

What makes language learners false beginners?

-A performance analysis of the interlanguage
of Japanese young adult EFL learners-

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Contents

Introduction

I. The History of Interlanguage Research

A. Contrastive Analysis

1. Significance
2. Controversial Points

B. Error Analysis

1. Significance
2. Controversial Points

C. Interlanguage Analysis

1. Significance
2. Controversial Points

D. Performance Analysis

II. What Makes Language Learners False Beginners?

A. The Study

B. Method

C. Results and Discussion

Conclusion

Notes

Appendix

1. The STEP 3 Written and Listening Test, Spring 1994
2. STEP 3 Interview Cards, Spring 1996
3. Pre-STEP 2, STEP 2 Interview Cards, Spring 1996
4. Frequency of Listed Words
5. Analysis of Variance

Bibliography

Figures

Figure 1	Four basic models of interlanguage	18
Figure 2	Differences of reading performance scores between T., F.B., and Successful learners (S.L.)	28
Figure 3	Differences of reading error scores between T.B., F.B., and S.L.	29
Figure 4	Differences of number of repairs between T.B., F.B., and S.L.	31
Figure 5	Reading time of regular and irregular words read aloud	35
Figure 6	Errors of regular and irregular words	36
Figure 7	Proportion of regularization of irregular words	38
Figure 8	Frequency of repairs	39

Tables

Table 1	Differences of STEP 3 Test Scores Between True Beginners (T.B.) and False Beginners (F.B.)	25
Table 2	Difference of Reading Performance Scores Between T.B. and F.B.	26
Table 3	Indexes of Readability	27
Table 4	Analysis of Variance of STEP Interview Test Reading Time	28
Table 5	Analysis of Variance of STEP Interview Test Reading Errors	30

Table 6	Analysis of Variance of STEP Interview Test Number of Repairs	31
Table 7	Frequency of Listed Words	33
Table 8	Frequency of the Words in the Two Groups	34
Table 9	Analysis of Variance of Reading Time of Regular and Irregular Words Read Aloud	35
Table 10	Analysis of Variance of Number of Errors of Regular and Irregular Words	36
Table 11	Proportion of Error Types	37
Table 12	Regularization or Irregular Words	38
Table 13	Analysis of Variance of Frequency of Repairs of Regular Words	39
Table 14	Three-route Model of Single Word Reading (Funnell, 1996:419)	41
Table 15	Multiple Oral Reading Responses	42
Table 16	Reading Comprehension Processes (Ito, 1976:95)	43

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Introduction

This paper presents an attempt to answer, at least to some degree, the question, "What makes language learners false beginners?"¹ This study will focus on a particular type of false beginners: a group of Japanese young adult EFL (English as a foreign language) learners who seem unable to take the developmental steps toward language acquisition properly in spite of some knowledge of the target language they have gained through six years of formal language instruction at schools.

These false beginners have some problems other learners do not have, and have been called unsuccessful language learners or backsliders. According to Selinker (1972:230), only 5% of adult second language learners succeed in learning the target language to the point of achieving native-speaker competence. This means that the rest of them fail to achieve it, and that there is a vast number of backsliders among adult second language learners. Among them, false beginners are selected as a typical example of backsliders. They have been neglected in second language acquisition (SLA) study, despite the fact that language teachers struggle to cope with them in class every day. These false beginners are the subject of this research.

This is a cross-sectional study to make backsliders' distinctive features clear. The data are collected from three groups of Japanese young adult EFL learners: a true beginners' group aged from fourteen to fifteen, a false beginners' group aged from nineteen to twenty-one, and a successful learners' group at the same age level as the false beginners.

The true beginners' group language competence is matched with the false beginners' group, while the successful learners' group age is matched with the false beginners' group. Those who passed level 2 of the Japanese Government approved English Proficiency Test (STEP 2) test during high school or after graduation are called successful learners in this paper.

STEP tests are used as instruments in this study. Since the tests started in 1962 in Japan, the STEP test has become one of the major tests of English proficiency in Japan. There are seven levels of STEP tests: STEP 1, Pre-STEP 1, STEP 2, Pre-STEP 2, STEP 3, STEP 4, and STEP 5. A total of approximately 1,500,000 examinees take the tests every time it is carried out, in spring and fall every year.² A STEP test consists of two parts: a written and listening test, and an interview test. Those who pass the first part of the test can take the interview test. Each interview test of STEP 2, Pre-STEP 2, and STEP 3 requires the examinee to read aloud an English passage, printed on a card, and later answer several questions about the contents asked by an examiner.

STEP 3 test is targeted at Japanese English language learners in the ninth grade who have finished three years of formal English courses at school, Pre-STEP 2 at those who have finished four or five years of English courses, and STEP 2 at those who have finished six years of English courses.

The terms used in this paper are defined first. "Second language" is usually differentiated from "foreign language" in British English. (Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics: 1992:142). A second language is the language which is used as a means of communication (i.e. as the official language for education and politics) and usually used with the native language at the same time; a foreign language is the language taught as one of the subjects at school but is not usually used as a means of communication like a second language. In the field of North American applied linguistics, a "second language", or "L2" in short, includes both meanings (Longman: 143). In this paper, the latter definition is applicable.

The "target language" means a second language, or L2 in short, but it is rather used in the language learning and teaching context (Dulay et al. 1982:11). Also, in this paper, the term, "acquisition" and "learning" are used with the same meaning. Some researchers who discuss children's developmental processes of their first language, such as Chomsky(1965:27) and Krashen(1988:12), use the

word "acquisition" differentiating it from language "learning" in that the feature of the process of language acquisition is subconscious compared to the conscious learning process language learners go through. Even when researchers refer to the learning of a second or foreign language, the term, "acquisition" is preferred to "learning" because "learning" is related to a behaviourist theory of learning (Longman:197).

Larsen-Freeman et al. (1991:8) note that it was when Corder published an article, "The Significance of Learners' Errors," in 1967, that the field of second language acquisition started to be explored, and that the term, "second language learning" was renamed "second language acquisition." Also, they introduce the following anecdote:

"Raimes (1983) offers an additional indicator of the birth and growth of the SLA field. She conducted an analysis of the topic index of articles which appeared in the TESOL Quarterly from 1967 to 1980. For the ten-year period 1967-76, Raimes found 29 articles listed under the topic heading "second language learning." Compare this with the 24 articles she counted for the two years 1979- 80 in a topical area which was renamed second language acquisition - a four-fold growth!"

(Larsen-Freeman et al. 1991:5)

The means for analyzing the data in this paper is what is called performance analysis which has been advocated since late 1970s by SLA researchers such as Celce-Murcia, (1977, 1985) and Ellis (1985). Performance analysis developed after the three analyses - contrastive analysis, error analysis, and interlanguage analysis - had been prevalent in the history of SLA study.

The first chapter will describe how these four types of analysis were developed and discuss the significance and controversial points of each type of analysis, focusing on how each dealt with language learners' errors.

In the second chapter, the following points will be discussed with reference to the results of the three groups' data analysis.

1. In what area does false beginners' backsliding occur?
2. Are there any areas in which false beginners are better than true beginners?
3. Where does the main problem of false beginners lie?

I. The History of Interlanguage Research

Language learners cannot use their target language without making errors. The question, "How we should deal with learners' errors?" has been one of the most important issues discussed in the theories of second language acquisition, which is what Richards (1974:3) has called "the offspring of general linguistic theory".

As will be shown below, there has been a change of attitude toward errors: from their being learners' bad habits that linguists and teachers should get rid of to their positive acceptance as a necessary step for the learners' language development.

In this chapter, the focus is mainly on how language learners' errors were dealt with in the history of SLA research. Therefore, this is a review of the literature of this area, the approaches in the analysis of learner difficulty in acquiring a second language: A. Contrastive Analysis, B. Error Analysis, C. Interlanguage Analysis, and D. Performance Analysis. For each approach, its significance and controversial points are discussed. At the same time, the approach regarding the data analysis of three Japanese EFL learners' groups will be explained at the end of this chapter.

A. Contrastive Analysis

1. Significance

Advocating contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH), Lado (1957) asserted that the cause of errors lies in the difference between the first language and the second language and the cultures the learners have.

His idea was deeply rooted in behaviorist psychology represented by Skinner (1957), who considered language learning as the behavior formation by patterning and repeating after the stimulant given as a model, which was a sentence or pronunciation. Therefore, structurists such as Fries (1945) and Lado

explained the process of language learners' making errors using the following terms: "negative transfer" of the first language to the target language or "interference" of the first language with the second language system. For them, errors made by language learners were the evidence of what was unlearned. They were the main barriers to the second language acquisition. As Lado (1957) put it, the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning lies in the comparison between native and foreign language. He hypothesized that the elements in the foreign language similar to the native language were easy and that the elements different from that native language were difficult.

There were three strong claims about contrastive analysis hypothesis. First, language teachers could easily find the way to pinpoint learners' errors and explain why the errors appeared through comparison of the L2 with the learners' L1. Second, as SLA researchers such as Wardaugh(1970), H.D. Brown(1987), Ellis(1985), and Larsen-Freeman(1991) have suggested, comparative analysis hypothesis is fairly successful in the phonological component of language. To some extent, teachers can tell what kind of phonological errors the learner will make beforehand if they know what the learner's L1 is. Consequently, the third claim was that linguists and language teachers could predict the errors language learners would make and help them reduce the number of errors for their native-like use of the target language. The goal was "attempting to speak the language.....as practiced by natives." (Lado 1957:2). In a word, errors were caused by the interference of L1 which learners could not control because they had already formed the language using habits of L1.

In summary, the following points were proposed:

1. Most of the syntactic errors made by language learners at any age are strongly influenced by the learner's first language.
2. Phonological errors are more strongly influenced by L1 than syntactic errors.

2. Controversial Points

Chomsky criticized Skinner's view of verbal behaviour as part of habit formation in 1959, but it was not until he published Aspects of the Theory of Syntax in 1965 that many researchers started to dispute the adequacy of the contrastive analysis hypothesis. H.D.Brown says in his book, Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, (1987:65) that Ausubel had already pointed out what CAH neglected in 1964, but that it was too early for him to attract the attention of many researchers. He said that rote memory and habit formation were inappropriate for adults who could make use of L1 knowledge positively in L2 learning. That is, he had asserted that the first language could be an advantage and not just a disadvantage as an interfering factor (Ausubel 1964:421). Chomsky's papers published in 1959 and 1965 were much more influential. As a result, many linguists and practitioners started to examine CAH's appropriateness more closely.

To summarize, their arguments can be divided into five categories:

(1) The advent of Chomsky's universal grammar helped researchers have a new way of looking at learner language. He said that all natural languages had a great deal in common. He also said that the deep structure of both L1 and L2 were very much alike. Based on his theory, Wardaugh(1970) suggested that what CAH had dealt with had been nothing but superficial structure. After Wardaugh cast some doubts on the validity of CAH, some researchers started to support the idea that all learners seemed to learn language in the same way. For example, encouraged by R. Brown's hypothesis of morpheme acquisition order according to his longitudinal data collection of three children(1973), Dulay and Burt(1974) extended the hypothesis to ESL learners' morpheme acquisition order. Furthermore, they analyzed ESL learners' syntactical errors and revealed that 4.7 percent of all errors could be ascribed to the interference of the learners' first language, while 87.1 percent were developmental errors which could commonly be seen in the process of first language acquisition (Dulay & Burt 1973:258). Some other researchers' approaches on empirical grounds (Wode 1979, Felix 1984)

confirmed doubts regarding the validity of CAH.

(2) Many reports of L2 learners' error analyses substantiated the claims that first language interference was not the major factor in predicting learners' errors. Among the researchers were Buteau (1970), and Duskova (1969). These quantitative reports were about the relevance of French and English, and Czech and English respectively.

Thus, a number of substantive findings proved that learners seem to learn languages in much the same way. The research mentioned above, including Buteau's reports, show that the structural differences between L1 and L2 are not the major difficulties in language learning.

(3) There is some research that supports the idea that the major problem for language learners does not lie in the difference between languages but in their similarities. This idea gives a warning of the danger of overgeneralization of CAH theory. They claim that the determinant of learners' difficulty in learning is not the difference between L1 and L2, which CAH proponents had believed, but their similarity; that is, interference and errors occur more often when L1 and L2 are similar. For example, Wardaugh discusses the delicate phonological differences of /p/ sounds between French and English. (1970:125) He first suggested that the process of language learning was oversimplified and that subtle phonetic distinctions between phonemes mentioned above had been ignored. Kellerman (1984) supported this view, that language transfer including interference (negative transfer) was more likely to occur in the case where two languages were close, and in his comprehensive research on syntax, interlanguage (IL) discourse, lexis and semantics showed the clear evidence.

(4) Some researchers have been doubtful of CAH proponents' strong version which suggested that they could make predictions about what would be the points of difficulty for L2 learners. Schachter (1974) argued that CAH might rather be useful in explaining why target language learning problems occurred rather than when they could be predicted.

Whitman (1970:40), who had been a CAH advocate, concluded, after he had administered tests of English syntax to nearly 2,500 Japanese students, that contrastive analysis was an inadequate predictor.

(5) H.D. Brown indicated that it was only in the phonological component of language that contrastive analysis was even mildly successful. In spite of the fact substantiated by Whitman and Jackson (1972:40), contrastive analysis did not play a major role in predicting syntactic, semantic, or lexical errors. Celce-Murcia and Hawkins (1985:60) felt that CA studies had been fairly successful. It may safely be said that CA played a certain role in the phonological areas although the degree of evaluation used by each researcher differed.

To sum up the criticisms on CAH, one is that it does not provide satisfactory explanations for the essential qualities of the actual data. Also, oversimplified explanations about the causes of learners' difficulties were not sufficient enough to clarify the main causes of learners' errors. Moreover, as H.D. Brown puts it (1987:159), in contrasting the two languages, the particular native language and the target language, it seems very difficult "to determine exactly which category a particular contrast fits into", although this defect was later modified by Eckman (1977), who explained the degrees of difficulty using the concept of "markedness," derived from Chomsky's universal grammar.

B. Error Analysis

1. Significance

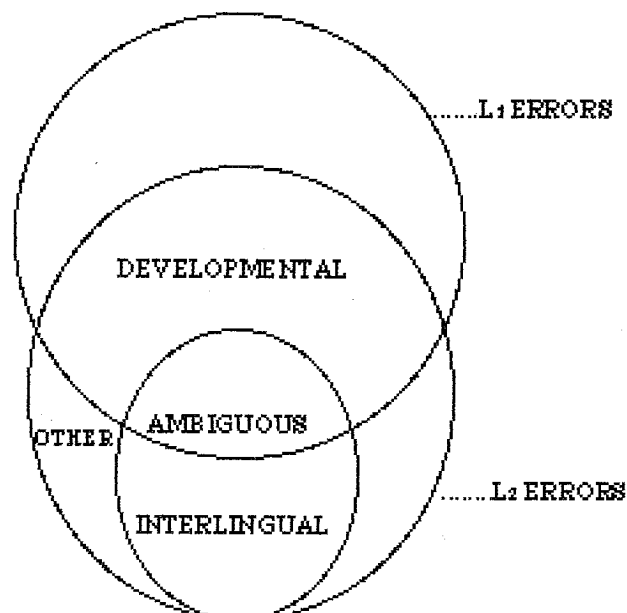
Lee (1957) had not intended to challenge CA when he collected data at all learning levels (i.e., beginning, intermediate, and advanced).³ His aim had been to categorize errors into two groups: persistent errors: errors advanced students still make, and the earlier self-correcting errors only beginners make. He used CAH to explain the errors. His way of analyzing language learners' data prompted researchers to collect and analyze language learner errors exclusively, which triggered the transition from CA to error analysis (EA).

In the early 1970's, error analysis was developed with the intention of making up for some deficiencies of CAH. Richards (1971:204) uses three terms to explain the causes of errors: (1) *interlingual errors*, (2) *intralingual errors*, (3) *developmental errors*. He explains that the interlingual errors can be traced to "interference of the learner's mother tongue." The intralingual errors are committed by second language learners regardless of their first language. The problems were within the structure of the target language itself. Richards regarded developmental errors as the strategies learners use to acquire the language. He did not totally deny the interference, but he cited examples of intralingual and developmental errors that could not be explained on the basis of CA in his article.

His findings were followed by a great deal of substantive research based on EA. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982:173-74) categorize them as follows:

1. Proportion studies in which errors in an entire body of speech or writing are classified and counted, enabling the researcher to state in quantitative terms the relative proportion of each error type;
2. Quasi-proportion studies in which the errors are analyzed and classified but not counted, permitting qualitative estimates, but not quantitative statements about the proportions of interlingual and developmental errors; and
3. Occurrence studies in which the occurrence of particular development or instrumental errors is reported, but no attempt is made to address proportion.

Many researchers on error analysis concluded that most of the errors made by L2 learners do not belong to interlingual errors but developmental errors. Dulay et al. made the following chart which illustrated the relationships and relative proportions of all four error types in a comparative taxonomy.



Dulay et al. (1982:164)

Thus, error analysis made up for what CA had lacked theoretically and substantively. Hakuta (1983) noted that the most significant achievement of error analysis was that it served for expanding teachers' viewpoint of looking at students errors. They are not always bad things teachers should get rid of but necessary things for learners to improve their knowledge of the target language.

2. Controversial points

There are four main arguments about the limitations of EA: (1) too much emphasis on errors, (2) negligence of learner's avoidance, (3) lack of universal aspects, (4) target-oriented.

First, many SLA researchers such as Long and Sato(1984), H.D. Brown (1987) and Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) pointed out that paying too much attention to learners' errors caused some problems. Teachers and researchers tended to focus only on students' errors and not to notice their correct usage of the target language. This accounts for only a part of the language learners use.

Schacter (1974) found the tendency of learners' avoidance. When he analyzed the data on the acquisition of English relative pronouns by speakers of Persian, Arabic, Chinese, and Japanese, he observed that learners tended to avoid using

difficult syntactical items. In her study, native Chinese and Japanese students made fewer errors on English relative clauses than native Persian and Arab students did. This was not because relative clauses were less difficult for Chinese and Japanese students but because they were too difficult for them to handle and so they avoided using them. Some other researchers such as Swain (1975), Perkins and Larsen-Freeman (1975) Tarone (1979), Selinker (1975), and Kleinmann (1977) confirmed the fact of avoidance in their data analyses.

Third, error analysis lacked the viewpoint of universal aspects of language. Gass (1984) proposed that researchers pay more attention to linguistic elements that are common to all languages, "language universals" (1984:125). In this sense, as Ellis (1985:54) puts it, EA lack the viewpoint of searching for a certain developmental process of language acquisition: "the conclusive evidence — proof that there was a natural route of development — was not forthcoming from Error Analysis" .

Finally, error analysis was target-oriented. Long and Sato (1984:263) noted that EA and CA have something in common because both analyses deal with deviation from standard usage of the target language.

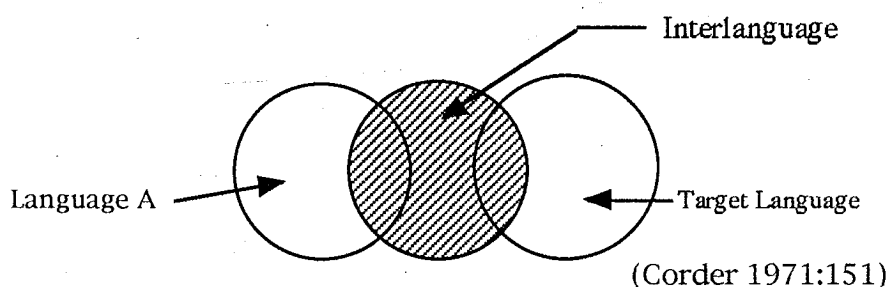
C. Interlanguage Analysis

1. Significance

Some SLA researchers such as H.D. Brown, Larsen-Freeman and Long regard interlanguage analysis as a part of error analysis, while others like Celce-Murcia and Hawkins believe that error analysis developed into interlanguage analysis. This paper takes the latter standpoint in that interlanguage analysis had some features which could modify some of EA's weakpoints mentioned above.

It is said that the field of second language acquisition, which had been called second language learning, started to be explored when Corder published "The Significance of Learners' Errors" in 1967. Inspired by Chomsky's theory on linguistic competence, he suggested that researchers should have some

alternative hypothesis to the habit-formation theory of language learning. With the term, "transitional competence," (1967, not in Bibliography. Reprinted as an article in Richards 1971:25) he explained the language used by second language learners, which had a system called the learner's *built-in syllabus*. He claimed that this was not "instructor-generated" but an innate, learner-generated sequence, in which point he differed from CAH. He called the language second language learners' use "idiosyncratic dialects" (1971:150) in terms of a set of rules. This term is often cited together with the other two terms: Nemser's "approximative systems" (1971:115) and Selinker's "Interlanguages" (1972:209). The concepts of these three terms share similarities in how they represent the language used by second language learners. This language is neither the learner's first language nor the target language but has its own structurally cohesive linguistic system used by the language learner. Also, it has successive stages of development. Corder explains this successive process using the following chart. In this chart, *interlanguage* is defined as a linguistic system that extends beyond and beneath the effect of interference on the two languages in contact.



Nemser (1971:115) employs the following symbols to explain the continuum between L1 and L2.

LT: Target Language

Ls: Source Language

La: an approximation system

La1.....Lan: Indices referring to systems at successive stages of proficiency.

He says that La is distinct from Ls and LT and has its own structure.

Among the three terms, *interlanguage* (IL) has become more common as it is less target language-centered than the others.⁴ After the publication of these three papers, many substantive findings of learners' error analysis supported their perspectives. The contribution of error analysis to SLA research was that it helped linguists and teachers change their attitudes toward errors learners make. In the new hypothesis, errors are not made because the system of their first language interferes with learners but making errors is a way the learners have of testing their hypotheses about the nature of the language they are learning. Therefore, making errors is indispensable to the learners themselves because it is a device or a strategy the learners use in order to learn.

Substantive data on learners' error analysis (Dulay & Burt 1972, 1974a, Hyltenstam 1977, George 1972) made the universality of language acquisition clear. Basically, each piece of research proved that first language acquisition and second language acquisition are much alike, which means that only some of the errors a learner makes are attributable to his/her mother tongue.

It can be concluded that interlingual errors are not the major causes of making errors. Error analysis proponents' assertion was that sources of error in learning a second language extend beyond just interlingual errors. Researchers also confirmed the natural order of language acquisition and the existence of interlanguage. These factors helped them observe that second language acquisition and first language acquisition had something in common with each other in that the process of learning the language is creative.

Through the development of SLA research, characteristics of interlanguage have become clear. Ellis (1985:50-51) summarizes them in three short sentences:

1. The learner language is systematic.
2. The learner language is dynamic.
3. The learner language is permeable.

To summarize, IL has two main properties. One is systematicity, and the other is

variability. Chomsky (1968) hypothesized regarding the systematicity of children's language acquisition using the term, language acquisition device (LAD) (1968:32). He used this term to explain why children have the competence of acquiring the rules of their first language in a comparatively short period of time. In the case of adults' second language learning, SLA researchers use the term, the interlanguage continuum, to explain the systematicity of L2 learners' language.

2. Controversial Points

There are four arguments about interlanguage analysis: (1) lack of a sociolinguistic viewpoint, (2) lack of a comprehensive view of the learners' performance, (3) immaturity of the method to analyze the learner's correct usage of the target language. and (4) failure to solve target-oriented nature of error analysis.

First, the development of sociolinguistics viewed errors differently. According to Widdowson (1980:235), knowing linguistic expressions belongs to "conceptual function," but the measure of learner's ability to solve their difficulties is the extent to which they are able to actually do this. The point is what language users do with their language when engaged in social activity; this is their communicative ability. In this context, errors had to be looked at in another way. To consolidate these two functions, conceptual and communicative, Burt and Kiparsky identified two types of error: "global errors" which significantly hinder communication and "local errors" which do not (as cited in Dulay et al. 1982:191).

Secondly, linguists suggested that error analysis was only a part of the comprehensive view of the learner's performance. Bialystok (1982) discussed the difference between knowing and using linguistic forms. Also, Celce-Murcia and Hawkins (1985:71) suggested that we should look beyond syntax, that is, to look at the language at discourse level.

Thirdly, it has not been established how to evaluate non-errors. As mentioned

above, errors were classified, counted and categorized into error types. Also, the proportion of interlingual and developmental errors were stated. On the other hand, researchers have not yet devised so many ways to analyze non-errors as EA has, although there have been some attempts to devise a formula for calculating percentage of learner's correct suppliance (Pica 1983, 1984. Stauble and Schumann 1983. Dulay et al., 1982).

Finally, interlanguage analysis modified the weak point of EA, in that it was target-oriented, and introduced the concept of the interlanguage continuum. However, Long & Sato (1984) have suggested that interlanguage analysis still tends to consider learner language in terms of target language forms, which negates the view of IL as a system in its own right.

D. Performance Analysis

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:62) note that performance analysis, an analysis of learners' comprehensive performance of their target language, can be traced back to R. Brown's finding on children's L1 acquisition of morphemes (1973), and Dulay and Burt's application of the theory to children's L2 acquisition research (1974).

What performance analysis contributed to SLA study is as follows: (1)the importance of language learners' developmental aspect, (2)the attitude to view the learners' learning process as a creative construction, and (3)the attempt to explain the contradiction of systematicity and variability of interlanguages.

First, researchers attempted to find developmental scales in learners' interlanguages. Early researchers, following R.Brown and Dulay and Burt's researches on morpheme acquisition mentioned above, attempted to find language learners' developmental scales of syntax acquisition. However, Adjemian (1976) points out the limitations of such early approaches because their criteria of data analysis depends on the target language. He proposes that we view interlanguages as natural languages and tries to prove that they have enough

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properties to be considered as natural languages because "they contain an organized set of rules and basic elements (lexical items, phonological units, grammatical categories, etc." (1976:301).

Second, the researchers' efforts to view interlanguages as natural languages lead to their finding of their property of creativity. The following charts show four basic models of interlanguage arranged in a chronological order. Each of them represents the systematicity of IL, but the latter two models, Tarone's(1979) and Bialystok and Smith's(1985), try to modify their predecessors, introducing psychological and sociolinguistic factors to explain the property of creativity.

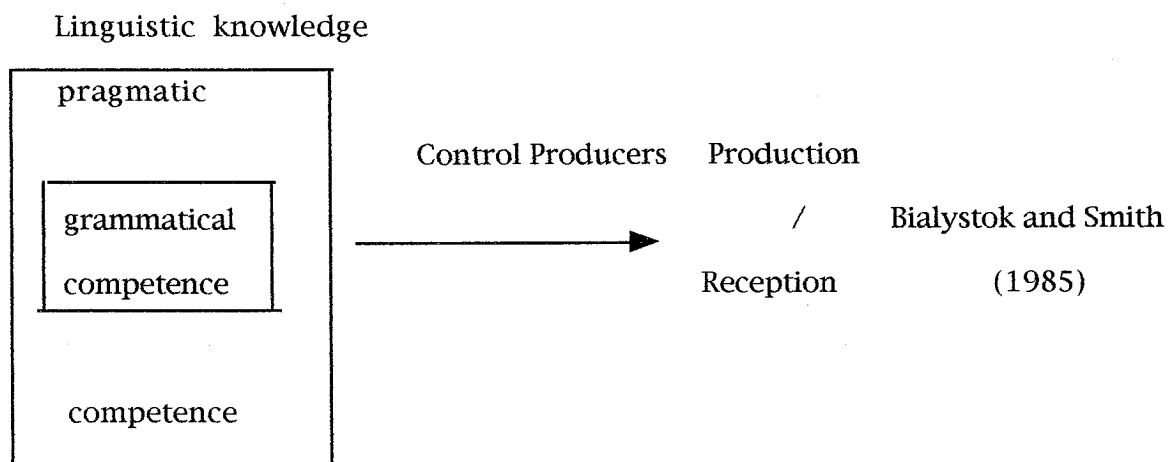
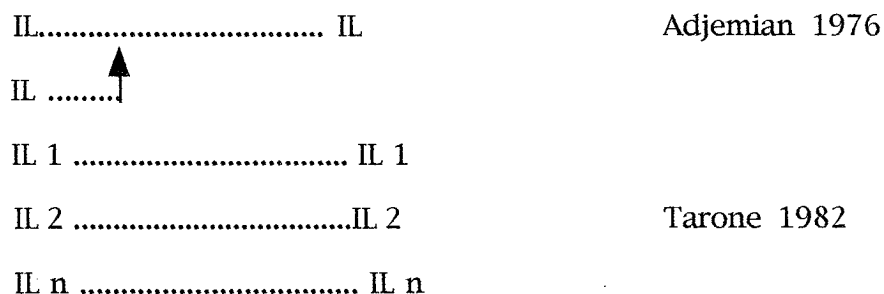
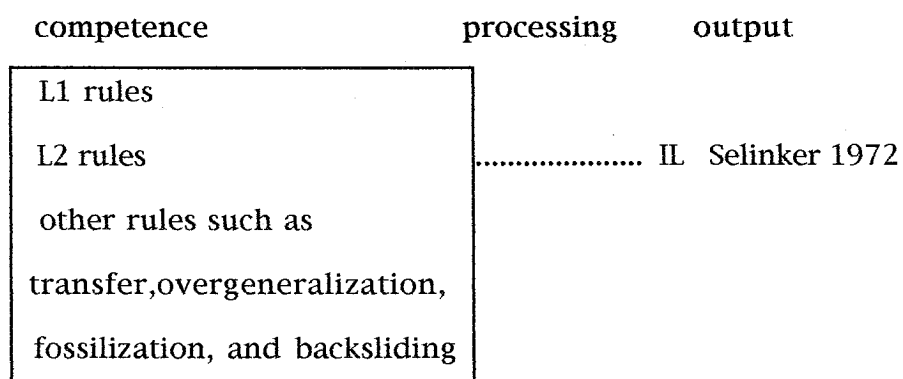


Fig.1: Four basic models of interlanguage

(adapted from Bialystok and Smith 1985:103)

Selinker tries to explain some idiosyntactic phenomena such as *language transfer*, *backsliding*, *fossilization* in his terms all of which describe "the premature cessation of learning despite repeated exposure and attempts to learn" (Selinker and Landella 1978:143).

Adjemian's model is based on Chomsky's universal grammar, which he sees as the starting point of IL. The model further refers to the changeability of IL, *permeability*, in his term (1976:297). The permeability of IL means that learners can transfer grammatical properties from the native language and that they can also generalize or distort target language properties in order to communicate.

Tarone's model has a sociolinguistic factor. She believes that L2 learners possess a set of related grammars corresponding to different conditions of use. Although her chart does not show the relationship between first and second language acquisition, it shows that native speakers and learners are different from each other in that they have a different set of variable and categorical rules. She tries to describe "a system that changes when the linguistic environment changes" (1982:69).

On the other hand, Bialystok and Smith's model indicates a psycholinguistic aspect, which explains learners' performance. It includes learners' knowledge about what is appropriate in given situation and the ability to process appropriate language efficiently.

Bialystok and Smith try to explain the gap between the language learners' linguistic knowledge and control of that knowledge. Their attempt is to account for second language acquisition from a broader perspective including "pragmatic competence, the ability to use knowledge along with the conceptual system to achieve certain ends and purposes, " (1985:105) which Chomsky excludes distinguishing between "competence" and "performance" (Chomsky 1965:10). His lack of a sociolinguistic viewpoint is what some researchers have criticized. As

the study of SLA developed, there occurred the tendency to search for a more comprehensive perspective which includes pragmatic competence. This is called performance analysis.

Language learners pass through the sequence of development - the interlanguage continuum - in the same way, no matter what their first language is. This is what the interlanguage study made clear. Corder conceived the continuum as a *restructuring continuum* stretching from the learner's mother tongue to the target language. Nemser viewed the processing model as "*reorganization*" through the massive instruction of new elements as learning proceeds.

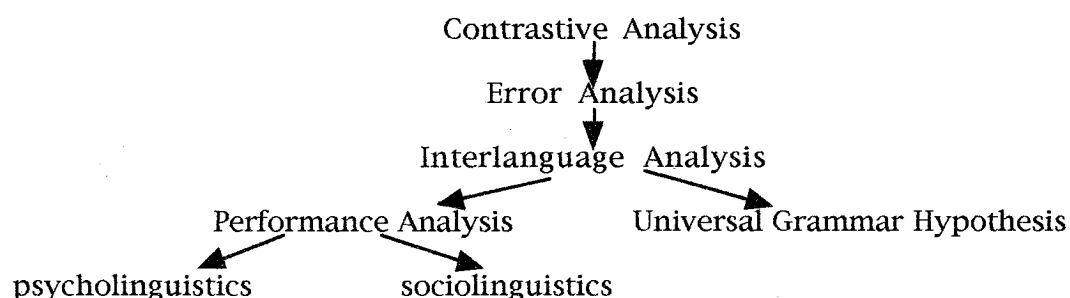
However, as the role of the IL began to be questioned, researchers started to conceive it as a "recreation continuum." Dulay and Burt (1975:21) viewed IL as a "*creative construction*" to refer to the subconscious process by which language learners gradually organize the language they hear, according to rules that they construct to generate sentences. In short, it is the creative process by which language learners always try to modify and expand the rules. This, at the same time, indicates the idiosyncrasy of interlanguage, the instability of the continuum, which cannot be seen in other natural languages. Therefore, the L2 learner's interlanguage is dynamic, with two mutually contradictory properties: systematicity/ variability and stability/ instability.

Third, early researchers tried to describe the systematicity and variability of the interlanguage, but their interests have shifted to the explanation of the inconsistency of the two properties. Tarone's, and Bialystok and Smith's model shown above attempt to explain the contradictory properties of interlanguage, systematicity and variability. From this point, they focus on what language learners actually produce, performance data including not only the learner's linguistic competence but also the learner's intuitive factors. Bialystok and Smith (1985: 115) support Faerch and Kasper's data analysis of slips, and pauses from this point of view:

"Faerch and Kasper (1983 b) provide examples of slips, pauses, etc, which indicate some of the ways that control, or selection functions operate. What is striking is that fillers, for both filled and unfilled pauses in L2 speech, fit with L1 patterns, not with L2 patterns. That is, there is no linguistic knowledge involved, only retrieval procedures that have been used with the L1. These are the control-based strategies.

In this context, Corder's idea of distinguishing between errors and mistakes and concentrating on the former does not seem to play an important role in performance analysis.

Consequently, it has been a major theme for researchers to grasp what interlanguage is as an offspring of error analysis. To explain this complicated language, SLA studies applied several interdisciplinary approaches such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and theoretical linguistics such as Chomsky's Universal Grammar Hypothesis. The following chart shows how SLA studies have developed.



Thus, the approaches of language learners' data analysis developed into various branches, which coincides with the development of sociolinguistics and cognitive psychology.

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:73) conclude that it is perhaps better said that each analysis "subsumed" the analysis before than that one replaced the other.

II. What makes language learners false beginners?

A. The Study

This research applies a psycholinguistic approach, which offers researchers the methodology for them to compare learners' proficiency, and to confirm the results later. The data will be analyzed quantitatively as well as qualitatively.

The objective of this research is to identify what makes learners false beginners. My hypothesis is that the cause may lie in micro-structures which enable learners to perceive linguistic symbols and to decode and recode them phonetically.

Since this research deals with learners' performance, both mistakes and errors the participants made are counted. Corder (1973) has insisted that researchers make a clear distinction between mistakes and errors because the former refers to performance errors native speakers would also make, but the latter the result of a deficiency in a language learner's competence which researchers should target. Dulay and Burt (1972) used the term "goofs" to refer to errors, defining it as an idiosyncrasy in the interlanguage of the learners. However, we may well wonder if it is possible to strictly distinguish errors from mistakes when actually dealing with learners' production of interlanguage: within the larger perspective of the learners' total interlanguage production, the idea to categorize them in this way has been rejected (Widdowson 1980). When a learner makes a mistake or error, it can be psychologically proven that he/she is on the condition of making the necessary differentiation between errors and non-errors or mistakes or non-mistakes in his/her systematic conception of the second language.

As the purpose of this study is to investigate the causes of English learners' acquisition difficulties, my goals are : (1) to find out in what area false beginners' backsliding occur, (2) to find out in which areas false beginners are better than true beginners, and (3) to determine where the main problem of false beginners

lie.

B. Method

The sample was taken from three groups : (1) ninth graders aged fourteen to fifteen who are considered true beginners because they are studying basic vocabulary and sentence structures at school, (2) students in the lowest level English class at Kawaijuku Trident College, a technical college. Their English level is STEP 3 or below. They are described as false beginners. (3) students in the highest level English class at Kawaijuku Trident College. The student of the second and the third group are in the same age range, from nineteen to twenty-two. They have already passed STEP 2 test, whose level is set to be appropriate for those who have finished six years of formal English courses at school. They can be regarded as successful learners.

All the participants are of the same national background, and share Japanese as a mother tongue. Also, their knowledge of English has been mainly acquired through formal instruction at school. They started taking English courses at the age of twelve or thirteen. False beginners and successful learners are still taking English courses at college after having taken approximately 800 - 900 hours of formal English courses since they entered junior high school. The true beginners' group have taken English classes at school for approximately 300 - 400 hours so far.⁵

Instruments: The following instruments were used in this data analysis:

1. A STEP 3 test paper, comprising both a written test and a listening test, given in spring of 1994 ; true beginners and false beginners took the test under the same conditions as the actual test.
2. The cards of English short paragraphs used for the STEP interview test in spring of 1996. — Three different cards for the interview test (STEP 3, Pre-STEP 2, STEP 2) were used.

3. A list of 40 English words. — The words were selected from the vocabulary list in the guidelines for English courses at junior high school issued by the Education Ministry. The words are required to be taught at school during the first three-year period at junior high school.

Procedure:

1. A STEP 3 written and listening test: A STEP 3 test was given to true beginners and false beginners in order to examine the two groups' proficiency levels. The group of successful learners was exempted from the test because they had already passed STEP 2 during high school or after graduation from high school. We can regard them as overproficient students as far as STEP 3 level is concerned, compared to the other two groups.

2. Cards for STEP interview tests: All the participants were required to read aloud passages for the interview test, and their reading voices were tape recorded.

There were two parts of procedure:

Part 1: True beginners and false beginners read aloud four cards from the STEP 3 interview test, reading each card five times in a row. Four scores were recorded: (1) the time it took to read aloud; (2) frequency of repairs; (3) frequency of pauses.

Part 2: All the participants read out three cards from different levels, STEP 3, Pre-STEP 2, and STEP 2, three times running for each. Scores for these were recorded.

3. A list of 40 English words: Each participant was required to read aloud a list of 40 English words as quickly as possible. The words had been classified into a regular word group and an irregular word group, with 20 words for each. Regular words were selected according to the criterion that the words would be comparatively easy to decode in terms of pronunciation depending on the knowledge of English sounds, while irregular words were supposed to require English language learners' conscious learning about the words' pronunciation because of their

irregularity.

The Test Battery⁶

Regular words	1.glad 2.grow 3.fifteen 4.interesting 5.holiday 6.important 7.morning 8.letter 9.November 10.strong 11.remember 12.seventeen 13.yesterday 14.winter 15.woman 16.yellow 17.begin 18.finish 19.tomorrow 20.window
Irregular words	1.August 2.were 3.break 4.child 5.dear 6.country 7.July 8.through 9.fruit 10.famous 11.language 12.hour 13.deciding 14.ninth 15.lose 16.minute 17.unite 18.would 19.shout 20.ground

Instructions specified the objectives of this experiment, to test the rapidity and accuracy of decoding phonetically. The participants were given a word list and asked to read it aloud as fast as they could. When they realized that they had made a mistake, they were allowed to repair it. Also, they were told not to skip any words whose pronunciation they did not know but say them as best they could. The participants' reading performance was tape recorded. The examiner recorded the total time for participants to read the list of each word group, the number of errors, and how they actually pronounced the words.

C. Results and Discussion

(1) STEP 3 scores:

Each component of STEP 3 written test is aimed at testing the following competence:

No.1: to test the learner's lexical knowledge,

No.2: to test the learner's knowledge of discourse in brief
dialogues between two speakers,

No.3: to test the learner's knowledge of English grammatical
structures,

No.4. A: to test the learner's knowledge of discourse in a longer dialogue between two speakers.

No.4. B,C: to test the learner's reading comprehension

Table 1: Differences of STEP 3 Test Scores

Between True Beginners (T.B.) and False Beginners (F.B.)

Variables	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Probability
STEP 3 scores				
Total Score	40	44.025	8.550	
T.B.	20	43.550	8.470	
F.B.	20	44.500	8.823	0.730
Written Test				
Problem No.1	40	13.225	2.957	
T.B.	20	12.550	2.564	
F.B.	20	13.900	3.227	0.151
Problem No.2	40	4.850	2.058	
T.B.	20	5.100	1.832	
F.B.	20	4.600	2.280	0.449
Problem No.3	40	3.600	1.057	
T.B.	20	3.850	1.137	
F.B.	20	3.350	0.933	0.137
Problem No.4 A	40	2.050	1.413	
T.B.	20	2.050	1.572	
F.B.	20	2.050	1.276	1.000
Problem No.4 B	40	6.575	2.218	
T.B.	20	7.000	1.717	
F.B.	20	6.150	2.601	0.230
Listening Test				
Problem No.1	40	4.525	0.877	
T.B.	20	4.400	1.095	
F.B.	20	4.650	0.587	0.376
Problem No.2	40	2.125	0.992	
T.B.	20	2.150	1.089	
F.B.	20	2.100	0.912	0.876
Problem No.3	40	7.025	2.213	
T.B.	20	6.450	1.932	
F.B.	20	7.600	2.371	0.101
				(p>.05)

Table 1 shows the difference of test scores for each problem in written and listening tests between true beginners and false beginners.

From the results shown in Table 1, it can be said that there are not significant differences between the two groups, the true beginners' group and the false beginners' group, in regard to any of the testing items. This means that

according to this measurement the two groups' competences in the English language are the same.

A question arises here; Are the results of STEP 3 test a sufficient test battery to determine the participants' knowledge of English? It is necessary to confirm the validity of the test results. For further investigation to resolve this issue, other instruments were used.

(2) Reading aloud

Part1:Table 2: Differences of Reading Performance Scores Between
T.B and F.B. (the STEP 3 interview test)

Variables	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Probability	
Reading Time 1	40	8.600	5.701		
T.B.	20	11.000	6.464		
F.B.	20	6.200	3.578	0.0070	significant
Reading Time 2	40	6.125	4.490		
T.B.	20	7.200	5.464		
F.B.	20	5.050	3.017	0.1343	non-significant
Reading Time 3	40	5.125	5.529		
T.B.	20	7.050	7.126		
F.B.	20	3.200	2.042	0.0298	significant
Reading Time 4	40	4.975	4.481		
T.B.	20	6.700	5.648		
F.B.	20	3.250	1.743	0.0160	significant
Reading Time 5	40	3.825	3.928		
T.B.	20	5.350	4.870		
F.B.	20	2.300	1.750	0.0148	significant
Repairs	40	5.725	4.359		
T.B.	20	7.450	5.453		
F.B.	20	4.000	1.735	0.0132	significant
Pauses	40	30.515	5.498		
T.B.	20	26.930	5.375		
F.B.	20	34.100	2.468	0.0000	significant

Table 2 indicates differences of reading performance scores between true beginners and false beginners. According to the results, there are significant differences between true beginners and false beginners in regard to every variable; that is, in terms of STEP 3 level evaluation of proficiency quantitative analysis shows the false beginners' reading performance to be significantly better than that of true beginners.

In every component of the test battery, it turned out that true beginners and

false beginners are at the same level, while false beginners' performance of reading aloud is fairly good compared to that of true beginners. This is a finding regarding the false beginners' superior proficiency that did not emerge in the results of STEP 3 written test.

Can we conclude that false beginners are better than true beginners in regard to oral reading despite their English competences otherwise being the same? In order to confirm the validity of the results, further data were collected.

In the next experiment, three groups of young Japanese adults of successful learners, false beginners and true beginners, were compared. Those groups read aloud three different cards three times for each: the interview cards for STEP 3, Pre-STEP 2, and STEP 2. The presupposition was that false beginners' difficulties might reveal themselves if they were required to read more difficult English passages.

Before the experiment, readability of each passage was checked. According to Yamada (1984:74-75), Flesch listed two major factors which determine the readability of a passage.

(1) the length of a sentence, the average number of words used in the sentence. (S)

(2) the average number of syllables per one word. (W)

The figures are substituted for the following readability formula.

$$\text{Readability ease} = 206.84 - 0.85W - 1.02S$$

Table 3: Indexes of Readability

	STEP 3	Pre-STEP 2	STEP 2
Reading ease	65.74	60.504	58.372

According to the figures shown in this table, as the higher the STEP level of the text, the lower the index of reading ease. Pre-STEP 2 and STEP 2 require a higher level of English competence than STEP 3. Pre-STEP 2 is targeted at Japanese English language learners in the tenth or eleventh grade, STEP 2 for those who have finished six years of English courses at school.

My hypothesis regarding the further experiment was that the false beginners' difficulties may become clear when they read more difficult passages.

The aims of this data analysis are (1) to know false beginners' performance with more difficult reading materials, and (2) to compare the results of successful learners' performance with those of false beginners to know if the evaluation by STEP 3 of false beginners as good readers are confirmed. The results are as follows.

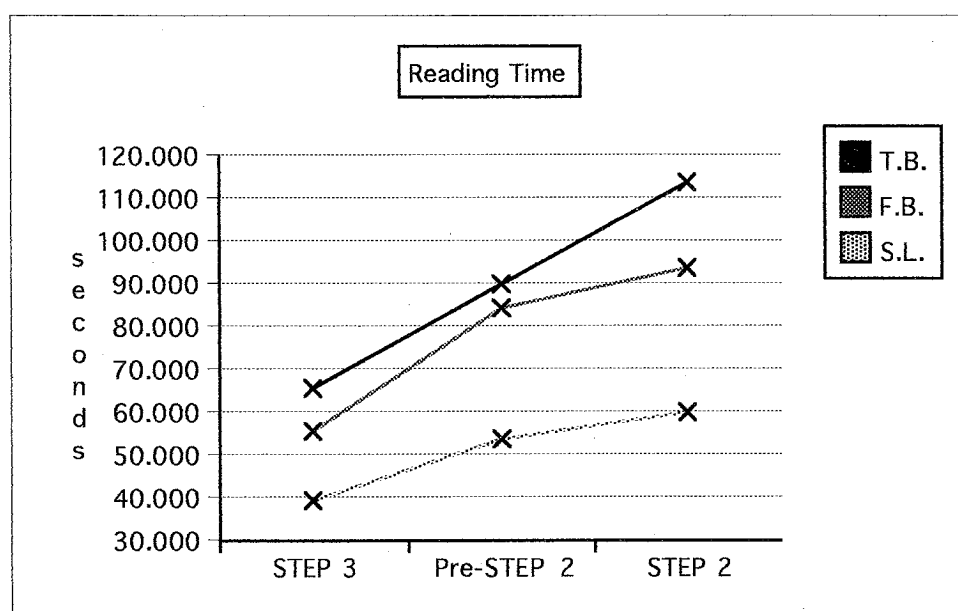


Fig. 2: Differences of reading time scores between T.B., F.B., and S.L.

Table 4: Analysis of Variance of STEP Interview Test Reading Time

STEP 3-reading time						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	5386.053	2	2693.026	27.712	0.00000	
within groups	4470.205	46	97.178			
total	9856.257	48	205.339			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	10.062	2.920(46)	0.00541			
T.B. - S.L.	26.055	7.354(46)	0.00000			
F.B. - S.L.	15.992	4.722(46)	0.00002			

Pre-STEP 2-reading time						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	12034.178	2	6017.089	21.844	0.00000	
within groups	12670.827	46	275.453			
total	24705.005	48	514.688			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	5.477	0.944(46)	0.35013			
T.B. - S.L.	36.064	6.046(46)	0.00000			
F.B. - S.L.	30.587	5.364(46)	0.00000			

STEP 2-reading time						
	Single-factor analysis of variance					
	factor	SS	df	MS	F	p
	groups	22981.228	2	490.614	34.24	0.00000
	within groups	15437.37	46	335.595		
	total	38418.598	48	800.387		
	Paired comparison					
	paired groups	differences	t (df)	p		
	T.B. - F.B.	19.99	3.121(46)	0.00311		
	T.B. - S.L.	53.674	8.152(46)	0.00000		
	F.B. - S.L.	33.684	5.351(46)	0.00000		

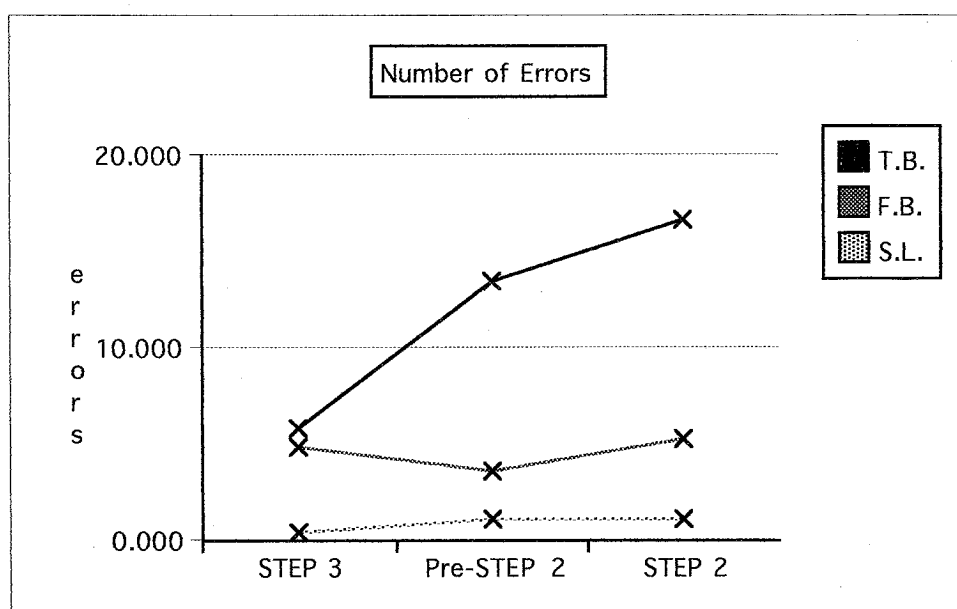


Fig. 3: Differences of reading error scores between T.B., F.B., and S.L.

Table 5: Analysis of Variance of STEP Interview Test Reading Errors

STEP 3-reading errors						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	262.35	2	131.175	10.216	0.0021	
within groups	590.638	46	12.84			
total	852.989	48	17.771			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	0.916	0.731(46)	0.4682			
T.B. - S.L.	5.369	4.169(46)	0.00013			
F.B. - S.L.	4.453	3.617(46)	0.00074			

Pre-STEP 2-reading errors						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	1315.827	2	657.913	44.154	0.00000	
within groups	685.422	46	14.900			
total	2001.249	48	41.693			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	9.765	7.236(46)	0.00000			
T.B. - S.L.	12.377	8.921(46)	0.00000			
F.B. - S.L.	2.612	1.969(46)	0.57960			

STEP 2-reading errors						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	1995.199	2	997.599	66.377	0.00000	
within groups	691.349	46	15.029			
total	2686.548	48	55.97			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	11.405	8.415(46)	0.00000			
T.B. - S.L.	15.516	11.136(46)	0.00000			
F.B. - S.L.	4.111	3.086(46)	0.00343			

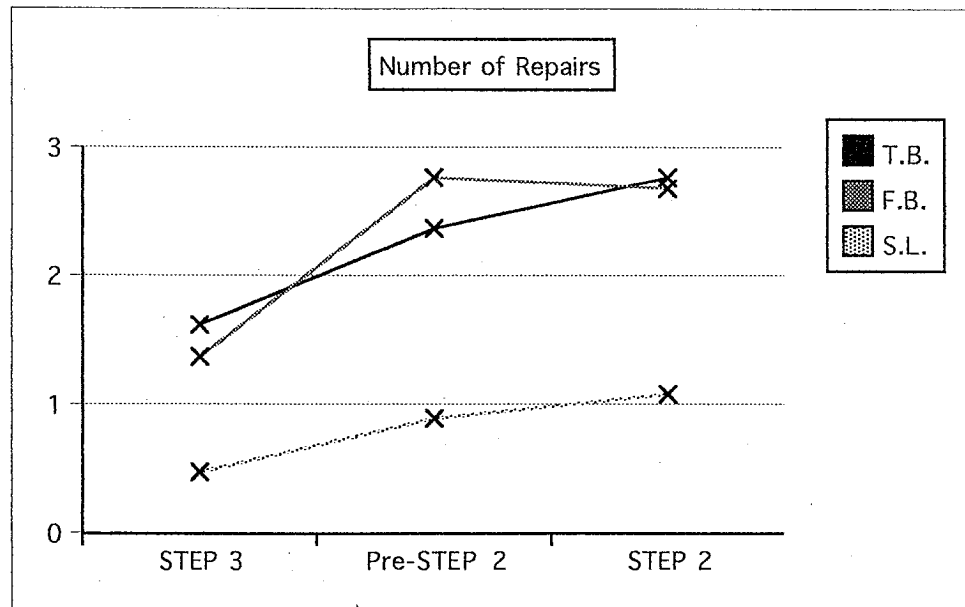


Fig. 4: Differences of number of repairs between T.B, and S.L.

Table 6: Analysis of Variance of STEP Interview Test Number of Repairs

STEP 3-repairs						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	11.291	2	5.646	7.766	0.00124	
within groups	33.44	46	0.727			
total	44.732	48	0.932			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	0.256	0.857(46)	0.3957			
T.B. - S.L.	1.139	3.715(46)	0.00055			
F.B. - S.L.	0.883	3.014(46)	0.00418			

Pre-STEP 2-repairs						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	32.664	2	16.332	4.929	0.01149	
within groups	152.415	46	3.313			
total	185.079	48	3.856			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	-0.415	0.652(46)	0.51734			
T.B. - S.L.	1.477	2.257(46)	0.0288			
F.B. - S.L.	1.892	3.025(46)	0.00406			

STEP 2-repairs						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	28.662	2	14.331	4.634	0.01468	
within groups	142.26	46	3.093			
total	170.922	48	3.561			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	0.088	0.144(46)	0.88624			
T.B. - S.L.	1.677	2.654(46)	0.01089			
F.B. - S.L.	1.589	2.630(46)	0.01159			

In STEP 3 reading, the time difference among the three groups is significant. However, the difference of the number of errors between true beginners and false beginners is not significant. In Pre-STEP 2 reading, the time difference between true beginners and false beginners becomes closer, although there is a significant difference in the number of errors between them. In the case of Pre-STEP 2, the problem rather lies in the true beginners' group. For them, reading Pre-STEP 2 and STEP 2 interview cards is a challenging task because these tests are at senior high school levels and there are some unknown words for them. They tend to read quickly at the cost of accuracy. Therefore, the difference in the number of errors between true beginners and the false beginners becomes greater in Pre-STEP 2 and STEP 2.

The graphs above suggest that the oral reading performance of false beginners is between true beginners and successful learners, with whom they share the same English learning history.

Why is it that the false beginners' test scores were as low as true beginners? Also, what makes their reading performance appear better than true beginners? A further test was conducted to explain this inconsistency.

In the next experiment, the participants were required to read forty words aloud, with the word categorized into two groups: one group containing words with a regular spelling-to-sound correspondence, and the other with an irregular

spelling-to-sound correspondence.

This time, rather than reading English passages, participants read words aloud. This is because some other factors such as syntax and background knowledge, which participants are supposed to use in reading passages, should be eliminated in order to test their very basic linguistic knowledge, phonological decoding and recoding, that is, word vocalization.

For the validity of the results, the frequency and the number of syllables of the words in the two groups are controlled. In order to figure out the frequency, the American Heritage - Word Frequency Book (1971) was used. This dictionary contains 86,741 different words selected from 5,088,721 words in 1,045 published English materials including textbooks, workbooks, kits, novels, poetry, general nonfiction, encyclopedias, and magazines. The figures are as follows.

Table 7: Frequency of Listed Words

Frequency of Words				
Regular Words				
	F	D	U	SFI
glad	523	0.8270	87.321	59.4
grow	1418	0.8598	243.77	63.9
fifteen	233	0.8908	41.324	56.2
interesting	712	0.8302	118.19	60.7
holiday	109	0.8037	17.643	52.5
important	2588	0.9326	477.62	66.8
morning	1736	0.8678	302.23	64.8
letter	1738	0.6711	238.16	63.8
November	136	0.7596	20.869	53.2
strong	1140	0.9299	210.02	63.2
remember	1423	0.9254	260.75	64.2
seventeen	59	0.7808	9.365	49.7
yesterday	257	0.7710	40.002	56
winter	1004	0.9151	182.5	62.6
woman	750	0.8293	125.81	61
yellow	615	0.9109	111.34	60.5
begin	976	0.8970	173.67	62.4
finish	395	0.7589	60.744	57.8
tomorrow	362	0.8326	60.825	57.8
window	841	0.8987	150.77	61.8
	851.26	0.8469	146.646	59.9

Irregular Words	F	D	U	SFI
August	143	0.8577	23.491	53.7
words	17031	0.9503	3200.2	75.1
break	516	0.9508	96.973	59.9
child	730	0.881	128.16	61.1
dear	445	0.7303	66.941	58.3
country	2357	0.8638	406.7	66.1
July	199	0.8368	33.318	55.2
through	5442	0.9862	1056.2	70.2
fruit	456	0.7109	66.232	58.2
famous	717	0.8713	124.65	61.0
language	1041	0.7199	151.81	61.8
hour	908	0.8799	159.37	62.0
deciding	44	0.8492	7.4826	48.7
ninth	41	0.7647	6.2997	48.0
lose	268	0.9034	48.104	56.8
minute	663	0.8761	116.22	60.7
unite	29	0.7028	4.1373	46.2
would	11188	0.9685	2137.7	73.3
shout	143	0.7869	22.985	53.6
ground	1511	0.8845	266.87	64.3
	2193.6	0.84875	406.19	59.71

The mean values of each item are compared between the two word groups, regular words and irregular words.

Table 8: Frequency of the Words in the Two Groups

	Frequency of the word in the selected words	Index of dispersion	Adjustment made by the formula	Standard frequency index
Regular Words	850.75	0.8469	146.646	59.915
Irregular Words	2193.3	0.84875	406.19	59.7

Table 4: The Number of Syllables (Mean)

Regular words	2.3
Irregular words	1.45

From table 8, it can be proved that there is no difference of the frequency of words between the two word groups. Regular words have rather more syllables than irregular words. It may be presupposed that if the word has more syllables, it will take more time to pronounce it, but the result shows that the cause of the

language learners' difficulty does not lie in the length of the syllables; it took participants much more time to pronounce the irregular words which have fewer syllables than the regular words, as shown in the figure below.

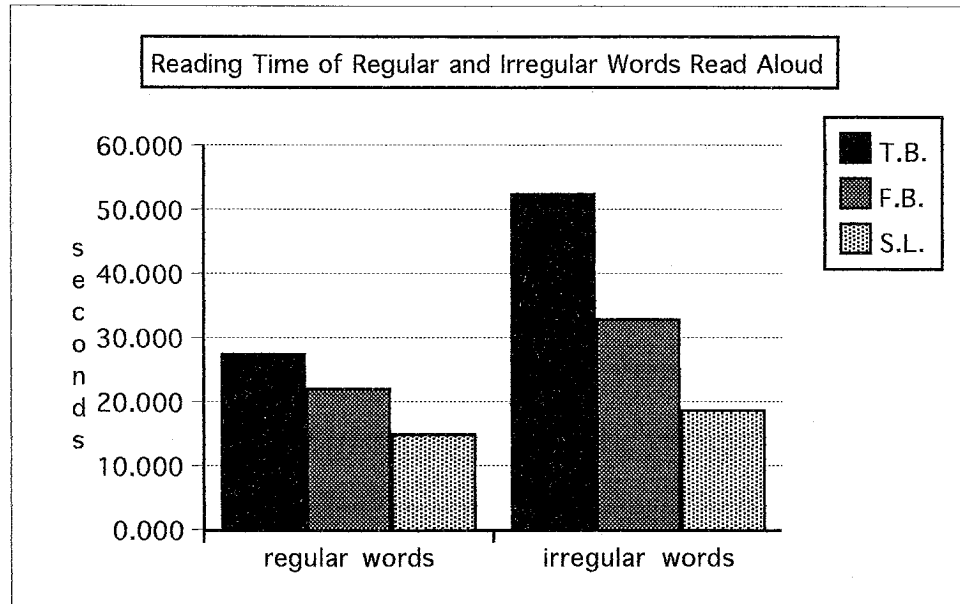


Fig.5: Reading time of regular and irregular words read aloud

All the participants took much more time in reading irregular words than regular words. Also, while there are not any apparent differences among the three groups in reading regular words, there are significant differences among them in reading irregular words.

Table 9: Analysis of Variance of Reading Time of Regular and Irregular Words Read Aloud

Decoding-reading time of regular words						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	1216.786	2	608.393	10.123	0.00019	
within groups	3185.431	53	60.102			
total	4402.217	55	80.04			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	4.422	1.780(53)	0.08074			
T.B. - S.L.	11.578	4.473(53)	0.00004			
F.B. - S.L.	7.156	2.798(53)	0.00715			

Decoding-reading time of irregular words						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	6663.705	2	3331.852	25.146	0.00000	
within groups	7022.649	53	132.509			
total	13686.354	55	248.843			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	13.209	3.582(53)	0.00074			
T.B. - S.L.	27.25	7.091(53)	0.00000			
F.B. - S.L.	14.041	3.698(53)	0.00052			

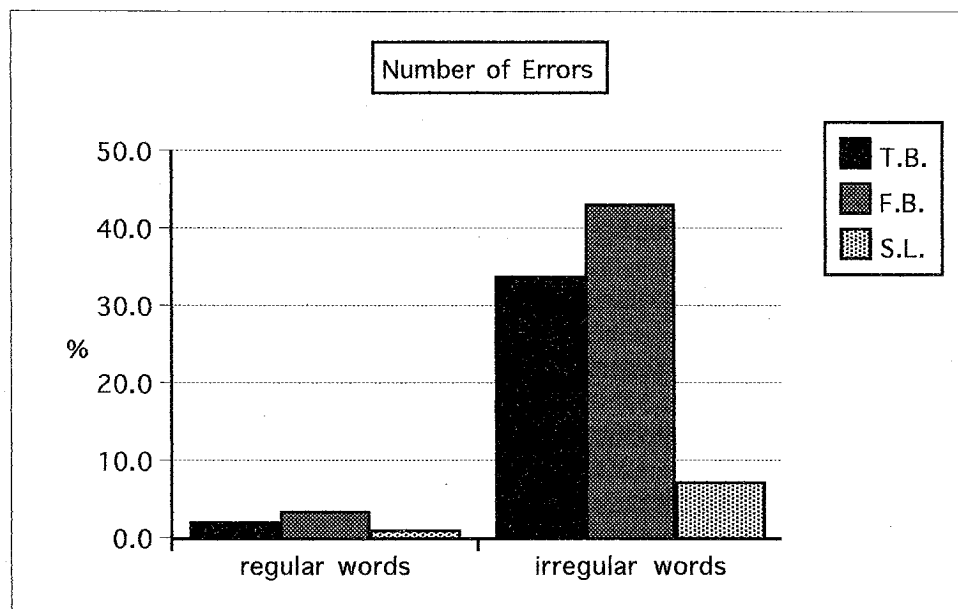


Fig. 6: Errors of regular and irregular words

Table 10: Analysis of Variance of Number of Errors of Regular and Irregular Words

Decoding- number of errors of regular words						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	2.537	2	1.269	2.148	0.12678	
within groups	31.302	53	0.591			
total	33.839	55	0.615			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	-0.279	1.133(53)	0.26231			
T.B. - S.L.	0.245	0.953(53)	0.34477			
F.B. - S.L.	0.524	2.065(53)	0.04383			

Decoding- number of errors of irregular words						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	472.008	2	236.004	25.625	0.00000	
in-group	488.117	53	9.21			
total	960.125	55	17.457			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	-1.913	1.968(53)	0.05433			
T.B. - S.L.	5.09	5.024(53)	0.00001			
F.B. - S.L.	7.003	6.995(53)	0.00000			

From these two graphs, it is clear that while false beginners tend to read quickly, they make more errors than the other groups. This tendency is further confirmed by the comparison of frequency of repairs shown in Figure 7.

Paired comparison in table 10 shows that the difference in the number of errors between true beginners and false beginners is not significant. That is, the number of errors each group made is almost the same. As the next step, qualitative analysis is done to address the question; how can the inconsistency of false beginners' results be explained? The hypothesis is that the cause may lie at the phoneme level in the micro-structures.

Error types were categorized into three groups: (1) visual errors, (2) stress errors, and (3) regular pronunciation of irregular words.

Table 11: Proportion of Error Types

Proportion of Error Types (%)			
	listed words	others	non-errors
T.B.	15	2.5	82.5
F.B.	19	6.5	74.5
S.L.	3.525	0.875	98.24

(1) Visual errors: unite → /ʌntil/ until
 finish → /fɪʃ/ fish

letter → /leɪtə/ later
 window → /wɪdəʊ/ widow
 November → /nəʊbədi/ nobody
 country → /kən'tɪnju:/ continue
 fruit → /fru:ts/ fruits
 (2) stress errors: begin → /bɪ'ɡɪn/
 interesting → /ɪn'trɛstɪŋ/

(3) regular pronunciation of irregular words:

fruit → /fruɪt/
 would → /wə:ld/
 shout → /ʃəʊt/
 famous → /fə:məs/
 ninth → /nɪnθ/
 deciding → /dɪ'sɪdɪŋ/
 were → /wɛə/
 July → /dʒʊli/
 through → /θrəʊ/
 lose → /ləʊz/
 minute → /mɪnju:t/
 child → /tʃɪld/
 unite → /ju:nɪt/
 hour → /haʊə/
 ground → /graʊnd/
 dear → /dɪə/
 country → /kən'traɪ/

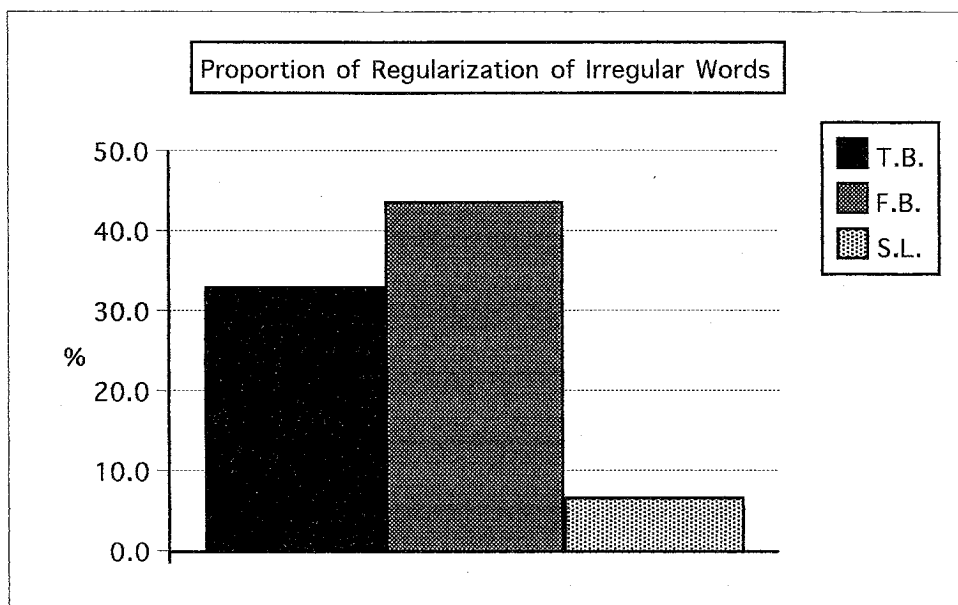


Fig.7: Proportion of regularization of irregular words

Table 12: Regularization of Irregular Words

Proportion of Regularization of Irregular Words (%)				
		T.B.	F.B.	S.L.
/frʌɪt/	fruit	20	30	0
/wəʊld/	would	80	90	6
/ʃaʊt/	shout	55	85	23.5
/fəːməʊs/	famous	10	15	0
/nɪnθ/	ninth	25	30	6
/dɪsɪdɪŋ/	deciding	40	35	0
/wɛə/	were	65	75	29
/dʒʊli/	July	5	20	0
/θrəʊ/	through	40	70	29
/ləʊz/	lose	85	75	6
/mɪnjuːt/	minute	5	10	0
/tʃɪld/	child	35	45	0
/juːnɪt/	unite	5	70	41
/haʊə/	hour	15	40	0
/ɡraʊnd/	ground	10	15	0
/dɪə/	dear	20	30	6
/kʌntrɪ/	country	0	10	0
	Mean	33.0	43.8	8.6

The graph shows that the number of irregular words false beginners read with regular pronunciation is larger than that for true beginners. From the results of

time and errors, it can be concluded that false beginners tend to read aloud quickly while making more errors than the other groups without repairing them. On the other hand, it takes much more time for true beginners to read aloud than the other groups, especially when they read irregular words aloud. Also, they repair more frequently than the other groups.

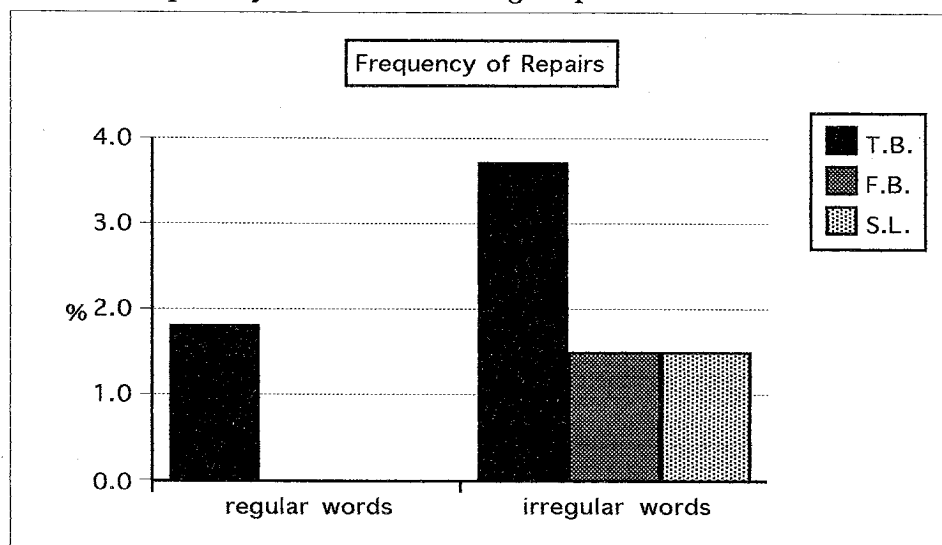


Fig. 8: Frequency of repairs

Table 13: Analysis of Variance of Frequency of Repairs of Regular Words

Decoding-frequency of repairs of regular words						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	1.704	2	0.852	7.032	0.00196	
in-group	6.421	53	0.121			
total	8.125	55	0.148			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	0.368	3.304(53)	0.00171			
T.B. - S.L.	0.368	3.171(53)	0.00253			
F.B. - S.L.	0.000	0.000(53)	1.00000			

Decoding-frequency of repairs of irregular words						
Single-factor analysis of variance						
factor	SS	df	MS	F	p	
groups	3.041	2	1.521	3.238	0.04711	
in-group	24.887	53	0.47			
total	27.929	55	0.508			
Paired comparison						
paired groups	differences	t (df)	p			
T.B. - F.B.	0.489	2.230(53)	0.03003			
T.B. - S.L.	0.495	2.165(53)	0.03489			
F.B. - S.L.	0.006	0.026(53)	0.97934			

Repairs:

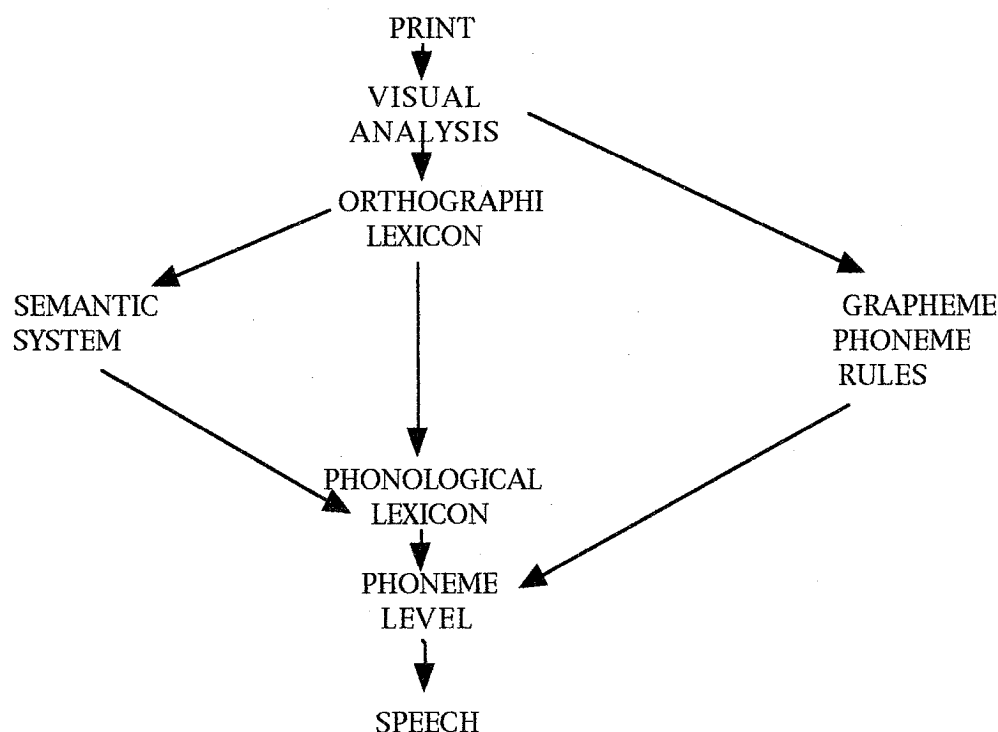
T.B. (13 cases)		F.B. (3 cases)		S.L. (3 cases)	
1st reading	2nd reading	1st	2nd	1st	2nd
July /dʒuli/	— /dʒuli/	country /kɒntrəi/	— /kɒntri/	ninth /nɪnθ/	— /naɪnθ/
dear /deə/	— /diə/	ground /graʊnd/	— /graʊnd/	were /weə/	— /wɜ:/
	(2 cases)	fruit /fruɪt/	— /fru:t/	unite /juːnɪt/	— /juːnaɪt/
ninth /nɪnθ/	— /naɪnθ/				
	(3 cases)				
finish /fɪʃ/	— /fɪnɪʃ/				
famous /fəməs/	— /feɪməs/				
fruit /fruɪt/	— /fru:t/				
hour /aʊə/	— /aʊər/				
	(2 cases)				
through /θru:/	— /θru:/				
child /tʃɪld/	— /tʃaɪld/				

True beginners take much more time than false beginners, in what is called vocalization latency (Perfetti & Hogaboam 1975:464), to pronounce each word. During the period, beginners actively process the information of the word. They search for a correct pronunciation while testing, and then output it. In most

cases they succeed in pronouncing correctly when they are required to read the words they have already learned in class, while false beginners do not seem to use the learning strategy of self-correction. False beginners read both regular and irregular words faster than true beginners. Also, they do not repair so frequently as true beginners do. Actually, there are not any significant differences between false beginners and successful learners in reading time and frequency of repairs despite the fact that the number of errors made by false beginners is larger than the other two groups.

Regular reading of irregular words exemplifies the systematicity of interlanguage. Participants' actual pronunciation listed above is the interlanguage rule they formulated. SLA researchers have tried to describe the interlanguage rules to prove the systematicity of interlanguages. A recent tendency in the interlanguage research is to try to know how and why the rules are formulated and applied. In case of the participants in this experiment, how do they form the pronunciation rule? The following chart offers the account of this system language learners create.

Table 14: Three-route Model of Single Word Reading (Funnell, 1996: 419)



Funnell uses this chart in her report of a case study of a subject who had a progressive impairment of semantic memory and surface dyslexia. She makes it clear which route the subject takes when meaning was lost. She says that in such a case, the subject depends heavily on grapheme phoneme rules taking the sublexical route, which does not include the phonological lexicon included in the other routes. She argues that this can be proved by the subject's word vocalization performance through the regular reading of irregular words. She explains that this pathway enables the subject to read familiar words orally even if they are not able to understand their meanings. Also, she explains why her subject has problems in comprehension, which is directly connected to semantic code. Because of her deficiency in this area, the subject cannot but take one of the other two routes when required to read words aloud. Sometimes she succeeds in pronouncing correctly. In such a case she takes the direct lexical route, which enables her to pronounce correctly even if her semantic memory breaks down. When regular pronunciation of irregular words is observed, she reads them according to spelling-to-sound correspondence, taking the sublexical route which goes through grapheme phoneme rules and directly reaches the phoneme level.

Funnell's theory can be applied to the investigation of the interlanguage used by the three groups of language learners in this study. The following table shows the comparison of Funnell's subject's multiple oral reading responses and the participants' responses.

Table 15: Multiple Oral Reading Responses

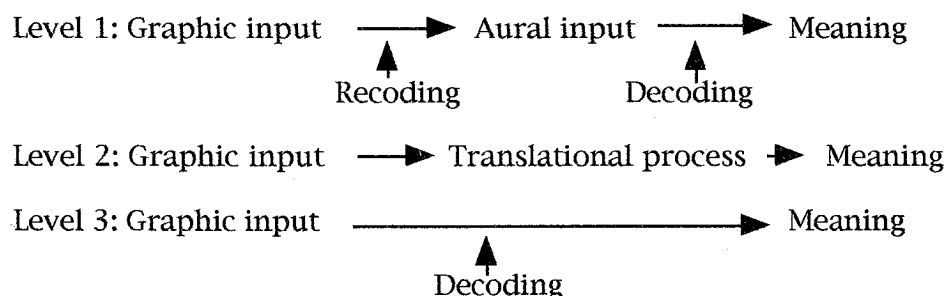
Funnell's Subject's Responses		False Beginners' Responses	
Stimulus Word	Multiple Responses	Stimulus Word	Multiple Responses
1. <u>sub</u> tle	/sʌbtə/ or /sntə/	<u>h</u> our	/hoə/ or /əuə/
2. <u>l</u> ose	/ləvz/ or /luz/	<u>l</u> ose	/ləvz/ or /lu:z/
3. sard <u>i</u> ne	/sadaɪn/ or /sadin/	w <u>e</u> re	/weə/ or /wə:/
4. <u>sou</u> ght	/saʊt/ or /sɔt/	throu <u>g</u> h	/θrəv/ or /θru:/
5. <u>v</u> ase	/veɪs/ or /vəz/	un <u>i</u> te	/juːnɪt/ or /junait/

6. <u>biscuit</u>	/bɪskɪt/ or /bɪskvɪt/	<u>fruit</u>	/fruɪt/ or /fru:t/
7. <u>spear</u>	/speə/ or /spɪə/	<u>dear</u>	/deə/ or /dɪə/
8. <u>busy</u>	/bɪzɪ/ or /buzɪ/	<u>minute</u>	/mɪn'ju:t/ or /mɪnɪt/

When regularization of irregular words like the examples of table 15 is observed, it can be said that the participant takes the sublexical route which does not connect to the semantic system. The percentage of false beginners' regularization errors is the largest among the three groups. Also, it is likely that even if they do read irregular words correctly, they may take the direct lexical route which also does not go through the semantic system, a system which is indispensable for comprehension. The reason why false beginners can read faster than true beginners, despite their comprehension being as low as that of true beginners can be thus explained by this three-route model.

False beginners' difficulties lie in the recoding and decoding of English words. Ito (1976: 95) introduces the model of reading comprehension process at three proficiency levels.

Table 16: Reading Comprehension Processes (Ito 1976: 95)



Level 1 is the initial stage of reading, the process of grasping meaning by recoding graphic input into aural input and decoding it into meaning. Based on this model, the curriculum for reading comprehension courses is also introduced in his paper. He regards being able to read English words aloud as the first skill learners should acquire in the initial stage of basic reading. False beginners seem to have taken a false step from the beginning.

Findings are as follows:

- (1) False beginners' backsliding occurs in comprehension. Their level in this area is equivalent to that of true beginners.
- (2) False beginners can read passages aloud better than true beginners.
- (3) The main problem of false beginners lie in recoding and decoding of English words, which is the basic component of language learning.

Conclusion

Funnell's theory offers one clue to the answer to the question; why and how are language learners' interlanguage systems created? In the conclusion of her paper, she quotes as follows:

Models of skilled reading do not include processes for comparing overt responses, but such processes would appear to be an important part of the processes of learning to read and may also be required by skilled readers faced with an unfamiliar irregular word to name; skilled readers can bias selection of reading processes when specifically instructed to do so (Monsell, Patterson, Graham, Hughes, & Milroy, 1992)

The research of those who have impairment in language performance serves the mechanisms of language information processing. As Funnell mentions above, her discussion can be applied to locating the difficulties of second language learners. In the history of interlanguage research, SLA researchers have found out the interlanguage rules created by language learners and the systems of the interlanguage continuum as described in Chapter 1, but investigating how and why these systems are created is not yet clearly known (Ozasa1992:108-119). It is hoped that further psycholinguistic research will make the mechanisms of language learning clear.

Second language learners' difficulties are not caused so much by the interference of their mother tongue but by a more universal learning mechanism of cognitive processes. The results of this data analysis support this view. This is what actually affects the success or failure of second language learners' reading performance.

Unsuccessful learners make a false step from the very beginning of language learning, recoding and decoding phonetically. This hinders them from passing smoothly through the sequence of developmental scale, the interlanguage continuum; even though the two groups' circumstances, including their learning

age and learning environment, are the same, it is this problem with recoding and decoding which makes the acquisition gap between false beginners and more successful learners wider and wider as they continue to study the second language.

Notes

(1) According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics, 1992, the definition of "false beginner" is as follows:

"(in language teaching) a learner who has a limited amount of previous instruction in a language, but who because of extremely limited language proficiency is classified as at the beginning level of language instruction. A false beginner is sometimes contrasted with a true beginner, i.e. someone who has no knowledge of the language."



(2) The number of examinees is from STEP NEWS No.371 November 1996, published by Nippon Eigo Kentei Kyokai.

(3) Lee's article, "The Linguistic Context of Language Teaching" in English Language Teaching, Vol.11 April-June (1957):77-85, has been reprinted twice, in Allen, H.B., and R.N. Campbell. Teaching English as a Second Language: A Book of Readings, Second Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972, and in Robinett, B.E., and J. Schachter. Second Language Learning: Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, and Related Aspects. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1983. Celce-Murcia and Hawkins reevaluate his early contribution to error analysis in their article, "Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, and Interlanguage Analysis." In Celce-Murcia. Beyond Basics: Issues and Research in TESOL. Rowley MA.: Newbury House, 1985:61.

(4) The book, issued in honour of Pit Corder on the occasion of his retirement from the Chair of Applied Linguistics of the University of Edinburgh in 1984, is titled "Interlanguage," although his term is *idiosyncratic dialect*. The collection of research papers in this book, subtitled "Proceedings of the Seminar in Honour of

Pit Corder," offers a comprehensive overview of the research in this area, and the development of the theory over two decades.

(5) Mr. Shingo Kubota of the Hiroshima Board of Education says, in the personal telephone interview with the author in December 10, 1996, that it is difficult to tell how many hours a week students are actually studying English at school. In the compulsory education in Japan, students are required to attend school thirty five weeks a year. Junior high school students usually take four fifty-minute lessons a week. In the case of senior high school students, the number of English classes a week depends on the school, ranging from two to ten classes a week. Also, classes are sometimes cancelled because of school events. Therefore, the figures are estimated taking this reality into consideration.

(6) Students may remember the pronunciation of a word depending on the shape of the word printed in lower case letters such as  or  (Matsuura 1984: 54). To avoid this tendency, the words were presented to the participants in capital letter.

Appendix

1. The STEP 3 Written and Listening Test, Spring 1994

- 1 次の(1)から(25)までの()に入れるのに最も適切なものを、1, 2, 3, 4の中から一つずつ選び、その番号のマーク欄をぬりつぶしなさい。
- (1) First of all, I'd like to introduce ().
1 my 2 me 3 yourself 4 myself
- (2) There's () wrong with my CD player.
1 anything 2 something 3 any 4 some
- (3) If your tea isn't sweet enough, I'll bring you some more ().
1 salt 2 cream 3 butter 4 sugar
- (4) A: "What is the () of France?"
B: "It's Paris."
1 government 2 village 3 capital 4 river
- (5) Five times three is ().
1 eight 2 two 3 fifteen 4 fifty
- (6) You should try to be kind to (), Dick.
1 other 2 one 3 others 4 the one
- (7) Grandpa always speaks to me () a big smile on his face.
1 at 2 to 3 in 4 with
- (8) We had too () rain this summer.
1 few 2 much 3 a little 4 many
- (9) You were late. Did you take the () train?
1 wrong 2 mistaken 3 error 4 sick
- (10) Cindy doesn't like playing tennis, () she?
1 isn't 2 is 3 doesn't 4 does
- (11) Yuki, () do you think of this plan?
1 what 2 who 3 how 4 which
- (12) Be () when you cross the busy street.
1 useful 2 careful 3 cheerful 4 peaceful
- (13) I'm sorry () that you lost the game.
1 hearing 2 to hear 3 heard 4 have heard
- (14) Can you read this English storybook without () a dictionary?
1 use 2 to use 3 using 4 used
- (15) () I was very tired, I had to finish my homework.
1 But 2 When 3 Though 4 If
- (16) I want some books () in easy English.
1 writing 2 write 3 wrote 4 written
- (17) I don't know when Mr. Jones () back.
1 to come 2 will come 3 come 4 coming
- (18) The boy () spoke to me was very friendly.
1 who 2 which 3 whom 4 when
- (19) Time flies! I've already lived in Tokyo () five years!
1 since 2 for 3 in 4 after
- (20) A: "Are you ready () the math test, Daniel?"
B: "Yes, Mr. Brown."
1 for 2 of 3 up 4 to
- (21) My house is very far () the train station.
1 in 2 near 3 away 4 from
- (22) () a while, it began to rain.
1 Around 2 Before 3 On 4 After
- (23) I hear Mike () in love with Ann.
1 had 2 carried 3 fell 4 came
- (24) Mom, don't worry () me so much. I'm not a child.
1 about 2 for 3 at 4 from
- (25) I'm looking forward () you and your parents next week.
1 meet 2 meets 3 to meet 4 to meeting

2 次の(1)から(10)までの会話について、()に入れるのに最も適切なものを、1, 2, 3, 4の中から一つずつ選び、その番号のマーク欄をぬりつぶしなさい。

- (1) A: "Can I use your telephone?"
B: "Certainly. ()"
1 Go right ahead. 2 Go home.
3 Go right. 4 Go for a walk.
- (2) A: "Did you read today's newspaper?"
B: "()"
1 Yes, I will. 2 No, I read it yesterday.
3 Yes, I'll read it now. 4 No, not yet.
- (3) A: "How about another slice of pie?"
B: "()"
1 Not at all. 2 No, thank you.
3 Yes, I'm full. 4 I'm hungry.
- (4) A: "What's wrong? You look sick."
B: "()"
1 No, I'm all right. 2 It's not wrong.
3 Turn right. 4 Yes, I'm fine.
- (5) A: "May I help you?"
B: "Yes, please. ()"
1 I'll help you. 2 I bought a CD player.
3 Do you sell CD players? 4 Thank you for your help.
- (6) A: "Emi, how do you feel today? You had a cold yesterday."
B: "()"
1 That's too bad. 2 Good day.
3 Much better, thanks. 4 Help yourself.
- (7) A: "Would you mail this letter for me, please?"
B: "Of course. ()"
1 I'd go now. 2 I'm very glad.
3 I'd be glad to. 4 I'm too busy right now.
- (8) A: "I have an idea. Let's call Bill."
B: "()"
1 We can't. He's not at home. 2 The same to you.
3 Yes, he did. 4 Good. He isn't Bill.

- (9) A: "I lost my umbrella. Have you seen it?"
B: "()"
1 No, there it is. 2 Yes, here it is.
3 Yes, it has. 4 It's raining.

- (10) A: "Excuse me. Do you have the time?"
B: "()"
1 No, I'm free. 2 I'm wrong.
3 It's 2:15 meters long. 4 Yes. It's 2:15.

3 次の(1)から(5)までの日本文の意味を表すように1から6までを並べかえるとき、2番目と4番目にくるものの最も適切な組合せを、1, 2, 3, 4の中から一つずつ選び、その番号のマーク欄をぬりつぶしなさい。ただし、文頭にくる語も小文字で示してあります。

- (1) あなたの新しいドレスはどうですか。
How (1) do (2) like (3) dress (4) new (5) you (6) your)?
1 - 5 - 4 - - 2 - 2 - 4 - - 3 - 5 - 6 - - 4 - 6 - 5 - -
- (2) なにかあなたがい飲み物をいただけますか。
(1) to (2) something (3) I (4) could (5) hot (6) have) drink?
1 - 3 - 2 - - 2 - 3 - 5 - - 3 - 4 - 2 - - 4 - 4 - 5 - -
- (3) 私のことを気にかけてくれてありがとうございます。
Thank (1) of (2) for (3) much (4) you (5) very (6) thinking)
me.
1 - 3 - 6 - - 2 - 3 - 4 - - 3 - 5 - 2 - - 4 - 5 - 6 - -
- (4) 私の母はその本をまもなく読み終わるでしょう。
My (1) reading (2) mother (3) will (4) the (5) finish (6) book)
soon.
1 - 3 - 1 - - 2 - 3 - 4 - - 3 - 2 - 1 - - 4 - 2 - 3 - -
- (5) 彼女の妹は英語が得意だそうです。
I (1) hear (2) is (3) sister (4) at (5) her (6) good) English.
1 - 5 - 6 - - 2 - 1 - 3 - - 3 - 1 - 2 - - 4 - 5 - 2 - -

4 [A]

下記の会話を読んで、1から5までの()に入れるのに最も適切なものを、次のページの1,2,3,4の中から一つずつ選び、その番号のマーク欄をぬりつぶしなさい。

—It's Saturday evening. Yuko and Debbie are planning to go to the movies.

Yuko: Going to the movies is very popular in Japan. Is it popular in America, too?

Debbie: Oh, yes. I often go to the movies. There are lots of movie theaters in America. In fact, there are even movie theaters in shopping centers.

Yuko: Really? (1)

Debbie: Yes. The shopping center near my house has fourteen theaters in it, and they're always busy.

Yuko: (2)

Debbie: Well, it depends on the theater and the time of the day you want to go.

Yuko: (3)

Debbie: There are three different prices for the different shows. The morning show, the afternoon show, and the evening show.

Yuko: How interesting!

Debbie: Plus, there are special prices for children, students, and senior citizens, people over sixty years old.

Yuko: Do you pay a higher price for reserved seating?

Debbie: No, (4). There are no special seats.

Yuko: I like that idea.

Debbie: (5)

Yuko: I'd like to see a comedy. What about you?

Debbie: A comedy? Great! I feel like laughing. Let's go.

- (1) 1 Do you want some?
2 Did you see any movies?
3 Is that common?
4 Is it interesting?

- (2) 1 How much money do you have?
2 Is going to the movies expensive?
3 How much is it to go shopping?
4 Are the shops in the shopping center expensive?

- (3) 1 How do you go there?
2 What do you want?
3 How do they know?
4 What do you mean?

- (4) 1 you may choose any movie you want to see
2 you can buy a ticket any time
3 you may sit in any seat you want
4 you can't sit in any seat you want

- (5) 1 So, do you like to go to the movies?
2 So, what kind of movie did you see last time?
3 So, did you see any movies before?
4 So, what kind of movie would you like to see?

4 [B]

下記の手紙文を読んで、次のページの(6)から(10)までの問いに対する答えとして最も適切なものを、1, 2, 3, 4の中から一つずつ選び、その番号のマーク欄をぬりつぶしなさい。

Dear Ellen,

June 15, 1994

How's it going? Everything is fine here in Japan.

Early yesterday morning, my friend and I took a train ride to a small beach area outside of Tokyo. I wanted to see a Japanese seashore. It was the first time for me to visit one. I packed some sandwiches and fruit for lunch.

The beach area was small and quiet. There were some scuba divers at the beach, but they were busy practicing in the water. The beach was covered with small black rocks, and the water seemed dark. This was very different from the beaches in California. They have white sand and light blue water.

By late afternoon the air was becoming cooler, and we were getting very hungry. When I thought about the long way back to Tokyo, I felt tired. Just then, one of the divers walked over and asked us to join them for grilled noodles and something to drink. What luck! The food tasted very delicious. The diver and his son were very friendly and they drove us home to Tokyo!

I'll never forget their kindness and friendship!

Your friend,

Amy

(6) Why did Amy go to the seashore?

- 1 Because her friend wanted to go.
- 2 Because Amy wanted to see a seashore in Japan.
- 3 Because Amy and her friend wanted to try scuba diving.
- 4 Because Amy and her friend wanted to have lunch there.

(7) What did Amy pack to take to the beach?

- 1 She packed some vegetables and fruit.
- 2 She packed something to drink.
- 3 She packed some sandwiches and fruit.
- 4 She packed some delicious grilled noodles.

(8) What were the scuba divers doing at first?

- 1 They were busy practicing diving.
- 2 They were busy cooking their lunch.
- 3 They were asking other people to have lunch with them.
- 4 They were eating sandwiches and fruit.

(9) What did the beach in Japan look like?

- 1 It was small, with white sand.
- 2 It was crowded, with blue water.
- 3 It was quiet, with white sand and black rocks.
- 4 It was small and quiet, with small black rocks.

(10) How did Amy and her friend return home?

- 1 They returned home by train.
- 2 The scuba divers drove them to Tokyo.
- 3 They were too tired to go home.
- 4 Amy and her friend drove home.

下記の英文を読んで、次のページの(11)から(15)までの問いに対する答えとして最も適切なものを、1, 2, 3, 4の中から一つずつ選び、その番号のマーク欄をぬりつぶしなさい。

Technology — Good or Bad?

Technology is everywhere now. It's in our homes, cars, offices, hospitals, and many other places. Life is much easier today because of technology.

But is it really a good thing? Of course, technology helps us in many ways. When we are sick, for example, we can feel better because of technology. Washing clothes once was difficult, but now it's easier because of the automatic washing machine.

Recently, however, there have been many people who think that too much technology is not good for our lives. They think that our minds and bodies are not healthy because there is too much technology. These people say that we are now lazy because we don't have to do anything ourselves. Many children don't like to play outside with their friends anymore. Usually they stay at home and play video games on their computers all day. A lot of people don't read or exercise anymore. They just watch television in their free time, sitting on a comfortable sofa.

What about the future? Our lives will probably be different with technology. It can be either good or bad. If we don't become wise enough to control the use of technology, there will be worse problems ahead for us.

* technology : 科学技術

(11) Where can we find technology?

- 1 We can find it only outside of our homes.
- 2 We can find it only when we use the washing machine.
- 3 We can find it only in our homes.
- 4 We can find it everywhere.

(12) Is washing clothes easier now?

- 1 No, it's still difficult.
- 2 No, it was much easier then.
- 3 Yes, it's usually good.
- 4 Yes, it's done automatically.

(13) Why do many people think technology is bad?

- 1 Because too much technology makes our minds and bodies unhealthy.
- 2 Because we now do everything ourselves.
- 3 Because people read or exercise more.
- 4 Because technology is in our homes, cars, offices, and hospitals.

(14) What do many children prefer to do now?

- 1 They prefer to play outside.
- 2 They prefer to play video games all day on their computers.
- 3 They prefer to study all day.
- 4 They prefer to read and exercise hard.

(15) What should we do with technology in the future?

- 1 We should be clever enough to play computer games.
- 2 We should exercise harder.
- 3 We should control it wisely.
- 4 We should be more indifferent toward it.

3級リスニングテストについて

1 このテストは筆記試験終了後、放送で行われ、第1部から第4部まであります。

※ 英文は二重放送されます。

(1) 第1部 (No.1からNo.5まで)：英文を聞き、その英文の内容を最もよく表している絵を1, 2, 3, 4の中から選ぶ。

※ テストに入る前に例題が放送されます。

(2) 第2部 (No.6からNo.10まで)：対話を聞き、その最後の文に対する回答として最も適切なものを1, 2, 3, 4の中から選ぶ。

※ テストに入る前に例題が放送されます。

(3) 第3部 (No.11からNo.15まで)：英文を聞き、その質問に対して最も適切なものを1, 2, 3, 4の中から選ぶ。

※ この問題には例題はありません。

(4) 第4部 (No.16からNo.20まで)：対話を聞き、その質問に対して最も適切なものを1, 2, 3, 4の中から選ぶ。

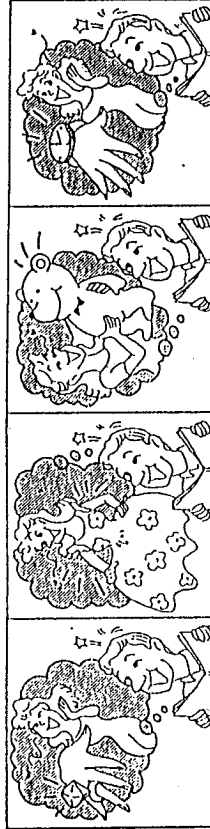
※ この問題には例題はありません。

2 No.20のあと10秒するとは試験終了の合図がありますので、筆記用具を置いてください。なお、試験監督者から退室の指示が出すまでは席を離れないでください。

第1部

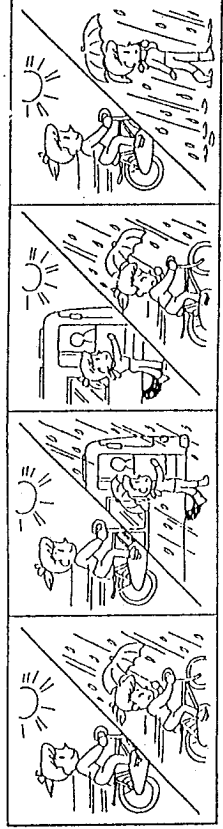
【例題1】

1



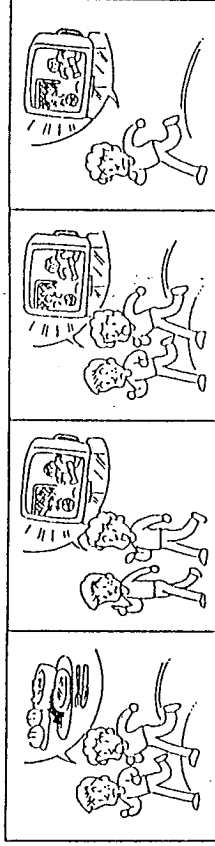
No.1

1



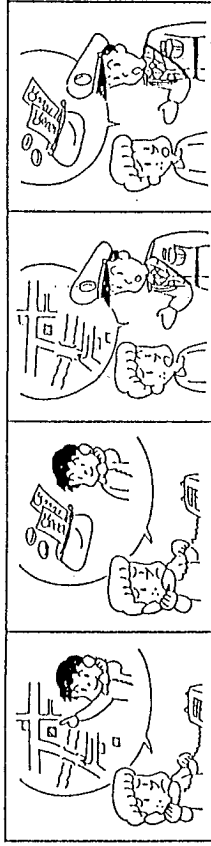
No.2

1



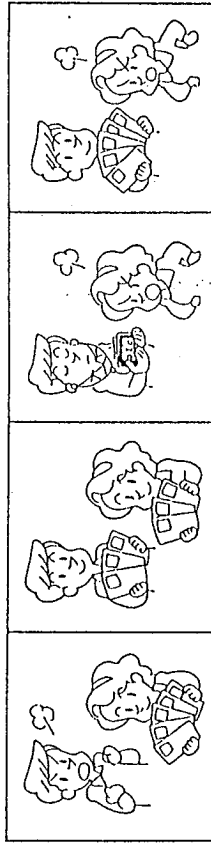
No.3

1



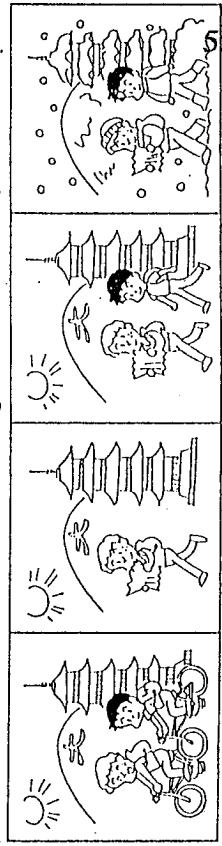
No.4

1



No.5

1



第 2 部

(例題 2)

- 1 Yes, you do.
- 2 No, you need not.
- 3 Sure.
- 4 No, thank you.

No. 6

- 1 I'm from Japan.
- 2 It's about two o'clock.
- 3 Last Wednesday.
- 4 I'm a new student.

No. 7

- 1 That's not true.
- 2 No, it wasn't exciting.
- 3 I will. Stay here.
- 4 Let's see the movie again.

No. 8

- 1 I know, and this is good.
- 2 I know, and this is sugar.
- 3 I know, but I love sugar.
- 4 I know, but I don't love sugar.

No. 9

- 1 Sorry, wear the blue ones.
- 2 Sorry, wash the black ones.
- 3 Sorry, I can't find them.
- 4 Not at all.

No. 10

- 1 Never mind.
- 2 Of course not.
- 3 Don't worry.
- 4 Why not?

第 3 部

No. 11

- 1 Next month.
- 3 To Mexico.

- 2 For half a year.
- 4 To study Spanish.

No. 12

- 1 In the sea.
- 3 Yumiko got sick.

- 2 This weekend.
- 4 Next weekend.

No. 13

- 1 First prize.
- 3 Takeo's parents.

- 2 School life.
- 4 The contest.

No. 14

- 1 To church.
- 3 To the art museum.

- 2 To paint a picture.
- 4 To the artist.

No. 15

- 1 She felt much better.
- 3 She had a toothache.

- 2 She went to the dentist.
- 4 She felt nervous.

第 4 部

No. 16

- 1 His birthday.
- 3 A puzzle.

- 2 A book.
- 4 Bob loves it.

No. 17

- 1 Kaori and her mother.
- 3 David.

- 2 David and Kaori.
- 4 David and his mother.

No. 18

- 1 Blue.
- 2 \$20.

- 3 \$25.
- 4 On sale.

No. 19

- 1 Her baby.
- 3 Her pet.

- 2 His favor.
- 4 Her vacation.

No. 20

- 1 Jim's computer.
- 3 The computer shop.

- 2 Minako's computer.
- 4 It'll cost a lot.

2.STEP 3 Interview Cards, Spring 1996

Card A:

Last year, Yuko went to Toronto, in Canada, for a month. She had a very good time. She stayed with a host family there. She made many friends and visited their homes, too. She often saw family photos on top of the TVs and on the walls. She asked her host mother about this. Her host mother said, "In Canada, most people have photos of their family at home, and I always carry photos of my family in my handbag." Yuko's host father had a big family photo on his desk. Yuko liked the custom very much.

Card B:

Jiro is a high school student. He likes sports very much, especially soccer. His friend Tom, in Atlanta, has invited Jiro to stay at his house this July. So he will have a chance to go to the Summer Olympics. Jiro is very excited because Tom has tickets for some of the soccer games at the Olympics. Tom also told Jiro there are many famous tourist spots to see in Atlanta. Jiro is very glad that he can visit those places with Tom. He can't wait for his summer vacation to start.

Card C:

Ken is interested in space travel. He often watches news about it on TV, and reads books and magazines, too. Last week he watched a special program on TV. It was about a Japanese scientist on the space shuttle. In the program, he was communicating with American space scientists in English. Speaking English is as important as studying science, Ken thought. So he decided to study English very hard. Now he is planning to visit the space center in Florida. In the future, he wants to become a space scientist and fly on the space shuttle.

Card D:

Hiroko lives in Kyoto and goes to school by bus and train. One morning, an American woman got on the bus. She was looking at a map. She looked nervous. Hiroko was not good at English, but wanted to help her. So she said to the woman, "Can I help you?" The woman asked, "Does this bus go to Kyoto Station?" "Yes, it does. I'm going there,too," said Hiroko. They went to the station together and Hiroko took her to a ticket machine. The woman thanked Hiroko for her help. Hiroko felt very happy.

3.Pre-STEP 2, STEP 2 Interview Cards, Spring 1996

Pre-STEP 2:

In the eighth century B.C. the first Olympic Games were held in ancient Greece. These games took place regularly until 394 A.D. However, many years passed until the next games were held. In the nineteenth century, a Frenchman started a movement to begin the Olympics again, and the first modern Olympics took place in 1896. The Frenchman said, "The most important thing in the Olympics is not to win but to take part. In life too, the most important thing is not the victory but the struggle." The modern Olympics continue to symbolize the friendship of all people through sport, and they will have their one hundredth anniversary this year in Atlanta.

STEP 2 Interview Card:

Some people are uncomfortable with silence. Silence is often seen by them as an awkward gap in the conversation. This gap is considered a sign that people are not getting along or are not interested in each other. For other people, however, silence often has a positive meaning. To them, silence shows that people

are comfortable with each other and do not need to talk. Thus, those who talk continuously in order to avoid gaps may seem overly talkative to others. When communicating, deciding not only what to say but deciding when to speak is very important. This can lead to effective communication. Like an artist, one must know what part to "paint" and what part to leave "blank" for better understanding.

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