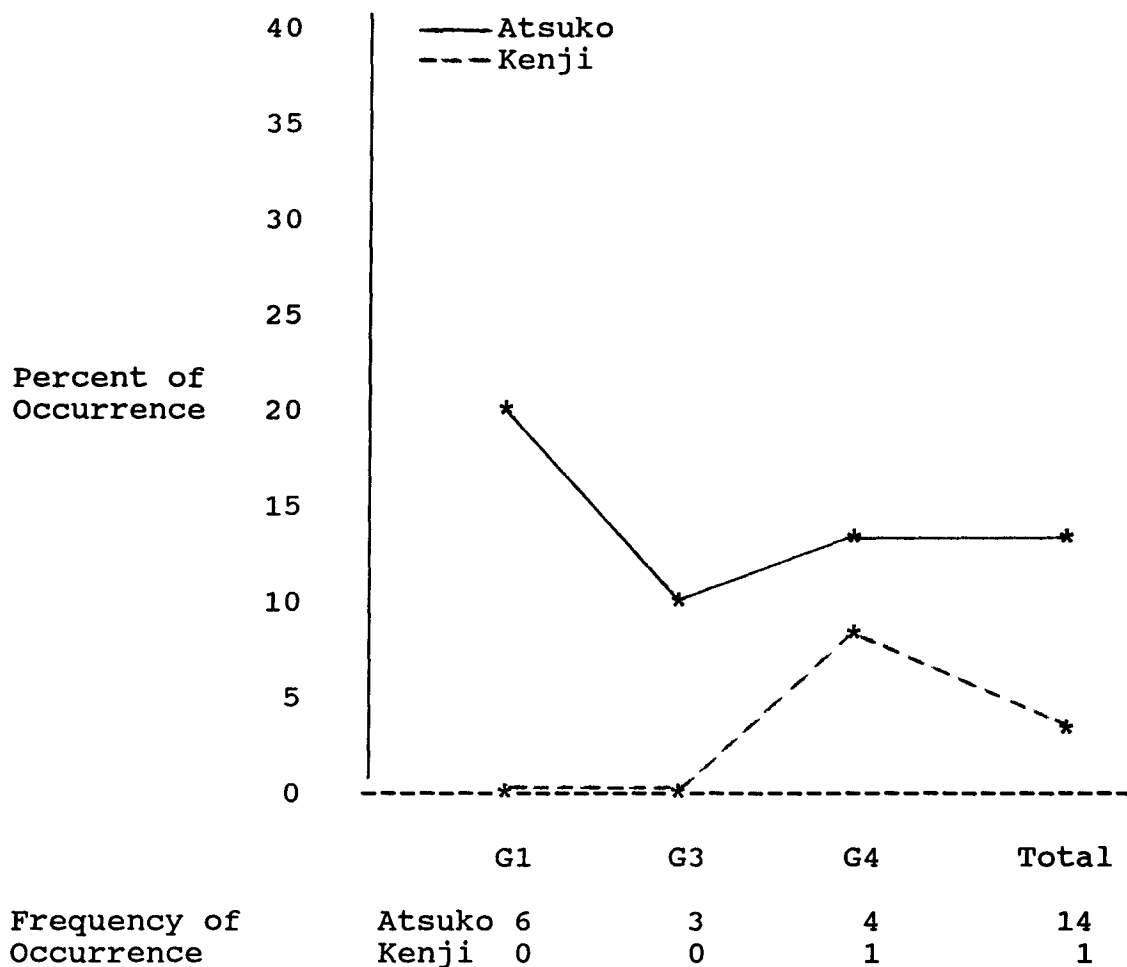
Figure 5. Comparison of Case A corrective performance features by group session.

In addition, the group work often involved three or more group members, which limited the input and thus the performance feature use of the subjects within the group context. These factors indicate that a greater quantity of performance features should be found in the data collected

		Quest.	I1	I3	I4	Total
Frequency of	Atsuko	28	24	28	37	117
Occurrence	Kenji	72	31	40	29	170
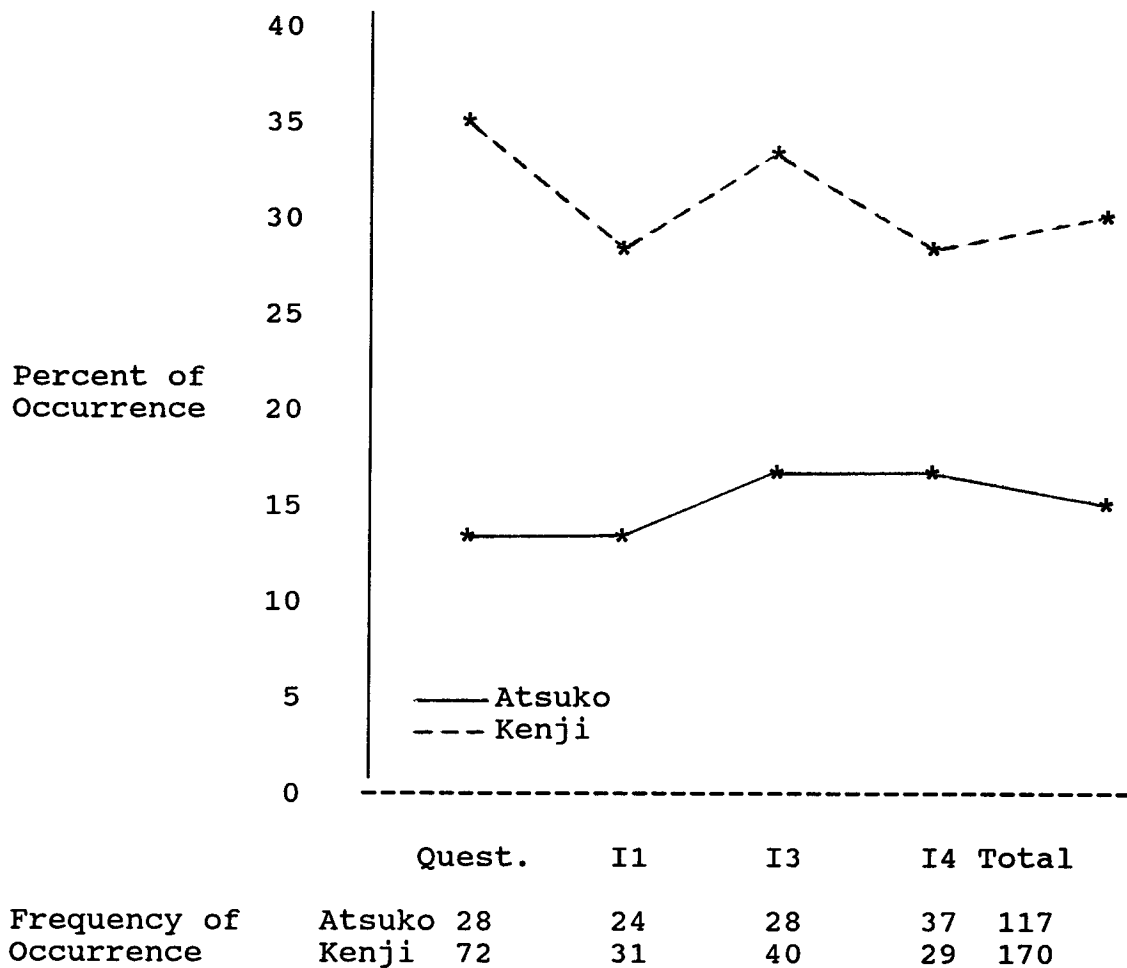
<u>Figure 6</u>. Comparison of Case A planful performance features by questionnaire/interview.

in the questionnaire and interviews. What is surprising, however, is the extent to which the frequency of performance features decreases in the group sessions, particularly in the data for Kenji. At least two factors might be involved in this phenomenon. First, as indicated

		G1	G3	G4	Total
Frequency of	Atsuko	4	7	5	15
Occurrence	Kenji	0	0	1	1
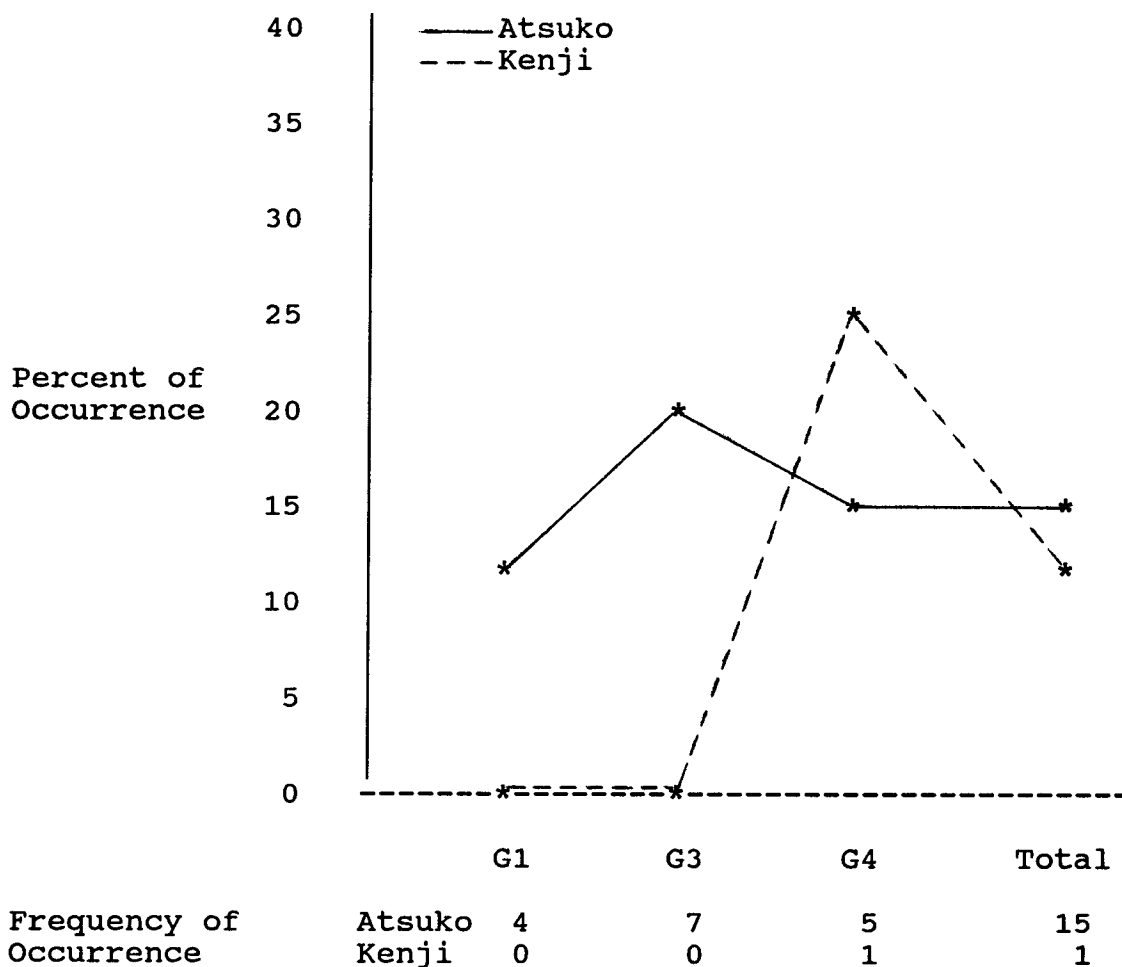
<u>Figure 7</u>. Comparison of Case A planful performance features by group session.

above, the overall verbal input in the group sessions might decrease. Second, the level of linguistic and sociolinguistic difficulty in group interaction might be lower than that in the interview context, resulting in qualitative differences between these two categories. One way of measuring this phenomenon is to calculate the percentages of turns in the group sessions (i.e., NNS-NNS

interactions) coded as possessing performance features and comparing them with similarly-coded turns in the interview sessions (i.e., NS-NNS interactions). This calculation would serve to factor out the quantity of input, thus allowing us to compare qualitative differences in performance feature use between the group and interview contexts. In the coding schema, a turn was defined as an utterance uninterrupted by another speaker. Interruptions by other speakers would therefore constitute the demarcation boundaries of the turns taken by the subject. Table 3 gives a comparison of turns possessing performance features as opposed to turns free of such features in the subjects' coded group work and interviews.

Seliger (1980) has claimed that performance features are indicative of either "planning" or "correcting" on the part of the learner. Planning and correcting may be seen as the types of problem-solving behaviours that contribute to the process of the restructuring of knowledge (Karmiloff-Smith, 1986), and hence, to the acquisition of the second language. It is interesting to note, therefore, that in Table 3 the percentages of turns possessing performance features are consistently higher in the retrospective interviews than in the group work. This would seem to suggest that the group sessions provide less opportunity for the restructuring of linguistic knowledge than do the interview sessions.

If correctors tend to use self repair and repeats
extensively, while planners are more dependent on
hesitation pauses, as Seliger (1980) has suggested, then
the data on Atsuko's use of these performance features are
inconclusive as to her overall orientation to learning.

Table 3

Case A: Turns embedded with Performance Features*

(Expressed as percentages of the total number of turns)

	Atsuko			Kenji		
Session	1	3	4	1	3	4
Group	25	53	36	-	-	17
Interview	67	61	55	65	46	52

*excluding comprehension checks

The data presented in figures 4-7 show corrective and
planful behaviours for Atsuko quite evenly distributed at
about 15% in both the questionnaire and interviews. While
the group sessions showed greater fluctuations, planful
and corrective performance feature use, when expressed as
percentages of the total number of performance features in
the data, averaged 16% and 14% respectively. This would
seem to suggest that Atsuko is both a corrector and a

planner.

Kenji, on the other hand, appeared to be a careful planner of verbal output, as indicated by high percentages of planful behaviour and much lower percentages of corrective behaviour in the data for questionnaire-interview contexts (Figures 4 and 6). It is difficult to draw any conclusions from the data for Kenji in the group session context (Figures 5 and 7). The extremely low frequency of performance features resulted in large fluctuations in the percentages of performance feature occurrence, making it impossible to detect valid behavioural patterns. The low frequency of performance feature use does indicate that Kenji was reluctant to speak out in the group sessions, a finding corroborated by in-class observation.

Comprehension Checks

Both subjects used the comprehension check quite frequently in the interviews (Appendix D). It was initially thought that the use of this performance feature would increase over time as it became automatized in the subjects' speech patterns. This did not appear to be the case, although in the data for Kenji the increase in the use of comprehension checks after the questionnaire (i.e., in Interviews 1 - 4) is noticeable.

2) ### Introspective Observations on the Use of Performance

Features

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The discussion of introspective observations made by the subjects in both cases will frequently make use of excerpts from the interviews and group work activities. In these excerpts, italic print will be used to highlight the particular performance feature or comment indicative of the strategic behaviour under discussion. Should two different types of strategic behaviour be of importance in one excerpt, the second type will be underlined. The interviewer's questions and comments are recorded in upper case print, while lower case print has been used for the subjects' responses. A number enclosed in square brackets (e.g., [3]) indicates the length in seconds of an unfilled pause. It should also be noted that excerpts used in this chapter are not verbatim transcriptions, but have been edited for clarity of meaning. Samples of verbatim transcriptions are found in Appendix E. Excerpts are numbered in closed parentheses consecutively throughout the text.

That Atsuko closely monitored her linguistic production is evident from the high percentages of false starts in the data. Interestingly, she reported not being conscious of this process:

> (1)...We have learned grammar very strongly, *stress, grammar was stressed* to learn *very correct very correctly-*
>
> IN JAPAN?

> Yeah, in Japan, so, so our attitude to English
> is like that, that we will care the *grammars, the*
> *grammar*, but I think, as for me, I'm, I'm
> not so good at thinking, uh, carrying *grammars,*
> *grammar* because uh, it's very small thing. ...
> I have to be careful, but now, I'm very, uh,
> concentrating on speaking, so sometimes I cannot uh,
> concentr-concentrate on just one small thing (Jan.
> 16, 1992).

Despite her claim that she does not monitor linguistic output, the above excerpt indicates the degree to which Atsuko <u>did</u> correct her own production errors. An interesting hypothesis emerges: due to the heavy emphasis placed on proper grammatical construction in the English classes in which Atsuko had participated in Japan, it is possible that the self-monitoring process became automatized, so that she rarely had conscious knowledge of monitoring for production errors. Corrective behaviour remained a fairly constant feature in Atsuko's verbal output (Figures 4-7) despite her avowals to the contrary. Thus, no gradual lessening of corrective behaviour as target language norms of production were acquired can be reported here.

For Kenji, the data indicate that planning was an important orientation to verbal output. This is in strong accordance with the introspective reports of Kenji himself, as reported in the initial questionnaire-interview:

(2) Maybe we can say any language conversation is

very difficult to make sentences in my head, so speak
correctly is very difficult (Oct. 7, 1991).

(3) Maybe, the type of grammar it's very different
from Japanese types of grammar. I can make the
comparison in writing, but I cannot make the sentence
in the head, so it's very hard to make sentence.

SO WHEN YOU SAY 'IN THE HEAD', YOU MEAN FOR EXAMPLE,
WHEN TALKING WITH SOMEONE?

Yeah. Maybe I can say, I can make sentence to take
too much time in the head. So, what, I cannot speak
quickly as quickly as I can (Oct. 7, 1991).

Kenji's introspective reports, however, are not

totally consistent. In excerpts 2 and 3 (from the

questionnaire) for example, he appears to place emphasis

on difficult grammatical forms in English which thus make

planning more difficult. However, in excerpt 4 (from

Interview 1), he seems to be reporting that lexical items

or overall meaning take predominance over grammar:

(4) He doesn't, can't afford to have grammar rules.
When he is speaking, he is focussing on the speaking
[reported by interpreter] (Nov. 5, 1991).

The data would appear to support the supposition that

Kenji monitors for meaning more than grammaticality, in

that self-repair performance features, which often attend

to grammatical errors, are not prominent in his speech

(see Appendix D).

Interestingly, by the final interview, Kenji appeared

to regard excessive planning as an impediment to effective

conversation:

> (5)...ARE THERE ANY STRATEGIES THAT YOU USE TO TRY TO
> UNDERSTAND WHAT THE PERSON IS SAYING, OR TO MAKE
> YOURSELF UNDERSTOOD TO THE PERSON?
>
> I don't think I use that kind of strategy. Just, I
> have to understand what the other persons says, just
> I have to react almost, I don't think anything, just
> say something, or-
>
> JUST SAY SOMETHING?
>
> -no strategy.
>
> ...Yeah. Maybe so. That's why, I cannot speak out?
> *Just thinking, "What should I say", or, "What is a*
> *suitable word?", or, just thinking so, ...I couldn't*
> *say anything* (Jan. 28, 1992).

The data do not indicate that Kenji gradually reduced

his use of long pauses to conform with target language

norms of production, although it appears that he did

become conscious of the need to incorporate more

spontaneity into his verbal output.

3) <u>Dynamics of Communication in the Group Sessions</u>

Atsuko, on the basis of most of the data collected on

her, could well be classified as a "High input generator"

(Seliger, 1977), or a second language learner who

frequently initiates conversation with speakers of the

target language. This was not always the case, however.

One group session, for example, involved members of a

class debating team planning strategies on the abortion

issue, the topic that Atsuko had voted for during the

selection process. She remained curiously and

uncharacteristically silent throughout the group work,

and later explained her reasons for doing so:

> (6)...the reason why I was quiet is because that the,
> uh, because of the person who sit next to me. Uh, the
> person who talked most mostly, uh, I cannot speak
> about the, uh I cannot speak in front of him. I'm not
> good at speaking with him, because he is so smart, so
> when I talk, when I talk about my opinion, I cannot
> have any, I cannot have confidence, so, I think in
> myself, but I am afraid to express what I think,
> about it (Nov. 12, 1991).

Significantly, Kenji also pointed out his discomfort

in working with the same student mentioned by Atsuko:

> (7) DID YOU FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH THE OTHER MEMBERS
> OF YOUR GROUP TODAY?
>
> Comfortable? Not comfortable. It's always only X [the
> student]. *His English is good, so, he likes to
> speak, to say his opinion.* So most of the time he
> and another student [name given] is, uh, kind of
> leader in our class. *Because of his, their good
> English* (Nov. 19, 1991).

Excerpt 7 provides an excellent working definition of

the qualities of a "leader". It is not far removed from

the description given by Dearing and Rogers (1990) (see

pp. 21-22 above) of leaders in Japanese science study

groups. In Kenji's definition, two qualities seem to

predominate: 1) the group leader is confident, and 2) the

group leader is recognized as an excellent speaker of

English.

Video-tapes of group work involving Atsuko, Kenji,

and the unnamed group leader reveal interesting

differences, possibly gender-related, in the respective
behaviours of the two subjects. Atsuko, for the greater
part of the group session, remained quietly staring at her
exercise book. In Kenji's group, eye contact was almost
exclusively directed toward the group leader when other
students exercised their opportunities to take turns in
the conversation. Kenji himself spoke infrequently during
the session, and his comments might best be described as
tentative:

> (8)...attract many Japanese people in Canada. It not
> make sense to this question? [7] You don't
> understand? [Eye contact directed toward student X]
> (Nov. 16, 1991).

For both subjects, responses to the presence of
student X might best be described as submissive, although,
in this particular case, Kenji's response appeared to
involve an attempt to communicate on a level approaching
equality with the group leader, while Atsuko's response
was muted at best. This is perhaps an example of groups
creating hierarchies where none objectively exist (Nakane,
1971). In any case, it is interesting that both Atsuko
and Kenji were able, by the final interview, to articulate
evolving strategies for dealing with their submissive
responses in this type of group situation. For Atsuko, the
need to compete with those learners whom she perceived as
being more articulate became an extremely important

strategy of motivation:

> (9) I don't want to be defeated by my friends in
> English. I have a lot of rivals, I think my friends
> are rivals. Rivals. ...So the competition, there's
> good energy for me to, to encourage myself to study
> English. Yeah. Then I will escape the feeling of
> inferiority (January 16, 1992).

Kenji, on the other hand, was able to articulate a

motivating strategy, but did not appear confident in

actually carrying it out:

> (10) I should, attract, or [4], attract or [5], I
> should [4] be more active to attract other people
> from my opinion [3]. Or, I try to join their
> conversation. But I can't (Nov. 16, 1991).

It is difficult to judge whether these strategies were

developed during the duration of the research period, or

whether the subjects had long been aware of them. Given

the novelty of the learning environment, both inside and

outside of the classroom, we might cautiously conclude

that these were new strategies for the two subjects, at

least in regard to studying a second language, and that

they may have been employed strategically to the learning

task.

4) Changes in Learning Strategies Over Time

Table 4 outlines introspectively-reported changes in

learning strategies for the two subjects during the data-

gathering period.

Table 4

Case A: Reported Change in the Use of Learning Strategies
Atsuko

Questionnaire (October 6, 1991)	Interview 4 (January 16, 1992)
1. <u>Pronunciation</u>: Repetition, observation of NS vocalizations.	1. <u>Pronunciation</u>: Repetition, observation of NS vocalizations.
2. <u>Vocabulary</u>: Extensive reading. Repetition of and concentration on new words. Writing down new vocabulary.	2. <u>Vocabulary</u>: None. Atsuko was currently wondering how best to expand her vocabulary.
3. <u>Listening Comp.</u>: Speaking Speaking with Canadian friends and teachers.	3. <u>Listening Comp.</u>: Watching movies with no subtitles. Listening to a radio program featuring a "teacher-consultant."

Table 4 (cont'd)

Case A: Reported Change in the Use of Learning Strategies

	Listening in on NS-NS conversations.
4. Conversation: Listening in on NS-NS conversations in the cafeteria.	4. Conversation: No strategy reported.
5. Reading Comp.: Concentration on the introduction and conclusion of the passage. In each paragraph, concentrating on the first or topic sentence and the last sentence.	5. Reading Comp.: Focussing on the first and last sentences of each paragraph. Underlining key content and function words. Skipping over unfamiliar words to attain greater reading speed.
6. Grammar: No strategies reported.	6. Grammar: No strategies reported.
7. Writing: Completion of written assignments.	7. Writing: No strategies reported.
	table continues

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Table 4 (cont'd)

Case A: Reported Change in the Use of Learning Strategies

Kenji

Questionnaire (October 7, 1991)	Interview 4 (January 28, 1992)
1. Pronunciation: Repeating problem words, both vocally and silently.	1. Pronunciation: Self-analysis of pronunciation difficulties, after observing problem areas when speaking with NS.
2. Vocabulary: Making lists and repeating them.	2. Vocabulary: Use of dictionary.
3. Listening Comp. Listening to the news on the radio.	3. Listening Comp.: Listening to the news on the radio.
4. Conversation: No strategy reported.	4. Conversation: First, understanding what the other person says. Then, "just reacting" to what table continues

Table 4 (cont'd)

Case A: Reported Change in the Use of Learning Strategies

	s/he says.
5. <u>Reading Comprehension</u>: Reading widely (books and newspapers).	5. <u>Reading Comprehension</u>: Depending on the nature of the reading material, skimming for the main idea and checking the dictionary for unfamiliar words.
6. <u>Grammar</u>: None reported.	6. <u>Grammar</u>: Not asked.
7. <u>Writing</u>: Getting help from others in constructing sentences.	7. <u>Writing</u>: No strategy reported.

It would appear that similarities developed between the two subjects regarding reading strategies. Atsuko had already begun to develop a reading strategy when she was first interviewed; by the final interview, however, she had further refined this process by concentrating on key vocabulary and reading for context where vocabulary was not known. The strategy was apparently developed to improve the speed with which she read and to lessen dependence on reference materials such as dictionaries in classroom work. Kenji had also begun a strategy of

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scanning written material, although he appeared to rely to some extent on the dictionary as well. These reading strategies are, of course, quite frequently taught, so it would not be surprising if both subjects had received formal classroom instruction on reading techniques. In addition, the limited amount of time available in which to meet deadlines imposed on in-class work as well as written assignments would likely have provided sufficient incentive for the frequent use of reading strategies.

In the use of listening strategies, both subjects had, by the final interview, reached out to the media in the form of motion pictures and the radio for opportunities in which to practice. This might be indicative of the inherent difficulties involved in carrying out direct, substantive interaction with native speakers.

Overall, it appears that strategic behaviour in Case A was modified over time to reflect the stringent demands on time imposed by course work. In addition, the members of the case appeared to specialize in strategic areas most vital to personal or academic priorities. It is therefore significant to note that, in the final interview, Atsuko specified listening as the area she most wanted to improve upon, while Kenji noted that conversation, in its full sense of decoding and encoding messages, was his priority.

5) <u>The Restructuring of Procedural Knowledge Related</u>

<u>to Linguistic Behaviour</u>

a) <u>Psycholinguistic Knowledge</u>

With the possible exception of Kenji's use of comprehension checks, there appeared to be little change in patterns of performance feature use over time for both members of Case A. This would lead us to the conclusion that no major restructuring of corrective or planful behaviours occurred over the four-month data collection period. Indeed, these orientations to verbal output may be so basic to a learner's personality that we should not expect any change other than a very gradual lessening, over longer periods of time, of extremes in corrective or planful behaviour such as very long unfilled pauses or multiple self repairs.

The discussion which follows on the actual mechanics of restructuring is not directly related to the research problems in Chapter 3. It would seem important, however, in this section to discuss a possible means by which performance features are used in the process of achieving automaticity of linguistic form, which is thought to be a part of the restructuring process (McLaughlin, 1990). While it is difficult to analyze Kenji's output, because processes of automatization are largely hidden behind unfilled pauses, in Atsuko's case these processes may be seen in her ability to scaffold (Hatch, 1978). The excerpt

below illustrates a pattern of horizontal (i.e., syntactical, or intra-speaker) scaffolding (McLaughlin, 1987) frequently found in Atsuko's speech. Such scaffolding seemed to occur frequently around newly-acquired lexical items (e.g., "on my floor" in excerpt 11 below), where Atsuko appeared to incorporate new constructions into the conversation based on associative links with previously-acquired forms (e.g. "in my room" in excerpt 11 below).

Scaffolding might also occur, as Ellis (1984) suggests, around automatized chunks of formulaic speech where the memorized formula serves as an "anchor point" (McLaughlin, 1987, p. 75) around which the rest of the utterance is constructed. For example, the phrase "as for me", which was frequently found in Atsuko's output, seems to be a focal point of organization in excerpt 12 below.

(11) DO YOU SPEAK ENGLISH MUCH, HERE AT TOTEM
PARK, WHEN YOU'RE NOT IN CLASS?

Uh, yeah, when I'm in the classroom, in the classroom
I speak only English, but after class, at cafeteria,
or at the Japanese students' room, I speak Japanese
with Japanese friends. But *in my room, in my room,
uh, no, no, on the floor, on the floor, on my floor,*
I often visit my [Canadian] friends' room to talk
with my friends (Oct. 6, 1991).

(12) ...then we, we we we had, we got one answers. So
I think sometimes, it, *as for me,* it's necessary
to away from the topic (Nov. 19, 1991).

The two performance features that are used in the

scaffolding processes above are repeats and false starts, both of which are considered to indicate planful behaviour. From the viewpoint of second language acquisition, then, corrective behaviour may possibly be a means by which automaticity of linguistic forms is achieved.

b) Canadian Sociolinguistic Knowledge

Within the hierarchical structure of the group, a restructuring of behaviour did appear to be underway for both subjects. Atsuko reportedly welcomed the idea of increased competition with rivals, and Kenji saw his need to assert himself more forcefully in conversation. These observations were introspective reports of ideal situations; further classroom observation was not able to verify the degree to which change actually did occur.

These reports are important, however, regardless of the degree to which the two subjects were actually able to implement them in classroom activities. Given the teacher-centred Japanese second language classroom described by Shimahara (1979) and Duppenthaler et al. (1989), where students' comments and opinions may be considered disruptive, Kenji and Atsuko do appear to have developed at the very least an awareness of competitive orientations to classroom group work. These orientations are more in keeping with Canadian norms of classroom behaviour, and may thus have been learned from the Canadian university

environment in which these subjects were studying. Several aspects of this shift in awareness remain unclear, however. These are: 1) to what extent were the subjects aware of the importance of proactive orientations to learning English while they were still in Japan?; 2) to what extent did the classroom environment, including instructors who encouraged discussion and debate in group work, influence the subjects' attitudes?; and 3) to what extent did the university environment (i.e., interaction with NS students and others) play a role in this attitudinal change? The above factors cannot be objectively measured within the context of this study; it is perhaps of some significance, however, that both Atsuko and Kenji did not make their observations on competitiveness until the final interview, which might suggest that a shift in attitudes developed gradually over time for both learners. If this is the case, we might expect that the subjects' observations of examples of such behaviour from within their new learning environment were leading to a gradual restructuring of the sociolinguistic behaviour of the subjects.

<div align="center">c) <u>Strategic Behaviour</u></div>

A positive restructuring of strategic behaviour did appear to take place for both subjects, especially in the area of reading. The use of native speakers other than teachers as resources, however, did not appear to be well-

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developed among these subjects. We might speculate that
cultural and affective barriers prevented more rewarding
interaction with native speakers of English.

Summary for Case A

In summary, the analysis of the performance features
of the subjects of Case A revealed possible
psycholinguistic differences that affected linguistic
production. Kenji appeared to plan his utterances
carefully before speaking, while Atsuko seemed to mix
elements of planful and corrective behaviour.

Although the two subjects dealt with group authority
in different ways, they both appeared to be affected quite
strongly by the presence of leaders who were perceived to
be excellent communicators in the English language. Both
had reported on the need to interact more competitively
with these leaders and within the group context generally.

In the development of learning strategies, Atsuko and
Kenji seemed to take a pragmatic approach, adopting and
developing strategies that brought immediate benefits to
their academic endeavours as well as to personal areas of
priority. While they both made use of strategic
procedures capitalizing on the fact that they were living
in an English-speaking environment, it seems somewhat
surprising that they did not emphasize interaction with
native speakers, except in largely passive activities such
as listening to NS-NS conversation, or repeating NS models

of preununciation.

A process of the restructuring of strategic and
sociolinguistic behaviour did appear to be underway t
some extent. The members of Case A seemed to be
restructuring knowledge around pragmatic strategic
behaviour that would enable them to participate more
fully in the classroom learning experience.

<p align="center">Case B: The Novice Speakers</p>

Data from the analysis of performance features
indicates that Midori and Ryuzo, the two novice speakers,
appeared to be largely involved in planning their
utterances during the interviews and group sessions. This
was so, perhaps, because little lexical or syntactic input
had become automatized in their verbal output. Some
observable differences do emerge, however, in the nature
of the planning operations performed by each subject. The
ensuing discussion will examine similarities and
differences in the strategic behaviour of these two
subjects.

<p align="center">1) The Use of Performance Features</p>

Figures 8-11 show performance feature use as it
relates to corrective and planful behaviours for the Case
B subjects. The manner by which the percentages and
frequencies of occurrence were calculated has been
described above (pp 54-55).

The most salient feature in the data from the

questionnaire/interviews (Figures 8 and 10) is the
striking degree of similarity in the orientations to
learning of these two subjects. Corrective behaviour for
both subjects has a mean range extending from 7% to 13% of
performance feature use throughout the questionnaire,
interview, and group sessions. Planful behaviour appears
almost as uniform, with a mean range extending from 28% to
38%. Both subjects, then, appeared to be strongly

		Quest.	I1	I3	I4	Total
Frequency of	Midori	6	6	28	15	37
Occurrence	Ryuzo	33	11	13	32	103
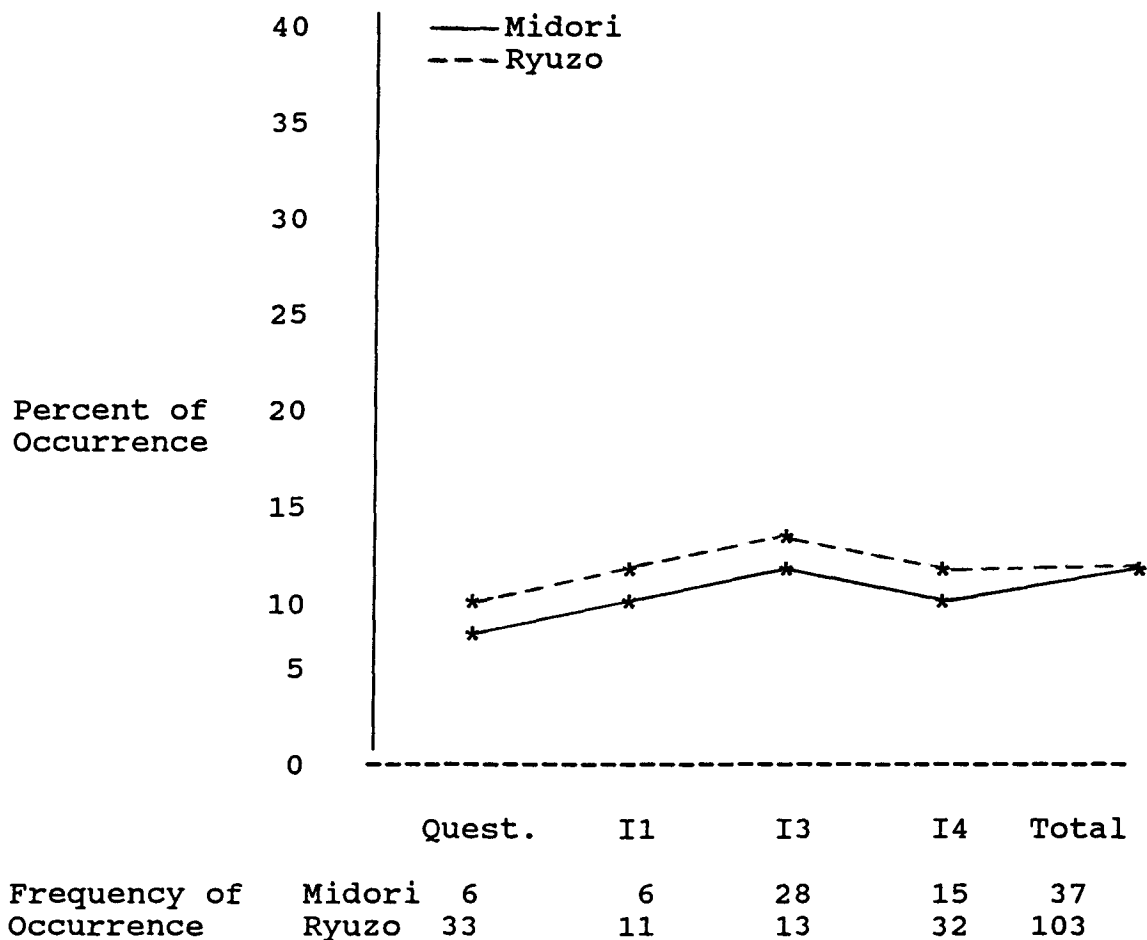
Figure 8. Comparison of Case B corrective performance
features by questionnaire/interview.

oriented towards planful behaviour, with filled pauses as the dominant performance feature (Appendix D).

As was true with Case A, data from the group sessions are less conclusive. Although planful behaviour appears to be the dominant orientation for both subjects in these sessions, the frequency of performance feature use is very

Frequency of		G1	G3	G4	Total
Occurrence	Midori	3	2	0	6
	Ryuzo	2	5	2	10
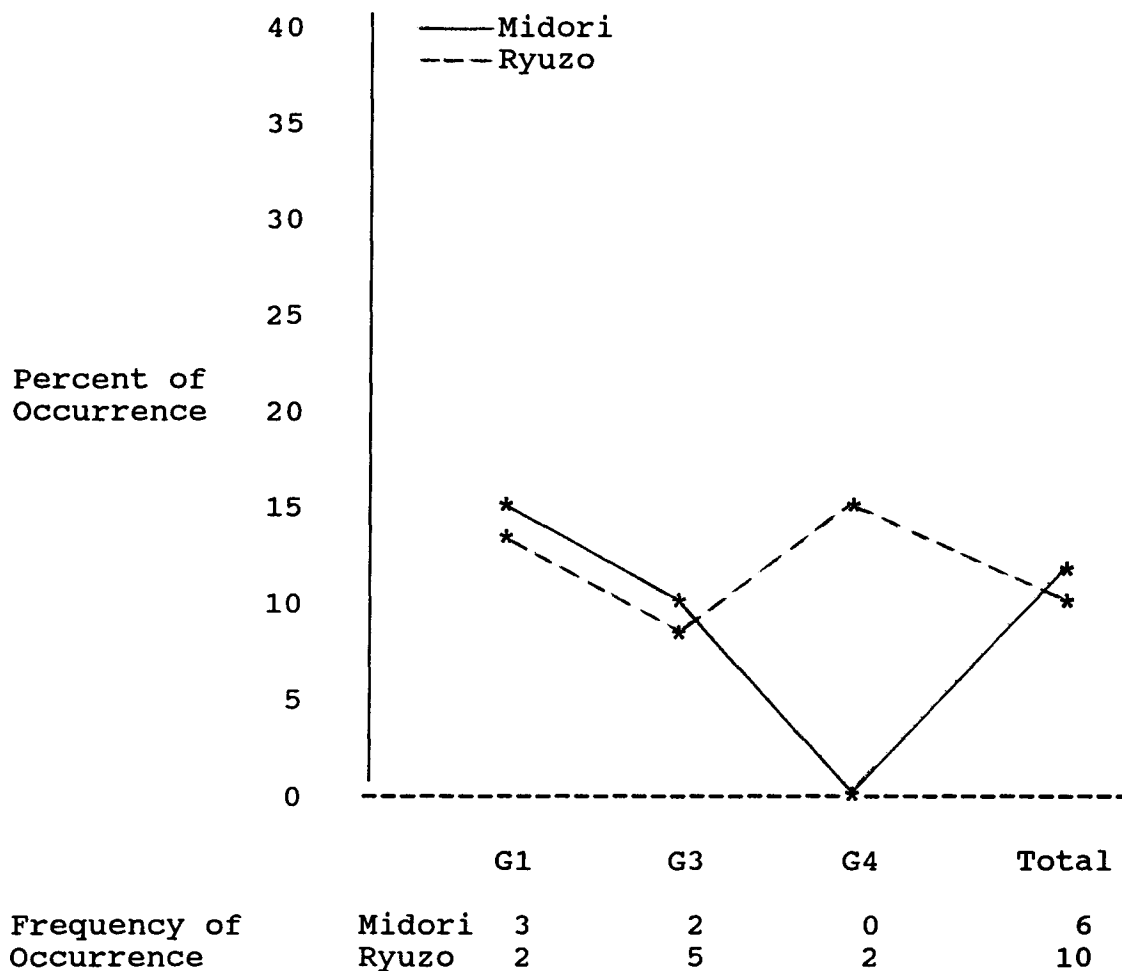
Figure 9. Comparison of Case B corrective performance features by group session.

low, resulting in quite dramatic fluctuations in both orientations to learning.

Ryuzo used performance features to a much greater degree than Midori, as is evident in the frequencies of occurrence given in Figures 8-11. This was especially true in the questionnaire/interview context, and might be indicative of an intensive process of hypothesis

Percent of Occurrence

	Quest.	I1	I3	I4	Total
Frequency of Midori	28	26	27	40	121
Occurrence Ryuzo	110	37	62	95	303
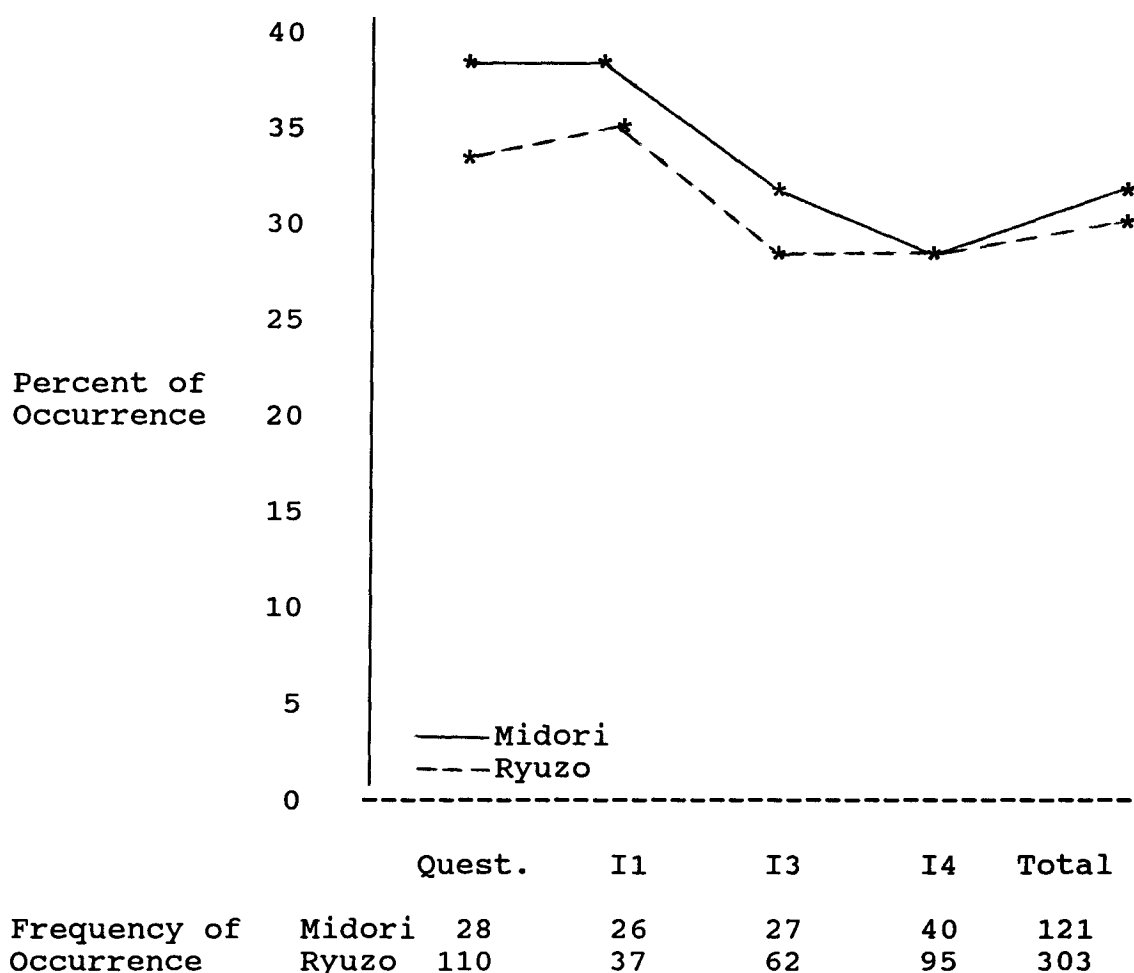
Figure 10. Comparison of Case B planful performance features by questionnaire/interview.

formulation and automatization of linguistic forms within
the interlanguage of this subject. This will be discussed
at greater length below.

The ratio of performance feature use to total turns
taken is also higher in the questionnaire/interviews than
in the group sessions, especially for Midori (Table 5).

		G1	G3	G4	Total
Frequency of	Midori	5	5	0	10
Occurrence	Ryuzo	4	20	3	27
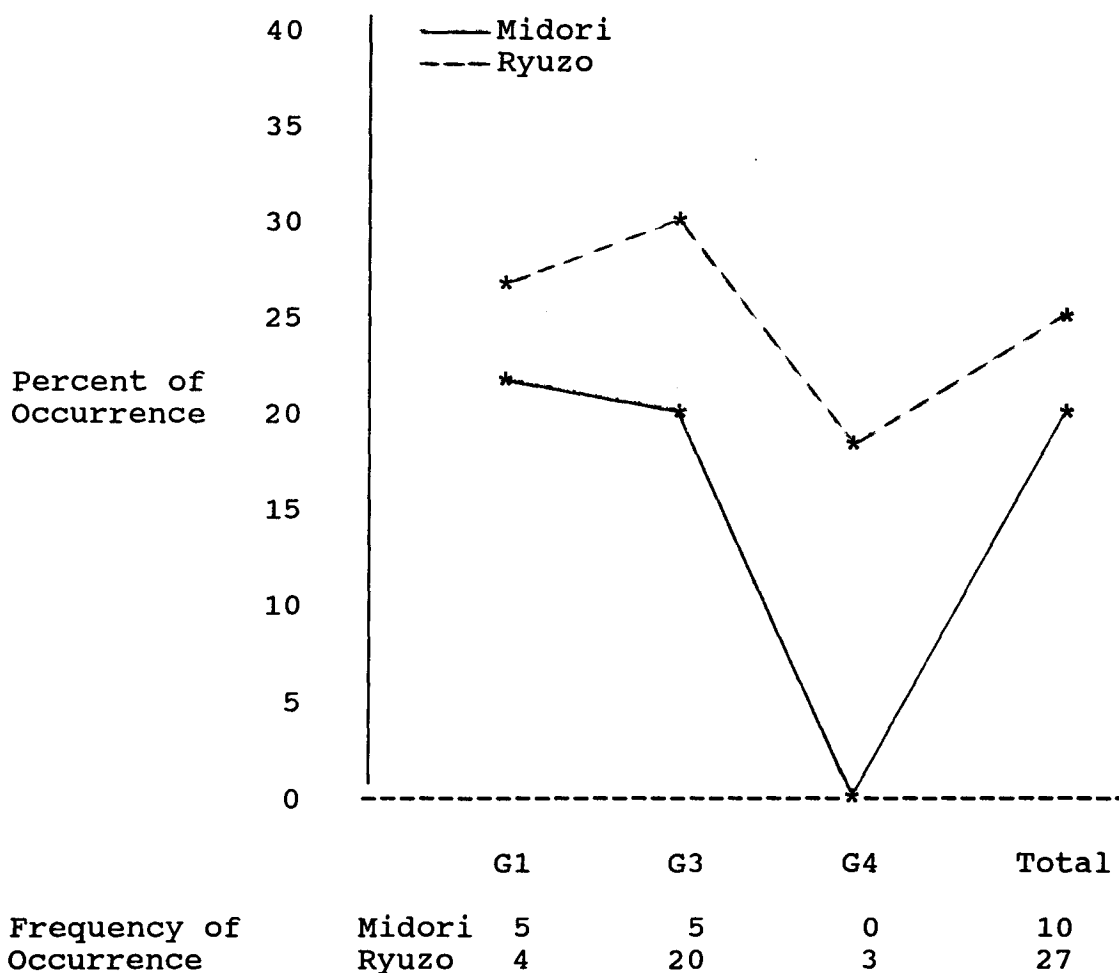
Figure 11. Comparison of Case B planful performance
features by group session.

As was true with Case A, this would appear to indicate that the interview sessions provided greater opportunities for practice at higher skill levels. In Ryuzo's case, however, we might speculate that the relatively high ratios of performance feature use to turns taken in the questionnaire/interviews as well as in the group sessions indicate that the level of interaction was sufficiently challenging for him in both contexts. This would appear to be less true for Midori in the group context at least, a finding which coincides with the subjective impressions yielded through observation, where Ryuzo appeared to struggle with the content of group discussions to a greater degree than Midori.

Case B: Turns embedded with Performance Features*
(Expressed as percentages of the total number of turns)

	Midori			Ryuzo		
Session	1	3	4	1	3	4
Group	26	18	-	50	58	42
Interview	44	44	47	60	68	82

*excluding comprehension checks

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Comprehension Checks

The data on comprehension checks (Appendix D) are inconclusive in terms of longitudinal change in the development of what is considered largely to be a feature of Canadian English. In Midori's case there did appear to be an observable acquisition of this performance feature, as indicated by the comparatively high totals found in Interview 4 and Group Session 3. Ryuzo, however, was already using comprehension checks quite extensively during the Table 5 initial questionnaire; its use then decreased in Interviews 1 and 3, only to rise sharply in Interview 4.

2) Introspective Observations and the Use of Performance Features

Introspective observations on the nature of planning, which was the basic orientation towards verbal output of both subjects, dealt mainly with perceived changes over time in the process of internally translating output from Japanese to English before verbal production. In elaborating upon this phenomenon, Midori acknowledged that some change over time had occurred:

> (13)...DO YOU TRY TO THINK OF WHAT YOU WANT TO SAY IN JAPANESE FIRST AND THEN TRANSLATE IT INTO ENGLISH BEFORE YOU SPEAK?
>
> Um, before, so last term, maybe I did so, but recently I tried to didn't so. Because Japanese order

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is different than English order. So, English is
subject, verb and adjective - something that.
Japanese is no subject and long adjective, or
something that. *So, unless I change my thinking,
maybe my English doesn't improve.* So I try to think
English way, so recently I didn't do so (Jan. 31,
1992).

The process appeared to be similar, but perhaps less
complete for Ryuzo:

(14) Five months ago at first I make full sentence in
Japanese, then I speak out. Uh, speak out in English.
But now maybe I think about a part of, so, a part of
sentence is thinked by Japanese> but a part of
sentence is thinked by English (Jan. 28, 1992).

That the two subjects were attempting to move towards
greater congruence with target language norms of
production might lead to speculation that their output,
especially as indicated through observed performance
features, would show a greater number of indications of
corrective, as opposed to planful behaviour, as output was
influenced by greater degrees of denativization. The coded
data do not support this supposition, however. This might
suggest that basic characteristics of linguistic behaviour
do not easily change, and that a learner remains within a
certain orientation (e.g., planning or correcting) despite
changes in individual perception or in the learning
environment.

3) <u>Dynamics of Communication in the Group Sessions</u>

Interviews with Midori revealed a fairly regimented

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conception on her part regarding the hierarchy of group structure. She commented, for example, on the importance of leaders in the group:

(15) If someone doesn't lead us, it is harder to progress ... I know, I am more speak than other members, but I don't like to be leader, uh so, second or third (Oct. 31, 1991).

Like Midori, Ryuzo recognized a hierarchy in communicative relations within the group, and felt that he occupied a certain position within this hierarchy:

(16)...he likes to express his opinion, but a kind of a step down, not leader, but just one of the group members. ... not a first kind of top leader, but maybe second or third leader [reported by interpreter] (Oct. 31, 1991).

An important function of the group leader became apparent quite accidentally during the course of an interview with Midori one afternoon. The interviewer, remembering Midori's charitable attitude in inviting into her group a student who had seemingly missed either the main lecture or the preliminary work to the group sessions, asked her if the exercise under discussion had been made more difficult by the absence of one of the members prior to the group session. The subsequent reply and ensuing discussion revealed that the "chairperson" took on a role not unlike that of the teacher in the more traditional lockstep classroom:

(17) WAS THIS EXERCISE MORE DIFFICULT FOR YOU BECAUSE
ONE OF THE STUDENTS WAS NOT THERE FOR THE LECTURE?

No. Everyone, uh everyone. Uh, two boys and I
attended.

OK. I THOUGHT ONE OF THEM WAS NOT THERE, BECAUSE IT
SEEMED THAT YOU WERE EXPLAINING YOUR OPINIONS OR YOUR
ANSWERS MUCH MORE THAN THE OTHER GUY WAS. IT SEEMED
LIKE YOU WERE EXPLAINING TO HIM MATERIAL FROM THE
LECTURE AND THEN HE WOULD QUESTION YOU.

Um hum. And so that, that, his role is chairperson.
Like chairperson. So, I and other guy [the third
group member] answer, and give suggestion and
opinion.

WERE YOU HAPPY WITH THAT SITUATION, WHERE YOU HAD ONE
PERSON SORT OF CHAIRPERSON ASKING QUESTIONS AND YOU
WERE GIVING INFORMATION?

Yes, yes.

DID YOU FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH THAT?

Yes. I don't like play the role of chairperson so it
is easier to answer or give questions.

UM HUM. DOES SOMEONE HAVE TO PLAY THE ROLE OF THE
CHAIRPERSON?

Maybe. I think so.

YEAH? FOR WHAT REASON?

Um, *it is difficult for us, our discussion* (Nov. 14,
1991).

A tempting, but unverifiable hypothesis regarding this

phenomenon would be that these students, all novices in

the task-based, small-group format of the ENED 379 class,

adopted a more familiar lockstep format <u>within</u> the small

group. If this were indeed the case, the student whose

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ability in English was rated the highest might quite naturally assume the role of 'teacher', and commence questioning the other students about the topic. Based on observations of Case B group sessions, this hierarchical structure did not appear to inhibit interaction. It may have been a culturally-acceptable means of imposing order upon a new form of classroom behaviour.

4) Changes in Learning Strategies Over time

Table 6 outlines introspectively-reported changes in learning strategies for the two subjects during the data-gathering period.

Table 6

Case B: Reported Change in the Use of Learning Strategies

Midori

Questionnaire (October 17, 1991)	Interview 4 (January 31, 1992)
1. Pronunciation: None given.	1. Pronunciation: Enrollment in ISP pronunciation class. Requesting instructors' help with

table continues

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Table 6 (cont'd)

Case B: Reported Change in the Use of Learning Strategies

	pron. difficulties.
2. Vocabulary: Bought special vocabulary textbooks to pass high school examinations in Japan.	2. Vocabulary: Reading, then writing down certain difficult words.
3. Listening Comprehension: Listening to the radio and music.	3. Listening Comprehension: Conversation with NS. Watching movies. Making dictations based on video-taped lectures.
4. Conversation: None reported.	4. Conversation: Speaking with Japanese friends in English.
5. Reading Comprehension: Studying school texts.	5. Reading comprehension: Skimming reading material first, then checking the dictionary meaning of words deemed to be important. (Prior to this, Midori reported checking the meanings of all vocabulary she was unfamiliar with in her

table continues

Table 6 (cont'd)

<u>Case B: Reported Change in the Use of Learning Strategies</u>

	reading material).
6. <u>Grammar</u>: None reported.	6. <u>Grammar</u>: Attempting to "change thinking" (i.e., instead of transferring L1 forms).
7. <u>Writing</u>: None reported.	7. <u>Writing</u>: Doing homework.

Ryuzo

Questionnaire (October 11, 1991)	Interview 4 (January 28, 1992)
1. <u>Pronunciation</u>: None given (brief, inaudible reference made to pronunciation strategies).	1. <u>Pronunciation</u>: Attended ISP pronunciation class. Language lab work on a weekly basis in regular course work.
2. <u>Vocabulary</u>: Ryuzo described a vocabulary game he thought would	2. <u>Vocabulary</u>: Conversation with Japanese speakers of English.

<u>table continues</u>

Table 6 (cont'd)

Case B: Reported Change in the Use of Learning Strategies

help to learn vocabulary.
He had never actually used
this game, however.

3. Listening Comprehension:
   Use of cassette tapes.

3. Listening Comprehension:
   Guessing meaning from
   over-all content of the
   message. If this fails,
   proceeding to ask for an
   explanation.

4. Conversation: In Japan,
   use of a specific text-
   book. In Canada,
   practice with native
   speakers.

4. Conversation:
   Conversation with
   Japanese speakers of
   English.

5. Reading Comprehension:
   Reading textbooks and
   novels.

5. Reading Comprehension:
   Skim-reading Anthropology
   and Political Science
   texts for meaning
   (without relying
   heavily on a dictionary).

6. Grammar: Use of a
   dictionary.

6. Grammar: None given.

7. Writing: Writing
   stories, keeping a diary.

7. Writing: None given.

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By Interview 4, both subjects had reported using reading strategies more appropriate to their heavy workloads. These strategies included skimming for main ideas, using context to derive meaning, and relying less on the dictionary as a support.

An interesting issue arose in the area of conversation, where we might expect native speakers to provide a key resource. Both subjects reported relying more on advanced-level Japanese speakers of English to develop their conversational skills. This was so, according to Ryuzo, for the following reason:

> (18)...in Japanese people's group...other Japanese people...think about my thoughts and I know they thinking about my thought, so I don't feel bad. *But native speaker...don't think about my thought like Japanese people, so I thinking about something or I'm looking for words...they speak many things, so I can't look for words, so I feel bad* (Nov. 14, 1991).

Midori's reasons were slightly different than Ryuzo's. In her case, the speed of NS conversation is disconcerting:

> (19) Also I try to speak with my Canadian friends, but her speaking is very fast and it is harder for me> and so maybe I stayed Japanese friends who speak very frequently> rather than Canadian friends (Jan. 31, 1992).

Conversation with Japanese speakers of English appears to be more appealing to these subjects for both cultural (the

nature of the pause) and linguistic (the speed of NS conversation) reasons. This raises questions about the degree to which linguistic restructuring can occur without a corresponding restructuring related to procedural norms of communication within a culture (Gumperz, 1990).

Also related to restructuring is Midori's introspective comment about the need to "change [her] thinking" regarding target language norms of grammatical production. This comment quite obviously does not offer conclusive evidence that a restructuring of knowledge had indeed taken place. It does, however, raise questions about a possible link between the restructuring process and conscious awareness that the process is occurring. In other words, could this type of introspective comment have been made without having been grounded first on a deeper awareness that a restructuring of linguistic knowledge was occurring? It would appear that this complex question of the interface between conscious and subconscious processes of second language acquisition will not be explained fully without further research and analysis.

5) The Restructuring of Linguistic Behaviour

a) Psycholinguistic Knowledge

With the exception of Midori's use of comprehension checks, patterns of performance feature use appeared to remain similar over time for both subjects. It is perhaps to be expected that little change would occur in

measurements taken over a four-month period with novice speakers of English. As was true with Case A, though, the discourse of one of the Case B subjects, Ryuzo, does provide a window into the nature of automaticity.

For Ryuzo, planning seemed largely confined to scaffolding upon automatized chunks of speech. The following turn from the questionnaire provides examples of common speech patterns in this subject's verbal output:

(20) Reading, about reading, so [3] *I um use, I use, I use textbook use textbook about, I think I use I think, I think I use textbook about anthropology* and I have used novel (Oct. 11, 1991).

The "anchor points" (McLaughlin, 1987, p. 75) commonly used by Ryuzo upon which to build phrases appear to be automatized verb conjugations (e.g. "I use" and "I think"), forms which he quite conceivably studied and drilled in junior and senior high schools. Lexical items (e.g., "textbook" and "anthropology") appeared to be added to the automatized structures. Several combinations of these scaffolded forms might be used in the construction of a sentence. If indeed this is an accurate description of one of the production processes inherent in Ryuzo's interlanguage, it is similar to Ellis's (1985, pp. 167-170) explanation of the role of formulaic speech in beginning learners' acquisition of a second language. Ryuzo's behaviour can also be related to that of Wes

(Schmidt, 1983), whose verbal output was composed of a high degree of memorized formulaic speech. While Wes appeared to choose formulaic speech as a strategy of communication and thus consciously memorized useful expressions, for Ryuzo it would appear that the memorization of grammatical forms provided a useful base upon which further planning took place. This would seem to be a process indicative of the automatization of linguistic forms, which is thought to be a precursor to restructuring (McLaughlin, 1990).

b) Canadian Sociolinguistic Knowledge

There did not appear to be a restructuring of procedural knowledge related to the hierarchical nature of the group. In fact, the two subjects appeared to be satisfied with their place in the group's structure. If, as was noted above, the group became a replacement for the traditional lockstep format of the regular language classroom, it did not appear to deprive the subjects of chances for interaction.

It would, of course, be unrealistic to assume that the Case B subjects gained no knowledge of Canadian sociolinguistic patterns through exposure to their instructors and other UBC students. However, the introspective reports of Midori and Ryuzo do not indicate that an increased sensitivity towards sociolinguistic knowledge had consciously occurred, unless the apparent

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preference of both subjects (but particularly Ryuzo) to
practice conversation with Japanese speakers of English be
viewed as a negative reaction to the difficulties,
sociolinguistic or otherwise, of interacting with native
speakers.

<p align="center">c) <u>Strategic Knowledge</u></p>

In the area of learning strategies, a positive
restructuring of reading strategies did appear to develop,
based on the instrumental needs of the subjects. In
addition, a widening of strategic behaviour occurred in
other areas. For example, in attempting to improve their
listening skills, both subjects had moved from a reliance
upon the radio or cassette tapes to more interactive
approaches which involved inferring meaning from
conversational content. Conversational competence appeared
to develop largely in conjunction with Japanese speakers
of English. While this strategy may be seen to fall short
of the ideal immersion behaviour of widespread practice
with native speakers, it is still a much more interactive
approach to conversation than those reported by both
subjects in the questionnaire. In general, it would seem
that the overall strategic behaviour of both of subjects
moved towards a much greater degree of interaction with
the various opportunities presented by the foreign
learning environment.

Summary for Case B

The analysis of performance features of the Case B subjects indicated that planning of oral output occurred extensively over the period of study. In addition, Ryuzo appeared to scaffold output horizontally, i.e., on the basis of the repetition of automatized phrases around which creative communication occurred. This did not occur in Midori's verbal output to any large extent.

In their relationships with the group, both subjects seemed satisfied to maintain a hierarchical position below that of group leader. It was observed that group leaders appeared to direct question and answer sessions, taking on a function similar to that of the teacher in the traditional lockstep classroom. Both subjects appeared to have sufficient opportunity for interaction within this hierarchical structure, although it must be noted that the ratio of performance features to turns was lower in the group sessions than it was in the interviews. This suggests that opportunities for planning and correcting were greater in NS-NNS interactions. For both subjects, however, culturally-or linguistically-related factors appeared to mitigate against the benefits of interaction with native speakers. Thus, advanced-level Japanese English-speakers were seen as the ideal conversational partners.

In the classroom, time-saving strategies in reading

comprehension were adopted by both students. These strategies were aimed at gleaning important information from within the wide array of reading material distributed to the subjects in their various classes.

Comparison/Contrast of the Two Cases

a) Psycholinguistic behaviour

Three of the four subjects were classified as being predominantly "planners", while Atsuko was characterized as functioning within both planful and corrective orientations. There was no evidence of change in these orientations towards verbal output, suggesting that they are perhaps fundamental characteristics of language learners' personalities.

The use of comprehension checks expressed through rising intonation had increased for all four subjects by the final interviews and group sessions, suggesting that this sociolinguistic feature of Canadian English had to some extent been automatized. This finding must be interpreted with caution, however, especially as two of the subjects, Atsuko and Ryuzo, were already using comprehension checks quite extensively during the initial questionnaire. While it would seem highly unlikely that the intonation pattern that accompanies this feature was transferred from Japanese (R. F. Berwick, personal communication, March 7, 1992), it is possible that these subjects had assimilated the comprehension check from a

native speaking instructor while still in Japan.

b) Sociolinguistic Behaviour

While both cases undoubtedly assimilated a great deal of sociolinguistic behaviour from native speakers of English, it would appear that the advanced speakers went further towards a restructuring of this knowledge, at least as it applies to group dynamics in the classroom. Both Case A subjects articulated the need for a more competitive attitude in group work, although neither were observed demonstrating such behaviour. The Case B subjects, on the other hand, seemed content with their roles in the group sessions; because they occupied secondary positions in group hierarchical structures, they were able to interact and give opinions freely and without any observable anxiety.

c) Strategic Behaviour

Both cases appeared to widen their repertoire of strategic behaviours in conjunction with the increased opportunity for interaction with the media resources, native speakers and committed Japanese learners of English that characterized the learning environment. In the classroom, reading strategies appeared to be extensively refined by the four subjects, a reflection perhaps of their heavy workloads. By the time of the final interview, only Kenji reported interaction with native speakers as a strategy for the improvement of

conversational skills. Atsuko and Ryuzo had, in the initial questionnaire, reported on the use of native speakers as a means of improving conversational skills. By the end of the data collection period, however, neither subject appeared to be practicing this particular strategy. This would appear to be in keeping with Bishop's similarity-attraction theory (p. 20 above).

Strategic behaviour, then, appeared to follow both general trends and individual priorities, and therefore cannot be characterized in a case-specific manner. Each subject appeared to expand strategic behaviour, however, by making use of the varying resources found within the learning environment.

Summary

The study reported on the nature of psycho- and sociolinguistic behaviour between and within the two cases in the areas of group dynamics and performance feature and learning strategy use.

Findings revealed that performance feature use did appear to correspond to some degree with classifications of the subjects as "planners" or "correctors". A more important finding, perhaps, was that the use of performance features by two of the subjects (one from each case) provided a basis for the analysis of the scaffolding process, itself a window into the means by which a learner tests hypotheses about linguistic knowledge and gradually

comes to automatize this knowledge.

Data for comprehension checks--the performance feature initially thought to be outside the linguistic experience of the subjects--were inconclusive in demonstrating that a sociolinguistic feature of Canadian English had been automatized. It was found, however, that for each subject, percentages of comprehension check usage were the highest in interview and group sessions 3 and 4, occurring near the end of the period of data collection.

Strategic behaviour related to the basic skill areas of reading, writing, listening, conversation and pronunciation did appear to change longitudinally, especially in reading. Native speakers of English other than instructors, however, did not appear to be major learning resources, except in the passive sense of being models for the improvement of listening and pronunciation skills. This may indicate that patterns of socialization were not restructured by the subjects to any large degree. Another such indication lies in the observation that a hierarchical structure common to the Japanese group appeared to be prevalent within in-class group discussion sessions. Among the advanced speakers, an awareness of the limitations upon linguistic growth imposed by this hierarchical structure appeared to develop over time. The degree to which this awareness served as a basis for the development of new strategies of communication within the

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group context could not be determined. The novice learners, however, appeared to be more comfortable with the hierarchical system of the group; there is no evidence to indicate that they had considered strategies for change within the group context.

For the Case A subjects, the focus of development appeared to lie predominantly in an awareness of the necessity to move away from group structures to some extent, and to pursue goals related to linguistic growth in a more independent and aggressive manner. The Case B subjects, on the other hand, appeared to focus linguistic growth on resources primarily found within the group structure itself, presumably in order to build upon linguistic knowledge within a secure environment. While it is difficult to compare the speed with which these developmental goals unfolded, due to the differing nature of the goals themselves, it should be noted that each of the four subjects did not articulate these goals to any significant degree until the final round of interviews in January.

Following from these findings, Chapter 5 will summarize the study, present its limitations, and discuss implications for pedagogy and future research.

CHAPTER 5:

SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Summary

This study was carried out in order to explore the nature of restructuring among a homogeneous group of second language learners. From a psycholinguistic perspective, it analyzed the use of performance features in the verbal output of advanced and novice speakers of English in an attempt to expand upon the notion that these features of linguistic output provide a window into the procedures of the restructuring of linguistic knowledge. From a sociolinguistic perspective, it undertook to document the use of classroom learning strategies over a four-month period; in addition, it attempted to observe dynamics of communication within the context of small, culturally homogeneous groups of language learners. Here, the hope was that the subjects' procedural knowledge of strategic and social behaviour would be at least partially available through observation and the introspective reports of the subjects themselves. It was argued that information gained through these methodological approaches would, when examined longitudinally, yield insight into the subjects' abilities to automatize and restructure strategic and social behaviour in such a manner as to aid in the acquisition of second language skills in a foreign learning environment.

What emerged from the interviews and observations of group work were case studies of two groups of learners with individual styles of acquisition and learning strategies, but whose educational and cultural backgrounds imposed similar constraints on the learning process as it related to interaction with native speakers and in-class group work.

Limitations of the Study

This research was carried out specifically to study second language learning within a population of Japanese university students studying in a foreign environment. The results of the study cannot, therefore, be generalized to populations of second language learners having characteristics other than those outlined above. A similar research approach, however, could be taken with other culturally homogeneous groups of second language learners, provided that variability in age and educational background was controlled.

Implications for Educational Practice

This study was conducted to inquire into the nature of the restructuring process; however, the implications of this process for pedagogical practice should not be disregarded. Several implications for the teaching of English as a second language among Japanese learners can be cautiously put forward here.

First, the study found that Japanese students appear

to impose a hierarchical structure on group work. While technically not limiting the input into the group of any of its members, this structure appears to define roles that can become entrenched within groups that remain together over several sessions. Instructors might therefore want to change the membership of groups periodically to stimulate the formation of new relationships and foster different patterns of communication and thought.

Second, it was found that for the Case B subjects particularly, learning English from peers seemed to become, over time at least, preferred even over the possibility of having native speakers as interlocutors. Another finding, however, was that qualitative and quantitative differences appear to exist between learners' oral output in group sessions with their peers and in interactions with native speakers. While this finding must be interpreted with caution, it does appear that the type of language used by the four subjects while in group sessions was often less syntactically and lexically complex than their output in the retrospective interviews. An implication for the design of task-based syllabi in the second language classroom is that learning tasks need to be prepared and implemented in such a way as to promote a relatively equal distribution of participants' rights to speak, whether this entails NS-NNS or NNS-NNS interaction.

This would help to enable learners of all proficiency levels to maximize language acquisition in the classroom.

Third, the study found change in the use of some learning strategies over time. The question of whether students should be taught learning strategies is a contentious one. Studies such as that conducted by O'Malley et al. (1985b) have found the formal teaching of learning strategies to be beneficial.

One wonders, however, what student impressions of the goals of such teaching actually are, especially if the connection between what is being taught and how it will simplify the tasks confronting the learner may be tenuous at best. For the subjects of this study, however, strategies for effective reading for academic purposes seem to have become of importance over the observation period. While the study did not document the actual teaching of reading strategies to the students of Alpha and Beta classes, it would appear that the four subjects developed and made use of such strategies, in large measure to meet the demands of a rigourous schedule of written assignments. It would seem quite likely, then, that when introduced by instruction into this type of academic environment, reading strategies would be adopted, developed and practiced by many learners.

Implications for SLA Research

This study has attempted to contribute to existing

knowledge in SLA research by examining learner
orientations to verbal output, and by exploring the nature
of the restructuring of psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic,
and strategic knowledge. While some tentative conclusions
have been put forward regarding these areas, the study
itself has been largely exploratory in nature. Potential
directions for future research are outlined below.

In the area of psycholinguistics as related to
performance features, the present study has raised
questions which could be further explored by future
research. For example, a more detailed analysis of how
specific performance features contribute to verbal output
might yield interesting results. Graham (cited in
Scarcella, 1990) found that the unfilled pause has
different meanings and value in American and Japanese
culture. Future research might relate Graham's findings to
a comparison of the unfilled pause in the two cultures in
much the same way as Barnlund and his colleagues compared
Japanese and American behaviours as they related to
criticism and the giving of apologies and compliments
(Barnlund & Araki, 1985; Barnlund & Yoshioka, 1990; Nomura
& Barnlund, 1983).

The unfilled pause might also be analyzed by SLA
researchers in order to attempt to describe the linguistic
processes hidden by the silence of the pause itself.
"Think aloud" protocols, where subjects metalinguistically

explain linguistic processes, would not easily be carried out in studies dealing with oral or conversational output. Nonetheless, if suitable methodologies of data extraction could be designed, studies of this sort might attempt to have "planners" think aloud about the planning process embedded in their speech. The results of the think aloud process might then be compared with the verbal output of "correctors", in an attempt to find whether these two types of learners form discrete groups, or whether planners, though more silent, in effect share the same scaffolding and monitoring processes as correctors.

Another implication of this project is that the restructuring of procedural knowledge related to second language acquisition is tied to a certain degree to culturally-derived dynamics of communication. As Gumperz (1990) has shown, even technically fluent speakers of English as a second language can encounter severe communication problems with native speakers as a result of these cultural differences in patterns of communication. Future studies, therefore, might attempt to analyze the specific nature of problems in communication between native and non-native speakers of English. Such studies might analyze specific lexical, syntactic, or kinesic differences between these groups of speakers, making use of frameworks for the analysis of speech events such as that proposed by Hymes (1967). Longitudinal case studies

of individual learners might attempt to trace the restructuring of sociolinguistic knowledge over a longer period of time than was available in the present study.

Finally, this study has raised the issue of group dynamics in culturally homogeneous populations of learners. Especially in its relation to Japanese students, further study of this area would seem important. Initial observation of learners in group sessions might, first of all, attempt to establish the reality of a group hierarchy; that is, it might seek answers to the fundamental questions: 1) Do leaders exist in group sessions and, if so, 2) what are their defining functions?

Such research might then observe leaders and non-leaders for behavioural differences in turn taking and competing for the floor, and an analysis of the content of their respective utterances might be carried out. Long (1981) found that native speakers address large numbers of questions to non-native speakers; what discourse patterns might be observed between group leaders and "ordinary" group members? Such research could conceivably have important implications for the nature of group work within the second language classroom.

Conclusion

The process-oriented task syllabus, with its emphasis upon group work, is undoubtedly an extremely valuable component of pedagogy in ESL. What is often not considered

to any great extent by curriculum planners and instructors, however, is the nature of the learner as he or she has been shaped by cultural and educational experience. Considerations of this sort would appear to be an important feature in understanding the problems that our students have with the assignments that we have them perform. This is not to say that we necessarily need to change the nature of classroom work. It is important to realize, however, that differences in perception may well exist between instructors and students over the nature and goals of classroom work, and how these goals may best be realized. In the final analysis, we will want to examine the degree to which second language educators can expect fundamental changes to occur in their students' outlooks and orientations to education in what is, for the learners, a novel environment with new rules.

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APPENDICES (A-G)

<u>Note</u>. In Appendices F and G, this study is referred to as "A Case Study in the Phenomenology of Learning Among Adult ESL Students." This title reflects an early conception of the nature of the study. After a more thorough interaction with the data, however, it became apparent that the restructuring of linguistic knowledge would be the paramount theme dealt with. The title was therefore changed to reflect this theme more closely.

Appendix A

The Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI)

This testing procedure is a structured, one-on-one
conversation between the examinee and a trained native
speaker of the test language. The interview, while quite
informal in tone, is designed to measure the examinee's
range of abilities in the test language. Interviews begin
with a test of general conversational abilities. The
interviewer then initiates a "probe", a question designed
to test the upper limit of the examinee's abilities. An
accompanying grading scale places examinee's oral
proficiency at one of
the following levels:

0

0+	–	Novice: High
1	–	Intermediate: Low
1+	–	Intermediate: High
2	–	Advanced
2+	–	Advanced: Plus
3 and higher	–	Superior

The subjects in this study were classified at the 0+,
2 and 2+ levels. These levels have been described as
follows:

Level 0+ : Able to satisfy immediate needs using learned
           utterances. There is no real autonomy of
           expression, although there may be some emerging
           signs of spontaneity and flexibility. There is
           a slight increase in utterance length but
           frequent long pauses and repetition of
           interlocutor's words

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still occur. Can ask questions or make
statements with reasonable accuracy only where
this involves short memorized utterances or
formulae. Most utterances are telegraphic and
word endings (both inflectional and non-
inflectional) are often omitted, confused or
distorted. Vocabulary is limited to areas of
immediate survival needs. Can differentiate
most phonemes when produced in isolation but
when they are combined in words or groups of
words, errors are frequent and, even with
repetition, may severely inhibit communication
even with persons used to dealing with such
learners. Little development in stress and
intonation is evident.

Level 2   : <u>Able to satisfy routine social demands and
limited work requirements</u>. Can handle with
confidence but not with facility most social
situations including introductions and casual
conversations about current events, as well as
work, family, and autobiographical information;
can handle limited work requirements, needing
help in handling any complications or
difficulties. (Can get the gist of most
conversations on non-technical subjects [i.e.,
topics which require no specialized
knowledge.]) Can give directions from one place
to another. Has a speaking vocabulary
sufficient to respond simply with some
circumlocutions; accent, though often quite
faulty, is intelligible; can usually handle
elementary constructions quite accurately but
does not have thorough or confident control of
the grammar.

Level 2+ : <u>Able to satisfy most work requirements and show
some ability to communicate on concrete topics
relating to particular interests and special
fields of competence</u>. Often shows remarkable
fluency and ease of speech but under tension or
pressure language may break down. Generally
strong in either grammar or vocabulary but not
in both. Weaknesses or unevenness in one of
the foregoing or in pronunciation result in
occasional miscommunication. Areas of weakness
range from simple constructions such as
plurals, articles, prepositions, and negatives
to more complex structures such as tense usage,
passive constructions, word order, and relative
clauses. Normally controls general vocabulary

with some groping for everyday vocabulary still
evident.

Source: Educational Testing Service, 1982

Appendix B

Interview Protocol used to Assess Participants' Background

I. Language Background.

1. Where were you born?

2. Where did you spend your childhood?

3. What languages were spoken in your home?

4. What do you regard as your native language?

5. Were other languages spoken in your neighbourhood?

6. Which was the first foreign language you learned?

7. When did you start this language and how long did you study it?

8. How long have you studied English?

9. Which other languages have you studied or tried to study?

10. Are you satisfied with your achievement in [the different languages] or would you like to learn more?

11. Regarding English:

    a. What did you mainly study (e.g. conversation)?

    b. Can you describe the textbooks you used?

    c. How often did your teacher speak English?

    d. Did you have to speak a lot yourself or did you mainly read and translate?

    e. Try to explain the kind of homework you had to do.

    f. Do you remember what was the most difficult for you when you studied English?

    g. Did you often have small group activities in the classroom?

    h. Did you have any contact outside the classroom with speakers of English?

i. How often did you have the chance to listen to the radio or see films in English in class or outside?

12. Some people say they have a talent for studying languages, others say they haven't. Would you regard yourself as strong, weak, or medium in learning languages?

13. Do you like to take the language apart and analyze it? (Do you like to figure out the language by yourself or would you rather have the teacher tell you the rules?)

II. Present Living Conditions

1. How do you feel about living in the Totem Park Residence?

2. Do you speak much English at home in Totem Park?

3. For what other activities do you use English outside of your studies? E.g., movies, shopping, reading for pleasure, talking with friends, etc.

III. Student Goals/perceptions of study in Canada

1. Why did you decide to study in Canada?

2. What are your plans after you complete this program?

3. Compared to language classes in Japan, do you regard classes at UBC as formal or informal? Explain what you mean. Do you feel comfortable in this environment?

4. What language skill do you think your teachers emphasize the most? E.g., Is listening comprehension emphasized more than conversation?

5. What would you like to accomplish during your studies in Canada?

6. What classroom activities do you like best at UBC? Give examples. Which do you like least?

7. If you could change one classroom activity in order to make learning English easier or more interesting for you, what would it be?

8. What aspects of English are easy or difficult for you? Why?

IV. Students' Insights into the Language Learning Process

1. Do you think you have any special abilities which help you in learning English? If so, what are they? do you think you lack certain abilities which would help you be a better learner of English? In other words, what abilities do you wish you had?

2. Have you developed any special techniques or study habits which help you learn English?

3. What grammatical parts of English are most difficult for you? Which parts are easiest?

4. Do you have any idea why this/these parts of English are easy or difficult for you?

5. When you learn new grammar points would you like to be given a rule in English, in Japanese, or no rule at all (just examples)?

6. When the teacher introduces a new word, do you learn better when you see it written down or when you hear it?

7. When the teacher introduces a new word, would you prefer a translation of the word into Japanese or an explanation of the meaning in English?

8. In speaking, if you don't know a word or expression in English, do you find other words in English to express your idea, say the word or idea in Japanese, look up the word in a bilingual dictionary, or just forget about trying to express your idea? In writing...?

9. Do you participate often in class? Why or why not? Do you mind if the teacher asks you questions when you don't have your hand up? Do you like participating in small group discussions and activities? Why or why not?

10. When you don't understand something in class, what are you more likely to do? (a) Ask the teacher for help or clarification; (b) Ask another student for help; (c) Try to find help from a textbook or dictionary; or (d) Not worry about the problem at all.

11. Do you mind being corrected? Are there certain circumstances when you prefer not to have your English corrected?

12. What do you do when you are corrected? (Do you repeat

the correction?)

13. Do you correct other students when they make an error? Do you do it silently or aloud?

14. Many language learners feel negative about their learning experiences. They say they feel (a) discouraged, (b) frustrated, (c) impatient, or (d) confused by the difficulties of the learning task. Have you experienced any of these feelings?

15. Other language learners say that the new language feels (e) funny or crazy to them and that they feel (f) ridiculous expressing themselves in the language. Do you ever feel this way about English?

16. Some people feel very (g) shy and (h) helpless when they actually use the language. Is this experience familiar to you when you use English?

17. If you had some of these feelings in the past, but no longer have them, what did you do to overcome these feelings?

V. So far we have talked about what you'd like to learn and how you would go about doing it. Considering all this, would you say that you have developed any language study habits, techniques, or strategies that you would find useful in learning the new language?

1. In learning the sound system, e.g., reading aloud to yourself, repeating words silently to yourself after the teacher, etc.

2. In learning the grammar, e.g., making guesses about regularities and rules and then applying them, etc.

3. In learning vocabulary, e.g., by constant repetition, by finding relations between words, writing words down, etc.

4. In developing listening comprehension, e.g., by listening to records, to the radio, etc.

5. In conversation, e.g., through contact with native speakers, by insisting on constant correction of your errors, etc.

6. In developing reading comprehension, e.g., by reading popular magazines or books.

7. In learning how to express yourself in <u>written</u> form,
   e.g., by writing to penpals.

   (adapted from ABRAHAM and Vann [1987]).

Appendix C

Course Outline: ENED 379 - Intercultural Communication in Second Language Education

Description

    This course will introduce second language learners to essential concepts of inter-cultural communication and approaches to learning language in a multi-cultural society. The course consists of one lecture and three 90-minute seminars per week, focussing on individual improvement in self-instruction, self-sufficiency in learning and effective participation in academic activities. One 45-minute period per week is available for study in the media resource laboratory.

    Section size is 20 students. All students in the programme participate in the weekly lectures, presented on Monday mornings by faculty members and invited guest speakers. Follow-up seminars incorporate the lecture content with other content of interest to the section members. Experiential components of the course may include simulations, contact assignments in university and metropolitan settings, and workshops organized at centres in Vancouver's ethnic communities.

GENERAL OBJECTIVES

Upon successful completion of this course, students will be able to:

1. Systematically improve listening comprehension and note-taking skills in the context of academic lectures and seminars,

2. Identify and correct errors that appear consistently in their spoken English;

3. Describe the content of an academic lecture, research findings, principles, etc. using key visuals and knowledge representation principles (Mohan, 1986);

4. Prepare and deliver a variety of short (approximately 10 minutes) oral presentations; and,

5. Participate effectively in a variety of academic group activities.

(SOURCE: Course Outline, ENED 379. Used with the consent of the UBC-Ritsumeikan Academic Exchange Programme.)

Appendix D

Distribution of Performance Features (PF) by Interview and

Group Session (Number/percent)

Table D-1

Atsuko: PF Distribution by Questionnaire and Interview

Questionnaire/Interview

PF	Questionnaire (Oct. 6)	Int. 1 (Nov. 5)	Int. 3 (Nov. 19)	Int. 4 (Jan. 16)	TOT
1	26 / 15	33 / 20	39 / 23	53 / 21	151/ 20
2	14 / 7	7 / 4	14 / 8	18 / 7	53/ 7
3	48 / 27	42 / 26	30 / 17	43 / 17	163/ 21
4	41 / 23	33 / 20	51 / 30	54 / 21	179/ 23
5	15 / 8	14 / 9	5 / 3	21 / 8	55/ 7
6	36 / 20	33 / 20	33 / 19	66 / 26	168/ 22
TOT	180 /100	162 /100	172 /100	255 /100	769/100

Table D-1 (cont'd)

Atsuko: PF Distribution by Group Session

Group Session

PF	Group 1 (Nov. 5)	Group 3 (Nov. 19)	Group 4 (Jan. 16)	TOT
1	14 / 47	5 / 15	4 / 14	23/ 24
2	1 / 3	1 / 3	-	4/ 4
3	4 / 13	3 / 9	7 / 24	14/ 15
4	6 / 20	10 / 30	3 / 10	19/ 20
5	1 / 3	3 / 9	6 / 21	10/ 11
6	4 / 13	11 / 33	9 / 31	24/ 26
TOT	30 /100	33 /100	29 /100	94/100

Table D-2

Kenji: PF Distribution by Questionnaire and Interview

Questionnaire/Interview

PF	Questionnaire (Oct. 7)	Int. 1 (Nov. 5)	Int. 3 (Nov. 19)	Int. 4 (Jan. 28)	TOT
1	12 / 5	5 / 4	4 / 3	6 / 6	27/ 5
2	10 / 5	3 / 3	-	4 / 4	17/ 3
3	36 / 17	21 / 19	9 / 7	10 / 10	76/14
4	56 / 26	18 / 16	29 / 24	20 / 20	123/22
5	87 / 41	43 / 38	50 / 41	37 / 36	217/39
6	13 / 6	22 / 20	31 / 25	25 / 24	91/17
TOT	214 /100	112 /100	123 /100	102 /100	551/100

Table D-2 (cont'd)

Kenji: PF Distribution by Group Session

Group Session

PF	Group 1 (Nov. 5)	Group 3 (Nov. 19)	Group 4 (Jan. 16)	TOT
1	-	-	1 / 25	1/11
2	-	-	-	-
3	-	-	-	-
4	-	-	-	-
5	-	-	2 / 50	2/22
6	4 /100	1 /100	1 / 25	6/66
TOT	4 /100	1 /100	4 /100	9/100

Table D-3

Midori: PF Distribution by Questionnaire and Interview

Questionnaire/Interview

PF	Questionnaire (Oct. 17)	Int. 1 (Oct. 31)	Int. 3 (Nov. 14)	Int. 4 (Jan. 31)	TOT
1	4 / 5	7 / 10	9 / 10	15 / 11	35/10
2	6 / 8	4 / 6	6 / 7	13 / 9	29/ 8
3	7 / 9	6 / 9	16 / 19	18 / 13	47/13
4	42 / 56	38 / 56	45 / 52	60 / 43	185/50
5	14 / 19	13 / 19	9 / 10	20 / 14	56/15
6	2 / 3	-	1 / 1	12 / 9	15/ 4
TOT	75 /100	68 /100	86 /100	138 /100	367/100

Table D-3 (cont'd)

Midori: PF Distribution by Group Session

Group Session

PF	Group 1 (Oct. 31)	Group 3 (Nov. 7)	Group 4 (Jan. 23)	TOT
1	-	-	-	-
2	6 / 26	4 / 17	-	10/22
3	4 / 17	3 / 13	-	7/15
4	8 / 35	6 / 26	-	14/30
5	2 / 9	3 / 13	-	5/11
6	3 / 13	7 / 30	-	10/22
TOT	23 /100	23 /100	-	46/100

Table D-4

Ryuzo: PF Distribution by Questionnaire and Interview

Questionnaire/Interview

PF	Questionnaire (Oct. 17)	Int. 1 (Oct. 31)	Int. 3 (Nov. 14)	Int. 4 (Jan. 28)	TOT
1	8 / 2	4 / 4	14 / 6	27 / 8	53/ 5
2	10 / 3	3 / 3	15 / 7	16 / 5	44/ 4
3	81 / 23	26 / 24	54 / 25	52 / 16	213/ 21
4	190 / 55	57 / 53	114 / 52	162 / 49	523/ 52
5	29 / 9	16 / 15	10 / 5	28 / 8	83/ 8
6	27 / 8	1 / 1	11 / 5	46 / 14	85/ 9
TOT	345 /100	107 /100	218 /100	331 /100	1001/100

Table D-4 (cont'd)

<u>Ryuzo: PF Distribution by Group Session</u>

Group Session

PF	Group 1 (Oct. 31)	Group 3 (Nov. 14)	Group 4 (Jan. 23)	TOT
1	1 / 7	3 / 4	1 / 6	5/ 5
2	1 / 7	-	3 / 19	4/ 4
3	4 / 26	13 / 19	3 / 19	20/20
4	7 / 46	28 / 42	5 / 31	40/41
5	1 / 7	11 / 16	1 / 6	13/13
6	1 / 7	12 / 18	3 / 19	16/16
TOT	15 /100	67 /100	16 /100	98/100

<u>Note</u>.

Performance Features are coded as follows:

1. False start
2. New start
3. Repeat
4. Filled Pause
5. Unfilled pause
6. Comprehension check

Appendix E

Sample of Coded Transcripts

The samples given below are excerpts from the coded transcripts of the four subjects. Coding follows the format given Table E.

Table E

Coding Format

Performance Feature	Code
False start	1
New start	2
Repeat	3
Filled Pause	4
Unfilled Pause	5
Comprehension Check	6

In these samples, uppercase print is used to designate the interviewer's statements and questions. The symbol > indicates comprehension checks, while [n] indicates the length, in seconds, of unfilled pauses. Indentations indicate turns taken within a longer exchange. These turns are generally confirmations or agreements, but may also take the form of interruptions. A

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series of filled pauses (e.g., "um, uh, uh") is coded once

only. The symbol Q indicates the interviewer's questions

and comments.

1) Atsuko: November 19, 1991.

6 4 _____ But as for today, the group activity> - I, uhh,
1 1 _____ I have, I don't have interest in this sentence and
_____ this group activity, so-

YEAH, OK. QUITE A LONG SILENCE THERE WHILE EVERYONE
IS THINKING MAYBE HOW TO, TO START SAYING
SOMETHING.

_____ Yeah.

UM, DO YOU THINK THAT THE OTHER GROUP MEMBERS ALSO
WERE NOT PARTICULARLY INTERESTED IN THIS TOPIC?

4 _____ No, I don't think so because, ahh, for example the
4 _____ group behind us is talking about the second uh,
6 _____ question> -

-YEAH.

1 1 4 2 _____ -I think , I, they, uh, one of the
6 _____ members represented the answer in front of us> and
1 6 _____ when I hear, heard that answer> I thought that that
3 _____ group enjoyed talking about it, because, because
_____ their answers are very interesting for me.

-UM HUM.

4 4 _____ -So, and, uh, and the answer, uh
1 1 _____ uh, the that answer th-interested me very much.

-UH HUH.

4 1 4 _____ -But, uh, as, on the contrary, uh
6 _____ the answer of this question> - question 1 is
6 _____ general not so interesting, general answers> -

-UM HUM.

3 4 1 _____ -Because we ha-uh we have, we
_____ cannot generate a lot of ideas about this

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6_____ question> -

-YEAH.

4 1_____   -So, uh, uh, so, so, uh we, I think
1 1 4 2___ we, I think we don't , we, uh, I think the member
4 1_____ of our group is uh, did not satisfy this
4_____ answer, so - yeah.

-OK.

2) Kenji: November 5, 1991.

_____ Maybe my explanation to this question to other
3_____ people is not, not good enough. Not enough to
_____ convey other students.

YEAH. WHAT EXACTLY DID YOU SAY TO OTHER PEOPLE?

4 5 6 3__ Um [3] [laughs] the last part> last part she [the
6 4 6 6__ teacher]> um, ask the other people> the question>

-YEAH.

6_____   -and M, one of the students> she
_____ asked her this question, she answered the question,
4_____ uh, just 'yes' [laughter].

SO SHE WAS TALKING WITH YOU, HUH?

-Yeah. [laughter]

OK, BUT YOU DIDN'T, DID YOU GIVE A FURTHER
EXPLANATION AT ALL, WHEN YOU WERE TALKING WITH THE
OTHER PEOPLE, OR DID YOU SIMPLY SAY 'YES, I CAN
UNDERSTAND THE TWO SENTENCES'?

4 6_____ Uh, Yeah. I tried to explain> this question, but it
_____ is not simple for me to explain to other people. Of
1_____ Of cour-because I cannot understand, I cannot find
6 5 5_____ the answer> so that's why [3] just [3] I said my
5 3_____ opinion to other people. [3] I, I cannot find the
3_____ answer, then, I asked the other people. 'How how
_____ about your opinion about this question?'

RIGHT. OK. AND OF COURSE TIME WAS VERY IMPORTANT,
TOO. YOU DIDN'T HAVE VERY MUCH TIME TO WORK WITH.
OK. UH, A COUPLE OF GENERAL QUESTIONS NOW. NOT
NECESSARILY ABOUT THIS PARTICULAR LESSON. ALTHOUGH
I SHOULD ASK YOU ONE MORE QUESTION ABOUT THIS
LESSON. DID YOU FIND THIS TO BE A HELPFUL LESSON?

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WAS IT GOOD PRACTICE FOR YOU?

<u>5 4 5 1 3</u>   [3] Um [5] I think, I thought, I thought, I
_____ thought this was one of the curriculum, so as for
_____ me this is not so special topic or special
_____ assignment to me.

-YEAH. Ok.

WAS IT HELPFUL FOR YOU TO WORK ON CONVERSATIONAL
SKILLS, OR LISTENING SKILLS, OR READING SKILLS?

<u>5 1</u>_____ [5] I, attending this class it's helped me to
<u>4 5 4</u>_____ improve my listening ability or, um, [4] um, I
<u>6</u>_____ think that discussion to other people> is very
_____ useful to improve my speaking ability, and
<u>5 4</u>_____ [3], um-

[INTERVIEWER INTERVENTION]

Midori: November 14, 1991.

<u>4 4</u>_____ Uh, for me and other members, uh, what this means
_____ 'in terms of ownership of the land', it is hard to
_____ understand.

-UH HUH.

_____   -So we, are discussing if it's
_____ difficult or not.

YEAH. OK. DO YOU REMEMBER, YOU EACH LOOKED AT THIS
PART OF THE QUESTION, AND YOU DECIDED IT WAS
DIFFICULT, SO WHAT DID YOU DISCUSS TO TRY TO
UNDERSTAND?

<u>4 5 4</u>_____ Um [3] I tried to explain, um, my thinking, but it
<u>4 2</u>_____ is, um, I can't myself understood other members.

DID YOU ALL AGREE ON THE DEFINITION OF THE WORD
'TREATY'? WAS THAT DIFFICULT FOR YOU ALL TO AGREE
ON?

<u>4 4</u>_____ Uh, maybe in lecture, 'treaty' is uh, different,
<u>4 1</u>_____ uh, 'treaty' is difficult to, difficult meanings.

-Um hum.

<u>4 1</u>_____   -Um, we know, usual- we know usual
<u>4</u>_____ usage of 'treaty', um, but, his lecture is -
<u>2</u>_____ 'treaty' has difficult meanings, I think.

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OK. SO IN THAT CASE, WHERE THE MEANING OF THE WORD
'TREATY' SEEMS TO BE DIFFERENT FROM THE NORMAL
MEANING OR THE MEANING IN THE DICTIONARY -

                        -Um hum.
_____

                            -what did you try to do to
understand the meaning of 'treaty'?

4 4 3   Uh, at first, uh, we we looked into dictionary,
_____   and looked into our notebook about his lecture, and
4 5 4 3 4 uh, [3] Z [the teacher] um, Z um, Z around other
1_____ mem-other students, so I heard her words, or-

YEAH. SO YOU WERE LISTENING ALSO FOR WHAT THE
TEACHER WAS SAYING AS WELL.

                        -Yes. Yes.
_____

OK. UH, WHEN YOU JUST SAID THAT TO HIM, YOU SAID,
"WHY IN BRITISH COLUMBIA AREN'T THERE ANY
TREATIES?". YEAH? UH, WERE YOU TRYING TO
PARAPHRASE THIS QUESTION FOR HIM--TRYING TO GIVE
THE MEANING OF THIS QUESTION FOR HIM? "CAN YOU
EXPLAIN WHAT THIS MEANS IN TERMS OF OWNERSHIP OF
THE LAND?"

_____   Sorry, I can't understand.

4) Ryuzo: January 28, 1991.

4 5 4 4 5 Um [3] so, um, that discussion is, um [3] so
3 5 3 4   so great for for us, because [3] that discussion uh
3 4 5 3 4 so, that discussion, uh [3] make , make clear uh,
3_____ um, our our information about Canada and Japan, no,
3 2 6   no, US> -

                -YEAH.

3_____   -so, we can , that discussion, make,
4 5 4 1   make easily, to, uh [3] uh, make easy to make
6_____ questions> -

                -YEAH.

                -I think.
_____

SO THE DISCUSSION WAS AN IMPORTANT INTRODUCTION TO
THE QUESTIONS?

_____   -Yeah.

                          -OK.

DID YOU FINALLY WRITE THREE QUESTIONS IN YOUR
GROUP?

_____   -That time?

                          -UM HUM.

5 3 _____   -[3] Yeah, I, I, I remember I made three
_____ questions-

                          -UM HUM.

6 _____   -But I didn't ask that questions> -

                          -UH HUH.

4 4 1 _____   -so that person, uh, he say, uh, He
ask other questions.

                     -DIFFERENT QUESTIONS?

_____   -Yeah, different questions
         [laughter].

         -OH OK.

WHAT POINT WERE YOU MAKING ABOUT THE HOMESTAY?

4 1 1 4 1 At that time, I said uh, uh, I, when, uh, I,
4 2 4 6 _ uh, in December, uh, middle of December> -

                          -UM HUM.

4 2 6 _____   -I went San Franc- uh Berkeley> -
6 _____ near San Francisco>-

                          -YEAH.

3 6 _____   -to, to this homestay> -

                          -YEAH.

4 4 3 3 _   -So, uh, when, uh, when I did I did
6 4 1 6 _ homestay> my host, uh, my host family> said about
4 4 _____ Can-uh I talked about Canada and a bit, um
6 6 _____ difference> about Canada and US> -

-UM HUM.

```
4 4                       -uh, with host family, uh, so at
4 3 4       that time, uh, host family said, Canada, Canada, uh
3 4         Canada, is too cold, and only Quebec area, um,
1 3 1 4 3 Quebec, only Quebec area, in , uh only Quebec area,
4 3 6       uh French, French is spoken> -
```

Appendix F

Letter of Initial Contact and Subject Consent Form

September, 1991.

Dear Student:

I am a teaching assistant with the UBC/Ritsumeikan Academic Exchange Program and a graduate student in the Department of Language Education at the University of British Columbia. I am writing to ask you if you would be interested in participating in a research project called "A Case Study in the Phenomenology of Learning among Adult ESL Students." If you agree to participate, you will be asked some questions about your previous experiences in learning foreign languages, your reasons for studying English, and the types of strategies you use in learning English. It will take about one hour to complete these questions. As well, two or three video tapes will be made of your participation in a small group activity in your class. You will be asked to observe the video tape, at which time I will ask you questions about your participation in the small group activity. Please do not be concerned if you feel you cannot answer the interview questions in English, because a Japanese translator will be available. In all, you will spend about 4-5 hours on all of the above activities. In return for your time, I will offer tutorial time or conversation practice on an ongoing basis during the three-month research period.

The purpose of this study is to learn more about how you study English--your likes and dislikes, and the strategies you use in learning. The research is not connected to your courses or grades with the Ritsumeikan Project. The names of participants in this research project will be strictly confidential. Pseudonyms will be used for all participants. If you decide to participate in the project, you will be free to drop out of it at any time.

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If you require further information about this project, please telephone me at 322-6171 (home), or 822-8190 (office). If you decide to participate in the project, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me. I will contact you to arrange a time during which we can meet to discuss the research further. Thank you for your interest.

Yours sincerely,

Ron Fazio

<u>Consent Form</u>:

Dear Ron:

I have received your letter of September, 1991, in which
you explain the research project you are undertaking. I
understand that I can refuse to participate if I so
desire. If I agree to participate, you will be available
for tutorials or conversation practice during the time
that I participate in the research project. I will be able
to withdraw without penalty from this project at any time,
should I choose to do so. I also understand that my
participation in this project will remain completely
confidential. Finally, I acknowledge that I have seen a
copy of this consent form with all attachments, and that I
have kept your letter for future reference.

I AGREE / DO NOT AGREE to participate in your project.

Name:_____

Signature:_____

Date:_____

APPENDIX G

LETTER OF CONSENT

UBC Behavioural Sciences
Screening Committee
Office of Research Services
Room 323, IRC Building
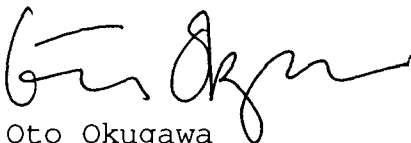University of British Columbia

August 27, 1991.

Dear Committee Members,

Ronald Fazio, a graduate student in the Department of
Language Education, UBC, has informed me of his intention to
carry out a research project entitled "A Case Study in the
Phenomenology of Learning among Adult ESL Students". In this
project, Mr. Fazio wishes to document the responses of four
students towards the learning syllabus that they receive. He
also intends to analyze the types of learning strategies that
these students utilize in the language classroom.

Mr. Fazio has also informed me that, for the purpose of
conducting his research, he wishes to select four students
enrolled in the "UBC-Ritsumeikan Academic Exchange Program".
He has assured me that the participants in his research
project will be selected on a purely voluntary basis, and
that they may withdraw without penalty from the project at
any time. I also understand that the anonymity of these
participants will be strictly maintained.

Given the above conditions, I wish to inform you that I fully
endorse Mr. Fazio's research project, and find no objections
to his use of students from the "UBC-Ritsumeikan Academic
Exchange Program" as project participants.

Yours sincerely,

Oto Okugawa
Visiting Professor
Ritsumeikan University

APPENDIX G

LETTER OF CONSENT

UBC Behavioural Sciences
Screening Committee
Office of Research Services
Room 323, IRC Building
University of British Columbia

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