

**A Japanese Lower Secondary School
English Learner Corpus and its
Applications**

**A thesis submitted to the English Department of Daito
Bunka University in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in
English Linguistics**

Kunihiko Miura

Daito Bunka University

2017

Acknowledgements

I became a lower secondary school English teacher 22 years ago. I have been blessed with many helpful colleagues and receptive students over this period. Moreover, I am now well into my second decade of my acquaintance with Corpus Linguistics, an encounter which changed not only my attitude toward learning English but also my teaching approach.

Before acquiring my present university teaching position, I was both a Japanese teacher of English at the Affiliated Secondary School of the Faculty of Education of the University of Tokyo and a devotee of education theory and research. My students were aged from 13 to 15 years, i.e. from the first year of the lower secondary school level to the third year of the lower secondary school level. Typically, I taught the same student cohort for a three-year period, beginning with their first year of study and continuing to their third year. This had the effect of providing an excellent opportunity to use material gathered from these students not only to build a learner corpus with but to also put into practice the insights gained from this corpus to improve my teaching methodology for the many talented young students I had the pleasure to teach I have so far had the consistent good fortune of encountering the secondary and tertiary educational levels. My hope is that the positive influence Corpus Linguistics has had on me as an English teacher has been equally as positive for my students.

This PhD research has its genesis in studies I did under the supervision of Prof. Shunji Yamazaki of Daito Bunka University, Katsuhiko Osa, the previous research

director of the Association of Tokyo Metropolitan Secondary Teachers of English, Professor John Nuttall of the University of Exeter, and Dr. Alexandrine Don of the University of Birmingham.

However, this PhD research is neither limited in scope to corpus linguistics studies nor is its purpose purely academic in nature. Rather, it was my hope this PhD research would help Japanese teachers of English, and non-Japanese scholars for whom a book of this nature might be of use in gaining a better understanding of some of the issues currently affecting lower secondary English education in Japan. In the process, I would also hope that reader awareness, whether inside Japan or elsewhere, would be heightened as to how learner corpora and corpus linguistics can, no matter what the level, become powerful tools in learning language.

To the staff of the Centre of English Language Studies at the University of Birmingham, the staff of the English Language Centre of the University of Exeter, to Professor Nuttall, Dr. Don, and Professor Yamazaki for their academic guidance and to my wife and son for their unstinting love and support, to all these people, but especially to my wife, I would, with gratitude, like to dedicate this PhD dissertation.

Abstract

The aim of this PhD research is to investigate how Japanese EFL learners could output English in writing while learning it through English in English classes for three years from first year to third year of a lower secondary school. The teaching these learners received in English involved the implementation of the use of Teacher Talk classified for the most part into four areas with 30 functions. Every English class had as its aim a student-centered lesson in which there were such activities as pair work and group work for the sake of collaborative learning. In the course of this research, a learner corpus was built, based on a writing task lasting 20 minutes at the end of each year carried out without the use of a dictionary. In addition, it was annotated according to part of speech tags (POS tags) using CLAWS 7 (the Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System: Rayson & Roger 1998) for analyzing in detail parts of speech such as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, conjunctions and prepositions. Moreover, this research used a new tag set developed specifically for this corpus in order to analyze the raw data in a much more detailed fashion than would have been possible only using CLAWS 7, especially when focusing on adjectives, adverbs, verbs and prepositions. The analysis of this learner corpus was carried out through multiple analyses, including quantitative analyses, qualitative analyses and content analyses. This longitudinal-research investigates Japanese EFL Learner's developmental language use over three years.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents	1
1. Introduction	1
2. Literature review	9
2.1. Introduction	10
2.2. What is a Learner Corpus?	10
2.3. Important elements of Learner Corpora design	12
2.4. Trends in Learner Corpus research	13
2.5. Previous research of Learner Corpora	14
3. Research purposes	18
4. Methodology	19
4.1. Data Collection	19
4.2. Construction of the Learner Corpora	20
4.3. Analyzing of the Learner Corpora	21
5. Results: First Year	23
5.1. Learner Corpus Size	23
5.2. Word frequency list	23
5.3. Analysis of POS usage	26
5.3.1. Verbs	26
5.3.2. Nouns	27

5.3.3. Adjectives	28
5.3.4. Adverbs	29
5.3.5. Prepositions	31
5.3.6. Conjunctions	31
5.4. Analysis of learner collocation patterns	33
5.5. Chi-squared test	35
5.6. Detailed analysis of Verbs in detail	37
5.6. 1. Frequency list of verbs	37
5.6. 2. Data analysis: be verbs <i>am, is, are</i>	40
5.6.2.1 be verb: <i>am</i>	41
5.6.2.2. be verb: <i>is</i>	43
5.6.2.3. be verb: <i>are</i>	46
5.6. 3. Data analysis: auxiliary verbs <i>do, does, did</i>	48
5.6.3.1. Auxiliary verb: <i>do</i>	48
5.6.3.2. Auxiliary verb: <i>does</i>	52
5.6.3.3. Auxiliary verb: <i>did</i>	57
5.6. 4. Data analysis: modal auxiliary verbs <i>can, will</i>	61
5.6.4.1. Modal auxiliary verb: <i>can</i>	61
5.6.4.2. Modal auxiliary verb: <i>will</i>	67
5.7. Focus on collocation patterns of past tense of be verbs and some lexical verbs	69

5.7. 1. Past tense of Be verbs <i>was, were</i>	69
5.7. 2. Lexical verb: <i>playing</i>	70
5.7. 3. Lexical verb: <i>have</i>	73
5.7. 4. Lexical verb: <i>get</i>	75
6. Results: Second Year	78
6.1. Second year Learner Corpus Size	78
6.2. Wordlist of the second year learner corpus.....	79
6.2.1. Wordlist of the second year learner corpus	79
6.2.2. Investigating keywords.....	83
6.3. Overview of vocabulary usage in different parts of speech	84
6.3.1. Comparing noun wordlists.....	84
6.3.2. Comparing verb wordlists	85
6.3.2.1. future tense	87
6.3.2.2. S + V+ that clause.....	87
6.3.2.3. gerund.....	87
6.3.2.4. as auxiliary verb	88
6.3.2.5. as past participle.....	88
6.3.2.6. as past be-verb	89
6.3.2.7. as past regular verb	89
6.3.2.8. as past irregular verb.....	89
6.3.2.9. as be going to form.....	90

6.3.2.10. as “S + V + C” sentence	90
6.3.3. Comparing preposition wordlists	91
6.3.4. Comparing conjunction wordlists	92
6.3.5. Comparing adjective wordlists.....	94
6.3.5.1. as a comparative and superlative.....	94
6.3.5.2. as expressing feeling.....	94
6.3.6. Comparing adverb wordlists	94
6.4. Analysis of adjectives and adverbs to create a new tag set	96
6.5. Wordlist of verbs in the second year Learner Corpus	98
6.5.1. Making a wordlist of verbs	98
6.5.2. Wordlist of verbs	99
6.5.3. Overview of the 100 most frequent verbs	99
6.5.4. Comparing the 10 most frequent verbs in the 1st year learner corpus and the second year learner corpus	100
6.5.5. The 5 most frequent verbs in the second year learner corpus	101
6.5.5.1. Ranking 1 st : <i>is</i>	101
6.5.5.2. Ranking 2 nd : <i>do</i>	102
6.5.5.3. Ranking 3 rd : <i>'m</i>	106
6.5.5.4. Ranking 4 th & 5 th	107
6.6. Examining developmental verb usages	109

6.6.1. Usage of that-clause (Ranking 25th : <i>think</i>)	109
6.6.2. Usage of present and past passive voice (Ranking 26th : <i>spoken</i> , 53rd : <i>seen</i> , 543th : <i>used</i> , 89th, <i>made</i>)	110
6.6.3. Usage of S + V + O + C (Ranking 28th : <i>tell</i> , 29th : <i>call</i>)	113
6.6.4. Usage of -ing participle (Ranking 35th : <i>playing</i> , 43th : <i>watching</i> , 46th : <i>listening</i> , 67th : <i>reading</i> , 79th : <i>working</i> , 82nd : <i>eating</i>)	114
6.6.4.1 Ranking 35: <i>playing</i>	115
6.6.4.2 Ranking 43 rd : <i>watching</i>	115
6.6.4.3 Ranking 47 th : <i>listening</i>	117
6.6.4.4 Ranking 67 th : <i>reading</i>	118
6.6.4.5 Ranking 79 th : <i>working</i>	118
6.6.4.6 Ranking 82 nd : <i>eating</i>	119
6.6.5. Usage of the lexical verb <i>want</i> (Ranking 22nd)	120
6.6.6. Usage of a past participle <i>been</i> (Ranking 56th)	121
6.7. Preposition use in the second year learner corpus	122
6.7.1. Preposition frequency list using CLAWS 7	122
6.7.2. Preposition frequency list using the new tag set	123
6.7.3. Analysis of prepositions through n-gram analysis, concordance analysis and the new tag set analysis	125
6.7.3.1. <i>in</i>	125
6.7.3.2. <i>to</i>	127
6.7.3.3. <i>about</i>	131

6.7.3.4. of	134
6.7.3.5. at	136
6.8. Error Analysis of the 10 most frequent prepositions	139
6.8.1. Error analysis concerning “in” ranked first in 10 most frequent Prepositions	139
6.8.2. Error analysis concerning “to” ranked second in 10 most frequent Prepositions	140
6.8.3. Error analysis concerning “about” ranked third in 10 most frequent Prepositions	141
6.8.4. Error analysis concerning “of” ranked 4 th in 10 most frequent Prepositions	141
6.8.5. Error analysis concerning “at” ranked 5 th in 10 most frequent Prepositions	141
6.8.6. Error analysis concerning “from” ranked 6 th in 10 most frequent Prepositions	142
6.8.7. Error analysis concerning “by” ranked 7 th in 10 most frequent Prepositions	142
6.8.8. Error analysis concerning “on” ranked 8 th in 10 most frequent Prepositions	143
6.8.9. Error analysis concerning “with” ranked 9 th in 10 most frequent Prepositions	143

6.8.10 Error analysis concerning “for” ranked 10 th in 10 most frequent Prepositions	144
7. Results: Third Year.....	145
7.1. Third year Learner Corpus Size	145
7.2. Wordlist of the third year Learner Corpus	146
7.2.1. Initial wordlist of the third year Learner Corpus	146
7.2.2. Investigating third year Learner Corpus keywords	152
7.2.2.1. keywords influenced of main grammar structures	153
7.2.2.2. keywords as pronoun, articles and a single determiner	154
7.3. Overview the vocabulary usage in different parts of speech	155
7.3.1. Comparing noun word lists	155
7.3.2. Comparing verb word lists	158
7.3.2.1. present perfect.....	159
7.3.2.2. a variety of sentence usages concerning present tense verbs	160
7.3.2.3 a variety of noun phrase usages concerning past verbs	160
7.3.2.4 a variety of verb usages after “be going to” form.....	161
7.3.3 comparing preposition wordlists	161
7.3.4 comparing conjunction wordlists	162
7.3.5 comparing adjective wordlists.....	164
7.3.6 comparing adverb wordlists	167
7.4. Analysis of adjectives and adverbs using the new tag set	169
7.4.1 Analysis of adjective uses based on the new tag set.....	169
7.4.2 Analysis of adverb uses based on the new tag set.....	171

7.5. Wordlist of Verbs in third year Learner Corpus	173
7.5.1 Making the wordlist of verbs	173
7.5.2. A wordlist of verbs	174
7.5.3. An Overview of the 100 most frequent verbs	174
7.5.4. Comparing the 10 most frequent verbs in the second year Learner Corpus and the third year Learner corpora	175
7.5.5. The five most frequent third year Learner Corpus verbs	177
7.5.5.1. Ranking 1 st : <i>is</i>	177
7.5.5.2. Ranking 2 nd : <i>do</i>	178
7.5.5.3. Ranking 3 rd : <i>'m</i>	179
7.5.5.4. Ranking 4 th : <i>have</i>	180
7.5.5.5. Ranking 5 th : <i>are</i>	181
7.6. Characteristics third year learner corpus verb usage	182
7.6.1 Clarifying learner's developmental language use from the usage of to-infinitive as a key collocation	182
7.6.2. Clarifying learners' developmental language use of the present participle	184
7.6.3. Clarifying learners' development in usage of the past participle	184
7.6.4. Clarifying learners' development in usage of relative pronouns	185
7.7. Content analysis focusing on usage of verbs and nouns	186
7.8. Preposition use in the third year Learner Corpus	188
7.8.1. Preposition frequency list using CLAWS 7	189

7.8.2. Preposition frequency list using by means of the new tag set	190
7.8.3. Analyses of prepositions through n-gram analysis, concordance analysis and a new tag set analysis.....	192
7.8.3.1. in	193
7.8.3.2. to	196
7.8.3.3. of.....	200
7.8.3.4. about	205
7.8.3.5. by	208
7.9. Error analysis of the 10 most frequent prepositions	212
7.9.1. Error analysis concerning “in”	212
7.9.2. Error analysis concerning “to”	213
7.9.3. Error analysis concerning “of”	213
7.9.4. Error analysis concerning “about”	213
7.9.5. Error analysis concerning “by”	214
7.9.6. Error analysis concerning “for”	214
7.9.7. Error analysis concerning “at”	214
7.9.8. Error analysis concerning “with”	215
7.9.9. Error analysis concerning “on”	215
7.9.10. Error analysis concerning “from”	216
8.Applications	217

8.1. Corpus-Based Grammar Teaching	217
8.2. Introducing two Consciousness-Raising activities.....	226
8.3. Corpus based vocabulary teaching	235
8.4. Textbook page sample and related Issues	241
8.5. Pair work and Related Issues.....	249
8.6. Teacher Talk	260
8.7. On increasing student talk use	270
8.8. On using the Sinclair and Coulthard model.....	280
9. Conclusions	291
9.1. The Present Situation.....	291
9.2. Future English teacher training issues	294
9.3. Research limitations	310
9.4. Research implications	312
Appendix I. Teacher Talk and Student Talk Analysis	319
Appendix II. New Tag Sets	339
1. Adjectives & Adverbs	339
2. Verbs.....	340
3. Prepositions	352
References.....	355

1. Introduction

The aim of this PhD dissertation is to investigate Japanese EFL learner development regarding parts of speech, especially focusing on adjectives, verbs and prepositions, over three years. First- and third-year junior high school students from the Secondary School of the Faculty of Education of the University of Tokyo participated in this study. Daily English classes were based on teaching through English, using 30 functions of Teacher Talk in four areas and by doing Pair Work and Group Work as learner centered classes. A learner corpus was built by collecting written data from a writing assignment at the end of every year. This PhD research investigates developmental parts of speech such as adjectives, verbs and prepositions by multiple analyses using quantitative analysis, qualitative analysis and content analysis techniques.

This thesis consists of nine chapters. Chapter 1 is meant to provide a general introduction to the dissertation. Chapter 2 is a literature review, reviewing previous studies concerning learner corpora and focusing on Japanese EFL learner corpus studies in lower secondary schools in Japan and overviewing tendencies of learner corpus studies in the world. Chapter 3 concerns the research purpose of this work, discussing the three research questions which are being considered. Chapter 4 concerns the methodology, explaining how the learner corpus was collected and how it was analyzed through quantitative and qualitative analyses of collocations and concordance lines, and a co-occurrence network analysis of data mining methods.

Chapter 5 provides a more detailed introduction than previous chapters. It deals with the results obtained from the corpus generated by first year lower secondary school students, discussing corpus size, showing word frequency lists, and giving an overview of the most frequent verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions. Especially, it focuses on the most frequent adjective + noun collocation patterns and bigrams. In addition, it mainly focuses on analyzing verbs and discusses the most frequent 50 verbs. Moreover, it takes particular note of the following verbs, the verb of forms *be* (*am, is, are*), auxiliary verbs (*do, does, did*), modal verbs (*can, will*) and undertakes a detailed analysis through n-gram analysis of the following the past tense of *be* verb (*was, were*) and lexical verbs (*playing, have, get*). Moreover, it focuses on prepositions and discusses the usage of prepositions, using new detailed tag sets which are not listed in CLAWS 7 for a Japanese lower secondary school first year learner corpus. It shows some distinctive trends of preposition use of certain elementary Japanese EFL learners by utilizing information acquired from new tag sets for prepositions. Especially, the new tag sets for prepositions which were classified by an analysis of concordance lines might prove to be a valuable guide for getting to know more about a Japanese EFL learner's language acquisition of prepositions through a process of gradual change. For this purpose, it focuses on prepositions' collocation patterns through n-gram analysis, idiom and phrasal verbs preposition use, preposition error analysis and shows incorrect tags which were annotated mistakenly as infinitives but which were shown in the same tag sets for the preposition *to* in the CLAWS 7 tag sets.

Chapter 6 is, in a sense, a continuation of Chapter 5. It deals with the results of a lower secondary school second-year student generated corpus. It also tries to compare lists of the highest frequency nouns, verbs, prepositions and conjunctions to compare with the highest frequency lists of the first-year learner corpus to find what differences we can see. It especially focuses analysis of the frequency list of adjectives and adverbs in the second-year learner corpus and tries to examine the bigram analysis of adjectives and adverbs to compare with the bigram usages of adjectives and adverbs in the first-year learner corpus to judge whether we can see some developmental usages in bigram patterns or not. In addition, it shows a wordlist of verbs in the second-year learner corpus and also reviews the 100 most frequent verbs in the second-year learner corpus and examines the features of verb usage. Next, it focuses on the 10 most frequent verbs of these second-year students and compares them with the 10 most frequent verbs of the first-year learner corpus to find what features can be seen. Moreover, it makes an analysis of a word list of verbs and does an n-gram analysis and concordance analysis of the second-year learner corpus to find whether developmental usages of verbs can be seen or not. Furthermore, it introduces a new tag set of verbs and tries to examine verb usage more deeply by a new tag set. It also focuses on preposition use of second-year learners of a Japanese lower secondary school through analyzing collocation use (such as bigram). Moreover, it aims at a deeper and clearer understanding of the language acquisition of preposition use by means of concordance analysis in addition to error analysis. In particular, it makes use of a new tag set of prepositions to do a more detailed analysis than is possible with the CLAWS 7 tag set. It compares the resulting ratio of preposition use of second year learner based on the CLAWS 7 tag set with

comparable ratios of preposition use based on the new tag set. It focuses on the 10 most frequent prepositions, such as *in*, *to*, *about*, *of*, *at*, *from*, *by*, *on*, *with* and *for*. It shows collocation patterns through n-gram analysis which, in addition, deepens understanding of language use concerning prepositions through doing concordance analysis. Furthermore, it also shows the ratio of prepositions based on a new tag set to give a more detailed knowledge of preposition use than the CLAWS 7 tag set can provide. Lastly, it shows the result of error analysis of prepositions of the concordances according to the new tag set which examines in more detail learner error patterns. It discusses how we can see developmental preposition use by comparing with the results of the first-year learner corpus and second year learner corpus. It tries to deepen knowledge of preposition use of second-year learners by focusing on the 10 most frequent prepositions, by focusing on collocation patterns, by widening the coverage of the concordances to know developmental language use and by comparing and examining how second year learners get to know developmental preposition use over their first two years of studying English. Following these steps, we can gradually see that the results of the analysis of the 10 most frequent prepositions in this second-year learner corpus include very important elements to understand how second-year learners develop language use of prepositions. Chapter 7 is the result chapter for the third year. It focuses on a word frequency list that includes all POS (part of speech) tags in the third-year learner corpus and makes a comparison with the second-year learner corpus to make an overview of vocabulary usage. Second, it also tries to compare the highest frequency lists of nouns, verbs, prepositions and conjunctions with those of the second-year learner corpus to look for differences. Third, it special focuses on doing an

analysis of adjectives and adverbs in the third-year learner corpus, for which it employs a bigram analysis of adjectives and adverbs to compare them with the bigram usages of adjectives and adverbs in the second-year learner corpus to identify possible developmental usages through bigram analysis. In addition, it examines a wordlist of verbs in the third-year learner corpus and, reviewing the 100 most frequent verbs, it examines the features of verb usage. From this step, it then goes on to focus on the 10 most frequent verbs and to compare them with a similar verb list taken from the second-year learner corpus to identify possible features. In addition, verbs analyzed through n-gram analysis and concordance analysis of the third-year learner corpus to see whether developmental usages of verbs can be found or not. As with other chapters, a new tag set of verbs is used which tries to further deepen the examination of verb usage.

Focus is then placed on the preposition use of third-year learners and a similar analysis undertaken including bigram collocation analysis and error analysis. As with other analyses, use is made of the new tag set of prepositions for a more detailed analysis than would be possible with the CLAWS 7 tag set, although it shows the ratio of preposition use of third-year learners based on the CLAWS 7 tag set to get general information concerning preposition use, before making a comparison with the ratio of preposition use based on the new tag set. It also focuses on the 10 most frequent prepositions, *in*, *to*, *of*, *about*, *by*, *for*, *at*, *with*, *on* and *from*. It, furthermore, shows collocation patterns through n-gram analysis and concordance analysis. The results show the ratio of prepositions based on the new tag set with more detail of preposition

use than is encoded by the CLAWS 7 tag set. Additionally, the results of error analysis of prepositions show in more detail learner error patterns.

Chapter 7, thus, discusses how we can see developmental preposition use, by making a comparison of the results of the second-year learner corpus with the third year learner corpus. It aims to deepen preposition use knowledge of third-year learners by focusing on the 10 most frequent prepositions, focusing on collocation patterns, widening the analytical structure of the concordances to acquire a knowledge of developmental language use and to examine how third-year learners develop their preposition use over their first two years of language acquisition. By taking these steps, we can see that the 10 most frequent prepositions in the third-year learner corpus include very important elements for understanding how third-year learners develop their language use of prepositions.

Chapter 8 concerns itself with applications, and is divided into the following subsections. Subsection 8.1 is about corpus-based grammar teaching. It suggests that a Consciousness-Raising (C-R) approach would be beneficial, especially when using corpus data as a means of data driven learning from a different angle for learners.

Subsection 8.2 shows examples of the C-R activities in actual English classes for the purpose of teaching a new grammar structure by implementing data driven learning with the use of corpus data.

Subsection 8.3 concerns itself with corpus-based vocabulary teaching. It suggests that through using corpora such as textbook corpora, CobuildDirect, British National

Corpus or COLT (The Bergen Corpus of London Teenager English), it would be possible to introduce the real language use of native speakers, something which would not only be beneficial for teachers but could also be used as a means for learners to widen their knowledge of vocabulary usage.

Subsection 8.4 is about textbook page samples and related issues. It illustrates grammar points concerning the auxiliary verbs *will* and *be going to* that appear in the English textbooks of second year of lower secondary schools in Japan and also suggests it would be possible to do a corpus-based approach as a data driven learning activity in order to learn a new grammar rule through the use of a concordance. It also suggests that using a corpus such as CobuildDirect for second-year students is an effective vocabulary teaching and learning methodology for teaching to-infinitive expressions such as “*I want to be a + noun*”.

Subsection 8.5 concerns itself with pair work and related issues. It shows the result of a learner questionnaire about conversation topics in their daily lives which was created to make a worksheet for pair work and group work in order to increase student talk in English. It introduces how to do these activities with learners of English by using some expressions such as linking words and requesting repetitions.

Subsection 8.6 is about teacher talk. It discusses teacher talk in terms of a list of 30 language functions organized in four areas. An analysis of teacher talk in an actual English class in Japan and an analysis result of teacher talk of a British language school

teacher in her English class for elementary learners of English for French students are covered.

Subsection 8.7 deals with increasing student talk use. It shows that barriers for increasing student talk use exist. It also considers certain aspects of teachers and learners and makes suggestions as to how to go about increasing student talk use in daily English classes.

Subsection 8.8 is concerned with the use of the Sinclair and Coulthard model. It gives an analysis of the results of discourse analysis based on Sinclair and Coulthard 'IRF' model (1975) in an actual English class in Japan and suggests that the I-R-F model could serve a useful role in giving teachers a diagnostic tool for self-use when thinking of new and different angles to initiate language use in the classroom.

The dissertation ends with Chapter 9, its conclusion, which is also divided into subsections. The first of these, subsection 9.1, deals with the present situation. In this subsection, certain MEXT requirements are brought up for consideration concerning what English teachers are expected to do in their daily English classes. This includes teaching English through English and making use of active learning. It also outlines certain difficulties encountered by teachers and learners.

In subsection 9.2, the future of English teacher training is discussed. Based on the current teacher training expectations of MEXT, it proposes the adoption of corpus-based teaching in the daily English classes of lower secondary schools in Japan.

In subsection 9.3., the topic of research limitations is touched upon and the general lack of empirical research being done on English education is discussed, especially as it focuses on lower-level secondary schools and upper-level secondary schools, not only in Japan but also generally throughout the world. It suggests the need for sharing opportunities to encourage the use of corpus-based approaches to more effectively teach English classes on a day-to-day basis and to stimulate empirical research on learner developmental language use.

The dissertation then finishes with subsection 9.4., in which research implications are discussed. Particularly, the development of corpus-based textbooks and other teaching and learning materials is encouraged.

2. Literature review

2.1. Introduction

This literature review will examine some important elements of learner corpus research such as the definition of learner corpora and what it takes to implement learner corpus research. In addition, it will also overview some trends of learner corpus research in the world and in Japan. Furthermore, it will explore previous learner corpora research.

2.2. What is a learner corpus?

With the development of computer technology, many different types of corpora than before could be created with increasing ease. Recently, a gradual increase in learner corpus research may be found in the corpus linguistics field. First, however, we will trace the history of the definition of “corpus” in English from the 15th to the 20th century. “Corpus” is originally derived from the Latin word for “body.” According to Araki, K. (2009) introduced about the conception of Corpus and its history, to show the OED second edition (1989), we can see the first definition of the word “corpus” shown as “The body of a man or animal. Formerly frequent, now only humorous or grotesque”, the third definition is “A body or complete collection of writing or the like, the whole body of literature on any subject”. It then goes on to say in definition 3-b that it is “The body of written or spoken material upon which a linguistic analysis is based.” We can,

thus, see that from the 15th century to the 20th that the definition has changed from “body” in the 15th century to “the whole of body of literature” in the 18th and that it further changed from “the body of written or spoken materials upon which a linguistic analysis is based” in the 20th century. Now, it is normally thought of as a meaningful set of machine readable data, for which computer analysis is possible.

Having just considered the meaning of a corpus, let’s examine the definition of a learner corpus. What, then, is a learner corpus? Granger (2002: 5) defines learner corpora as ‘electronic collocations of authentic FL/SA textual data according to explicit design criteria for a particular SLA/FLT purpose.’ According to Nesselhauf’s (2004: 125) definition, they are ‘systematic computerized collections of text produced by language learner and McEney et al. (2006: 5) defines a learner corpus as a ‘collection of machine-readable authentic texts (including transcripts of spoken data) which is sampled to be representative of a particular language or language variety.’ From these definitions of learner corpora, we can see that it is a specific machine readable collection produced by learners and it is also designed for SLA research. Here, we notice that two types of learner corpora are possible, being written corpora and spoken corpora, of which, Granger et al. mention (2015: 12) that the first learner corpora, which started to be collected in the late 1980s, were of the written type and also point out that written learner corpora are over twice as common according to the list of ‘Learner Corpora around the world’ (LCW) compiled by the University of Louvain.

2.3. Important elements of Learner Corpora design

Concerning learner corpora, the naturalness has been the subject of debate. Granger (2015: 6) points out that learner corpora are not natural texts because of the limiting number of functions in the classroom context. Gilquin and Gries (2009: 6) mention that ‘learner corpora may display varying degrees of naturalness, even when collected within the context of the school/university, from the more natural to the more constrained, through the semi-natural case of essay writing, a pedagogical task that is natural in the context of the language learning classroom.’ In connection with this point, Granger (2015: 16) mentions one can distinguish between the collection of the data in an educational setting (at school/university) and in a natural setting (outside of school/university) and also points out that foreign languages can sometimes also be used outside the educational setting, for example when a learner writes a letter or an email to a pen friend at home. In view of this, the data collection and setting of the writing assignment for this research was carefully designed to encourage natural language though the collection was done in an educational setting.

Granger (2015: 14) mentions that most learner corpora are made up of cross-sectional data from one or more periods of time. On the other hand, it shows longitudinal corpora that seek to gather learner output produced at different stages in their development. In addition, we can see the merits of the longitudinal corpora and the difficulties found in their production, with the merits being that it possible to investigate learner progress over time and the difficulties being that they are difficult to compile. This thesis is designed as a longitudinal research of developmental learner usages of

nouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, conjunctions and prepositions of a particular learner cohort over three year period, beginning with the first year of lower secondary school and ending with the third year. The longitudinal basis of the research gives it value. Furthermore, it has significant research value in that it focuses on learners who are lower secondary school students, whereas most other learner corpus research focuses on collecting, creating, and analyzing university student level corpora.

2.4. Trends in Learner Corpus research

Learner corpus research trends should now be touched upon. Nesselhauf (2004) observed that the majority of learner corpora (at that time of writing) were made up of university student essays, due to the fact that they could easily be acquired by university researchers and were, in many cases, already digitized. Additionally, annotation is generally recognized as a very important element for enabling detailed analysis of learner development language use. Diaz-Negrillo et al. (2013: 13) mention that learner corpora have a much greater research value if specific language properties have been previously identified and signaled in the corpus, that is, if the corpora have been annotated.

The learner corpus in this PhD research was initially annotated by CLAWS 7 (the Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System). However, in the research undertaken for this thesis, a new tag set for adjectives, adverbs, verbs and prepositions

is used to do a much more detailed analysis to examine learner developmental language usage than could have been achieved by CLAWS 7.

2.5. Previous research on Learner Corpora

Having found that most of learner corpus research is focused on academic essays because of the ease of collecting digitized data, it can also be said that most learner corpus research has been carried out using L1 mega corpora such as BNC or LOCNESS, CLC, ICLE and JEFLL. One such researcher, Kobayashi (2005), focuses on the lexical collocations of the verb “have” with noun combinations to compare a corpus of Japanese learners in ICLE (International Corpus of Learner English) with a sample of native writer corpus in LOCNESS (Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays).

Siyanova and Schmitt (2008) focus on adjective-noun collocations which were extracted from 31 essays written by Russian learners of English. They point out that half of these collocations appeared frequently in the British National Corpus (BNC) and 45% of all learner collocations were appropriate collocations. However, they report that the fluency with which collocations appear even for advanced learners does not seem to match that of native speakers.

Another researcher, Kimura (2014), investigates the effectiveness of POS tag sequences in studying Japanese EFL learner syntactic development and the distinctive

features among learner groups of different proficiency levels as measured by the SST (Standard Speaking Test).

Antle (2014) has examined the following two lists such as Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List (AWL) and Shin and Nation's (2008) Collocation List for Spoken English. He suggests a new list of 150 frequent adjective + noun collocations for intermediate level English language learners.

Kochmar and Briscoe (2015) use three datasets of learner errors in adjective-noun combinations from the Cambridge Learner Corpus (CLC) to use learner data to improve error correction in adjective-noun combinations in learner writing. They show how error patterns can be used to improve performance with regard to the error correction system.

Pereira and Matsumoto (2015) suggest using a web-based and corpus-based collocational aid for helping JSL learners gain knowledge concerning noun-verb constructions.

From the above-mentioned learner corpus research papers based on academic level learners, academic learner corpus research may be categorized as (1) collocation studies such as adjective + noun, verb + noun, based on POS tag studies, (2) word service lists and (3) aids for helping EFL learner error corrections.

Next, we will review current learner corpus research focused on Japanese EFL learners at the lower secondary school and senior high schools levels. There is little

research focused on elementary learners of English and concerned with longitudinal research either domestically or internationally. Here will be shown some previous learner corpus research focused on junior high school learners, high school learners and technical college learners. In relation to learner corpus research for Japanese EFL learners, a quite valuable learner corpus was constructed by Tono (2004), who built English corpus of 10,000 Japanese junior high and high school students and examined active vocabulary, main grammar structures, different POS (part of speech) and performed an error analysis.

As a learner corpus research of Japanese EFL learners at junior high schools, Sato (2008) examined verb use of written corpora in 4 different topics of Japanese junior high school learners. He mentioned that the usage of learner vocabulary is very limited, the 100 most frequent words in each topic covers more than 70% of the word tokens used.

In a study of junior high school students and high school students, Nomura (2009) analyzed the written data of Japanese junior high school learners and high school learners to focus on distinctive differences in different productive modes. She pointed out that the mode got complicated with the sentence structures concerning that-clauses, if-clauses and the to-infinitive.

As a study of students of a high school and a technical college, Kashiwagi (2010) investigated the verb use of written corpora to compare Japanese EFL Learners with LOCNESS. He found distinctive features of Japanese EFL Learners concerning the

usage of the be-verb. He reported the overuse of forms such as *am, is was, were* and the underuse of *be, been* and *being*. He did not observe to-infinitive, auxiliary verbs and participles.

From above the previous published studies of Japanese EFL learner corpora, it seems that most previous studies have mostly been used by academic researchers rather than the English teachers who instruct these learners directly. In this point, this corpus-driven PhD study using will be of value in verifying the effect of teaching English through English as an English teacher and as a learner corpus researcher. Analyses of collocations and concordance lines revealed the distinctive features of the developmental use of different part of speech such as adjectives, adverbs, verbs and prepositions. Furthermore, a co-occurrence network analysis of data mining methods enabled us to clearly understand the content of students' writing by examining the relationship verbs and nouns.

3. Research Purposes

The aim of this PhD research is to investigate Japanese EFL learner development in the use of adjectives, adverbs verbs and prepositions use through multiple quantitative analyses, qualitative analysis and a co-occurrence network analysis of data-mining methods.

Research Question 1. Can quantitative changes in lower secondary school EFL learner use of parts of speech over the course of a three-year period be detected via analyses of collocations and concordance lines?

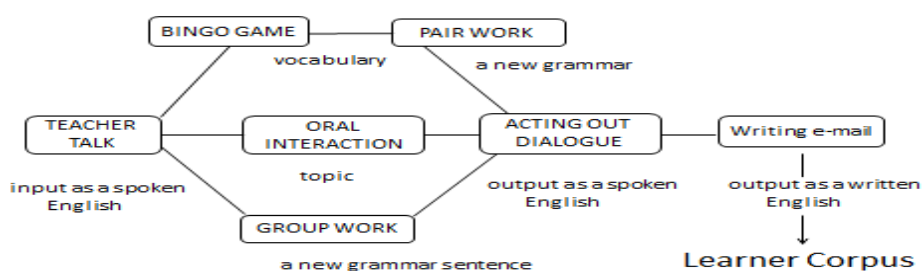
Research Question 2. Can any qualitative changes in lower secondary school EFL learner use of parts of speech over the course of a three-year period be detected via analyses of collocations and concordance lines?

Research Question 3. Can any differences in the use of verbs and nouns be detected with regard to the three corpora using a co-occurrence analysis of data mining methods?

4. Methodology

4.1. Data Collection

This learner corpus study is based on teaching English in English from first- to third-year junior high school students at the Secondary School of the Faculty of Education at the University of Tokyo. The procedure of daily English classes was based on using teacher talk in English and consisted of the following five English activities: bingo game, oral interaction, pair work, group work, and acting out dialogue. The daily English teaching procedures are displayed in Figure 1.



Teacher talk mainly consisted of the following four functions: (1) expressing and identifying intellectual attitudes, (2) expressing and identifying emotional attitudes, (3) getting things done, and (4) socializing. Each of these four functions were divided into 30 different, detailed functions defined by the English educational research members of Tokyo metropolitan junior high schools. Used as a warm-up activity, the bingo games served as listening and writing activities to increase the learner vocabulary knowledge based on the contents of their English textbook and the words chosen using the British

National Corpus (BNC) by analyzing the most frequently used words within specific parts of speech. Oral interaction was essentially used with teacher talk for four functions with 30 different for interacting with learners in English during English classes. Teacher talk was used in conjunction with ICT tools such as PowerPoint to present pictures and keywords related to specific English content. The aim of oral interaction was to increase learner English output through interactions between the teacher and students. Pair and group work served as a speaking activity in which the students worked in groups of two or four. The words included in the worksheets were chosen using the BNC to determine the most frequently used words and effective vocabulary learning lists for students. Acting out a dialogue served as a development activity for speaking English that gives students opportunities to use new sentence structures, useful expressions, and vocabulary they have learned from the BNC vocabulary list.

4.2. Construction of the learner corpora

Based on these daily English classes taught in English, the students completed a writing assignment entitled, 'My first email to my pen pal in another country' at the end of each year. The topic of the writing assignment was the same each year of the three-year study. The participants were 120 junior high school students (60 boys and 60 girls) attending the Secondary School of the Faculty of Education at the University of Tokyo. The students were given 20 minutes to complete the email without using a dictionary. The aim of using the same writing task each year was to investigate the

development of the students' different part of speech as follows: adjectives, adverbs, verbs and prepositions. After the emails were typed and saved as text files, they were annotated using the Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-Tagging System 7 (CLAWS 7). In this way, the data could be collected and a learner corpus was built over three years.

4.3. Analyzing of the Learner Corpora

Learner Corpus was analyzed by the following procedure for each year.

- (1) Calculation of corpus size
- (2) Making a wordlist
- (3) Overviewing the most frequent nouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs and prepositions
- (4) Extracting adjective + noun collocations
- (5) Extracting tokens of verb usage
- (6) Extracting tokens of preposition usage

In this research, a corpus analysis tool such as AntConc (Anthony: 2014) was used to analyze Learner Corpora. Concerning annotation, the originally text data of the

learner corpus was annotated using CLAWS 7, moreover a new tag set was used in relation to verbs and prepositions to examine in more detail learner developmental language use. To analyze the Learner Corpus, AntConc has multiple functions including the capability to make a word frequency list, generate its keyness, do n-gram analysis to examine distinctive features of collocation patterns and to do a more detailed analysis using concordances. Through doing quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis, distinctive learner developmental language use was clearly examined. Furthermore, the distinctive features of the content of learner writing in each year's corpus was researched according to content analysis. In the content analysis, verbs and nouns were focused on and the distinctive features of the content in learner writing in each year were found. This kind of longitudinal learner corpus research using multiple analyses to investigate developmental learner language should be of value due to its focus on an elementary level of English learner in a lower secondary school.

5. Results: First Year

5.1. Learner Corpus Size

In table 5.1.1, which follows, we see that the total raw Learner Corpus of the first-year student contributors consisted of 18,177 word tokens.

Table 5.1.1.

Raw Learner Corpus Size

	1st year learner corpus
Total number of word types	895
Total number of word tokens	18,177

5.2. Word frequency list

For the purpose of doing analysis on what words first-year students use in their writing and what kind of words are used the most, a word list was generated sorted by frequency and lemmatized. The following table 5.2.1 shows a word frequency list of the top 100 words.

Table 5.2.1.

100 Most Frequent Words. The number of frequency shows a raw frequency.

Rank	Frequency	word
1	1368	be
2	1322	i
3	821	you
4	537	my
5	523	do
6	370	like
7	323	to
8	314	a
9	300	name
10	300	play

(Table continues)

(Table continues)

Rank	Frequency	word
11	295	the
12	288	very
13	248	your
14	246	can
15	232	in
16	221	old
17	215	what
18	189	and
19	185	live
20	174	have
21	171	school
22	170	how
23	158	he
24	157	at
25	157	go
26	150	we
27	144	year
28	140	t
29	134	me
30	133	well
31	132	n
32	120	club
33	120	it
34	119	last
35	117	japanese
36	116	tokyo
37	110	she
38	109	tennis
39	101	this
40	99	hello
41	98	high
42	97	brother
43	96	japan
44	95	much
45	93	please
46	92	junior
47	92	student
48	91	sister
49	90	we
50	89	Monday
51	84	march
52	84	where
53	81	but
54	81	father
55	79	friend
56	72	good
57	71	belong
58	70	birthday
59	69	does
60	69	english

(Table continues)

(Table continued)

Rank	Frequency	word
61	69	of
62	68	enjoy
63	65	mother
64	64	get
65	64	music
57	71	belong
58	70	birthday
59	69	does
60	69	english
61	69	of
62	68	enjoy
63	65	mother
64	64	get
65	64	music
66	63	family
67	61	with
68	60	piano
69	58	basketball
70	58	yesterday
71	57	call
72	56	baseball
73	56	picture
74	55	soccer
75	52	winter
76	51	up
77	50	girl
78	50	look
79	49	clock
80	48	from
81	46	day
82	45	can
83	44	every
84	43	or
85	43	study
86	43	favorite
87	42	time
88	42	cook
89	41	know
90	41	so
91	41	by
92	40	class
93	39	rice
94	39	see
95	39	boy
96	38	ski
97	38	swim
98	38	watch
99	38	best
100	37	holiday

5.3. Analysis of POS usage

In table 5.2.1 above, certain features of learner word usage can be seen, but though incompletely. What words are used the most in each POS? With an annotated corpus it is possible to answer the question accurately, even though it involves a certain amount of human labor.

5.3.1. Verbs

Thus, the immediately following table 5.3.1 shows the top 20 most frequent verbs with the number of tokens as standardized at 10,000 words and their raw frequencies.

Table 5.3.1.

<i>20 Most Frequent</i>			<i>Verbs. Frequency standa</i>		
<i>Rank</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>R.F word</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>R.F word</i>
1	432.8787	be	11	16.04	29 enjoy
2	176.8321	do	12	20.88	38 belong
3	104.4190	like	13	12.41	23 know
4	86.86158	can	14	12.11	22 look
5	86.86158	play	15	7.26	13 write
6	51.1593	live	16	6.36	12 see
7	50.2491	have	17	6.36	12 want
8	43.2879	go	18	6.05	11 meet
9	19.9836	get	19	6.05	11 speak
10	17.25	31 call	20	4.54	8 swim

The top 10 most frequent verbs above may have been influenced by the topic of the tasks given. It is worth noting that seven of the ten top verbs in the BNC (British National Corpus) appear among the above top 20 verbs of the Learner Corpus and are as follows: *have, do, be, go, get, see* and *know*. By doing this kind of analysis, we can put

an empirical numeric value on certain features of word usage which we could not do by only focusing on our instincts.

5.3.2. Nouns

It would now be appropriate to take a look at the 20 most frequent nouns. Though, through long experience, teachers tend to already know pretty much what kinds of nouns to expect in student writing, a Learner Corpus analysis makes it possible to give an answer to this question which can be numerically justified. In the following table 5.3.2, the top 20 most frequent nouns are presented in the same way as was done with the top 20 most frequent verbs.

Table 5.3.2.
20 Most Frequent Nouns. Frequency standardized at 10,000 words.

Rank	Freq.	R.F.	word	Rank	Freq.	R.F.	word
1	164.49	299	name	11	37.41	68	sister
2	93.52	170	school	12	35.21	64	mother
3	63.82	116	club	13	34.66	63	music
4	63.82	116	Tokyo	14	34.11	62	family
5	59.97	109	tennis	15	33.56	61	friend
6	52.81	96	Japan	16	31.91	58	piano
7	49.51	90	student	17	30.81	56	baseball
8	43.46	79	father	18	30.81	56	basketball
9	38.51	70	birthday	19	30.26	55	soccer
10	37.96	69	brother	20	28.06	51	picture

From the above table 5.3.2, it can be seen that these words concern introducing oneself (*name, Tokyo, Japan, student* and *birthday*), school life (*school, club, tennis, friend, baseball, basketball* and *soccer*), family (*father, brother, sister, mother* and *family*), hobbies (*music, piano*) and the word picture (*picture*) which they need to use to show and introduce themselves, their family, their friends and places about them.

5.3.3. Adjectives

As for adjectives, the top 20 most frequent adjectives are as follows:

Table 5.3.3.

20 Most Frequent Adjectives. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words

R.	Freq.	R.F.	word	R.	Freq.	R.F.	word
1	121.58	221	old	11	13.2	24	little
2	62.17	113	japanese	12	12.65	23	fine
3	61.62	112	last	13	7.15	13	big
4	53.91	98	high	14	7.15	13	hard
5	50.61	92	junior	15	6.6	12	beautiful
6	36.31	66	good	16	6.05	11	difficult
7	23.11	42	favorite	17	6.05	11	new
8	22.01	40	nice	18	4.95	9	happy
9	19.81	36	many	19	4.95	9	twin
10	15.4	28	dear	20	3.85	7	american

Table 5.3.3, certain of the above adjectives (*old, high, Japanese, junior*) are concerned with self-introduction. One (*favorite*) is much used to describe things they like, and *dear* is used as a first line of a letter or an email message. However, it would seem to be informative and helpful to carry things further and to consider how certain of these adjectives are used with nouns. With the help of collocation analysis we can gain certain insights. For example, please refer to the following table 5.3.4. to see what nouns learners use after the adjective *favorite*.

Table 5.3.4.

Collocation of Nouns after favorite. Frequency stan

Rank	Freq.	R.F.	Word	Rank	Freq.	R.F.	Word
1	6.05	11	class	9	0.55	1	baseball
2	3.3	6	subject	10	0.55	1	basketball
3	2.75	5	singer	11	0.55	1	Disney
4	1.65	3	food	12	0.55	1	group
5	1.1	2	game	13	0.55	1	movie
6	1.1	2	player	14	0.55	1	soccer
7	1.1	2	sports	15	0.55	1	song
8	0.55	1	Actor	16	0.55	1	tennis

The above would indicate that learner favorite things are concerned with the categories of school, music, food, sports, movies and a certain theme park. Now, let's focus on the usage of nouns collocating with *beautiful* to find out what learners think of as beautiful things. From table 5.3.5 above, it can be seen that, though the frequency is low, a variety of nouns are used which would indicate various approaches which would not otherwise come to mind when focusing on developmental language use.

Table 5.3.5.
Collocation of nouns after beautiful. Frequency standardized at 10,000 words.

Ran	Freq.	R.F	Word
1	2.2		4 place
2	0.55		1 player
3	0.55		1 city
4	0.55		1 fish
5	0.55		1 japanese drama
6	0.55		1 sea

5.3.4. Adverbs

As for adverbs, it would seem that first-year students do not frequently use adverbs. Nevertheless, indications of adverbial usage do appear.

Table 5.3.6.
 20 Most Frequent Adverbs.
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	R.F.	word	Rank	Freq.	R.F.	word
1	126	126	well	11	0.55	1	almost
2	44	80	please	12	0.55	1	big
3	18.2	33	soon	13	0.55	1	deeply
4	14.9	27	too	14	0.55	1	easily
5	11.6	21	soon	15	1.1	2	also
6	33	6	hard	16	1.1	2	always
7	22	4	just	17	1.1	2	besides
8	22	4	much	18	1.1	2	either
9	1.65	3	fast	19	1.1	2	especially
10	1.65	3	early	20	1.1	2	soon

To illustrate what might be possible, it would be appropriate to focus on the most frequently appearing adverb *well* to see what collocations appear and how they might be analyzed. For this purpose, the following table 5.3.7 shows the collocation of *well* in the first year learner corpus.

Table 5.3.7.
 Collocation of *well*.
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	R.F.	Word
1	35.75	65	very
2	1.65	3	tennis
3	1.1	2	cook
4	1.1	2	swim
5	0.55	1	piano
6	0.55	1	ski

The above result shows a tendency that learners use the collocation *very well* the most in their writing. To a lesser extent, we can see nouns which are concerned with (*tennis*, *swim* and *ski*), cooking (*cook*) and a hobby (*piano*). Thus, we can become aware of some of the possibly distinct features of learner adverbial usage.

5.3.5. Prepositions

The most frequent prepositions are listed in table 5.3.8.

Table 5.3.8.
16 Most Frequent Prepositions.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	R.F.	word	R.	Freq.	R.F.	word
1	131.48	239	to	9	12.65	23	about
2	116.63	212	in	10	11.55	21	for
3	86.37	157	at	11	8.8	16	like
4	36.86	67	of	12	1.1	2	without
5	33.56	61	with	13	0.55	1	after
6	19.81	36	on	14	0.55	1	around
7	25.31	46	from	15	0.55	1	behind
8	22.01	40	by	16	0.55	1	during

From above table 5.3.8, we notice that the highest ranking preposition is *to*. Learners use the “*to + place*” collocation pattern the most and, in the same way, the second ranking preposition *in* is also used as a part of the “*in + place*” collocation pattern. The third highest ranking preposition *at* is used in the “*look + at*” collocation pattern.

5.3.6. Conjunctions

Lastly, conjunction usage is of importance at the primary learner level. It would seem that the usage of the conjunction is limited, but it is interesting to know what conjunctions are used the most frequently in the first year of Japanese lower secondary school student writing.

Table 5.3.9.
Most Frequent Conjunctions.
Frequency standardized at 10,000 Words.

R	Freq.	R.F.	Word
1	103.98	189	and
2	23.66	43	or
3	8.25	15	because
4	3.85	7	when
5	1.65	3	if
6	1.65	3	where
7	1.1	2	so

From above table 5.3.9, it would seem clear that the conjunction *and* is used the most frequently in the Learner corpus. We can also see that the occasional use of *because* shows that some learners feel the need to and do mention reasons for doing something. The following example shows the concordance evidence for *because* and shows not only its collocation word but also the sentence from which it is taken.

Concordance of because

Because I m time for practice.
Because I like speaking and writing.
Because I like to hit many.
Because I ran in the park.
Because I want to buy a
Because I want to sing English.
Because science teacher is good teacher.

It is to be assumed that the usage of conjunctions may be expected to develop as the learner grade advances. In fact, this is where it is possible to show clearly the process of development as an interlanguage by taking an empirical approach.

5.4. Analysis of Learner collocation patterns

We can see certain tendencies in learner word usage in each POS as mentioned above. In this section, however, let's focus on learner collocation usage, as an annotated corpus makes it possible to examine in detail learner collocation use. As an example, the usage of the 20 most frequent student corpus “adjective + noun” collocations will be shown below.

Table 5.4.1.
20 Most Frequent “adjective + noun” Collocations.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	R.F.	adj. + noun	R.	Freq.	R.F.	adj. + noun
1	50.61	92	high school	6	4.95	9	good morning
2	19.26	35	japanese girl	7	3.85	7	good time
3	14.85	27	japanese boy	8	3.3	6	favorite subject
4	6.05	11	good bye	9	2.75	5	best wishes
5	5.5	10	favorite class	10	2.75	5	favorite singer

From the above Table 5.4.1, we can see distinctive features in the use of “adjective + noun” collocations. Learners use items in the following categories: self-introduction (*high school, Japanese girl, Japanese boy*), greeting (*good bye, good morning, Best wishes, Good luck, Have a nice day*), favorite things (*class, subject, singer, Japanese food, American food, animated cartoon*), time (*good time*), place (*beautiful place*), family (*big brother, new house, twin sisters*) and friends (*best friend*). Collocation studies show us how learners use collocation in their writing and illustrate developmental usage of collocation as they advance. Moreover, an annotated Learner Corpus makes it possible to do n-gram research. This bigram analysis is a little different from focusing on particular POS collocation analysis as illustrated above. The following Table 5.4.2 shows us the Top 20 highest frequency bigrams.

Table 5.4.2.

20 Most Frequent Bigrams with Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	R.F.	bigram	R.	Freq.	R.F.	bigram
1	191.5	348	do you	11	53.91	98	you like
2	140.8	256	I m	12	51.71	94	old are
3	114.8	208	name is	13	51.16	93	how old
4	106.2	193	are you	14	50.61	92	high school
5	74.82	136	I like	15	50.06	91	I can
6	72.62	132	n t	16	48.96	89	junior high
7	66.57	121	years old	17	48.41	88	I live
8	66.02	120	my name	18	47.86	87	live in
9	56.67	103	can you	19	47.86	87	very much
10	55.01	100	I am	20	47.31	86	your name

In Table 5.4.2, bigrams concerning self-introduction can be seen with the most frequent bigram being “do you”. In the following table 5.4.3 the 20 most frequent verbs after the bigram “do you” can be seen.

Table 5.4.3.

*20 Most Frequent Verbs after Bigram "do + you".**Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

R.	Freq.	R.F.	verb	R.	Freq.	R.F.	verb
1	54.46	99	like	11	1.1	2	watch
2	40.16	73	live	12	0.55	1	drink
3	28.61	52	have	13	0.55	1	eat
4	22.01	40	know	14	0.55	1	enjoy
5	8.8	16	belong	15	0.55	1	practice
6	8.25	15	do	16	0.55	1	read
7	4.95	9	play	17	0.55	1	see
8	3.85	7	get	18	0.55	1	sleep
9	3.3	6	go	19	0.55	1	think
10	1.1	2	come	20	0.55	1	visit

For comparison, now look at the list of verbs after the ninth ranking bigram “can you.”

Table 5.4.4.
*High Frequency Verbs after the bigram "can you" with
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

R.	Freq.	R.F.	verb
1	42.1	78.00	play
2	3.85	7.00	speak
3	2.75	5.00	cook
4	2.75	5.00	read
5	2.75	5.00	see
6	2.75	5.00	ski
7	2.2	4.00	swim
8	1.1	2.00	run
9	1.1	2.00	skate
10	0.55	1.00	catch
11	0.55	1.00	come
12	0.55	1.00	dance
13	0.55	1.00	draw
14	0.55	1.00	learn
15	0.55	1.00	sing
16	0.55	1.00	study
17	0.55	1.00	swim
18	0.55	1.00	watch

From Table 5.4.4, it can be seen that the most frequent verb which follows the bigram “*can you*” is *play*. This would indicate that first-year learners of English can be expected to ask about sports, musical instruments, or games and would illustrate the potential value of n-gram analysis to obtain evidence of learner developmental use of word combinations as an interlanguage.

5.5. Chi-squared test

In doing corpus research, statistical measures are generally considered necessary for comparative studies of different corpora. In this section, we will attempt an analysis of word usage between the First-year Learner Corpus and a British teenagers' written

corpus (consisting of BBC news for children, and teenagers' email reports in their daily lives) which was built as a reference corpus. The following Table 5.5.1 shows the results of Chi-squared testing for a selection of high frequency verbs in the BNC, compared with their counterparts in the Learner Corpus and the British Teenagers' written Corpus.

Table 5.5.1.

Results of Chi-square Test

Word	Chi-squared	P-value	Degrees of freedom
be	261.74	<.0001	1
do	332.68	<.0001	1
like	252.56	<.0001	1
play	216.67	<.0001	1
live	197.64	<.0001	1
have	35	<.0001	1
go	9.69	0.0018	1
belong	101.38	<.0001	1
enjoy	43.17	<.0001	1
get	25.14	<.0001	1
see	0.15	0.6946	1
make	28.01	<.0001	1
take	14.86	0.0001	1
know	3.48	0.0622	1
think	31.08	<.0001	1
other words	737.2	<.0001	1

From Table 5.5.1, for the following verbs it can be said that the difference in proportion is significant. This is at the 0.01% level for *be, do, like, play, live, have, belong, enjoy, get, make, take, think*. On the other hand, the difference in proportion is not significant for *see* and *know*. Thus, the verbs *be, do, like, play, live, go, belong* and *enjoy* are significantly more frequent in the Learner Corpus. On the contrary, for British teenagers' writing corpus we see: *have, get, make, take, know* and *think*.

5.6. Data analysis of Verbs in detail

5.6.1. Frequency list of verbs

Firstly, we will see a frequency list of verbs based on analysis using CLAWS (the Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System) Tag sets 7 (CLAWS 7) and also start with an overview of characteristic tendency in the most frequent rank from the first to the 50th. In each table, freq. shows a frequency which was standardized at 10,000 words and POS shows verb form type which associated with in the CLAWS 7 system.

Table 5.6.1.

Most Frequent Verbs: Rank 1st to 10th.

Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	verb_POS	R.	Freq.	verb_POS
1	398	is_vbz	6	102	play_vvi
2	212	do_vd	7	80	like_vvi
3	140	m_vbm	8	72	like_vv
4	140	are_vbr	9	59	s_vbz
5	134	can_vm	10	56	did_vdd

From table 5.6.1, the top ten most frequent verb forms include four forms of *be*. Though we can also see auxiliary verbs such as *do* and *did* are ranked in the second and the tenth positions, it seems that Japanese EFL learners use these auxiliary verbs as question forms and produce negatives in the present tense and past tense. Lexical verbs such as *play* and *like* are used in sentences where learners mention doing something with regard to sports and their favorite things in their daily lives. Furthermore, a distinctive feature of learner use might be that the auxiliary verb such as *can* is ranked in the fifth position on the list.

Table 5.6.2.

Most Frequent Verbs: Rank 11th to 20th.

Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	verb_POS	R.	Freq.	verb_POS
11	54	am_vbm	16	38	likes_vvz
12	51	live_vv	17	37	does_vdz
13	42	have_vh	18	37	have_vhi
14	42	live_vvi	19	31	call_vv
<u>15</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>went_vvd</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>belong_vv</u>

In table 5.6.2, the rank from the 11th to the 20th, it seems that learners introduce in their writing the place where they live, places they went, their name and what club activity they participate in. It is of interest that the lexical verb *have* is of high frequency due to the fact that they mention the number of family members that they have as well as the things that they have.

The verb “*am*” is ranked 11th, which comes from learners introducing themselves.

Table 5.6.3.

Most Frequent Verbs: Rank 21st to 30th.

Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	verb_POS	R.	Freq.	verb_POS
21	26	look_vv	23	23	know_vvi
22	24	ca_vm	24	22	enjoyed_vvd
25	22	go_vvi	28	18	play_vv
26	19	write_vv	29	18	playing_vvg
27	18	go_vv	30	16	do_vdi

In 21st to 30th group comes lexical verbs such as *look*, *know*, *enjoyed*, *go*, *write* and *play*. The result seems to have been influenced by the topic of this task which was writing an email to a pen friend. Learners introduced their daily lives and asked their email friends about things that interested them.

Table 5.6.4
Most Frequent Verbs: Rank 31st to 40th.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	verb_POS	R.	Freq.	verb_POS
31	15	got_vvd	36	11	meet_vvi
32	14	played_vvd	37	11	speak_vvi
33	12	see_vv	38	10	belong_vvi
34	12	was_vbdz	39	10	get_vvi
35	12	want_vv	40	8	get_vv

In 31st to 40th group of past lexical verbs such as *got*, *played* and the be verb form “*was*” are seen in the list, reflecting the official curriculum guidelines by MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology) which directs the past be treated at the end of the first-year textbook in the syllabus. The results show that Japanese EFL learners try to use this new grammar structure in their writing after being taught it. Moreover, we can see that Japanese EFL learners mentioned something which they want to do in their writing though the grammar for this, involving the infinitive form is not yet part of the instruction they receive in their first-year English lessons. In the official curriculum, the infinitive form as a new grammar structure is treated in the second year. Nevertheless, Japanese EFL learners use the lexical verb *want* in their writing though they have not been instructed at school in how to use the infinitive form yet. It is interesting that positive learner attitudes can be seen in their expressing of their feelings by the use of the infinitive form, even though it had not been taught to them at school at this stage.

Table 5.6.5
Most Frequent Verbs: Rank 41st to 50th.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	verb_POS	R.	Freq.	verb_POS
41	8	had_vhd	46	7	watch_vvi
42	8	has_vhz	47	7	watched_vvd
43	8	swim_vvi	48	7	cook_vvi
44	7	enjoy_vv	49	7	ski_vvi
45	7	see_vvi	50	7	study_vvi

In the 41st to 50th ranks, there can be seen vocabulary items which are part of learner daily lives such as doing sports, enjoying something to do, study and seeing or watching interesting things. In this ranking, we also see that learners use lexical verbs in the past tense to use such verbs as *had* and *watched*. Now let's focus on analyzing and discussing Japanese EFL learner verb usages by using different corpus analysis techniques.

5.6.2. Data analysis: be verbs *am, is, are*

The present section examines forms of be (present, past, base and past participle) to distinguish different types of be verb usage by looking at different forms of be verbs such as *am, is, are, was* and *were*. Moreover, let's discuss in detail each be verb usage in addition to doing an n-gram analysis, and with a special focus on analyzing the collocation patterns of each be verb form. The aim of doing this n-gram analysis will be to focus on Japanese EFL learner language development and to locate a characteristic tendency of Japanese EFL learner verb usage by using not only quantitative analysis but also a qualitative one.

5.6.2.1. be verb: *am*

Firstly, the rate of usage of *am* through quantitative analysis as may be seen in table 5.6.6.

Table 5.6.6.
Frequency List of be Verb: am.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	'm/am
1	140	'm
2	54	am

From table 5.6.6 above, we can see that Japanese EFL learners use the abbreviated form *'m* more often than *am*, thus we can get easily each different number of usage by doing quantitative analysis but we might get more interesting results by trying to do qualitative analysis by means of a focus on doing an n-gram analysis as follows.

Table 5.6.7.
 5th-gram Analysis of be Verb: 'm.
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	5th-gram
1	13	m a junior high school
2	6	*m junior high school student
3	1	m from tokyo in japan
3	1	m 13 years old and i
3	1	*m a girl in the
3	1	m a high school student
3	1	*m a japanese a boy
3	1	m a japanese girl and
3	1	m a junior school student
3	1	m a junipor high school
3	1	m a member of orchestra
3	1	*m a story in japanese
3	1	*m a thirteen years old
3	1	*m belong to basketball club
3	1	*m belonging to basketball club
3	1	*m ca n't english
3	1	m enjoying club 's practice
3	1	m enjoying my school life
3	1	m favorite class is english
3	1	* fifth grade in elemetary

From 5-gram analysis, we can see the abbreviated form 'm is used 13 times for self-introduction but we also notice six tokens omitting the article 'a' before a noun phrase such as *junior high school*. All other usages occur only once each. However, we notice some interesting results when looking carefully at the result of 5-gram analysis. There are eight incorrect uses of the article *a* where it is to be found lacking before a noun phrase. There are five incorrect uses of be verb *am* with other lexical verbs, as in, for example, *'m belong*, *'m belonging*, *'m can't* and *'m live*. These incorrect usages can be considered evidence of an inter-language to learn correct usage of a lexical verb. On the other hand, it is interesting to see developmental usage as an idiom such as *'m member of* and *'m looking forward to hearing* though the frequency use is only one in each case. Furthermore, from the usage of 'm, we can see the result of language acquisition in present progressive forms through four usages as follows, *'m playing*, *'m*

enjoying, *'m going*, *'m waiting* and *'m writing*. Thus doing n-gram analysis, we can notice language use which we cannot get from a simple frequency list. Next, we will look carefully at the usage of *am* through n-gram analysis.

Table 5.6.8.
5th-gram Analysis of be Verb *am*.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	5th-gram
1	7	am a junior high school
2	2	*am junior high school student
3	1	am a member of a
3	1	*am 13 year old japanese boy
3	1	am a junior high school
3	1	*am a member of baseball
3	1	*am a member of basketball
3	1	am a member of the
3	1	am enjoying my school life
3	1	am fine, my name is
3	1	am listening to music every
3	1	*am member of arrangement club
3	1	*am member of the orchestra
3	1	*am members of basketball club
3	1	am very fine and very

From table 5.6.8, it can be seen that learners want to use an idiom such as *a member of*, but there are three incorrect usages of this idiom. Moreover, two usages of the present progressive form, namely *am enjoying* and *am listening*, can be seen. It might be a basic thing to express their feeling through the use of be verb *am* as in *am fine* in the two examples in the list. Through doing an n-gram analysis, we can get information about Japanese EFL learner language usage in both the development of language acquisition and in developmental errors when learning new grammar forms.

5.6.2.2. be verb: *is*

The usage of *is* by n-gram analysis can be seen in the table 5.6.9 where the relative frequencies of be verb “*is*” when standardized at 10,000 words is shown.

Table 5.6.9
Frequency List of be Verb: is.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Frequency	is / 's
1	398	is_vbz
2	59	s_vbz

From above table 5.6.9, we can see clearly that “is” is used 398 times per 10,000 words. What characterizes this usage of “is” on the part of the Japanese EFL learner may be seen by using n-gram analysis.

The following table 5.6.10 presents the results of trigram analysis of “is”, which shows the most frequent 20 trigrams in order. We can see some characteristic tendencies of Japanese EFL learner usage of the be verb “is”, which give us information as to their interests when asking about or mentioning something in their writing.

Table 5.6.10.
4th-gram analysis of be Verb is.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Word.

R.	Freq.	4th-gram analysis
1	15	what is your name
2	13	when is your birthday
3	3	class is p.e.
3	3	my birthday is october
3	3	this is my friend
3	3	this is my sister
3	3	what time is it
4	2	brother's name is
4	2	family is father, mother
4	2	father's name is
4	2	my birthday is may
4	2	my family is father
4	2	my favorite class is
4	2	my favorite subject is
4	2	dog's name is
4	2	favorite class is P.e.
4	2	favorite subject is P.e.
4	2	he is my brother
4	2	he is my father
4	2	is it in your

In the 4-gram list, three wh-question forms are used with “is”. The two most frequent are for asking one’s name or birthday and we can see that they also ask about time. Other usages of be verb “is” are used in affirmative sentences to introduce their

family and friends and to mention their favorite things such as *class*. In the 20th rank, we can see the results of 4-gram analysis appearing in such phrases as “*is it in your*” as a question sentence form. The concordance lines which include these expressions are as follows: *What time is it in your country now? What time is it in your country?* The result seems to depend on becoming conscious of another’s situation during the course of the writing task. Next, see what n-gram analysis might show with regard to the usage of the abbreviated form of the be verb “s”.

The following table 5.6.11 shows the result of 4-gram analysis of the verb form of ’s.

Table 5.6.11.
4th-gram analysis of be Verb 's.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	4th-gram
1	28	what's your name
2	3	what's your hobby
3	2	it's 9:10 in the morning
3	2	9:10 in the morning
3	2	what's your favorite
4	1	it's very fun
4	1	it's very hard

From table 5.6.11, we can see a difference with the abbreviated form of the be verb form ’s in the 4-gram analysis where it is the first rank as to usage when asking a name which is the same result as for the be verb form “*is*” but where there are two different usages for asking one’s hobby and one’s favorite things. Other features of using the abbreviated form ’s are that Japanese EFL learners ask their friend’s name, hobbies, tell about a time and their feelings with phrases such as *very fun* or *very hard*. In addition, it can also be seen with regard to telling time in sentences such as *It's 9:10*

in the morning which seems to be influenced by the grammar points of asking time and answering as it appears in the syllabus of the first-year textbook. In this way, we can see that some main grammar points are seen in their writing deriving from what they learn in class.

5.6.2.3. be verb: *are*

Lastly, in this section we will focus on discussing the usage of *are* to compare the number of the frequency of using *are* and the abbreviated form *'re* and will move on to discussing the features of language use through doing an n-gram analysis. The following table 5.6.12 shows the frequency of *are* and the abbreviated form of *'re*.

Table 5.6.12.
Frequency List of be Verb: are.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	are / 're
1	140	are
2	3	re

The following table 5.6.13 shows the result of 4-gram analysis of usage verb *are*.

Table 5.6.13.
4th-gram Analysis of be verb are.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	freq.	4th-gram
1	51	how old are you
2	7	*are you junior high
3	7	are you a junior
4	4	where are you from
5	2	*are you belong to
6	1	and how old are
6	1	and i are twins
6	1	are you a boy
6	1	are you a student
6	1	are you good at
6	1	my family , there are
6	1	they are my family
6	1	*we are learned a
6	1	*what are you belong
6	1	what are you doing
6	1	what are you studying
6	1	and he are very
6	1	and I are in
6	1	and I are interested
6	1	and where are you

From the result of 4-gram analysis, we can see it is used wh-questions to ask about age, one's hometown, doing something and studying. There can be seen some variations in the usage of the interrogative with the appearance of *how*, *when* and *what*. In these three different interrogative uses, it should be worthy of remark that the usage of the present progressive form exists in the beginning of *what* question sentence. On the one hand, these kinds of developmental usages of grammar are seen but at the same time incorrect uses which use *are* and a lexical verb with the same form are seen in the 4-gram analysis. There can be seen some usages of the abbreviated form in both *'m* and *'s* as above mentioned. Next, we will also examine the result of 4-gram analysis of the abbreviated form *'re*.

Table 5.6.14.
bi-gram Analysis of be Verb 're.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	bigram
1	1	re going
2	1	re nice
3	1	re playing
4	1	re six
5	1	re super
6	1	*re went

From table 5.6.14, though only six tokens of *'re* are attested, the usage can be seen in the future as in *'re going to* and in the present progressive as *'re playing*. In addition to these usages, there can be seen three examples used with *They* as the subject being used to mention group feeling and a group number. In the bigram analysis a similar incorrect use can be seen in the analysis of *am* and *is*, with the incorrect usage using a lexical verb (in this case the past tense verb *went*).

5.6.3. Data analysis: auxiliary verb *do, does, did*

5.6.3.1. Auxiliary verb: *do*

This study will now focus on the usage of the auxiliary verbs *do, does* and *did* .

Table 5.6.15.
Frequency List of Auxiliary Verb: do.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Frequency	auxiliary verb: do
228	do

The relative frequency of the auxiliary verb *do* is 228 per 10,000 words. In the CLAWS Tag sets, only two tags are applied, being *_VD0 as do, base form (finite)* or *_VDI as do, infinitive*, meaning that we cannot get detailed information about different usages of the auxiliary verb *do*. We will now make use of the new tag sets to examine the auxiliary verb *do*.

Table 5.6.16.
Result of Concordance Analysis of Auxiliary Verb do Using New Detailed Tag Sets. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Part of Speech Tagset	Freq.
verb: auxiliary, intransitive, present, plural, 1st person	1
verb: auxiliary, intransitive, present, singular, 1st person	3
verb: auxiliary, intransitive, present, singular, 2nd person	78
verb: auxiliary, intransitive, present, singular, 3rd person	1
verb: auxiliary, intransitive, present, singular, 2nd person, &&&	2
verb: auxiliary, transitive, present, singular, 1st person	12
verb: auxiliary, transitive, present, singular, 2nd person	113
verb: be, copula, present, singular, 2nd person	1
verb: be, intransitive, present progressive, singular, 2nd	1
verb: be, intransitive, present, singular, 3rd person	1
verb: be, transitive, present progressive, singular, 2nd person	1
verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, singular, 2nd person	8
verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, singular, 1st person	3
verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, singular, 2nd person	4

The total frequency of the auxiliary verb *do* is 288 per 10,000 words. In the above table 5.6.16, the frequency of the usage of *auxiliary, transitive, present, singular, second person* is the most frequent at 113 while that of *auxiliary, intransitive, present, singular, second person* is 78, which is the second most common. Now let's focus on examining these two usages in detail in connection with Japanese EFL learner error patterns. First, in the usage of auxiliary, transitive, present, singular, second person, there are some characteristic errors which accompany this usage, as may be seen below:

- (1) Usage lacking “*any*” in the question form, as in *Do you have *(any)?*
- (2) The usage of a lexical verb instead of gerund, as in *Do you like *study?*

- (3) The usage of present tense instead of past tense, as in **Do you see the movie?*
- (4) The usage of *is* in the same sentence such as *What *is song do you like?*
- (5) The usage *did* instead of past tense *is* such as *What *do you favorite subject?*

We also see Japanese EFL learner error patterns in the usage of *auxiliary, intransitive, present, singular, second person*, some of which are as follows.

- a) The usage of past form instead of present form, as in *What time do you *got up?*
- b) The usage of present tense instead of past tense, as in *What time *do you get up this morning?*
- c) The usage of *do* instead of *are*, as in *Where *do you from?*

Next, we will focus on the usage of the auxiliary verb *do* by means of n-gram analysis. The following table 5.6.17 shows the result of trigram analysis of the auxiliary verb *do*.

Table 5.6.17.
tri-gram Analysis of Auxiliary Verb do (right).
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	tri-gram
1	53	do you like
2	40	do you live
3	29	do you have
4	22	do you know
5	18	do n't
6	9	do you belong
7	8	do you do
8	5	do you play
9	4	do you get
10	3	do you go
11	1	do you come

First, let's look at lexical verb usage following the expression *do you*, where we notice that there are 10 different verbs such as *like, live, have, know, belong, do, play, get, go* and *come*. It seems that these most frequent lexical verbs concern the learners asking about their daily lives, family and their friends. From the rank 5th ranking *don't*, we can see that there are many usages of the auxiliary verb *do* in a negative sentences.

In this n-gram analysis, we focused on the word following to the right of expression *do you*. Now let's focus on the words appearing before the expression *do* when doing a trigram analysis.

Table 5.6.18.
tri-gram Analysis of Auxiliary Verb do (on left).
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	tri-gram
1	8	do you do
2	8	what club do
3	5	but I do
4	3	did you do
5	3	or sisters do
6	2	the way, do
7	2	what time do
8	2	which subject do
9	2	I'll do
10	2	or brothers do
11	2	what food do
12	2	what sports do
13	1	what subject do
14	1	anything to do
15	1	best to do
16	1	can you do
17	1	club activity do
18	1	*how family do
19	1	how many do
20	1	I can do

Table 5.6.18 is that 13/20 examples are used with wh-question interrogative form and are as follows, *(how) do you do, what club do, (what) did you, (how many brothers) or sisters do, what time do, what subject do, (how many sisters) or brothers do, what food do, what sports do, what subject do, (what) club activity do, *how many (have) do*. The auxiliary verb *do* is used in a negative sentence such as *but I do not* with paradoxical conjunction *but* and with *By the way, do*. It can be considered that Japanese EFL learners are able to use auxiliary verb *do* naturally in their writing. Moreover, there are three examples making use of the auxiliary verbs *can* and *will* in *I'll do my best, I'll try my best to do, Can you do* and *I can do*. Having examined the usage of the auxiliary verb *do*, let's now focus on taking a look at the auxiliary verb *does*.

5.6.3.2. Auxiliary verb: *does*

We will examine the usage of the auxiliary verb *does* to see how it compares in usage with *do*. First, we will make an overview of the usage of *does* through quantitative analysis. The following table 5.6.19 shows the frequency results.

Table 5.6.19

Frequency List of Auxiliary Verb: do.

Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Frequency	auxiliary verb: does
37	does

From above table 5.6.19, we can see that the total frequency is 37, out of which there are 21 question sentences and 16 negative sentences. In CLAWS 7 Tag sets, there

is only one tag set for the auxiliary verb *does_VDZ*. As this does not provide detailed information, we will use the new tag set in order to find out more information about the usage of the auxiliary verb *does* among Japanese EFL learners. The following table 5.6.20 shows the results of such a concordance analysis.

Table 5.6.20
*Result of Concordance Analysis of Auxiliary Verb does Using
 a New Tagset. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

Part of Speech Tagset	No.
verb: auxiliary, copula, present, singular, 3rd person	1
verb: auxiliary, intransitive, present, singular, 3rd person	2
verb: auxiliary, predicative, present, singular, 3rd person	1
verb: auxiliary, transitive, present, singular, 3rd person	36

We notice first the auxiliary verb *does* is used mostly in the context of *auxiliary, transitive, present, singular, third person*. In addition, there are three main error patterns which are related to the use of the auxiliary verb *does*.

- (1) The lack of a lexical verb *like*(2) as in *My father doesn't *(like) American food.* and *But he doesn't *(like) soccer.*
- (2) The usage of a past lexical verb “*lent*” where a present form *lend*(1) should have appeared as in *But she doesn't *lent her books to me.*
- (3) The usage of “*does*” instead of using *is*(1) as in *But she *doesn't a spiker.*

When it appears in the context of *verb: auxiliary, copula, present, singular, 3rd person*, there can be seen the following error pattern.

(1) The usage of the auxiliary verb “*does*” instead of using *is* but with *is* appearing in a different position as in **Does your father *is fire man?*

In the usage of *verb: auxiliary, intransitive, present, singular, 3rd person*, there is one error pattern, being.

(2) The usage of “*is*” where it is not necessary as in *Does your mother *is cook very well?*

In the usage of *verb: auxiliary, predicative, present, singular, 3rd person*, there is one error pattern,

(3) The usage of “*is*” where it is not necessary as in *Does your father *is very kind?*

Next, we will see some features of the auxiliary verb *does* revealed through an n-gram analysis.

Table 5.6.21.
tri-gram Analysis of Auxiliary Verb do (on left).
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	tri-gram
1	16	does n't
2	11	does your father
3	5	does your mother
4	2	does your family
5	1	does he like
6	1	does your brother
7	1	*does your friend
8	1	does your friend
9	1	does your school
10	1	does your sister

From table 5.6.21, we can see that the auxiliary verb *does* is the most frequent with negative sentences. We also notice its use in question sentences where we find it

used together with *your father, your mother, your family, he, your brother, your friend, your school* and *your sister*. Now let's examine things more deeply with a 4-gram analysis to examine the lexical verbs appearing in these question sentences and negative sentences. The following table 5.6.22 shows the result of such a 4-gram analysis.

Table 5.6.22
4th-gram Analysis of Auxiliary Verb does (on left).
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	4th-gram of auxiliary verb: does
1	7	does n't like
2	7	does your father like
3	3	does n't play
4	2	does your mother like
5	1	does n't cook
6	1	*does your father is
7	1	does your father play
8	1	does he like hamburger
9	1	*does n't american
10	1	*does n't attacker
11	1	does n't belong
12	1	does n't get
13	1	does n't have
14	1	does n't join
15	1	*does n't lent
16	1	*does n't soccer
17	1	does n't use
18	1	does your brother or --- (play)
19	1	does your family cook
20	1	does your family dance
21	1	does your family go
22	1	does your family like
23	1	does your father run
24	1	does your father use
25	1	does your father watch
26	1	*does your freind like
27	1	does your friend like
28	1	does your mother cook
29	1	*does your mother is
30	1	does your mother or --- (like)
31	1	does your mother play
32	1	does your mother use
33	1	does your school have

Table 5.6.22 shows a 4-gram of the auxiliary verb *does*, but firstly, let's organize information as negative sentences and question sentences. The following table 5.6.23 and table 5.6.24 show verb collocation after auxiliary verb *does* in negative sentences, question sentences, and as verbs which are used with auxiliary verb *does*.

Table 5.6.23.
Verb Collocation after Auxiliary Verb does in a Negative Sentence. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

<u>Freq.</u>	<u>verb</u>
7	like
1	play
1	cook
1	belong
1	get
1	have
1	join
1	use

Table 5.6.24.
Verb Collocation after Auxiliary Verb does in a Sentence. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

<u>Freq.</u>	<u>verb</u>
8	like
3	play
2	cook
1	dance
1	go
1	run
2	use
1	watch
1	have

From collocation analysis, we can see that five verbs (like, play, cook, have and use) are commonly used in negative sentences and question sentences. In this way, it is possible to get detailed information of Japanese EFL learner language use by using

several corpus analysis techniques as above. In this next section, we will pay attention to the usage of the auxiliary verb *did*.

5.6.3.3. Auxiliary verb: *did*

In this section, we will examine the usage of the auxiliary verb *did*. First, let's check the frequency of the auxiliary verb *did* and, secondly focus on analysis. The following table 5.6.25 shows the frequency of auxiliary verb *did*.

Table 5.6.25.

Frequency List of Auxiliary Verb: did.

Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Frequency	auxiliary verb
56	did

In total, the auxiliary verb *did* appears 56 times, out of which it is used six times in negative sentences and 50 times in question sentences. The CLAWS Tag sets show only one tag set for auxiliary verb *did* as *_VDD*. The following table 5.6.26 shows the result of concordance analysis of the auxiliary verb *did* by using the new tag sets.

Table 5.6.26.

Result of Concordance Analysis of Auxiliary Verb did by Using New Tag Sets. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Part of Speech Tagset	Freq.
verb: auxiliary, intransitive, past, plural, 3rd person	1
verb: auxiliary, intransitive, past, singular, 1st person	3
verb: auxiliary, intransitive, past, singular, 2nd person	28
verb: auxiliary, intransitive, past, singular, 3rd person	1
verb: auxiliary, transitive, past, singular, 1st person	4
verb: auxiliary, transitive, past, singular, 2nd person	23
verb: auxiliary, transitive, past, singular, 3rd person	1

As may be seen in table 5.6.26, it appears most frequently as *auxiliary, intransitive, past, singular, second person* and next as *auxiliary, transitive, past, singular, second person* is. Now let's look at what type of errors can be seen with seen in each usage. First, in the usage of *auxiliary, intransitive, past, singular, second person*, the following error patterns are exhibited (where *shows incorrect use of grammar, though some of these may seem to be correct sentences if taken out of the context in which they were written).

- (1) The usage of the auxiliary verb "do" instead of the past tense did as in

*What time *do you eat breakfast?*

- (2) The usage of the auxiliary verb *did* instead of using present tense *do* as in

*What time *did you go to bed?*

- (3) The misuse of the past participle as in

*Did you *traveled last winter holidays?*

- (4) The use of past tense forms instead of using present perfect as in

**Did you ever *came to Japan?*

Next following examples show error patterns which can be seen for the usage of *auxiliary, transitive, past, singular, second person*.

- (1) The usage of the auxiliary verb *did* instead of using the be verb *is* as in

*What *did your birthday?*

(2) The usage of the auxiliary verb *did* is instead of using the present perfect as in

**Did you see twins?*

(3) The lack of the lexical verb *go* in a past question sentence as in

*Did you *(go) anywhere last winter vacation?*

Now we will do a qualitative analysis through n-gram analysis to examine the usage auxiliary verb *did*. The following table 5.6.27 shows the result of trigram analysis of the auxiliary verb *did*. We can see nine lexical verbs (*go, get, study, enjoy, watch, eat, play and travel*) and a negative form *didn't* in the list.

Table 5.6.27.
tri-gram Analysis of Auxiliary Verb did (on left).
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Freq.</u>	<u>tri-gram</u>
1	12	did you go
2	6	did n't
3	4	did you get
4	3	did you do
5	3	did you study
6	3	did you enjoy
7	3	did you watch
8	2	did you eat
9	2	did you play
10	2	did you travel

All usages of the lexical verb *get* are used in the collocation pattern *get up* and *did you do* is always used in the sentence pattern *What did you do?* The negative form *didn't* ranks second. For this reason, let's now look at the collocation patterns of the negative form as may be seen in Table 5.6.28.

Table 5.6.28.
Verb Collocation after Auxiliary Verb did in a negative sentence. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	verb
1	1	study
2	1	buy
3	1	enjoy
4	1	go
5	1	play
6	1	sleep
7	1	stay
8	1	travel
9	1	want
10	1	watch

It is striking that we cannot see many lexical verbs after the negative form *didn't* but there is, nevertheless, some variation as in *study, buy, enjoy, go, play, sleep, stay, travel, want* and *watch*, all of which are related to learner daily lives and holidays in the writing. Next, we will also examine whether some variation usages can be seen or not in question sentences through trigram analysis.

Table 5.6.29.
Verb Collocation after Auxiliary Verb did in a Question Sentence. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq	verb
1	12	go
2	4	get
3	3	do
4	4	study
5	3	enjoy
6	3	watch
7	2	eat
8	3	play
9	2	travel
10	1	come

In comparing verb collocation patterns between a negative sentence and a question sentence, some different usages can be seen. It is noticeable that five verbs in question sentences (*get, do, study, eat* and *come*) cannot be seen among the 10 most

frequent. Japanese EFL learners appear to use different types of verbs depending on a different type of sentence forms, such as whether it is a negative form or a question form.

5.6.4. Data analysis: modal auxiliary verb *can*, *will*

5.6.4.1. Modal auxiliary verb: *can*

In this section, we will explore the usages of modal auxiliary verb *can* which are to be seen in Japanese EFL learner writing. According to MEXT guidelines, this grammar point should be appeared in the first lower secondary school year in the textbook.

The following table 5.6.30 shows a frequency list of the usage of the modal auxiliary verb *can* standardized at 10,000 words.

Table 5.6.30.
Frequency List of Modal auxiliary Verb: can.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

<u>Freq.</u>	<u>auxiliary</u>
163	can

In CLAWS 7 Tag sets, only one tag set applies to this modal, auxiliary, thus shedding little light on Japanese EFL learners use the auxiliary verb *can* in their writing and what type of collocation patterns are to be seen. Moreover, error patterns are ignored.

Table 5.6.31

Result of Concordance Analysis of Modal auxiliary Verb can by Using New Detailed Tag Sets. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Part of Speech Tagset	Freq.
verb: auxiliary, present, plural, 1st person	2
verb: auxiliary, present, plural, 3rd person	1
verb: auxiliary, present, singular, 1st person	77
verb: auxiliary, present, singular, 2nd person	58
verb: auxiliary, present, singular, 3rd person	25
verb: auxiliary, quality marker, present, singular, 1st person	1

Quantitative analysis shows that the usage as *auxiliary, present, singular, second person* is the most frequent, that the second most common usage is as *auxiliary, present, singular, second person* and that the third most common usage is *auxiliary, present, singular, third person*. Now, let's look at the different types of errors for each usage of the above usages.

Error patterns

1. Auxiliary, present, singular, second person

- (1) The lack of a lexical verb after modal auxiliary verb *can* as in

*I can't *(play) tennis.*

- (2) The past tense of the lexical verb instead of a base form after the modal auxiliary verb *can* as in,

*I can't *swam.*

- (3) Learners misunderstanding of the English equivalents of certain in Japanese expression, in English as follows,

*I can *play the fishing (can catch fish).*

*I can't *play snow (snowboard).*

*I can't *play ski. I can *(draw) illustrations.*

*I can *play (do) ballet. *I can't skating(skate).*

- (4) The usage of modal auxiliary verb “can” instead of ordinary idiomatic usages such as,

*I *can (am good at) study math.*

- (5) expressions such as *can --- a little* as in,

*I can play the piano *a little.*

2. Auxiliary, present, singular, second person

- (1) The lack of a lexical verb after modal auxiliary verb *can* as in

*Can you *(play) tennis?*

- (2) Learners cannot write some Japanese expressions in English as in

*Can you *(speak) Japanese?*

*Can you *play snow board and skiing(do snowboarding and skiing)?*

*Can you *play (do) ballet.*

(3) The usage of the gerund instead of using a base form can as in

*Can you *cooking (cook)?*

(4) The usage of auxiliary verb “can” instead of the preferred idiomatic usage as in

**Can (Are) you *study (good at) math?*

3. Auxiliary, present, singular, third person

(1) The lack of a lexical verb after the modal auxiliary verb *can* as in

*He can *(play) tennis.*

(2) Inability of learners to write certain Japanese expressions in English as in

*He can *playing dance (dance) very much.*

*My father can *play skiing(ski)very well.*

(3) The use of the past tense instead of a base form as in

*My friend can *swam (swim) very well.*

(4) The use of the gerund instead of the base form as in

**She can't cooking (cook).*

(5) The use of the third person singular verb instead of the base form as in

*She can *plays (play) ### the ###.*

In table 5.6.32 we will focus on the usage of the modal auxiliary verb *can* through doing a trigram analysis of the usage of the auxiliary verb *can*.

Table 5.6.32.
tri-gram Analysis of Modal auxiliary Verb can (on left).
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Freq.	tri-gram
31	can you play
23	ca n't
17	can play the
6	can play tennis
5	can you speak
4	can you swim
3	can play soccer
3	can speak english
3	can play baseball
2	can play basketball

In the above the table, trigram analysis shows that Japanese EFL learners use question sentences such as *can you play* is the most frequently. We can also see that the number of negative sentence with *can't* ranks second and that the expression *can play the (a musical instrument)* ranks third.

Table 5.6.33.
Collocation Patterns after Modal Auxiliary Verb: can.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	verb	Rank	Freq.	verb
1	43	play	10	1	catch
2	4	speak	11	1	come
3	3	cook	12	1	dance
4	3	read	13	1	do
5	3	see	14	1	draw
6	3	ski	15	1	learn
7	2	swim	16	1	sing
8	1	run	17	1	study
9	1	skate	18	1	watch

In table 5.6.33, verbs follow the auxiliary verb *can*. In table 5.6.34 we will examine the collocation patterns that can be seen in question sentences.

Table 5.6.34.

Verb Collocation after Modal Auxiliary Verb can in a Negative Sentence. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	verb
1	10	play
2	1	eat
3	1	speak
4	1	swim
5	1	catch
6	1	dance
7	1	get
8	1	read
9	1	skate
10	1	ski
11	1	study

In question sentences, though 11 different verbs appear in question sentences, the verb *play* is the most frequent. In table 5.6.35, we can see a similar tendency in the usage of the modal auxiliary verb *can* in negative sentences.

Table 5.6.35

Verb Collocation after Modal auxiliary Verb can in a Question Sentence. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq	Verb	Rank	Freq.	Verb
1	31	can you play	9	1	can you
2	5	can you speak	10	1	can you do
3	4	can you swim	11	1	can you get
4	2	can you ski	12	1	can you see
5	1	can you cook	13	1	can you
6	1	can you eat	14	1	can you
7	1	can you read	15	1	can you
8	1	can you skate			

In the above table, the most frequent verb after the auxiliary verb *can* is also *play* in question sentences. Other verbs are *cook, do, see, sing* and *write*.

5.6.4.2. Modal auxiliary verb: will

In this section, we will look at the usage of the auxiliary verb *will* in greater depth. The usage of the auxiliary verb *will* as a grammar point is shown in the course of study by MEXT to be taught in a second year lower secondary school level. Therefore we would not expect to see the auxiliary verb *will* appearing at the first-year lower secondary school level but a trigram analysis (table 5.6.36) shows this not to be the case.

Table 5.6.36.

Frequency tri-gram List of Modal Auxiliary Verb: will.

Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	tri-gram of modalauxiliary verb:
1	1	will be able (to play)
2	1	*will be second
3	1	will come to
4	1	will do my
5	1	will have a
6	1	will practice more
7	1	will visit us

From the result of trigram analysis of the modal auxiliary verb *will*, we can see 7 different types of trigram here and see it is used with the verbs *be*, *come do*, *have*, *practice* and *visit*. It is also interesting to note that a developmental collocation pattern *will + be able to (play)* can be seen here. In CLAWS 7, the tag set for auxiliary verb *will* is the same as for the auxiliary verb *can*. We, thus, face a problem in that we cannot distinguish in terms of tag sets between *can*, *will*, *may*, nor between past forms of modal auxiliary verbs such as *could*, *would*, *might*, as they all share the same tag *_VM*. Let's now examine the modal auxiliary verb of *will* the new tag sets.

Table 5.6.37.
tri-gram Analysis of Modal Auxiliary Verb: will by Unisg New
Detailed Tag Sets. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Part of Speech Tagset	Freq.
verb: auxiliary, future, plural, 1st person	1
verb: auxiliary, future, singular, 1st person	2
verb: auxiliary, future, singular, 2nd person	2
verb: auxiliary, future, singular, 3rd person	1
verb: auxiliary, quality marker, future, singular, 1st person	1

From table 5.6.37, there can be seen 5 different types of the usage of the modal auxiliary verb *will*. It is only used in affirmative sentences and there is no usage in a negative sentences and a question sentence. It may be suggested that developmental usage might normally be to start with affirmative sentences as a first step. In section 5.4, we focused on the usages of be verb in the present tense and discussed some features of Japanese EFL learner usage. In section 5.6.1, we got an overview of most frequent lexical verbs and discussed some of their features. In section 5.6.3, we analyzed the auxiliary verb usage of *do*, *does* and *did* as well as discussing some characteristic usages of Japanese EFL learners. In section 5.6.4, we gave evidence of usages of the modal auxiliary verbs *can* and *will*. In particular, the usage of the modal auxiliary verb *will* does not appear in the textbooks of the first-year lower secondary school. In the following section 5.7, let's now focus on the past tense of the *be* verb and other such as *play*, *have* (*had*) and *get* (*got*).

5.7. Focus on collocation patterns of past tense of be verbs and some lexical verbs

In this section 5.7, we will focus on examining the following collocation patterns which may be considered as interesting features from the point of developmental usage.

5.7.1. Past tense of be verb *was*, *were*

First we will focus on looking at the usage of the past tense of be verbs, being *was* and *were*. These are second year textbook grammar points according to MEXT guidelines. Table 5.7.1 shows the trigram analysis results of *was* and *were*.

Table 5.7.1
tri-gram Analysis of be Verb: was. Were.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

No.	Freq.	tri-gram of verb: was, were
1	1	*was a playing
2	1	was absent from
3	1	*was catcher and
4	1	was cleaning a
5	1	was in my
6	1	was my birthday
7	1	was n't
8	1	*was people recover
9	1	was playing tennis
10	1	was smoking on
11	1	was talking to
12	1	was very cleaned
13	1	was very difficult
14	1	was very happy
15	1	was very interesting
16	1	was very nice
17	1	was very very
18	1	was very wonderful
19	1	was your valentine
20	1	were happy then
21	1	were playing tennis
22	1	were very delicious

In the above table, we can see the following points,

- (1) The usage of past progressive form in 4, 9, 10, 11 and 21.
- (2) The mentioning of feelings through the use of past tense can be seen in 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 20 and 22.
- (3) The usage of passive voice which, according to MEXT guidelines, is a grammar point to be covered in second year textbooks may be seen in 12.
- (4) The usage of an idiom “*was absent from*” in 2.
- (5) Error patterns in the point of the usage of an article in 1 and 3, with the incorrect use of the be verb “was” instead of “were” in relation to the plural subject in 8.
- (6) The usage in a negative sentence in 7.

5.7.2. Lexical verb: *playing*

In the word frequency list in the section 5.6.1, we can see *playing* as No. 29, making it the only progressive form in the top 50. To see what type of collocation patterns can be found, a trigram analysis was done with the results appearing in table 5.7.2.

Table 5.7.2.

*tri-gram Analysis of a Lexical Verb: playing (on left).
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

Rank	Freq.	tri-gram of progressive form: playing
1	3	He is playing
2	2	I'm playing
3	1	She is playing
4	1	*and father playing
5	1	*He can playing
6	1	hobby is playing
7	1	I am playing
8	1	I like playing
9	1	I was playing
10	1	is and playing
11	1	*My hobbies playing
12	1	n't playing
13	1	tennis and playing
14	1	They were playing
15	1	*was a playing
16	1	We're playing

There can be seen 6 uses of present progressive. We can also see two uses of past progressive. Furthermore, it is interesting to note that there are four usages of gerund. Moreover, four error usages appear which are as follow.

- (1) Lack of be verb “is” in present progressive.
- (2) Lack of be verb “is” with the gerund.
- (3) The progressive form “playing” after the modal auxiliary verb “can”.
- (4) The use of the article “a” in the past progressive between “was” and “playing”.

Second, let's look at the trigram analysis of the lexical verb “playing” in table 5.7.3.

Table 5.7.3.

tri-gram Analysis of a Lexical Verb: playing (on right).

Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

No.	Freq.	tri-gram of lexical verb: <i>playing</i>
1	1	hobby is playing the piano
2	1	*(He is) playing a tennis
3	1	(He was) playing a TV
4	1	(He is) playing at casino
5	1	*(I) playing basketball club
6	1	*(can) playing dance very
7	1	(I'm) playing in the
8	1	*(am) playing snow boarding
9	1	*(He) playing soccer very
10	1	(am) playing soccer game
11	1	(am) playing soccer with
12	1	(like) playing table tennis
13	1	I *(playing) tennis every
14	1	(was) playing tennis then
15	1	(were) playing tennis very
16	1	*playing test now
17	1	*(He) playing the organ
18	1	*playing the study
19	1	(My hobby is) playing the TV
20	1	(She is) playing the violin
21	1	*playing very well
22	1	(He is) playing with my

There can be seen seven usages of present progress and three uses of the past progressive. Furthermore, there are three usages of gerund. The usages of the past progressive and the gerund are shown in the second year textbook of lower secondary schools, according to MEXT guidelines. From above table 5.7.3, various error patterns may be seen as follows,

- (1) Lack of the be verb in the present progress.
- (2) The use of the progressive form after modal auxiliary verb *can*.
- (3) The incorrect use of the lexical verb in present progressive.

5.7.3. Lexical verb: *have*

In this section, we will focus on the usages of the auxiliary verb *have* to see whether it has different meaning usages or not and to see whether the usage of past tense *had as irregular verb* exists or not. First, we will see whether different meaning usages or not thorough doing N-gram analysis.

Table 5.7.4.
tri-gram Analysis of a Lexical Verb: have.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

No.	Freq.	5th-gram analysis of a lexical verb: <i>have</i>
1	2	have any brothers or sisters
2	1	*have a brother or sister
3	1	have a family of four
4	1	*has not gone trip for
5	1	has victoria falls , one of
6	1	have a bird at home
7	1	have a brother and i
8	1	have a good spring holidays
9	1	have a good time last
10	1	have a grandmother , father , mother
11	1	have a lot of friend
12	1	have a lot of fun
13	1	have a piano lesson on
14	1	have a regular concert a
15	1	have a sister and a
16	1	have a sister and two
17	1	have a twin younger sister
18	1	have another reason to join
19	1	have any brother or sister
20	1	have any pets ? and do
21	1	have any plan i prefer
22	1	have any plans for spring
23	1	have any sisters or brothers
24	1	have big test this week
25	1	have brother or sister ? i
26	1	have club activity ? yesterday , i
27	1	have doll 's festival in
28	1	have father , mother and sister
29	1	have father and mother and
30	1	have many classes at school

(Table continues)

(Table continued)

31	1	have many sisters or brother
32	1	have new year 's gift
33	1	have one brother and two
34	1	have one sister and one
35	1	have one sister and two
36	1	have own room so we
37	1	have three brothers and two
38	1	have time to go somewhere
39	1	have two brothers and one
40	1	have two dogs and one
41	1	have you ever moved to
42	1	have you gone to somewhere

Through doing tri-gram analysis of *have*, we can see five different uses. One usage with 19 examples refers to possession (refer to No.'s 1, 2, 3, 7, 10, 11, 15, 16, 17, 19, 28, 29,31, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37 and 39). A second usage consists of replacing *be* in 11 examples (No.'s 5, 13, 14, 18, 21, 22, 24, 26, 27, 30 and 38). A third example involves replacing other verbs in six examples can be seen where, in a more restricted or more formal language, learners would use a more specific verb (No.'s 6, 8, 9, 12, 20 and 40). A fourth usage is in past participle forms in three examples where learners use the present perfect. A fifth usage is as part of the phrase 'have got' in example No. 32. For examining whether we can see the usage of the past form *had as irregular verb* or not, a 4th-gram analysis was done. Table 5.7.5 shows the results of the bi-gram analysis of the past tense form *had*.

Table 5.7.5.
4th-gram Analysis of a Lexical Verb: had.
Frequency Standardized at 10, 000 Words.

No.	Freq	4th-gram of past form: had
1	1	had a good time
2	1	had a swimming meet
3	1	*had good time last
4	1	had happy new year
5	1	*had lot of fun
6	1	*had new year 's (gift)
7	1	*had practice last week
8	1	*had wanted to dive

In table 5.7.5, there can be seen two different usages of past form *had*. One is to replace other verbs in four examples where learners use *have* where in more restricted or more formal language a more specific verb would be used (No.'s 1, 3, 4 and 5). A second usage is as a part of 'have got' in an example in No. 6. There are also two incorrect usages ("*had + present verb practice*" and or "*had + past form wanted*") in No.'s 7 and 8. However, no phrasal verb usages using the verb *have* is to be found in the first year writing. However, the past form *had*, which is an irregular verb, is a grammar point in second year textbooks in lower secondary schools. Thus, developmental usages of the irregular verb *have* exist, as do incorrect uses which might be considered as developmental errors made in the process of learning correct usages.

5.7.4. Lexical verb: *get*

The lexical verb *get* can be seen in the ranking 39th and 40th in the word frequency list in the section 5.6.1. Here we will focus on collocation patterns of a lexical verb *get* through doing 4th-gram analysis. Table 5.7.6 shows the result of 4-gram analysis.

Table 5.7.6.
4th-gram Analysis of a Lexical Verb: get.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	4th-gram of a lexical verb: <i>get</i>
1	4	get up at six
2	1	get up this morning
3	1	get on roller coaster
4	1	get up 6:30 every day
5	1	get up at 5:30 every
6	1	get up at 5:30 last
7	1	get up at 6:00 o
8	1	get up at by
9	1	get up at five
10	1	get up at seven
11	1	get up every day

Two types of phrasal verb may be seen. There are 10 examples of using a phrasal verb *get up*, and there is one example of the phrasal verb *get on* + place. In first year writing, there are no other usages as a phrasal verb, as English textbooks in Japan do not introduce variation in phrasal verbs. If corpus based teaching were introduced into English education in Japan from the first year of lower secondary schools on, then it would be possible to teach many more phrasal verbs.

We will now focus on the usage of the past form *got* which is a grammar point taught in the second year of a lower secondary school. Table 5.7.7 shows the result of 4-gram analysis.

Table 5.7.7.
4th-gram Analysis of Past Form: g
Frequency Standardized at 10,000

No.	Freq.	4th-gram analysis	<i>got</i>	pas
1	3	got up at six		
2	1	got a first place		
3	1	got on a trip		
4	1	*got on roller coaster		
5	1	got some chocolate from		
6	1	got the concert tickets		
7	1	got the first poster		
8	1	got to school at		
9	1	got up at 5:30 last		
10	1	got up at 6:00 o		
11	1	got up at 7:00 every		
12	1	got up at 8:00 last		
13	1	got up at five		
14	1	got up this morning		

Table 5.7.7 shows various usages of the past form *got*, including three examples with the meaning of *get + something*, four examples of replacing other verbs, and nine examples of *got up*. The past form *got* appears in second year textbooks of lower secondary schools. Moreover, developmental language use which related to *got* appears as the past form of irregular verb.

6. Results: Second Year

6.1. Second year learner corpus size

In table 6.1.1, which follows, we see that the total raw Learner Corpus of the second-year student contributors consisted of 9,900 word tokens.

Table 6.1.1
Raw Learner Corpus Size

	2nd year learner corpus
Total number of word types	762
Total number of word tokens	9,900

The following table 6.1.2 shows a second-year learner corpus size standardized at 10,000 words.

Table 6.1.2.
Standardized Second Year Learner Corpus Size at 10,000 Words.

	2nd Learner Corpus
Total Number of Word Types	770
Total Number of Word Tokens	10,000

It was thought desirable to compare the result of the second year learner corpus size with those of the first year learner corpus, in order to see what differences might appear with regard to the number of types and tokens. Table 6.1.3 shows the result of the first year learner corpus size that was also standardized at 10,000 words.

Table 6.1.3.
Standardized First Year Learners' Corpus Size at 10,000 Words.

	1st Learner Corpus
Total Number of Word Types	492
Total Number of Word Tokens	10,000

From above the table 6.1.2 and table 6.1.3, we can see that the number of word types increases 278 words from 492 to 770. As this might seem natural, let's also examine what features the second year learner corpus wordlist.

6.2. Wordlist of the second year learner corpus

We have overviewed how to build the second year learner corpus was built and examined the second year learner corpus size to compare it with the first year learner corpus. In this chapter, we will focus on the wordlist of the second year learner corpus and will make a deeper analysis of the 100 most frequent words along with their POS in the second year learner corpus.

6.2.1. Wordlist of the second year learner corpus

In analysis of the second year learner corpus, this research used AntConc 3.3.4 as a corpus analysis tool. A lemma list originally developed by Yasuyuki Someya (Aoyama Gakuin University) and revised by Shinichiro Ishikawa (Kobe University) was adopted. This research used an annotated corpus by CLAWS 7 to make the wordlist which was lemmatized by the lemma list.

In this wordlist, the most frequent words from those ranked first to 100 are listed in order to see whether we can observe some features or not when compared with the

first year learner corpus. The following table 6.2.1 shows the 100 most frequent words standardized at 10,000 words.

Table 6.2.1.

100 Most Frequent Words Standardized at 10,000 Words

Rank	Freq.	R.F.	word	Rank	Freq.	R.F.	word
1	748.48	741	be	26	75.76	75	well
2	729.29	722	i	27	74.75	74	year
3	509.09	504	you	28	73.74	73	want
4	365.66	362	do	29	72.73	72	we
5	320.2	317	to	30	70.71	70	will
6	266.67	264	like	31	67.68	67	not
7	211.11	209	my	32	65.66	65	school
8	205.05	203	the	33	57.58	57	n
9	182.83	181	in	34	56.57	56	tokyo
10	148.48	147	your	35	55.56	55	because
11	142.42	141	a	36	55.56	55	better
12	126.26	125	what	37	55.56	55	or
13	125.25	124	play	38	53.54	53	live
14	124.24	123	go	39	52.53	52	know
15	111.11	110	very	40	49.49	49	can
16	110.1	109	have	41	46.46	46	baseball
17	108.08	107	name	42	46.46	46	english
18	101.01	100	japan	43	46.46	46	which
19	96.97	96	and	44	42.42	42	but
20	93.94	93	old	45	42.42	42	high
21	83.84	83	it	46	42.42	42	tennis
22	79.8	79	how	47	40.4	40	club
23	79.8	79	me	48	40.4	40	junior
24	78.79	78	he	49	40.4	40	speak
25	76.77	76	japanese	50	40.4	40	yesterday

Rank	Freq.	R.F.	word	Rank	Freq.	R.F.	word
51	38.38	38	brother	76	26.26	26	we
52	38.38	38	hello	77	25.25	25	book
53	38.38	38	so	78	25.25	25	by
54	37.37	37	see	79	25.25	25	from
55	36.36	36	father	80	25.25	25	music
56	36.36	36	student	81	24.24	24	address
57	35.35	35	about	82	24.24	24	basketball
58	34.34	34	soccer	83	24.24	24	call
59	34.34	34	than	84	24.24	24	family
60	34.34	34	where	85	23.23	23	future
61	33.33	33	enjoy	86	23.23	23	use
62	31.31	31	last	87	22.22	22	player
63	31.31	31	sister	88	22.22	22	sport
64	30.30	30	good	89	21.21	21	birthday
65	30.30	30	of	90	21.21	21	day
66	29.29	29	please	91	21.21	21	much
67	29.29	29	there	92	21.21	21	sunday
68	28.28	28	tell	93	21.21	21	time
69	28.28	28	think	94	20.20	20	mother
70	27.27	27	country	95	20.20	20	nice
71	27.27	27	many	96	20.20	20	on
72	26.26	26	at	97	20.20	20	tall
73	26.26	26	best	98	19.19	19	park
74	26.26	26	friend	99	19.19	19	song
75	26.26	26	next	100	17.34	17	brother

Now let's focus on the 20 most frequent word in the wordlist of the second year learner corpus. Comparing it with the wordlist of the first year learner corpus, *go* and *Jaapan* can be seen only in the wordlist of the second-year learners' corpus. On the other hand, *can* and *live* only appear in the wordlist of the first year learner corpus. However, we can see the ratio of the 20 most frequent words in both corpora is almost the same at 90%. As for the 50 most frequent words, the words in common between both wordlists are 88% with only six words appearing in the second year learner corpus (*or*, *know*, *baseball*, *English*, *speak* and *yesterday*). The ratio of appearances these six words among 50 most frequent words is 12%. Moreover, the 12 words (*much*, *please*, *student*, *sister*, *we* and *Monday*) can be seen only in the wordlist of the first year learner corpus where they represent 24% in terms of frequency. When examine the range of most frequent words from 20th to 50th, the ratio of common words in the second year learner

corpus is 88% when compared with the first year learner corpus. From these results, we can see that almost the same words are used in both corpora as most frequent words.

Among the 100 most frequent words, the next twenty words (*speak, about, than, there, tell, think, country, many, next, book, address, future, use, player, sport, Sunday, on, tall, park* and *song*) can be seen only in the wordlist of the second year learner corpus. The ratio of these words is 20% and some of these words seem to be related with new grammar structures in the second year English textbooks, as in *than, tell, think, next address* and *future*, being words that are used as a grammar point of the comparative, S +V + that clause, and future tense. On the other hand, *she, this, Monday, March, belong, get, with, piano, yesterday, picture, winter, up, girl, look, clock, can, every, study, favorite, cook, class, ski, swim, watch* and *holiday* can be seen in only in the wordlist of the first year learner corpus. This shows that most of these frequent words are related to the topic of the writing task, being to introduce themselves, their family, their friends and their school life. When comparing the most frequent words in both corpora, we can notice that second-year students try to use the vocabulary concerning new grammar structures in their writing and the vocabulary used by first-year students seems to be influenced by the writing task which is to introduce their daily lives.

6.2.2. Investigating keywords

This section will introduce a keyword list that was based on the second year learner corpus with the first year learner corpus as a reference corpus. Table 6.2.2 shows the keyword list of the second year learner corpus that was based on Log-Likelihood.

Table 6.2.2.

Keyword List of the Second Year Learner Corpus

Rank	Freq.	Keyness	word
1	55	99.07	better
2	63	88.3	will
3	54	78.79	be
4	71	63.41	want
5	34	62.67	than
6	55	54.97	because
7	317	54.59	to
8	46	52.04	which
9	24	50.03	address
10	23	47.95	future
11	22	45.87	spoken
12	18	37.53	used
13	28	31.9	tell
14	28	31.9	think
15	26	31.16	next
16	13	27.1	christmas
17	44	26.84	was
18	12	25.02	taller
19	15	24.66	fourteen
20	11	22.93	larger

From the above table, we can see that most frequent keywords in the second year learner corpus seem to be influenced by new grammar structures in the second year English textbook. These most frequent keywords can be divided into three different groups concerning new grammar structures, the writing task and terms for written this assignment. The results show that learners seem to favor the use of vocabulary related with new grammar structures in the second year learner corpus.

6.3. Overview the vocabulary usage in different parts of speech

This section will deal with wordlist of the 100 most frequent words of different parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, prepositions and conjunctions in the second year learner corpus. Of particular interest will be comparison of the second year learner corpus wordlists with the first year learner corpus.

6.3.1. Comparing noun wordlists

Having overviewed the second year learner corpus by means of a general wordlist list analysis and keyword list, this section will discuss the tendency of noun use to be seen in the second year learner corpus as compared with the first year learner corpus.

Table 6.3.1 shows the 20 most frequent nouns with the number of tokens as standardized at 10,000 words and their raw frequencies:

Table 6.3.1.
20 Most Frequent Nouns.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	R.F.	Word	R.	Freq.	R.F.	Word
1	108.08	107	name	11	34.34	34	brother
2	101.01	100	Japan	12	34.34	34	soccer
3	65.66	65	school	13	32.32	32	student
4	58.59	58	years	14	28.28	28	English
5	56.57	56	Tokyo	15	27.27	27	country
6	46.46	46	baseball	16	26.26	26	sister
7	42.42	42	tennis	17	25.25	25	music
8	37.37	37	Japanese	18	24.24	24	address
9	36.36	36	club	19	24.24	24	basketball
10	36.36	36	father	20	24.24	24	family

When comparing the 20 most frequent nouns in the second year learner corpus with the first year learner corpus, the following 14 nouns are used commonly in both corpora and the ratio of these common nouns is 70%. Among 20 most frequent nouns only one word 'address' is to be found only in the second year learner corpus, with its ratio being 5%. The 20 common nouns in both corpora show that they can be divided into the categories of names and places, school, age, club activity, family and subjects. If we consider the 50 most frequent nouns of both corpora, the ration in common is 74%. The 37 nouns found in both corpora are *name, Japan, school, years, Tokyo, baseball, tennis, Japanese, club, father, brother, soccer, student, English, sister, music, basketball, family, birthday, day, player, mother, time, friend, movie, boy, game, TV, girl, sports, Sunday, winter, vacation, piano, food and hobby*. The 13 nouns found only in the second year learner corpus are *country, future, book, year, song, Monday, dog, address, park, summer, December, Christmas and way*. The top 50 most frequent nouns may be divided into the categories of name and place, school, age, club activity, nationality, family, subjects, birthday, time, movie, TV, day, season, holiday, musical instrument, food and hobby. When looking at the 100 most frequent nouns, we can see more than 74% nouns are commonly used in both corpora and that many nouns are concerned the writing assignment where learners introduce themselves, their family and friends, school life, club activities, holidays and their interests concerning TV and movies. From the result, it can be said that second-year students, when writing about their daily lives, tend to use vocabulary concerning their daily lives that they have learned since first year of study.

6.3.2. Comparing verb wordlists

In this section, let's examine the most frequent verbs in the second year learner corpus for features that may be compared with the first year learner corpus.

The following table 6.3.2 shows the 20 most frequent verbs with the number of tokens standardized at 10,000 words and their raw frequencies.

Table 6.3.2.
20 Most Frequent Verbs.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	R.F.	word	R.	Freq.	R.F.	word
1	369.7	366	is	11	52.53	52	have
2	287.88	285	do	12	50.51	50	s
3	129.29	128	m	13	47.47	47	can
4	116.16	115	like	14	46.46	46	want
5	111.11	110	like	15	44.44	44	was
6	102.02	101	are	16	43.43	43	know
7	74.75	74	play	17	38.38	38	went
8	62.63	62	will	18	35.35	35	did
9	57.58	57	go	19	35.35	35	have
10	54.55	54	be	20	27.27	27	live

Let's focus on the 20 most frequent verbs in the second year learner corpus and then compare them with the first year learner corpus. 75% of the 20 most frequent verbs are common to both corpora, with only *will*, *be*, *want* and *was* being seen only in the second year learner corpus. These 4 verbs seem to concern new grammar structures in the second year with '*will*' being concerned with the acquisition of the future tense, '*want*' being concerned with the to-infinitive, and '*be*' the to-infinitive. They appear together in "*What do you want to be in the future?*" This exhibits a tendency for learners to use new grammar structures to express themselves in their writing assignment. When examining the 50 most frequent verbs, 72% will be seen to appear in

both the first- and second-year learner corpora with only 12 verbs to be seen only in the second year learner corpus. These 12 verbs are *will, be, want, think, spoken, tell, enjoy, were, watching, going, listening* and *know*. Certain interesting features become apparent and may be categorized as follows.

6.3.2.1. future tense

As a future tense usage, we can see mainly the following patterns, *being the simple future tense (will and be going to)*, the telling of *their intention or plan (will)*, or *asking politely for something (Will you tell me your address?)*

6.3.2.2. S + V + that clause

Though the verb ranking 25th among the 50 most frequent verbs is *think*, learners use the verb in a new grammar structure, being “*I think that ---.*” Learners seem comfortable to express their thought in their writing not only by means of simple sentence patterns but also this kind of a compound sentence structure.

6.3.2.3. gerund

There can be seen three verbs appearing as a gerund which is a second-year grammar structure. They are *watching* which ranks 43rd, *listening* which ranks 46th

among the 50 most frequent verbs and *eating* which ranks 82nd. Gerund usage also seems to be influenced by a new grammar structure in the English textbooks of the second year. If we consider the 100 most frequent verbs, the number in common becomes 59 with 41 verbs seen in only the second year with the interesting point in the second year being the connection between new verbs and new grammar structures.

6.3.2.4. as auxiliary verb

The auxiliary verbs (*will*, *'ll* and *would*) can be seen in only the second year learner corpus. Learners use *will* and *'ll* in future tense to mention their intentions and plans in their writing. Learners also come to use '*would*' as a polite form to ask others for something as in "Would you tell me your address?"

6.3.2.5. as past participle

Six past participles (*spoken, used, been, made, taught and seen*) can be seen in only in the second year learner corpus. Of these 6 past participles, four past participles (*spoken, used, taught and made*) are used in passive voice as a new grammar structure. Two past participles (*been* and *seen*) are used in the present perfect form. Concordance analysis, thus, shows that, though the present perfect is, according to MEXT guidelines, a grammar structure designated for the third year, it doesn't necessarily pose difficulty for second-year learners. This might indicate the impact of using Teacher Talk for inputting new grammar structures that are not consciously taught in the second-year English

lessons.

6.3.2.6. as past be-verb

The past forms of the be-verb can be seen only in the second year learner corpus. Learners use these two kinds of past be-verbs in three kinds of grammar structures, the general past, the past progressive and the passive voice.

6.3.2.7. as past regular verb

The simple past regular verbs (*used, visited and learned*) can be seen in the second year learner corpus. Past regular verb is taught as a new grammar structure at the end of the first-year grade. Therefore, some usages of past regular verbs are already in the first-year writing but learners can get pronunciation training (*used, visited and learned*) from their second year.

6.3.2.8. as past irregular verb

Past irregular verbs (*saw, had and ate*) are listed as a new grammar point in English textbook of the second year.

6.3.2.9. as be going to form

As a new grammar structure, the form *be going to* is instructed in the second-year grade. According to concordance analysis, concerning the usage of *be going to* is concerned mainly with mentioning a learner's schedule to go to some places and their plan to do something in the future.

6.3.2.10. as "S + V + O + C" sentence

Five verbs (*tell, call, ask, and teach*) are used in "S + V + O + C" sentences as a new grammar structure. This SVOC form seems to be difficult to use for learners but there is a tendency for learners to try to use vocabulary concerning a new grammar structure which they learn in their English lessons.

In this section, we focus on the 100 most frequent verbs in the second year learner corpus as compared with the first year learner corpus. Furthermore, we focused on verbs that can be seen in only second year learner corpus and examined these verbs. In addition, we have divided them into categories of verb use. After categorizing these verbs, we have examined further what features we could see concerning new grammar structures in the English textbook of the second year. It was shown that learners use verbs concerning new grammar structures positively after being instructed in their daily English lessons. In the following section, we will focus on prepositions and will give an overview of preposition use in the second year learner corpus.

6.3.3. Comparing preposition wordlists

In this section, let's focus on the most frequent prepositions and take a look at the second year learner corpus to see what can be compared with the first year learner corpus. Table 6.3.3 shows the 19 most frequent prepositions with the number of tokens as standardized at 10,000 words and their raw frequencies:

Table 6.3.3.
19 Most Frequent Prepositions.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	R.F.	word	R.	Freq.	R.F.	word
1	167.68	166	in	11	9.09	9	like
2	163.64	162	to	12	4.04	4	around
3	32.32	32	about	13	2.02	2	during
4	29.29	29	of	14	2.02	2	near
5	25.25	25	at	15	1.01	1	after
6	25.25	25	from	16	1.01	1	against
7	24.24	24	by	17	1.01	1	as
8	20.2	20	on	18	1.01	1	before
9	16.16	16	with	19	1.01	1	round
10	12.12	12	for				

From table 6.3.3, the 10 most frequent prepositions in the second year learner corpus can all be seen in the first year learner corpus. For those ranking from 11th to 19th, four prepositions such as (*near, against, as* and *before*) can be seen only in the second year learner corpus. Without, *behind, front* and *of* may be seen in the first year corpus. The ration of common preposition use is exactly the same in both corpora. There is a 21% difference in prepositions appearance between the two corpora.

6.3.4. Comparing conjunction word lists

In this section, let's focus on the most frequent conjunctions. Table 6.5.4 shows the 10 most frequent conjunctions with the number of tokens standardized at 10,000 words and their raw frequencies.

Table 6.3.4.
10 Most Frequent Conjunctions.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words

R.	Freq.	R.F.	Word	R.	Freq.	R.F.	Word
1	96.97	96	and	6	10.1	10	that
2	55.56	55	because	7	4.04	4	as
3	55.56	55	or	8	4.04	4	when
4	42.42	42	but	9	1.01	1	after
5	34.34	34	than	10	1.01	1	so

From table 6.3.4, 9 common conjunctions can be seen in both corpora and one conjunction only in the second year learner corpus. Though 90% of the conjunctions are the same in both corpora, it seems that the high frequency of *because* (ranking 2nd) is influenced a new grammar structure in the textbooks of the second year, where it is used as the answer to the why-question. In addition, certain other frequency conjunctions such as *than* (ranking 5th^a) appears in the English textbooks of the second year.

6.3.5. Comparing adjective word lists

In this section, we will focus on adjective wordlist to compare the second year learner corpus with the first year learner corpus.

Table 6.3.5 shows the 10 most frequent adjectives with the number of tokens as standardized at 10,000 words and their raw frequencies:

Table 6.3.5.
20 Most Frequent Adjectives.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	R.F.	word	R.	Freq.	R.F.	word
1	93.94	93	old	11	11.11	11	better
2	41.41	41	high	12	11.11	11	interesting
3	40.4	40	junior	13	11.11	11	larger
4	39.39	39	japanese	14	9.09	9	beautiful
5	30.3	30	good	15	8.08	8	fine
6	20.2	20	nice	16	7.07	7	big
7	18.18	18	english	17	7.07	7	favorite
8	18.18	18	very	18	7.07	7	happy
9	15.15	15	best	19	6.06	6	electric
10	12.12	12	taller	20	5.05	5	hard

The first- and second year learner corpora share the 14 most frequent adjectives out of the top 20 adjectives appearing in both the first- and second year learner corpora. Six adjectives (*taller, better, interesting, larger, electric* and *hard*) appear only in the second year learner corpus. Three of these six adjectives are used as a comparative form and are taught as a new grammar structure. Among the top 50 most frequent adjectives, 24 (48%) are commonly used in both corpora. 26 adjectives (52%) are only used in the second year learner corpus. They are *taller, better, larger, electric, hard, tallest, long, sad, smaller, strongest, terrible, tired, used, comic, easy, kind, other, white, Cambodian, glad, hot, pro, raw, smallest, Spanish* and *strong*. Taken as a whole, it would appear to be possible to divide adjective into two categories.

6.3.5.1. as a comparative and superlative

Four adjectives (*taller, better, larger* and *smaller*) are used as comparatives. In addition, three adjectives (*tallest, strongest* and *smallest*) also can be seen as a superlative. This would be because they appear as new grammar structures in the second-year English textbooks, a phenomenon previously noted with other vocabulary items.

6.3.5.2. as expressing feeling

Seven adjectives (*hard, sad, terrible, tired, easy, kind* and *glad*) are used to express the learner's feelings. This shows an expansion in ability to express a variety of feeling during the second year.

Among the 100 most frequent adjectives, 42% appear in both the first- and second year learner corpora, whereas 58% are seen only in the second year learner corpus. From the 50th most frequent adjective onward, frequency tends to be quite low. The 11 most frequently used adjectives (*good, nice, very, best, interesting, beautiful, fine, big, favorite, happy* and *hard*) appear in both corpora.

6.3.6. Comparing adverb wordlists

In this section, we will focus on adverb use. There are many adverbs of quite low frequency, so it would seem better to examine the examine 50 most frequent. Table 6.3.6

shows the 20 most frequent adverbs with the number of tokens standardized at 10,000 words and their raw frequencies:

Table 6.3.6.
 20 Most Frequent Adverbs.
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words

R.	Freq.	R.F.	word	R.	Freq.	R.F.	word
1	92.9392		very	11	13	1	when
2	74.7574		well	12	12	1	too
3	45.4545		how	13	10	1	best
4	44.4444		better	14	9	1	now
5	40.440		yesterday	15	7	1	ever
6	34.3434		how	16	7	1	soon
7	34.3434		where	17	7	1	there
8	31.3131		so	18	6	1	once
9	28.2828		please	19	6	1	so
10	15.15	15	in	20	5	1	hard

From table 6.3.6, we can see that 14 (70%) of the common adverbs appear in the top 20 adverbs, according to frequency. The six adverbs that are used in only the second year learner corpus are *better*, *ever*, *there*, *once*, *so* and *hard*. When we examine the top 50 most frequent adverbs, 31 (62%) of these adverbs are in both corpora whereas only 19 (38%) can be seen in just the second year learner corpus, being; *better*, *ever*, *once*, *hard*, *home*, *tomorrow*, *abroad*, *ago*, *far*, *forward*, *here*, *out*, *quite*, *usually*, *why*, *yet*, *absolutely*, *at* and *away*. There is variation of adverb use though the frequency is very low from the 45th most frequently used adverb to the 75th. This would indicate that it seems to be a little bit difficult for learners to use variety adverbs in their writing because of less opportunity to encounter adverbial use in comparison with other new grammar structures taught in Japanese lower secondary English lessons. In other words, an improvement in the ratio of adverb use would seem to depend on more instruction time being devoted to this.

6.4. Analysis of adjectives and adverbs to create a new tag-set

This section will give the results of adjective use and adverb use in more detail based on a new tag-set developed for this research. For Table 6.4.1, 18 tag-sets were made use of as opposed to only three tag sets available for CLAWS 7.

Table 6.4.1.
A New Tag-Set for Adjectives.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

new tag set of adjectives	Freq.	R.F
adjective: comparative, pure	65	64
adjective: compound, nominative	91	90
adjective: phrasal, cardinal	13	13
adjective: phrasal, nominative	256	253
adjective: simple, -ed participle	14	14
adjective: simple, -ing participle	45	45
adjective: simple, cardinal	284	281
adjective: simple, determiner	44	44
adjective: simple, interrogative	61	60
adjective: simple, locative	2	2
adjective: simple, nominative	80	79
adjective: simple, number of times	14	14
adjective: simple, ordinal	102	101
adjective: simple, plural, determiner	9	9
adjective: simple, pure	1175	1163
adjective: simple, singular, determiner	39	39
adjective: simple, temporal	29	29
adjective: superlative, pure	22	22

Table 6.4.1 shows that the most frequent usage of the adjective is as a *simple, pure adjective (1175 examples)* when the 18 adjective tag-sets are applied. The second largest number of adjectives is for adjectives that are *simple, cardinal (284)* and the third largest number for adjectives that are *phrasal, nominative (256)*. The fourth largest number of adjectives is *simple, ordinal (102)* and fifth largest number is *compound, nominative (91)*. These most frequent adjective usages can be thought of as representing typical adjective

use. However, we can see other usages as rather lower frequencies. Thus, for *comparative*, *pure* we have only 65 examples, and for *superlative*, *pure* we have 22, which would seem to be on account of these being introduced as new grammar structures in the second-year grade. In addition, there can be seen some variation in adjective usages which serve to express the learner's feelings. These would be *simple*, *-ed participle* (14) and *simple*, *-ing*, *participles* at 45. Furthermore, there also can be seen other adjective usages such as *simple determiner* at 44 examples.

Table 6.4.2.
A New-Tag Set for Adverbs.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000

new tagset of adverb	Freq.	R.F
adverb: phrasal verb	8	8
adverb: phrasal, disjunctive	92	91
adverb: phrasal, locative	7	7
adverb: phrasal, temporal	154	152
adverb: simple, approximate	4	4
adverb: simple, circumstantial	281	281
adverb: simple, comparison	6	6
adverb: simple, conjunctive	648	642
adverb: simple, degree	248	246
adverb: simple, disjunctive	13	13
adverb: simple, ended	1	1
adverb: simple, locative	49	49
adverb: simple, negative	165	163
adverb: simple, pure	29	29
adverb: simple, quantifiable	1	1
adverb: simple, request	90	89
adverb: simple, temporal	74	73
adverb: simple, wh-word clusters	654	654

Table 6.4.2 shows that the most frequent usage of adverbs is *simple, conjunctive* with 648 examples. In particular, the usage of 'and', 'so' and 'but' stand out, being also seen in the first year learner corpus. Moreover, it can be said as a feature of conjunction use in the second year learner corpus that the following two words such as “*why*” and “*because*” appear often. The result seems to show that these words are influenced as a new grammar structures in English textbooks of the second year. The second most frequent usage of adverbs is as *simple, wh-word clusters* (654). In particular, the number

of question form such as “*which*” can be seen in the second-year learner is due to their being taught as a new grammar structure as in “*Which do you like better, A or B?*.” The third most frequent usage of adverbs is *simple, circumstantial* with 281 examples. Examples of these are '*better*', '*than*' and '*best*'. When used as adverbs, these three words are concerned with the comparative and superlative, which are introduced in the English textbooks of the second year. We can also see learner use of certain kinds of disjunction in their writing, including '*on the other hand*', '*at least*', '*of course*', '*for example*' and '*by the way*'. Thus, learners acquire not only new grammar structures provided for by MEXT guidelines but also use developmental disjunction use in their writing which is not.

6.5. Wordlist of Verbs in the second Year learner corpus

This section discusses how the wordlist of verbs in second year learner corpus was made and shows some of the verbs there.

6.5.1. Making a Wordlist of Verbs

This learner corpus is annotated the CLAWS 7 (the constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System) developed by Lancaster University. As a corpus analyzing tool, “AntConc 3.3.4.” was used to make a wordlist of verbs. To make the wordlist of verbs, it is necessary for the CLAWS 7 tag set to be loaded into AntConc 3.3.4. In addition, it is also necessary for AntConc 3.3.4 to recognize the CLAWS 7 tag set as

readable to search and extract only verbs from the learner corpus data.

6.5.2. Wordlist of verbs

Table 6.5.1 shows a word list of verbs, being the 100 most frequent verbs in a second year learner corpus. The frequency in the wordlist of verbs is standardized at 10,000 words.

Table 6.5.1.

<i>20 Most Frequent Verbs/100 Verbs</i>							
R.	Freq.	R.F.	Verb	R.	Freq.	R.F.	verb
1	369.7366		is_vbz	11	52.53	52	have_vh
2	287.8285		do_vd	12	50.51	50	s_vbz
3	129.2928		m_vbm	13	47.47	47	can_vm
4	116.1415		like_vv	14	46.46	46	want_vv
5	111.1110		like_vvi	15	44.44	44	was_vbdz
6	102.0201		are_vbr	16	43.43	43	know_vvi
7	74.7574		play_vvi	17	38.38	38	went_vvd
8	62.6362		will_vm	18	35.35	35	did_vdd
9	57.5857		go_vvi	19	35.35	35	have_vhi
10	54.55	54	be_vbi	20	27.27	27	live_vv

6.5.3. Overviewing of the 100 most frequent verbs

In this chapter, we will look at the 100 most frequent verbs in a second year learner corpus and compare it with the wordlist of verbs in a first year learner corpus. The 10 most frequent verbs are “*is, do, 'm, like, like, are, play, will, go and be*”. From the 11th to the 40th most frequent verbs, we can account for “*want, was, went, want, think, spoken, tell, call, playing and were* appearing due to the influence of MEXT guidelines. From the ranking 41th to ranking 70th most frequent verbs, “*watching, going, listening, tell, 'll, see, seen, been, used, called, reading and would*” are to be noted. From the 71st to the 100 most frequent verbs, “*working, doing, eating, going and taught* reflect new grammar

points taught in the second year. Having given a general overview of verbs in this section, let's now focus on the 10 most frequent verbs in the second year learner corpus to see what a more detailed analysis might uncover when a comparison is made with the first year learner corpus.

6.5.4. Comparing the 10 most frequent verbs in the first year learner corpus and the second year learner corpus

In this chapter, we will focus on the 10 most frequent verbs in a second year-learner corpus when compared with the first-year learner corpus and what features we can see when we make a deeper analysis for each verb, comparing the first- and second year learner corpora. Table 6.5.2 shows the 10 most frequent verbs of the first and second year learner corpora. The frequency is standardized at 10,000 words.

Table 6.5.2.
*10 Most Frequent Verbs in a First Year Learner's Corpus
and a 2nd Year Learner's Corpus*

1st year corpus				2nd year corpus			
R.	Freq.	R.F.	verb	R.	Freq.	R.F.	verb
1	398.33	724	is_vbz	1	369.7	366	is_vbz
2	211.82	385	do_vd	2	287.88	285	do_vd
3	140.29	255	m_vbm	3	129.29	128	m_vbm
4	139.74	254	are_vbr	4	116.16	115	like_vv
5	134.24	244	can_vm	5	111.11	110	like_vvi
6	102.33	186	play_vvi	6	102.02	101	are_vbr
7	80.33	146	like_vvi	7	74.75	74	play_vvi
8	72.07	131	like_vv	8	62.63	62	will_vm
9	59.42	108	s_vbz	9	57.58	57	go_vvi
10	56.12	102	did_vdd	10	54.55	54	be_vbi

Table 6.5.2 shows that six verbs (*is*, *do*, *'m*, *like* (*_vvi*), *like* (*_vv*) and *are*) are shared between both corpora. Though these six verbs are commonly used in both corpora, the question becomes whether these six verbs used as the same way. In addition, we can see that three verbs (*can*, *'s*, and *did*) only appear in the first year learner corpus. From this, one might think that these three verbs are connected with new grammar structures in the first-year English textbooks and, in fact, MEXT guidelines mandate the teaching of *can* as an auxiliary verb, *'s* as a be verb form, and *did* as a past form of verbs. Furthermore, there are three verbs to be seen in only the second year learner corpus (*will*, *go* and *be*). *Will* may be accounted for as a new grammar point of the future tense in second-year English textbooks. But why is the frequency concerning *go* and *be* so high?

6.5.5. The 5 most frequent verbs in the second year learner corpus

6.5.5.1. Ranking 1st: *is*

We will focus on the usage of the most frequently appearing verb, *is*. The be verb “*is*” is shown as a grammar point in first-year English textbooks. Moreover, we can imagine that the verb “*is*” has the highest frequency in the wordlist of verbs because there are many usages involving “*is*” in English. In the first-year English textbook, “*is*” appears as a *copula*, a verb indicating place and as an auxiliary (the present progressive). Interesting results may be obtained when using the second year learner corpus to do a trigram analysis of “*is*”. We can see “*is spoken, is taller than, is seen, is used, is English used, is the tallest, is as tall, is Japanese used, is larger than*”, and “*is played around*”.

From this trigram analysis of be verb “*is*”, we can see that second-year learners can use the be verb “*is*” in connection with new grammar structures such as the present passive voice, the comparative and the superlative, representing an advance in developmental usage.

According to the new tag set, we can see that the most frequent usage is as a *third person singular in the present copular form* (freq. 688/10,000 words). Next, it appears 56 times to list the *passive voice in the present* and it often appears with the name of a language such as *Japanese, English or French* as the subject. When doing pair work, a common topic sentence would be “*What language is spoken in France?*” In addition, there can be seen more two features concerning the usage of the be verb “*is*”. One is connected with “*There as an impersonal subject*” sentence pattern (56/10,000) and the other is as a *gerund with a third person singular in the present as copular form* (freq. 5/10,000). Though the number of gerund usages is very small, it could be very important to focus on this kind of lower frequency usage in order to get to know more about learner’s developmental usage concerning new grammar. In this point, the reason why we can see gerund usages in their writing depends on learner’s positive attitude to try out new word combinations. In the gerund usages, all gerund usages are used to mention the learner’s hobby as in “*My hobby is drawing pictures.*”

6.5.5.2. Ranking 2nd: *do*

A trigram analysis of the second year learner corpus for “*do*” shows the pattern “*Well, what do*” (ranking: 2nd, freq.: 6.06) appearing in the number two position. A

concordance analysis of this trigram shows the following.

Concordance of tri-gram: *Well, what do*

Well, what do you enjoy on Sunday?

Well, what did you do last night?

Well, what do you enjoy every Sunday?

Well, what do you want to be in the future? (2)

From this, we can see that we also have the appearance of the past form “*did*” as well as the to-infinitive in another example. The to-infinitive can be explained on the basis of it having been listed as a new grammar structure in second-year English textbooks. Furthermore, it is quite interesting that the beginning of these concordance lines is all the same, being “*Well*”. This invites further investigation, so let’s focus on the trigram “*Well, which do*” (*ranking: 6th, freq.: 3.03*), by employing a concordance analysis.

Concordance of trigram: *Well, which do*

Well, which do you like better, summer or winter?

Well, which do you like better, baseball or soccer?

Well, which do you like better, tennis or soccer?

From above the result, we can see that the trigram is used in the comparative structure, “*Which do you like better, A or B?*” which is featured in the textbooks of second-year learners. Moreover, they associate “*Well*” with *what* and *which* when “*do*” is the third element. This does not seem equally applicable to the future, as may be seen from a concordance analysis of “*will you do*”.

Concordance of tri-gram: *will you do*

What will you do during the winter vacation?

What will you do next summer vacation?

What will you do next winter vacation?

Here, too, the result seems to be influenced a new grammar structure of the future tense appearing in second-year English textbooks.

Next, let's consider the trigram “*and what do*”. A concordance analysis gives the following results.

Concordance of tri-gram: *and what do*

And what do you want to be?

And what do will you want to be in the future?

This shows two interesting features. One is the usage of the to-infinitive and the other is the adverbial usage of *and*. The to-infinitive is one of the new grammar structures in second-year English textbooks. It is interesting that second-year learners use the new grammar structure with an adverb such as “*and*” in their writing. It seems significant that

second-year learners not only pick up new grammar structures but also linking words that are sometimes attached to those structures. Now let's focus on the trigram "*did you do*" and subject it to concordance analysis.

Concordance of tri-gram: *did you do*

What did you do last Sunday?

What did you do last weekend?

From above the concordance lines, we can see the usage of "*do*" as a general verb do in the past question form. This is shown in second-year English textbooks as a new grammar point. Now, let's do a concordance analysis of the trigram "*what sport do.*"

Concordance of tri-gram: *what sport do*

**What sport do you soccer club?*

What sports do you like the best?

One of the above is an incorrect sentence, but we can see the usage of the superlative in another concordance line. A comparative and a superlative are treated as new grammar points in second-year English textbooks. In this section, we have focused on the usage of verb "*do*" using both n-gram analysis and concordance analysis. By using different analytical methods, we could see more clearly the variation in the usage of the verb "*do*" among second year learner writing.

Let's now examine "*do*" with the new tag set. The most frequent usage is *the second person singular in the present intransitive form*. The next highest frequency is the

second person singular in the present transitive form and the general verbs “*have, play, work, know, want, enjoy, watch, love, believe, keep and eat*” can be seen. Though the frequency is not so high, *the second person singular in the present intransitive* can also be seen, but only in the negative sentence form with the verbs, “*like, know, play, speak, study and want.*” In addition, the first person singular with a future intransitive verb using the auxiliary verb “*will*” appears, as does *the second person singular in the future transitive (also, with auxiliary verb will)* and *the second person singular in the future with be going to*. Furthermore, a recycling use of the past tense that was already instructed in the first year can be seen in the *second person singular in the past intransitive form*.

6.5.5.3. Ranking 3rd: 'm

Now we will focus on the usage of the be verb form ‘*m* (*ranking: 3rd, freq.: 140.29*) in the verb frequency wordlist. Trigram analysis shows usage patterns such as “‘*m going to, 'm a member of,*” and “‘*m looking forward.*” Among these three trigrams, the trigram of “‘*m going to*” is a new grammar point appearing as a future tense form in second-year English textbooks. The other two trigrams, however, are not treated as a new grammar structures in the textbooks. Therefore, it is probable that these expressions might be a product of some language activity in daily English classes such as pair work, group work or an acting dialogue. In any case, it is an indication that learners acquire language, not only by textbook based lesson time.

Let’s now use the new tag set to examine the usage of be verb “*am.*” Use with the *first person singular in the present predicative form (freq. 32/10,000 words)* and *the first*

person singular in the present copular form (freq. 27/10,000 words) seems to roughly similar. With the predicative form, there is a tendency to describe their position as a junior high school student, their nationality, or their being a member of a club. On the other hand, learners mainly mention about their birthplace and age when using the copular form. In addition, though of low frequency, the usage of *present progressive in a first person singular in the present transitive form (freq. 2/10,000 words)* can also be seen.

6.5.5.4. Ranking 4th & 5th: like

Like appears twice with CLAWS 7 tag sets, with *like_vv* indicating the base form of the verb and *like_yvi* an infinitive. Here, let's focus on the usage as the base form of a lexical verb. Though we can imagine that the most frequent usage of a lexical verb will be as a lexical verb such as “*Do you like something*” (*a favorite sport, favorite food and so on*), we wonder whether we will see this kind of a typical usage in their writing or not. A trigram analysis shows “*like the best, like to play, like baseball better, like better baseball, like better summer, like listening to, like better ---, like better meat, like better than, like eating out, like reading a,*” and “*like summer better.*” Trigram analysis shows three different language uses, being the comparative, the to-infinitive, and the gerund. All three grammar points are treated as new grammar structures in second-year English textbooks. Moreover, we can see a tendency for second-year learners to reuse elements of grammar from the first year and try to mix this with what they learn in their second year, that there seems to be a process which language acquisition and language variation undergo.

Next, we will use the new tag set to analyze the lexical verb “*like.*” This shows

mainly three sentence forms as follows, being *the first person singular in the present transitive*, *the first person singular in the present transitive as an infinitive form* and *the second person singular in the present transitive as the infinitive form*. Let's examine in detail about each form what features we can see. In the form of *the first person singular in the present transitive*, the sentence is an affirmative form and it can be seen with certain characteristic categories of subjects being *travel, music, animals, seasons, books, movies, parks, rooms, TV, food and drink*. As a *first person singular in the present transitive as infinitive*, the sentence is used as a negative sentence form and concerns itself with the following categories of noun, being *sport, clothes, food, study, travel, school subjects and color*. In the form of *a second person singular in the present transitive as an infinitive form*, it can be seen as a question form with the noun categories of *games, travel, food, school subjects, sports, animals, the sea, songs, books, seasons, TV programs, comedians, drink and food*. In addition, it is interesting to note that *the third person singular in the present transitive* and *the third person singular in the present transitive as infinitive form* both appear. In *the third person singular in the present transitive form*, the sentence is an affirmative form and the characteristic categories of noun are *animals, cooking, TV, sports, music and food*. Moreover, in *the third person singular person in the present transitive as an infinitive form*, the sentence is a question form and the noun categories of *sports, cooking, music, travel, study, TV and animals* can be found. Here, too, recycling is in evidence.

6.6. Examining developmental verb usages

We have focused on the 10 most frequent verbs and tried to examine language use deeply through doing a multiple analysis of verb frequency wordlists, and the use of n-gram analysis and concordance analysis. As the result, we could see some developmental language use was based on the reuse of grammar structures that were instructed in the first-year stage and mixing them with new grammar structures acquired in the second-year stage. In addition, we could also see some of verbs are used as idioms and others are subject to incorrect use, partly due to the positive attitude of second-year learners to experimentation, as is evidenced in their writing.

6.6.1. Usage of that-clause (Ranking 25th: think)

We will examine the usage of the lexical verb *think* (ranking: 25th, freq.: 23.23) because it becomes the basis of a complex sentence structure which appears as a new grammar structure in the second-year English textbook. In the first-year stage, we can see that first-year learners mainly use simple sentences and compound sentences in their writing. As the complex sentence is instructed at the second-year stage, we can expect that second-year learners might use it in their writing.

4-gram analysis gives us 9 examples, being “*think that I’m, think that it’s a, think Japan is larger, think Japanese can know, think landmine is very, think English is, think Harry Potter,*” and “*think --- is strongest.*” Some interesting features of developmental language usage concern the use of the auxiliary verbs might and can after the lexical verb

think, the comparative, the superlative and where the subject is used with a that-clause. In addition, another feature of the usage of the lexical verb *think* is the expression “*I think so*”. Clearly, students attempt to express their feeling and thought by means of mixing two or more points of grammar in their writing.

Next we will do an analysis of “*think*” by using the new tag set. The most frequent sentence form is *the first person singular as a transitive infinitive form* and can be seen mainly as having six characteristic features. They are the that-clause after the lexical verb *think*, with an auxiliary verb such as S + auxiliary verb (might) + verb, with S + auxiliary verb (will) + verb, with S + auxiliary verb (can) + verb, with the comparative and superlative such as S + comparative or S + V + superlative, as an idiom such as S + have to, and with the to-infinitive as in S + want + to + verb. Thus, it is quite interesting to know that there also can be seen some variation use of different kinds of sentence forms with that-clause. Another characteristic use of the lexical verb *think* is of high frequency and that is as *a second person singular used as a transitive infinitive form*. In this form, the most frequent expression is “*What do you think about---*?” and, occasionally, the expressions “*Do you think that ---?*” and “*Did you think ---?*.”

6.6.2. Usage of present & past passive voice (Ranking 26th: spoken, 53rd: seen, 54th: used, 89th: made)

In this section, we will focus on the usage of past participles (*spoken, seen, used, and made*). The reason is because this indicates the presence of the passive, both present and past, and because this is a second-year English textbook grammar point. Let’s,

therefore, focus on the usage of the four past participles mentioned above. A trigram analysis of *spoken* shows eight different trigrams, with all of them being in the present passive voice. They were “*Japanese is spoken, *Japan is spoken, language is spoken, n’t spoken, *Japanese spoken, Is English spoken, Spanish is spoken*” and “**what is spoken.*” It is interesting that three sentence forms, the affirmative, negative and interrogative can be seen and that for the subjects of these forms, *Japanese, English, language, and Spanish* are used. The reason why second-year learners use the present passive voice in their writing is probably two-fold, being that it appears as a lesson topic in second-year English textbooks and because it may be considered as the outcome of pair work practice in English classes when, as a speaking activity, one student has to ask what language is spoken in another countries.

When using the new tag set, *spoken* may also be seen used with the third person singular in the phrase “*English is spoken in France.*”

Now, let’s consider the past participle “*seen*”, examining it by 4-gram analysis. The phrases which appear are “*because rain is seen, many landmines are seen, *many snows are seen, *many fishes are seen, Mt Fuji is seen, --- is seen in,*” and “**Panda is seen.*” “*Seen*” is found only in affirmative form sentences and, when using it, second year learners try to mention something regarding their daily lives such as the weather (*rain, snow*), a mountain (*Mt. Fuji*), and an animal (*panda*). However, we also notice incorrect uses with regard to the nouns *snow, fish* and *panda* which shows that second-year learners have difficulty with uncountable nouns. Concerning *seen*, it appears as a second person singular as past participle in present perfect, a third singular in the past as a participle in the present past voice, and a third person plural as a past participle

in the present passive voice.

Concerning “used,” trigram analysis shows 13 trigrams, being “*is English used; Japanese is used; Is Japanese used; *both jointed used; *Computer is used; culture. I used; English is used; everything. I used; future? I used; guitar. I used; it is used; n’t used*”; and “*very cool. and --- used*”. Seven present passive voice forms are seen here and we can see that other usages are past forms. Nouns in the past passive voice are regarding a language such as *English, Japanese* and *a computer*. In addition, as a pronoun, third person singular it is used.

The past participle “*used*” appears in the second year learner corpus as *a third person singular as past participle in past passive form, a third singular as past participle in present passive voice form, as an idiom as a first person singular as auxiliary in past form, and as a third person singular as auxiliary verb in past form.*

When the past participle is examined by means of 4-gram analysis, it shows six different trigrams. They show the past participle functioning as a past verb, as a past participle and a present perfect. The present perfect is especially interesting, because this is a point of grammar that to be instructed in third year English textbooks. The reason for its appearance might be that some grammar structures from the third-year stage are used as a part of Teacher Talk by the instructor in daily learner centered English classes. Use as a present perfect may be taken as evidence that new grammar structures may be occasionally introduced by other means than just the textbook.

The past participle, when analysis was done using the new tag set, appeared as *a third person singular as past participle in past passive voice form* (freq:2/10,000 words), *a second person singular as past participle in present passive voice* (freq:1/10,000

words), *a third person singular as past participle in a present past voice form* (freq:1/10,000 words), *a first singular as past participle in present perfect form* (freq: 1/10,000 words), *a third person singular as past in transitive, past form* (freq: 1/10,000 words) and *a first person a past in transitive, past form* (freq: 1/10,000 words).

6.6.3. Usage of S + V + O + C (Ranking 28th: tell, 29th: call)

In this section, we will explore the capability whether we can see or not the usage of S + V + O + C when considering the verbs *tell* and *call*. Though this sentence form is listed as a new grammar structure in third-year English textbooks, when *tell* is examined by 4-gram analysis, we see the following examples: *tell me your address, tell me your country, tell me anything, tell me your friend* and *tell me your telephone number*. Considered further, a concordance analysis of *tell me your address* shows 21 appearances of *Will you tell me your address?* and five of *Would you tell me your address?*”

Concordance of 4th-gram: tell

Will you tell me your address? (21)

Would you tell me your address? (5)

From above the result, we can see that there are mainly two usage of the 4-gram of the lexical verb *tell* such as *Will you tell me your address?* and *Would you tell me your address?* The reason that these expressions are so frequent might be because of the topic of the writing assignment. The usage of the auxiliary verb *would* to indicate

politeness is not treated in second-year English textbooks but would seem to be a product of classroom activities. Analysis through use of the new tag set shows that the most frequent form is as a second person singular acting as a transitive in the infinitive. Other usages are “*auxiliary + you + tell + me about ---?*” where the auxiliary appears as *will, would, can, and could*. Another frequent sentence form is as *an implied second person singular* appearing as *a transitive imperative (freq: 14/10,000 words)*. This appears as “*Please tell me about ---.*”

Next, let’s examine the verb call in the same way. The only trigram appearing is “*Please call me + first name or nickname,*” which is used as a part of the learners' self-introduction in their writing task. In the third-year textbook the learners would use in the succeeding year, “*We call the dog Pochi*” appears as a new grammar structure. Even so, we can see second-year learners using it naturally in the context of their writing when introducing themselves.

6.6.4. Usage of –ing participle (Ranking 35th: playing, 43th: watching, 46th: listening, 67th: reading, 79th: working, 82th: eating)

The –ing participle is a form for which we would be able to expect to see variation in use during the learners' second year of study. The use of the -ing participle with regard to 6 of the 100 most frequent verbs will be considered.

6.6.4.1. Raking 35th: playing

A trigram analysis of playing shows “*I enjoy playing, --- was playing, *he like playing, hobby is playing, I enjoy playing, I enjoyed playing, I love playing, I was playing, think that playing,*” and “*we were playing.*” We can, thus, see the *ing* participle appearing as a *gerund*, as a *gerund that is the subject of a that-clause* and as *the past progressive* (in one case with the be verb “*was*” and another with the be verb “*were*”). Other characteristic sentence forms of the *ing* participle playing are as a *first person singular as gerund used with the present*, a *third person singular as a gerund* where the subject is in the present, and as a *first person singular as a gerund in the past*. In addition, though the frequency is very low, we can see some other variation in use such as: a *first person singular as an ing participle as a transitive in an idiom*, a *second plural person as an ing participle as a transitive in the past*, a *first person singular as an ing participle as a transitive in past*, and as a *first person singular as an ing participle as a transitive in the present progressive*.

6.6.4.2. Raking 43th: watching

A concordance analysis of the *ing* participle was carried out, showing:

Concordance of: watching

**My brother watching TV yesterday.*

Was your brother watching TV yesterday?

I enjoy playing TV game or watching TV.

I was watching TV yesterday.

**Was you watching TV?*

My father likes watching TV. (2)

Does your father watching TV?

**I went to the department to watching TV.*

**Did you watching TV last Monday?*

I was watching TV.

From the above, we can see the *-ing* participle used as the past progressive with the be verb “was”, as a gerund (note the incorrect use regarding the gerund with to-infinitive). It was also used with auxiliary verbs such as *did* and showed the lack of the be verb in the past progressive. In particular, it appears difficult for learners to distinguish the usage of a past lexical verb and of a past progressive.

With regard to “*watching,*” analysis with the new tag set indicate mainly two usage tendencies, with one being its usage as a gerund and the other its usage as a past progressive. As a gerund, it can be seen in *the first person singular present, the second person singular present, and a third person singular present sentence forms*. And as a past progressive, it can be seen as *a first person singular ing participle, being a transitive past progressive, also as a second person singular ing participle, being a transitive past progressive, also a third person singular ing participle, representing a transitive past, and finally as a second person plural ing participle, that is a past progressive transitive.*

6.6.4.3. Raking 47th: listening

A concordance analysis of the *ing* participle *listening* generated the following results.

Concordance of: listening

**Do you like to listening to music?*

**My sister like listening to music.*

I enjoy listening to music.

I usually enjoy listening to music and shopping.

I like listening to music.

Do you like listening to music.

**I listening to American music better now.*

From above the result, we notice that all usages of the *ing* participle *listening* are as gerunds and one incorrect use of two appearing is with the to-infinitive and another is with the lack of the be verb *am* in the present progressive.

Three different sentence forms can be seen, being: gerund, present progressive and past progressive. When using the new tag set, we see *a first person singular use as a gerund in the present, a second person singular use as a gerund in the present, a third person singular use as a gerund in the present, and a first person singular use as a gerund in the past*. There are two appearances as a past progressive, where, in one case, it is used as a first person singular *ing* participle that is transitive as a past progress and, in the second case, as a second person singular *ing* participle that is transitive in the past

progressive. It appears only one time as a first person singular *ing* participle, that is transitive in the present progressive.

6.6.4.4. Raking 67th: reading

The *ing* participle *reading* also shows variation.

Concordance of: reading

I like reading a book and listening to music.

I like reading a book very much.

**I was reading book in train and bus.*

**My hobby is reading book.*

**I'm looking forward to reading the your letter.*

The three usages are as a gerund, a past progressive with the be verb was, and as an idiom in “*be looking forward to ---ing*”. The new tag set indicates four different sentence forms, where the gerund is used as *an imperative*, *as a pure gerund*, *as an idiom*, and *as a past progressive*.

6.6.4.5. Raking 79th: working

There are four cases of the *ing* participle *working* appearing.

Concordance of: working

Students were working hard to prepare the festival.

**She working ---.*

My father is working for ---.

My father is working with my father.

One of the above two types of language (a past progressive with the be verb *were*) is treated as a new grammar structure in second-year English textbooks. The other is as a present progressive with the be verb “is”, a form appearing in the first-year English textbooks. There are two sentence forms, with one *being a second person singular with an ing participle*, that is transitive in the past progressive and the other *being a third person singular ing participle* that is transitive in the present progressive.

6.6.4.6. Raking 82nd: eating

Lastly, we can see the following variation with *eating*.

Concordance of: eating

Do you like eating out?

I like eating out.

She was eating it.

“*Eating*” can be seen as a gerund and a past progressive with the be verb “was.” As with other *ing* participles examined, we can verify that second-year learners tend to use new grammar structures in their second year. One might think that using and reusing new grammar structures in their writing as an output activity would be very difficult for

learners. However, we can also note that learners face these perceived difficulties, despite making mistakes.

6.6.5. Usage of the lexical verb *want* (Ranking 22nd)

An analysis of *want* is of interest, because we can expect to see the usage of to-infinitive with it.

Concordance of: want

I want to be a traveler.

What do you want to be in the future?(7)

I want to be a baseball player.

I want to be ---.

Because I want to be a sax player.

I want to be a friend with ---.

**I want to be the pianist*

I want to be an instructor.

I want to teach students.

Because I want to call for you.

I want to be a computer programmer.

As expected, the to-infinitive is common, appearing in every case. It most frequently appears as “*What do you want to be in the future?*” This expression seems to

be influenced by a topic of the second-year English textbook the learners used and the to-infinitive grammar point appearing therein. In addition, we can see some variation in the use of nouns, as in *a traveler, a baseball player, a sax player, a friend, a pianist, an instructor* and *a computer programmer*. It is interesting to note that learners exhibit variation in noun use regarding the new grammar structure. The new tag set shows *want* can be seen in *the first person singular as a simple, transitive in the present, a second person singular as a simple, transitive, to-infinitive in the present, a first person singular as a simple, transitive in the past, and a first person singular as a simple, transitive, to-infinitive in present*.

6.6.6. Usage of a past participle *been* (Ranking 56th)

A concordance analysis of *been* yielded the following results.

Concordance of a past participle *been*

Have you ever been to + place?(8)

I have been to + place. (3)

I have ever been to + place. (2)

I have never been to + place. (1)

Of the 14 concordance lines with *been*, it appears in eight as the present perfect in a question form. In order of decreasing frequency, it appears as an affirmative and as a negative form. Though the present perfect form is treated as a grammar point in third-year

English textbooks, second-year learners try to use it positively This would indicate the impact of other classroom activities and of teacher talk as a result of doing English classes in English. New tag set analysis of *been* shows that it can be seen as *a first person singular present intransitive* and *a second person singular present transitive*.

6.7. Preposition use in the second year learner corpus

There are four CLAWS 7 prepositions tag sets (*_IF (for)*, *_II (general preposition)*, *_IO (of)* and *_IW (with, without)*). This is obviously not enough to cover clearly all preposition usages.

6.7.1. Preposition frequency list using CLAWS 7

Though we can see only four preposition tag sets in CLAWS 7, work arounds exist through the use of the corpus analysis tool, AntConc. In such a case, two steps are necessary, the first step being, for instance, to put **_II* as a search word in the search box of cluster analysis in AntConc to get the result of frequency list in including as *_II* preposition tag, and then the second step being to check what kind of prepositions we can see in *_II* preposition tags. The same process should be carried out for the *_IW* tag because of it including two kinds of prepositions, *with* and *without*.

Table 6.9.1 shows a preposition frequency list of the second year learner corpus made using CLAWS 7.

Table 6.9.1.
*Preposition Frequency List by CLAWS 7, the Number of
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words*

No.	Preposition	Frequency
1	in	168
2	to	164
3	about	32
4	of	29
5	at	25
6	from	25
7	by	24
8	on	20
9	with	16
10	for	12
11	like	9
12	around	4
13	during	2
14	near	2
15	after	1
16	against	1
17	as	1
18	before	1
19	round	1

6.7.2. Preposition frequency list using the new tag set

The new tag set was used to create table 6.9.2.

Table 6.9.2
*Preposition Frequency List by a New Tag, the Number of frequency
 standardized at 10,000 words*

No.	prep.	a new tag set	Freq.
1	around	preposition: to many places of an area	4
2	about	preposition: what/how about somebody/something	71
3	as	preposition: comparing things	14
4	at	preposition: where someone is	15
5	at	preposition: idiom	7
6	at	preposition: after certain verb	14
7	at	preposition: exactly when something happens	11
8	by	preposition: who/what does something	25
9	by	preposition: idiom	33
10	by	preposition: quantity	1
11	by	preposition: means/method by car etc	7
12	during	preposition: certain time, aperiod	7
13	for	preposition: thing your feeling are directed towards	20
14	for	preposition: how long situation continues	5
15	for	preposition: what the purpose of an object, action is	6

(Table continues)

(Table continued)

16	for	preposition: idiom	3
17	for	preposition: after certain verbs	1
18	for	preposition: because of	1
19	from	preposition: place of birth/work/live	27
20	from	preposition: sent/given by somebody	35
21	from	preposition: after certain verb	1
22	from	preposition: origin	1
23	from	preposition: when something starts	1
24	from	preposition: idiom	2
25	in	preposition: place, or area to say where someone/thing is	267
26	in	preposition: months, year etc when something happens	80
27	in	preposition: idiom	6
28	in	preposition: while doing something	3
29	in	preposition: how something is done or happens	5
30	like	preposition: similar to something away	2
31	of	preposition: after certain verbs	2
32	of	preposition: thing of the general you refer to	8
33	of	preposition: idiom	37
34	of	preposition: what group one/more things/people belong to	43
35	of	preposition: what a story, picture etc is about	16
36	on	preposition: being broadcast by a radio or television	1
37	on	preposition: on a surface	4
38	on	preposition: day/date, during a particular day	40
39	on	preposition: idiom	3
40	on	preposition: walking	1
41	on	preposition: phrasal verb	1
42	to	preposition: after certain verbs	75
43	to	preposition: where someone or something goes	224
44	to	preposition: idiom	10
45	to	preposition: what/who an action, etc affects	20
46	to	preposition: who receives told/shown something	18
47	to	preposition: when comparing two numbers etc	1
48	with	preposition: people are together in the same place	61
49	with	preposition: idiom	1

The above table exhibits different preposition uses for each preposition. Also, we can see the frequency for each preposition use. In fact, 49 types of preposition use may be seen in second year learner corpus.

6.7.3. Analyses of prepositions through n-gram analysis, concordance analysis and the new tag set analysis

In this section, the focuses will be on the 5 most frequent prepositions (in, to, about, of, at), for which collocation analysis, concordance analysis and new tag set analysis will be carried out.

6.7.3.1. in

The preposition *in* ranked first in the frequency list of 10 most frequent prepositions. Table 6.9.3 shows the results of a bi-gram analysis of the most frequent collocation patterns in which *in* appears.

Table 6.9.3
*5 Most Frequent bi-grams of Pre
Frequency Standardized at 10,0*

Rank	Frequency	bi-gram
1	41	in the
2	33	in japan
3	28	in Tokyo
4	16	in your
5	14	in my

Table 6.9.3 shows four out of five of these five most common collocations are the same as for the first year (*in the, in Japan, in Tokyo* and *in your*). A concordance analysis of the collocation “*in the*” yields the following two interesting examples.

I want to be in the future.

I used to live in the USA.

The above would indicate that the introduction of a new grammar point in the second year such as the to-infinitive and the mentioning of future things can have an impact in different directions.

Japanese is spoken in Japan.

With regard to “*in Japan*”, the passive voice can be seen in the concordance line, “*Japanese is spoken in Japan.*” The passive voice is also treated as a new grammar structure in the second year under MEXT guidelines.

Collocation analysis to right of “*in your*” show the existence of the passive form with the certain participles (*spoken, used and seen*), the superlative form with expressions such as *the tallest*. Also seen were the general present and past verb question forms. The passive form and superlative form are listed as new grammar structures in the second-year course of study, the influence of new grammar structures may be seen. When focusing on right side collocations of “*in your*”, noun variation can be seen (*country, school, family, classroom, town and team*). Concerning left position collocations of “*in my*,” concordance analysis shows the passive voice form, mentions time (*e.g. It is 9:00 in my country*), and the superlative form (*e.g. the tallest and the youngest*). Tables 6.9.4. and 6.9.5 show the result of new tag set analysis.

Table 6.9.4.
*Frequency List of Prepositions Analyzed by a
 1st Year Learner's Corpus with 2nd Year Learner's
 Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

a new tag set for prepositions	167
place, or area to say where someone is	167
month, year etc when something happens	80
how something is done or happens	5

Table 6.9.4 shows a 238 increase in frequency of the preposition usage of “in” with regard to a place (when place is thought of as having a boundary), and a 74 increase concerning time (a particular time of a day or month or year).

Table 6.9.5
*Frequency List of Prepositions analyzed by a New T
 that can be seen newly on 2nd Year Learners' Corpu
 a new tag set for prepositions seen in 2nd year*

idiom	6
while doing something	3
how something is done or happens	4

Table 6.9.5 shows certain new usages, though the frequency for each usage is small. Nevertheless, it is evidence of learner language development.

6.7.3.2. to

The preposition “to” ranks second. Table 6.9.6 shows the result of the five most frequent bi-grams of the preposition “to.”

Table 6.9.6.
*5 Most Frequent bi-grams of Pre
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000*

Rank	Frequency	bi-gram
1	57	to the
2	46	to be
3	21	to play
4	12	to meet
5	10	to go

Table 6.9.6 indicates that second year learners were getting to use new grammar structures listed on the course of study. The bi-gram “to the” is ranked first and this

invites an investigation.

The result of concordance analysis of the bi-gram *to the*

<i>Did you go to the ---?</i>	(5)
<i>Will you go to the ---?</i>	(2)
<i>I go to the ---.</i>	(6)
<i>I will go to the ---.</i>	(6)
<i>Do you have time to go to the ---?</i>	(2)
<i>I'm going to go to the ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I'll go to the ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I want to go to the ---.</i>	(2)
<i>I went to the ---.</i>	(20)
<i>My brother went to the ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I'm going to the ---.</i>	(2)
<i>Are you going to the ---?</i>	(2)
<i>*I went going to the ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I belong to the ---.</i>	(1)
<i>*I'm belong to the ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I'll go back to the ---.</i>	(1)
<i>Have you ever been to the ---?</i>	(1)

It is interesting to see a variety of sentence forms, including the past tense form, the future tense form making use of auxiliary verbs such as *will* and “*be going to*”, the to-infinitive, the present perfect and idioms as in “*belong to*” on the right of the bigram “*to the*”. Second-year learner developmental language use is evident by the use of new grammar structures mixed with others they had already learned in their first year. One more surprising grammar structure seen is the present perfect which is a new grammar point that is supposed to be introduced in the third year of the course of study.

Next, we will continue to examine the next four most frequent bigrams of to-infinitive (*to be, to play, to go* and *to meet*). A concordance analysis of the bi-gram “*to be*” appears below showing a frequency of 46.

The result of concordance analysis of the bi-gram to the

<i>Do you want to be ---?</i>	(1)
<i>I want to be ---.</i>	(24)
<i>I hope to be ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I need more practice to be ---.</i>	(1)

The usage of the above left position to-infinitive bigrams is to be explained by this form being listed as a new grammar point in the second-year course of study. When examining right position bigrams, a variety of nouns can be seen (*flight attendant, traveler, elementary school teacher, baseball player, sax player, friends, pianist, a good tennis player, instructor, a computer programmer, engineer, cartoonist, teacher, singer, nurse, runner, detective, ballet dancer, drummer, soccer player, doctor, football player, pro-guitarist, P.E. teacher, math teacher and video game programmer*). Most of the nouns are not listed in second-year English textbooks, thus providing further evidence of the impact of classroom activities and teacher talk on language acquisition. The following shows the results of a concordance analysis of the right position of the bigram “to play.”

The result of concordance analysis of the bi-gram to play

<i>I went to the park to play ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I go to the part to play ---.</i>	(3)
<i>My brother went to the park to play ---.</i>	(2)
<i>You go to the park to play ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I like to play ---.</i>	(5)
<i>I want to play ---.</i>	(2)
<i>*I enjoy to play ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I go to soccer ground to play ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I went to soccer ground to play ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I went to the gym to play ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I went to the gym to play ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I went to --- to play ---.</i>	(1)

Concordance analysis shows two types of to-infinitive uses, one may be thought of as like a noun usage (e.g. “*I like to play ---.*”) and the other as like adjective usage (e.g. “*I went to the park to play ---.*”), which further indicates the usage of new grammar structures in the second year. In addition, a variety of nouns concerning sports and musical instruments appear on the right position of the bigram to play (*baseball, tennis, sports, basketball, the guitar, and eat, soccer, football, the piano and the violin*).

An analysis of “*to meet*” will not be given as it appears in every case as “*Nice to meet you*”, thus not indicating an independent existence in the learner's mind and appears as an expression of greeting at the beginning of their email assignment, even though its naturalness is questionable. The results of a concordance analysis of the left position bi-gram “*to go*” may be seen as follows.

The result of concordance analysis of the bi-gram *to go*

<i>I want to go ---.</i>	(3)
<i>You want to go ---.</i>	(3)
<i>You have time to go ---.</i>	(2)
<i>I wanted to go ---.</i>	(2)

As with “*to play*”, one sees a noun-like usage and an adjective-like usage with “*to-go.*” In addition, a variety of nouns appear on the right position of the bigram “*to go*” (*Japan, pool, shopping, abroad, park, USA, grandfather, grandmother, travel, Tokyo, UK and cinema*). Thus, we can see nouns concerning the name of a country, travel, shopping, family and amusement places here. New tag set analysis will explore things further in the

next two tables.

Table 6.9.7
Frequency List of Preposition about Analyzed by a New Tag Set to Compare 1st Year Learners' Corpus with 2nd Year Learners' Corpus. Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

a new tag set for prepositions seen in both corpora	1st year	2nd year
after certain verbs	45	75
where someone or something goes	88	224
idiom	2	10

Table 6.9.7 shows an increase of 136 concerning the usage of direction and also an increase of 30 after a certain verb.

Table 6.9.8
Frequency List of Preposition to analyzed by a New Tag Set that Can Be Seen Newly in 2nd Year Learners' Corpus

preposition: what/who an action, etc affects	20
preposition: who receives told/shown something	18
preposition: when comparing two numbers etc	1

Table 6.9.8 shows three types of new preposition usage in the second year, though of relatively low frequency.

6.7.3.3. about

“*About*” does not show many different many kinds of usage, but bi-gram analysis, concordance analysis and new tag set analysis can shed light on usage development.

Table 6.9.9 shows the frequency of the five most frequent bi-grams.

Table 6.9.9
5 Most Frequent bi-grams of Preposition "about".
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Frequency	bi-gram
1	9	about your
2	8	about you
3	3	about movie
4	3	about our
5	2	about my

The bi-grams shown in table 6.9.9 seem to be very simple collocation patterns. Therefore, it becomes necessary for us to do a wider-ranging concordance analysis. The following shows the result of left position concordance analysis of the bi-gram “*about your.*”

The result of concordance analysis of the bi-gram about your

<i>Will you tell me about your ---.</i>	(5)
<i>How about your ---.</i>	(1)
<i>Tell me about your ---.</i>	(1)
<i>I want to know about your ---.</i>	(1)
<i>Please tell me about your ---.</i>	(1)
<i>Can you tell me about your ---.</i>	(1)

We can see that it often comes together with the second-year grammar structure, the to-infinitive, as in “*I want to know about your ---.*” Also of interest is that the auxiliary *will* or *can* + *verb* can be seen in the verb part of such sentence forms. In such cases, learners use two new grammar structures together. In addition, right side collocation analysis shows various nouns (*friend, town, country, family, friend, national langue* and *nation*). A second step is to examine the usage of the bi-gram “*about you,*” of

which eight examples could be found.

The result of concordance analysis of the bi-gram *about you*

Can you tell me anything about you?	(1)
How about you?	(6)
I want to know everything about you.	(1)

The most frequent bi-gram pattern is “*How about you?*” The other two concordance items may also be thought of as expressions of question forms. Though variation is low, it nevertheless exists and is of interest. In connection with this, the bigram of “*about movie,*” is a simple usage in the affirmative form.

Having examined the five most frequent bigrams, we will now employ new tag set analysis for the following table whose frequency is standardized at 10,000 words.

Table 6.9.10
*Frequency List of Preposition about Analysis
 to Compare 1st Year Learners' Corpus with 2
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 words.*

	1st year	2nd year
who/what does something	0	25
idiom	0	33
quantity	0	1
means/method by car etc	12	7

From table 6.9.10, we can see an increase of 25 of the preposition usage *who/what does something* from the first year to the second. With regard to other uses of the preposition *about*, we can see an increase 33 concerning *idiom*. In addition, as a feature of the usage of the preposition *about*, new tag set analysis shows no new second year usage.

6.7.3.4. of

New developmental features may be seen with regard to “of,” though not so many as for “about.” Analysis took place as for other prepositions. Table 6.9.11 shows the result of bi-gram analysis for the preposition “of.”

Table 6.9.11.
5 Most Frequent bi-grams of Preposition "of".
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Frequency	bi-gram
1	7	of the
2	2	of japan
3	2	of my
4	1	of all
5	1	big

Table 6.9.11. does not make it clear why these kinds of bigrams can be seen and in what grammar structures these kinds of bigrams are used. Further analysis is necessary.

The result of concordance analysis of the bi-gram of the

I'm a member of the swimming club.	(1)
*My father is tallest of the four.	(1)
*### is strongest of the four.	(1)
I'm a member of the baseball club.	(1)
*I am smallest of the four.	(1)
*It was smallest of the CD player.	(1)
I like song is Top of the World the best.	(1)

Left position analysis of the bi-grams makes clear the use of superlative forms that are listed in the second year course of study. All these superlative usages are incorrect uses that lack the definitive article. However, this would still make it possible to describe it an inter-language, in other words, a developmental error happening in the process of

acquiring new grammar structures and correct usages. In connection with “of”, noun phrases such as “of the swimming club, of the baseball club, of the four” and “of the CD player” may be seen. Other bigrams are “of Japan, of my, of all,” and “of big” may be profitably examined to explore developmental language uses. Though relatively infrequent, they deserve mention. There are two concordance lines concerning the bigram “of Japan,” being “*Tokyo is capital of Japan” and “*It’s capital of Japan.” Regarding the bigram “of my,” two concordance items can be seen, being “What do you think of my ---?” and “So part of my friends become 14 years old.” As for the bigram “of all,” one concordance item appears, being “I like it the best of all movies.” which illustrates the new second year grammar structure, the superlative form. And as concerns the bigram “of big,” the concordance item “*There are a lot of big building in Tokyo.” provides an example. Table 6.9.12 shows new tag set analysis results.

Table 6.9.12
Frequency List of Preposition of Analyzed by a N. 1st Year Learners' Corpus with 2nd Year Learners
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words

<u>a new tag set for prepositions seen in Høsthye 2nd year</u>		
preposition: after certain verbs	0	2
preposition: thing of the general you refer to	3	8
preposition: idiom	20	37
preposition: what group one/more things/people belong to	8	43
preposition: what a story, picture etc is about	0	16

From above table 6.9.12, it is possible to see an increase by 17 from the first year to the second in idiomatic usage. The concerned idioms are “a member of, a lot of, kind(s) of, lots of, a can of, lot of” and “of course.” Table 6.9.13 shows the new types of usages in

the second year corpus.

Table 6.9.13.
Frequency List of Prepositions "of" Analyze
Tag Set that Can e Seen Newly in 2nd Year I
only 2nd year learners' corpus 2nd year
what a story, picture etc is about 16

From table 6.9.13, 16 usages concerning “*what a story, picture etc is about*” may be found. It can therefore, be said that the second-year learners showed some pictures in the email and explained about it to the pen pal.

6.7.3.5. at

As regarding the preposition usage of *at*, it would be general to say that we can expect to see that there are mainly two usages as before *time* and *a place*. However, some features we cannot expect might be seen through using three different types analyses here. We will look at the preposition usage of *at* in depth to use three steps analyses such as bigram analysis, concordance analysis and a new tag set analysis.

The following table 6.9.14 shows the result of bigram analysis in terms of the preposition *at*.

Table 6.9.14.

*5 Most Frequent bigram of Preposition "at"
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

Rank	frequency	bigram
1	5	at the
2	2	at 5:00
3	1	at 11:00
4	1	at 5:30
5	1	at 5:40

We notice that four-fifths 5 most frequent bigrams are concerning time from ranked first to ranked 5th. From above table 6.9.14, as a first step in our analysis, we will focus on the bigram *at the* ranked first what features we can see or not. There can be seen three concordance lines in the following concordances such as “*Look at the picture.*” This concordance seems to be influenced the instruction of this writing assignment that is allowed to use a few pictures in email to introduce learners’ family, friends and places to visit. Other two types of these bigram usages are as before a place like *at school* and belonging to the club such as *at the orchestra club*. As a second step in our analysis, we will make sure of the bigram *at 5:00* ranked 2nd. There can be seen two concordances included new grammar structures in a second-year course of study as past progressive forms such as “*What were you doing at 5:00 yesterday?*” and “*I was training dash at 5:00 yesterday.*” As we can see only one frequency of the bigrams ranked from third to 5th, let’s examine these all concordances at once here. These concordances are as follows, “*I go to bed at 11:00*”, “*I got up at 5:30.*” and “*I had breakfast at 5:40.*” Though these preposition usages appear in front of expressing time,

however, it is interesting to know that we can see different types of expressions on right position of the bigram *at + time* depending on learners' different lifestyle habit.

Firstly, it seems to be difficult to expect what features we can see or not just focus on the bigram *at the* and *at + time* but we could get interesting results through analyzing concordance analysis to widen our point of view to think of language use. Now, let's move on considering more closely at the preposition usage of *at* by a new tag set analysis. The following table 6.9.15 shows the result of frequency list of preposition *at* by a new tag set analysis.

Table 6.9.15
*Frequency List of Preposition "at" Analyzed by a New Tag Set
to Compare 1st Year Learners' Corpus with 2nd Year Learners' Corpus.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words*

<u>a new tag set for prepositions seen in both corpora</u>	<u>1st</u>	<u>2nd</u>
preposition: where someone is	4	15
preposition: what cause feeling	3	7
preposition: after certain verb	21	14
preposition: exactly when something happens	53	11

From table 6.9.15., we notice 42 decreases of the frequency concerning *exactly when something happens* from a first-year stage to a second-year stage. It seems to be considered that first-year learners used more simple expressions to mention about their daily life concerning time in chronological order than second-year learners. In addition, there aren't any new tag sets in a second year stage as regarding the preposition *at*.

6.8. Error Analysis of the 10 most frequent prepositions

We will focus on error patterns of the 10 most frequent prepositions in this section. For doing error analysis of 10 most frequent prepositions, as a first step, I used a new tag-set spreadsheet and marked for preposition errors as *, then as a second step, the data was sorted by the frequency rank from ranked first to ranked 10th. As a third step, the data was examined to find all error patterns concerning the 10 most frequent prepositions by checking concordances manually. Finally, the data was adjusted by dividing each different type of error pattern. Now we will examine what type of error patterns we can see through concordance analysis and a new tag-set analysis.

6.8.1. Error analysis concerning “in” ranked first in 10 most frequent prepositions

27 error patterns concerning the preposition “in” can be seen and divided as the following error patterns, an unnecessary usage (5), an incorrect usage should be used as “of” (1), “by” (1), “on” (1), “away” (1), to (1), near (1) and an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (5), the number put in parentheses shows the frequency standardized as 10,000 words.

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “in”

I want to be in a math teacher and basketball teacher.

There are four in my family, father, mother, sister and myself.

Please drop in at my house when you come this way.

Then, some dogs and some cats seen in the road.

He works in leaving his family behind.

I think that come Santa in my home.

Last summer, our club had training camp in lake for four days.

What did you do in your team?

6.8.2. Error analysis concerning “to” ranked second in 10 most frequent prepositions

The error patterns concerning the preposition “to” can be seen 46 and divided as the following error patterns, an unnecessary usage (35), an incorrect usage should be used as “on” (2), “for” (2), with an incorrect usage of a suitable verb (4) and an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (5), the number put in parentheses shows the frequency standardized as 10,000 words.

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “to”

I went to shopping in ###.

Because we were appear to general meeting.

What did you go to trip?

6.8.3. Error analysis concerning “about” ranked third in 10 most frequent prepositions

The error patterns concerning the preposition “about” cannot be seen because it seems that almost all of the usages are used as fixed expressions such as “*How about you?*”, “*I will tell you about my school life.*” and “*Will you tell me about your friend?*”

6.8.4. Error analysis concerning “of” ranked 4th in 10 most frequent prepositions

The error patterns concerning the preposition “of” can be seen 6 and divided as the following error patterns, an incorrect usage should be used as “or” (1), “with” (1) and an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (4), the number put in parentheses shows the frequency standardized as 10,000 words.

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “of”

Do you have any sisters of brothers?

I was talk of between I and ###.

I'm a junior high school of second years students.

6.8.5. Error analysis concerning “at” ranked 5th in 10 most frequent prepositions

The error patterns concerning the preposition “at” can be seen 5 and divided as the following error patterns, an unnecessary usage (5), an incorrect usage should be

used as “in” (3), “by” (1), “for” (1) and an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (1), the number put in parentheses shows the frequency standardized as 10,000 words.

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “at”

It is freezing cold at there.

Is there any exam at your school?

Please drop in at my house when you come this way.

I was puzzled to the answer at long time.

I want to be at school teacher.

6.8.6. Error analysis concerning “from” ranked 6th in 10 most frequent prepositions

The error patterns concerning the preposition “from” can be seen 2 as the following error patterns, an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (2) such as “*Because die from war.*” and “*So yesterday I’m just a bird that’s already from away.*”, the number put in parentheses shows the frequency standardized as 10,000 words.

6.8.7. Error analysis concerning “by” ranked 7th in 10 most frequent prepositions

The error patterns concerning the preposition “by” can be seen 4 and divided as the following error patterns, misspelling (1), an incorrect usage should be used as “of” (1), with an incorrect usage of a suitable verb (2) and an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (3), the number put in parentheses shows the frequency standardized as 10,000 words.

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “by”

Because I want to by books, and he ### idea from books.

By the way, baseball was made by Americans.

It's made by wood.

Is French taught by school?

6.8.8. Error analysis concerning “on” ranked 8th in 10 most frequent prepositions

The error patterns concerning the preposition “on” can be seen 4 and divided as the following error patterns, an unnecessary usage (7), an incorrect usage should be used as “in” (3), “about” (1), “for” (1) and an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (2), the number put in parentheses shows the frequency standardized as 10,000 words.

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “on”

Where did you go on last Sunday?

I hope happiness on the world.

There is calligraphy on Japan.

I often talk on it.

6.8.9. Error analysis concerning “with” ranked 9th in 10 most frequent prepositions

The error patterns concerning the preposition “with” can be seen 4 as the following error patterns, an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (4), the number put in parentheses shows the frequency standardized as 10,000 words.

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “with”

I was stuffing a bag with one's clothes.

I'm in ### with the childish.

6.8.10. Error analysis concerning “for” ranked 10th in 10 most frequent prepositions

The error patterns concerning the preposition “for” can be seen 5 and divided as the following error patterns, an incorrect usage should be used as “as” (1), “about” (1), “in” (1) and “at”, an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (1), the number put in parentheses shows the frequency standardized as 10,000 words.

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “for”

I am rather short for a junior high school student.

Will you ask your parents for some things?

We played ### for orchestra.

My father is working for ###.

I'll ask my parents for a Walkman and CDs.

7. Results: Third Year

7.1. Third year learner corpus size

In table 7.1.1, which follows, we see that the total raw Learner Corpus of the third-year student contributors consisted of 7,283 word tokens.

Table 7.1.1

Raw Learner Corpus Size

	<u>3rd year learner corpus</u>
Total number of word types	972
Total number of word tokens	7,283

Table 7.1.2 shows third year learner corpus size, showing the number of types and of tokens. Third year learner corpus size was standardized at 10,000 words.

Table 7.1.2

Standardized 3rd Year Learner's Corpus Size at 10,000 Words

	<u>3rd year learner corpus</u>
Total number of word types	1,334
Total number of word tokens	10,000

The third year learner corpus size was compared with second year learner corpus size. Both were standardized at 10,000 words.

Table 7.1.3

Standardized 2nd Year Learner's Corpus Size at 10,000 Words

	<u>2nd year learner corpus</u>
Total number of word types	770
Total number of word tokens	10,000

From table 7.1.2 and table 7.1.3, we can see that the third year with the second shows the number of word types increases 564 words from 770 to 1,334. Two factors

seem to be at work. One is connected to the use of new grammar structures and the other might be thought to be due to the requirement to use a greater variety vocabulary with a narrative style writing to explain about learner daily lives.

7.2. Wordlist of the third year learner corpus

AntConc 3.3.4 as a corpus analysis tool and lemmatized. A lemma list developed by Yasuyuki Someya (Aoyama Gakuin University) and revised version by Shinichiro Ishikawa (Kobe University) was adopted. CLAWS 7 was used to make the wordlist which was lemmatized by the lemma list. As elsewhere, the following tables were standardized at 10,000 words.

7.2.1. Initial wordlist of the third year learner corpus

In this chapter, we will focus on the third year learner corpus wordlist and explore what it has to offer, beginning with table 7.2.1 which shows the 100 most frequent words ranked in order.

Table 7.2.1

100 Most Frequent Words Standardized at 10,000 Words

R.	F.	R.F.	word	R.	F.	R.F.	word
1	740.08	539	be	11	133.19	97	it
2	626.12	456	i	12	120.83	88	like
3	355.62	259	you	13	119.46	87	very
4	260.88	190	to	14	113.96	83	go
5	232.05	169	a	15	112.59	82	and
6	208.71	152	do	16	101.61	74	name
7	182.62	133	my	17	101.61	74	your
8	182.62	133	the	18	96.11	70	that
9	177.12	129	have	19	90.62	66	school
10	162.02	118	in	20	87.88	64	me

(Table continues)

21	82.38	60	live	61	31.58	23	there
22	76.89	56	of	62	30.21	22	family
23	75.52	55	what	63	30.21	22	friend
24	74.15	54	play	64	28.83	21	because
25	74.15	54	we	65	28.83	21	tell
26	72.77	53	how	66	28.83	21	who
27	72.77	53	old	67	27.46	20	At
28	70.03	51	we	68	27.46	20	call
29	68.65	50	will	69	26.09	19	birthday
30	64.53	47	year	70	26.09	19	He
31	60.41	44	well	71	24.72	18	tuesday
32	59.04	43	so	72	23.34	17	brother
33	57.67	42	festival	73	23.34	17	interest
34	53.55	39	japan	74	23.34	17	On
35	52.18	38	tokyo	75	23.34	17	sister
36	50.80	37	student	76	21.97	16	dance
37	49.43	36	please	77	21.97	16	day
38	49.43	36	this	78	21.97	16	ginnansai
39	45.31	33	japanese	79	21.97	16	read
40	45.31	33	want	80	20.60	15	excite
41	42.56	31	about	81	20.60	15	music
42	42.56	31	know	82	20.60	15	next
43	42.56	31	not	83	20.60	15	people
44	42.56	31	summer	84	20.60	15	she
45	41.19	30	vacation	85	20.60	15	sport
46	41.19	30	which	86	20.60	15	study
47	39.82	29	hello	87	20.60	15	with
48	39.82	29	many	88	19.22	14	father
49	39.82	29	see	89	19.22	14	game
50	38.45	28	by	90	19.22	14	tennis
51	38.45	28	High	91	19.22	14	time
52	37.07	27	Club	92	19.22	14	when
53	37.07	27	N	93	17.85	13	best
54	37.07	27	where	94	17.85	13	girl
55	35.70	26	Can	95	17.85	13	hard
56	35.70	26	junior	96	17.85	13	harry
57	32.95	24	But	97	17.85	13	nice
58	32.95	24	Good	98	17.85	13	place
59	32.95	24	september	99	17.85	13	potter
60	31.58	23	For	100	17.85	13	way

Among the 20 most frequent words may be found 16 words common to both the second-year and third year learner corpus wordlists (*be, I, you, to, a, do, my, the, have, in, like, very, go, and, name and your*). The point to consider is whether the usage of these words in common remains the same. To find out, 12 of these words in common were chosen from the third year learner corpus for an n-gram analysis (*be, to, do, the, have, in, like, very, go, and, name and your*). A tri-gram analysis of “to” shows 20 examples of the “present perfect” as in the form “*have (never/ever) been to*”, one of the main grammar structures in the third year. There were eight examples of the “*it is + adjective + for person + to-infinitive*” form, also a new grammar structure in the third year.

With regard to “the”, bi-gram analysis shows that “*the best*” is ranked second. It is of interest that collocation also can be seen in relative clauses (*that, who, and whom*) though the frequency is low. This would be because the “*relative clause*” is a grammar point taught in the third year.

The word, “*have*”, can be attested in the present perfect, the present perfect continuous, and in “*I have + something + relative clause.*” In particular, the present perfect is prevalent. The thing to be noticed is the influence of third year grammar points on developmental grammar usage.

The word “*that*” appears as the that-clause, the adverbial clause and as a determiner. The nouns appearing before the that-clause are *place, festival, person, song, sport, book, game, hobby, singer, practice, musical instrument, lesson, prize, test, holiday, camp, subject, food, word, picture* and *present*.

Bigram analysis showed that the word “*me*” appeared as “*tell me*” and “*call me.*”

Concordance analysis, however, shows a certain variation in the usage of auxiliary verbs in relation to “*auxiliary verb + S + tell + me + something?*” One can see “*Would you tell me ...?*”, “*Will you tell me ...?*”, “*Can you tell me ...?*”, “*Please tell me ...*”, “*Can you tell me...?*” and “*Tell me ...*”. This is in contrast to “*call me*”, where all examples are “*Please call me ...*”.

If we compare the second- and third-year corpora, we will see that they share 70% of the 50 most frequent words. The words among the top 50 most frequent which are to be found in only the third year learner corpus are “*of, so, festival, please, this, want, about, summer, vacation, which, hello, many, see*” and “*by*”.

Bigram and trigram analysis showed the word “*of*” appearing in the collocations “*a lot of + noun*”, “*family + of*” and “*one of + noun*”. “*a lot of*” and “*one of*” is especially frequent. The bigram, “*family of*”, was not uncommon and appeared correctly in expressions such as “*I have a family of four*” which first and second year learners’ were unable to express correctly.

Doing a tr-gram analysis of “*want*” showed 41 appearances of “*want to + verb*” where a variety of verbs were used (*go, know, meet, call, draw, play, read, and see*).

The word “*which*” was mainly used as an interrogative in the first and second years. Trigram analysis shows that there are 41.19 (standardized at 10,000 words) examples of the word “*which,*” out of which its usage as an interrogative is only 4.11, but, as a relative clause, 37.07). From this, we can see evidence of successful learner acquisition of the relative in their third year. A variety of noun are used before a relative clause (*festival, something, city, dog, place, comic magazine, comic book, folk culture, foster children, school, pool, Japanese candy, Japanese potteries, Japan, nick name, festival, town, cat,*

cafeteria, museum, story, Italy and book). This indicates that learners are not only developing in terms of the acquisition of new grammar structures but also in terms of vocabulary items.

17 words appearing in the most frequent 100 words of only the third year learner corpus will now be considered. They are “*festival, this, summer, vacation, September, for, who, Tuesday, interesting, dance, a name of a certain school's school festival, read, exciting, music, people, she*” and “*sport.*” These words will be examined using n-gram analysis and concordance analysis.

The word “*this*” is found as a single determiner at the beginning of a sentence, at the end of a sentence, and as “*this + noun*” patterns with such nouns as *letter, place, club, e-mail, emotion, festival, time, picture, problem, season, holiday, team, town, week, weekend, word* and *year*. The results show that the usage as a single determiner is mainly seen in the first year learner corpus and that in the second year learner corpus change in developmental language use happens, as is evidenced by the appearance of different collocation patterns with different type of nouns for the “*this+ noun*” pattern.

It is interesting that all uses of the word “*who*” in the third year are as relative clauses. Antecedent nouns are *brother, friend, sister, game, woman, student, people, singer, person* and *man*. As the usage of “*who*” in the first and second years was as a single determiner, it can be said that developmental language was exhibited in the third year.

Concordance analysis showed that past participle “*read*” appears as a present perfect with a very low frequency as a part of a relative clause. It also appears as a past tense. As a base verb, it appears as a part of the future tense and as the present tense. A

comparison of the corpora shows that learners use this verb basically as a present tense in their first and second year, though the number of grammar usages which can be applied increases in the second year. In the third year, they begin to acquire the ability to use it as a present perfect and in relative clauses.

The word “*people*” is used with the present passive, in relative clauses, as a present perfect. The collocation patterns “*noun + people*” and “*numeral + noun*” also appear.

Lastly, let’s examine the usage of the word “*place*” ranked 98th whether we can see some features or not by doing concordance analysis. One of the feature the usage of this word “*place*” is that there can be seen some variation usages of adjective before “*place*” such as, *natural* (1.37/10,000 words), *famous* (1.37/10,000 words), *many* (1.37/10,000 words), *other kind of* (1.37/10,000 words), *beautiful* (1.37/10,000 words), *exciting* (1.37/10,000 words) and *nice* (1.37/10,000 words). In addition, the frequency of the usage before to-infinitive usage is 2.74 (/10,000 words) and also the frequency is 2.74 (/10,000 words) in a relative clause.

In this section, an comparison of a third year learner corpus wordlist with a second-year one showed various features. One striking feature was an increasing mastery of new grammar structures in the third year and another greater developmental usage concerning each part of speech. Developmental language use was not only exhibited by means of new grammar structures in the third year but also could be seen in noun, verb and preposition phrases.

7.2.2. Investigating third-year learner corpus keywords

This section we endeavor to uncover some of the features of the third year learner corpus by analyzing the keyword list which may be generated by a comparison of the third year learner corpus when compared to that of the second year. Table 7.2.2 shows the keyword list of the third year learner corpus based on the Log-Likelihood statistical measure. Interestingly, table 7.2.2 shows that some keywords were not only influenced by the main grammar structures of third-year textbooks but also included different elements.

Table 7.2.2.

Keyword List of 3rd Year Learners' Corpus

Rank	Freq.	Keyness	word
1	740.08	623.16	be
2	96.11	62.46	that
3	57.67	49.33	festival
4	24.72	30.90	Tuesday
5	23.34	29.19	interest
6	21.97	27.47	festival's name
7	64.53	26.93	year
8	177.12	26.18	have
9	20.60	25.75	excite
10	32.95	22.65	September
11	21.97	20.96	dance
12	42.56	20.49	not
13	74.15	20.48	we
14	232.05	19.37	a
15	15.10	18.88	festival's short name
16	15.10	18.88	since
17	76.89	17.99	of
18	13.73	17.17	hold
19	13.73	17.17	October
20	49.43	16.55	this

7.2.2.1. keywords influenced of main grammar structures

We will focus on the three keywords (*that, have, and since*). In particular, the keyness of “*that*” is high. Concordance analysis shows, in order of importance, that the usages of “*that*” are as a relative clause, as a single determiner, and as a that-clause. Antecedent noun usage with its usage as a relative clause shows great variety with regard to places (*place, Tokyo, city, temple, museum, country, restaurant, island, lake and shop*), events (*festival, carnival and filed camp*), sports (*sport, player, practice and prize*), persons (*person, group Japanese girl*), games (*game, card*), school (*school, lesson, holiday*), as well as other miscellaneous nouns such as hobby, song, book, food, flower, and present. From this, we can see that third year learners, if in a position to do so, will try to explain in detail about their daily lives, school life and their interests (*e.g. hobbies, books, food, songs and sports*), making use of “*that*” as a relative clause.

The keyness of “*have*” is also, relatively speaking, quite high. The reason for the high frequency of “*have*” is because it has variety of usages. A trigram analysis and concordance analysis reveals that third year students use *have* as a present perfect and as part of a relative clause. As a present perfect, it is used together with the past participles *been, lived, read, visited, done, gone, played, showed* and *seen*. When used as part of a relative clause, its antecedent nouns were *friend, dog, time, hobby, lesson* and *sister*.

The keyness of “*since*” is rather lower than “*that*” and “*have*”. It should be noticed that 90% of the time “*since*” is found together with the present perfect of which six past participles are to be seen (*worked, played, lived, started, practiced, studied*). Its other usage is to start a sentence. The before mentioned past participles seems to show a

focus on explaining about their daily lives, their family, and their friends. It is quite interesting to note that we could observe third year learner developmental language use by focusing on a preposition such as “*since*”.

7.2.2.2. keywords as pronoun, articles and a single determiner

The keyword “*we*” (ranked 14th) has both a relatively high keyness (20.484) and frequency (74.14). A bigram analysis shows many variations concerning verb use. It is found with verbs in the present tense, and with both regular and irregular verbs in the past tense. The list of present verbs includes *have, are, play, call, like, use, dance, do, practice, take* and *want*. Irregular past verbs are *had, went, ate, cut, felt* and *saw*. In addition, it was found together with the auxiliary verbs *will* and *can*.

A relatively high keyness and frequency is exhibited by the keyword “*a*” (ranking 14th). A trigram analysis shows patterns of the usage as “*a + noun*”, “*a + adjective + noun*”, “*a + very + adjective + (noun)*” and “*a + noun + a relative clause*”. One can see that third year learner are acquiring the ability to use the indefinite article correctly with a variety of noun phrases that would have been difficult for them as first- or second-year learners.

The keyword “*this*” also has a high frequency in the key wordlist. The number of keyness is 16.553 and the frequency is 49.43 (/10,000 words). A concordance analysis shows two usages, one as an adjectival modifier and another less frequent usage as a single determiner. As an adjectival modifier it appears together with various nouns (*letter, word, email, club’s member, year, team, weak, weekend, summer holiday, place, festival,*

emotion, season, picture, good time, town and problem). This, too, is indicative of expanding language ability among third-year students, when compared with their performance in their first and second years.

7.3. Overview the vocabulary usage in different parts of speech

In this section, we will focus our attention on the results of the 100 most frequent words in a parts of speech wordlist consisting of nouns, verbs, prepositions and interjections to be found in the third year learner corpus. In all cases, the number of tokens will be standardized at 10,000. The results will be examined in the context of what is to be found in the second year learner corpus.

7.3.1. Comparing noun word lists

As the first step in our analysis, we will focus on analyzing the usage of nouns. Comparisons will be made according to the nouns as three different ranges of ranking, from the first to the 20th, from the first to the 50th and from first to the 100th, checking nouns used in common in the both corpora and those used only in the third year stage and examining those that seem to show features of third year usage. Unexpected developmental language use of a third year learners will be uncovered. Table 7.3.1 shows the 20 most frequent nouns.

Table 7.3.1
 20 Most Frequent Nouns.
 Frequency Standardized Frequency Standardized at 10.

Frequency Standardized				Frequency Standardized at 10.			
R.	Freq.	R.F.	Word	R.	Freq.	R.F.	Word
1	96.11	70	name	11	31.58	23	September
2	89.25	65	school	12	30.21	22	family
3	57.67	42	festival	13	26.09	19	birthday
4	53.55	39	Japan	14	24.72	18	Tuesday
5	52.18	38	Tokyo	15	20.60	15	friend
6	52.18	38	years	16	20.60	15	music
7	42.56	31	summer	17	20.60	15	people
8	41.19	30	student	18	19.22	14	day
9	41.19	30	vacation	19	19.22	14	father
10	37.07	27	club	20	19.22	14	tennis

A comparison with the second year learner's corpus shows that, among the 20 most common nouns, 11 (*name, school, Japan, Tokyo, years, student, club, family, music, father and tennis*) appear in this position in both corpora. In addition, nine nouns (45%) used in this range only in the third year (*festival, summer, vacation, September, Tuesday, birthday, friend, people and day*). Of these nine nouns, six will be considered as their usages that are influenced by the assignment task which demanded that the students explain about their summer holidays, their school festival and school life.

First, *people* and *day* will be analyzed by means of n-gram analysis and concordance analysis. A concordance analysis of the noun "*people*" shows that it appears as an "*adjectival modifier + people*" (e.g., *many people, sick people, Italian people and Ainu people*). Furthermore, we can see learner developmental usage of the noun "*people*" with a variety of grammar structures, which includes the present passive voice, the relative clause, the future tense, the present perfect, the present tense and with "*There as an impersonal subject*". A bigram analysis of the noun "*day*" shows 19.22 (/10,000 words) examples. One usage seen is "*adjective + day,*" as in *all day, every day, nice day,*

other day and *some day*. Another usage is “ordinal number + day” (*one day, second day, three days* and *fourth day*). It was found that developmental language uses as a noun phrase happens mainly in the third year stage.

On widening the range of nouns to the 50 most frequent nouns in both corpora, we see 24 nouns (48%) appearing among the 50 most frequent nouns of both corpora. Only 12 nouns could be found exclusively among the 50 most frequent nouns of the third year learner corpus. Of these 12 nouns, six (*festival, September, Tuesday, practice, October* and *Okinawa*) could be considered as having been influenced by the assignment topic.

The noun “*city*” was examined by bigram analysis and showed a “*adjective + noun*” pattern with various adjectives being employed. It was also used with relative clauses, though at a fairly low frequency. As for the noun “*singer*”, it appeared in the “*adjective + noun*” collocation (*Japanese singer, favorite singer, and Korean singer*), in the to-infinitive form (*to be a singer*) and as an object of a verb in the present tense such (*I like a singer*).

Now, we will widen our consideration of the usage to take in the 100 most frequent nouns. The result shows that there are 55 common nouns in both corpora and 45 nouns used in this frequency range only in the third year which may be divided into four different categories. The first category concerns school life, the second places, events and holidays, the third favorite things, and the fourth time and its measurements. These results reflect the increasingly narrative style of third year learner writing, something which allows us to see developmental language use in relation to noun usage.

7.3.2. Comparing verb word lists

In this section, we will take a close look at most frequent verbs in the third year learner corpus when compared with that of the second year, repeating more or less the same procedures as for nouns. Because the CLAWS 7 tag set was used, sometimes the same word will appear more than once. This means that the CLAWS 7 tag set identified different usages. The following table 7.3.2 shows the 20 most frequent verbs:

Table 7.3.2.
20 Most Frequent Verbs.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R.	Freq.	R.F.	Word	R.	Freq.	R.F.	Word
1	378.96	276	is	11	39.82	29	s
2	153.78	112	do	12	38.45	28	live
3	116.71	85	m	13	37.07	27	know
4	100.23	73	have	14	37.07	27	want
5	96.11	70	are	15	34.33	25	can
6	72.77	53	like	16	34.33	25	like
7	59.04	43	was	17	32.95	24	play
8	46.68	34	went	18	30.21	22	have
9	43.94	32	go	19	28.83	21	live
10	41.19	30	will	20	27.46	20	be

Let us focus on 20 most frequent verbs in the third year learner corpus and compare them with those of the second year learner corpus. Table 7.3.2 shows that the number of common verbs that are used in both corpora is 85%. In particular, the first three verbs in both corpora (*is*, *do*, *'m*) appear with the same ranking from first to third. Altogether, 17 verbs appear in both corpora (*is*, *do*, *'m*, *have*, *are*, *like*, *was*, *went*, *go*, *will*, *'s*, *know*, *want*, *can*, *like*, *play* and *be*). Live is identified by the CLAWS 7 tag set as three different verbs (*live_VV*, *have_VHI* and *live_VVI*), all of which are among the top 20 most frequent verbs in the third year learner corpus, but not in the second year corpus.

Regarding the verb “*live_VV0*” which is ranked 12th, it is clear that learners use the verb as a base form in the present tense to mention about places to live. The result of concordance analysis shows that learners use the verb “*live_VV0*” as an infinitive in the sentence “*Do you live in ...?*”

Various types of nouns and noun phrases could be seen after 18th ranking “*have*” (*brother, any brothers, any questions, school festival, dream, friends, nice friend, sister, any pets, and any events*). In addition, “*have*” could be seen with an auxiliary verb as in “*May I have your name?*” and “*Will you have a test?*”

With regard to the verb “*live_VVI*”, concordance analysis shows all its appearances make use of the sentence “*Where do you live?*” which seems to be influenced by the students' composition topic.

Of the 50 most frequent verbs, it is clear that 70% (35/50) of the verbs are also among the top 50 used in both corpora and just 15 verbs of the most frequent 50 verbs can be seen only in the third year corpus (*'ll, been, see, write, going, had, held, 've, lived, look, bought, made, read, thank, and come*). We will now examine some of these verbs, using n-gram analysis and concordance analysis.

7.3.2.1. present perfect

Regarding the verb “*been*”, 4-gram analysis shows it being used in a variety of manners (*Have you ever been to, Have you been to, I have been to, I have never been, I also have been, *I am ever been, I haven't been, I have ever been, and I've never been*).

All appearances in the third year happen in the context of the present perfect. Interestingly, the same phenomenon can be seen concerning the verb “’ve” and the past participles “lived” and “read.” With regard to the verb “’ve”, concordance analysis shows the following sentence forms: *I’ve never been to*, **’ve think*, *I’ve lived*, *I’ve finished*, *I’ve ever been to* and *I’ve studied*. As for the past participle “lived”, the various examples appear (I have lived, Have you lived, How long have you lived and a city that I have lived). Regarding the past participle “read,” we can see “*I have never read ...*”, “*Have you read ...?*”, “*I haven’t read ...*” and “*Have you ever read ...?*”.

7.3.2.2. a variety of sentence usages concerning present tense verbs

With respect to the present tense of “see” and “read”, concordance analysis reveals variety sentence usages. With regard to “see,” we can find it being used as *a simple verb*, *as a part of the to-infinitive*, *as a part of the future tense form*, *as a part of “It is ... to”* and at the beginning of the sentence “*Let me see, ...*”

7.3.2.3. a variety of noun phrase usages concerning past verbs

Now we will discuss the usage of the past verbs “had” and “bought”. With regard to “had”, bigram analysis shows various noun phrase patterns coming after “had” as in *good time*, *a game*, *something sad*, *birthday party*, *school festival* and *percussionist autograph*. With regard to “bought,” we see *CDs*, *weekly comic magazine*, *caps* and *accessories*, and *for myself*. It can be stated with confidence that third year learners learn

to use a variety of noun phrases with some past verbs.

7.3.2.4. a variety of verb usages after “be going to” form

As for the present participle “going”, every usage concerns “going” as part of the verb phrase “be going to”. The verbs that follow “be going to” are *go, introduce, tell, play, be* and *dance*. Though “be going to” is grammar structure learned in the second year stage, the variety of verbs used with it could not be seen until the third year, when learners found it useful in narrating about their daily lives.

7.3.3. Comparing preposition word lists

This section will be an examination of the 19 most frequent prepositions (standardized at 10,000 words as elsewhere), as they may be seen in the third year learner corpus.

Table 7.3.3.
Most Frequent Prepositions.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

R	Freq.	R.F.	word	R	Freq.	R.F.	Word
1	157.9	115	in	11	12.36	9	during
2	148.29	108	to	12	10.98	8	since
3	75.52	55	of	13	5.49	4	after
4	39.82	29	about	14	2.75	2	like
5	37.07	27	by	15	1.37	1	around
6	28.83	21	for	16	1.37	1	between
7	26.09	19	at	17	1.37	1	near
8	20.6	15	with	18	1.37	1	through
9	17.85	13	on	19	1.37	1	without
10	16.48	12	from				

Table 7.3.3 shows that the ranking of *in* and *to* is the same in the third year learner corpus as for the second. Concerning *in*, 11.12 usages with the present perfect, a grammar point instructed in the third year, could be seen. With regard to the preposition “*to*,” bigram analysis yields 260.88 examples. The main grammar structure usages it is connected with are the to-infinitive form, as present perfect (*been to*) and as a future tense in the phrase “*be going to*.” In regard to the usage of to-infinitive, there can be seen a variety of verbs (*meet, be, call, draw, know play read and see*). The preposition “*of*” showed an increase in frequency of use by 26 from the second year to the third. A bigram analysis also shows an increase in the kinds of usages in the third year as compared with the second. The preposition “*by*” also showed an increase in usage from the second year to the third. One reason might be because of its use in constructing the present and past passive voice forms. The other would be because of the increase in the usage of the noun phrase “*By the way*” as a transition signal. There are four prepositions (*since, between, through and without*) we can see in only the third year. With regard to the preposition “*since*”, it seems to have been influenced by the present perfect form as a new grammar point in the third year with 15.10 such examples in the third year learner corpus. All in all, 79% of the prepositions appear in both corpora and only 21% to be found exclusively in the third year.

7.3.4. Comparing conjunction wordlists

In this section, we will examine the most frequent conjunctions in the third year learner corpus and compare it with the results of the second year learner corpus. Table

7.3.4 shows the (standardized as elsewhere at 10,000 words). Table 7.3.4 shows that the 10 most frequent conjunctions in the second year learner corpus (*and, because, or, but, than, as, when, after* and *so*) appear amount the 15 most frequent conjunctions of the third year learner corpus.

Table 7.3.4.
Most Frequent Conjunction
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words

Rank	Freq.	R.F.	Word	Rank	Freq.	R.F.	Word
1	111.22	81	and	8	8.24	6	as
2	81.01	59	that	9	8.24	6	when
3	32.95	24	but	10	4.12	3	since
4	28.83	21	because	11	2.75	2	after
5	13.73	10	or	12	1.37	1	although
6	12.36	9	so	13	1.37	1	if
7	9.61	7	than	14	1.37	1	where

The conjunction “*since*” is ranked as ten in the third year learner corpus, its frequency being influenced by its use with the present perfect form as a new third year grammar structure. It is among the five conjunctions can be seen only in the third year (*since, although, if* (as subordinating conjunction), *if* (as conjunction) and *when*). Furthermore, quantitative variation can be seen from the second year stage to the third year in the conjunctions “*that*” (going from ten to to 81), “*so*” (going from one to twelve) and “*when*” (going from four to eight. In particular, concerning the usage of “*that*”, the reason why the frequency increased from the second year stage to the third year stage is that learners used “*that*” in a relative clause and in a that-clause as a new grammar structure in the third year stage. From the usage of the conjunctions in the third year (*that, because, when, since, if, and where*), they come to use complex sentences in their third year as compare with their second, which exhibits developmental language use.

7.3.5. Comparing adjective wordlists

This section will focus on a comparison of second and third year learner corpus adjective wordlists. Table 7.3.5 shows the 20 most frequent adjectives with the number of tokens standardized, as always, at 10,000 words.

Table 7.3.5.
 20 Most Frequent Adjectives
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words

Rank	Freq	R.F.	Word	Rank	Freq	R.F.	Word
1	72.77	53	old	11	9.61	7	beaut
2	39.82	29	Japanese	12	9.61	7	big
3	38.45	28	high	13	9.61	7	happ
4	35.70	26	junior	14	8.24	6	coo
5	32.95	24	good	15	8.24	6	favor
6	20.60	15	interesting	16	8.24	6	lon
7	19.22	14	exciting	17	6.87	5	fu
8	17.85	13	nice	18	6.87	5	har
9	15.10	11	best	19	6.87	5	import
10	10.98	8	other	20	5.49	4	dea

Twelve adjectives (60%) among the 20 most commonly used adjectives (*old*, *Japanese*, *high*, *junior*, *good*, *interesting*, *nice*, *best*, *beautiful*, *happy*, *favorite* and *hard*) were found in the same frequency range in both corpora. Eight adjectives are seen only in the third year learner corpus. Concerning the examples of the adjective “*exciting*”, it can be seen that learners use it in connection with their interests, their lives and other matters such as *books*, *vacations*, *amusement parks*, *festivals*, *places*, *hobbies* and *games*. It would seem that learners are coming to better express their feelings about their interests, experiences, and places they are familiar with. As for the adjective “*other*”, it is quite interesting to note that learners use only the following three noun phrase patterns (*the other day*, *any + other + noun*, and *other + kind of + noun*). The adjective “*big*” is found with a variety of nouns as in the collocations, *big events*, *big* (at the end of the sentence),

big school ground, and *big buildings*. The adjective “*cool*” can be seen in relative clauses. The adjective “*long*”, however, has various usages as following usages, as in the collocation “*long history*”, in an adverbial sentence, and in the present perfect. Regarding the adjective “*fun*”, it can be seen together with the To-infinitive as *a subject + is + fun*, *It is + fun + for + me*, *It + is + fun + to-infinitive*, ---- *a lot of fun* and as a usage at the end of the sentence. As for the adjective “*important*”, it can be seen as a relative clause. The adjective “*dear*” appears often as the first word of the emails the students composed.

Let’s now consider the range of adjectives from one to 50. It can be seen that in this frequency range 32% of the adjective are to be found in both corpora. These tend to be adjectives used in the learner’s self-introduction where they make mention of their *age*, *nationality*, *school*, *interests* and *school events*. The remaining 68% of the adjectives are to be found only in the third year. The third year adjectives seem to concern doing something and in mentioning certain places and popular things, and describing their interests. When considering the frequency range from one to 100, it should be noted that 43% of the adjectives are commonly used in both corpora and 57% are used only in the third year where we can see greater variety than in the second year.

The following diagrams show the result of the correspondence analysis of “*adjective + noun*” collocation. Figure 1 is a diagram based on trigram analysis from the first year to the third year, while Figure 1 is based on each corpus from the first year grade to the third year. The aim of this this analysis is to examine what kind of trigram patterns can be found.

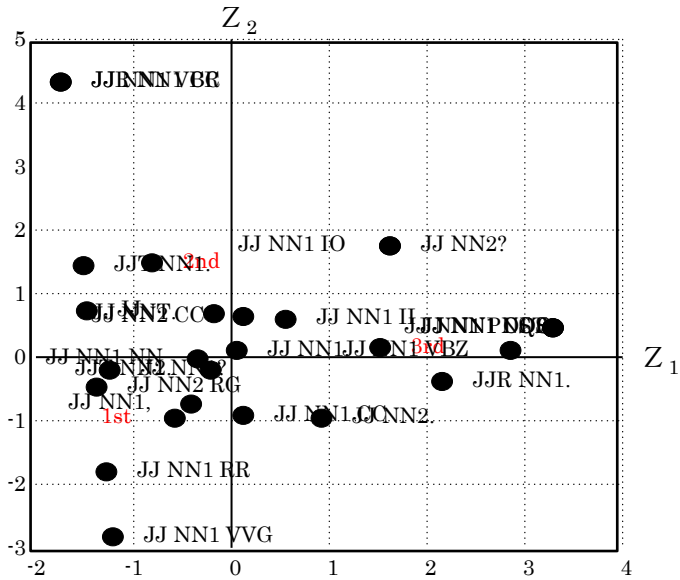


Figure 1 Correspondence Analysis of “adjective + noun” collocation

From above diagrams of Figure 1, we will look at trigram usage in the first year. The first year corpus is in the third quadrant and is to be located from 0 to -1 on the X-axis and from almost -1 on Y-axis. What is revealed is that the trigram patterns show *adjective + singular common noun use in the question form, adjective + plural common noun as a question form, and also use at the end of a sentence*. In addition, *adjective + singular common noun at the end of a sentence* is indicated. There seems to be limited use of the adjective + noun collocation at the end of a sentence or as a question form in the first year.

Now we will examine the features of tri-gram usage in the second year. From Figure 2, the second year corpus may be seen indicated in the third quadrant which is seen from about -1 on the X-axis and from about 1 to 1.5 on the Y-axis. We can see the following trigram patterns here: *JJ NN1 NN, JJ, NN1 CC* and *JJT NNT*. An interesting

tri-gram pattern being shown is *JJ NNI NN*, which is “*adjective + singular noun + common noun.*” We can also see the tri-gram pattern *JJ NNI CC*, which means “*adjective + singular common noun + coordinating conjunction.*” From this, it would seem that second year learners are getting use to the use of coordinating conjunctions after adjective + noun collocation. Concerning the bigram *JJT NNT*, most of the bigram usages consist of “*best friend*” or “*Best wishes*” as a greeting at the end of email.

Lastly, in the third year, the trigram patterns *JJ NNI VBZ* (“*adjective + singular common noun + the be verb (is)*”) and *JJR NNI* (“*general comparative adjective + singular common noun*”) may be found. From the former trigram pattern, we can see that learners use this “*adjective + noun*” collocation with be verb at the beginning of a sentence and that this kind of usage may be said to be a developmental collocation used in the third year. In addition, the bi-gram use such as “*best friend*” and “*best wishes*” seems to be influenced by the writing assignment.

7.3.6. Comparing adverb word lists

This section will focus on the adverb use and compare the second and third year learner corpora. Table 7.3.6 shows the 20 most frequent adverbs standardized as

elsewhere.

Table 7.3.6
 20 Most Frequent Adverbs.
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words

Rank	Freq.	R.F.	Word	Rank	Freq.	R.F.	Word
1	113.96	83	very	11	10.98	8	the
2	72.77	53	how	12	10.98	8	when
3	59.04	43	well	13	9.61	7	yet
4	48.06	35	please	14	8.24	6	now
5	46.68	34	so	15	6.87	5	most
6	35.7	26	where	16	6.87	5	never
7	13.75	10	soon	17	5.49	4	also
8	12.36	9	ever	18	5.49	4	forward
9	12.36	9	yesterday	19	5.49	4	more
10	10.98	8	hard	20	5.49	4	only

When comparing the 20 most frequent adverbs of the third year corpus with that of the second year learner corpus, 12 adverbs in both corpora were found to be the same (*very, well, please, how, so, where, soon, ever, yesterday, there, when* and *more*). Eight adverbs were used in this frequency range only in the third year (*hard, yet, now, most, never, also, forward* and *only*). As for the adverb “*yet*”, there are 9.61 examples. It is notable that all usages are seen with present perfect forms. With regard to the adverb “*now*”, there are 6.86 examples. It appears at the beginning of a sentence and in a number of present progressive sentences. Concerning “*most*” as an adverb, variation can be found with regard to “*The most + adjective + noun*” (*The most hard practice, The most impressive Olympic player, The most famous singer, The most beautiful museum, The most valuable experience, The most popular festival, and The most popular dance*). Regarding the adverb “*never*”, all usages are with present perfect forms. Concerning the adverb “*also*”, although the usage of “*also*” could not be found in the second year, it can be seen that learners quickly get used to it. It appears in a present perfect progressive sentence and at the beginning of a sentence in the third year. As for the adverb

“forward”, all usages come from one sentence pattern, being *“I’m looking forward to + present participle (---ing)”*. In regard to the adverb *“only”*, though the frequency is low, it exhibits variation with *“not only --- but also ?”*, in *a relative clause, in a past passive voice, and at the ending of a sentence*. When we examine the 50 most common adverbs, we see 26 appear with that range in both corpora and that 14 adverbs (*twice, around, example, little, long today, together, tonight, why, anyway, enough, especially, fast, firstly, fourth* and *however*) only appear in the third. What is notable is the increasing variety of usages concerning adverbs that can be seen in the third year.

7.4. Analysis of adjectives and adverbs using the new tag-set

This section will try to examine the usage of adjectives and adverbs in more detail with the new tag-set.

7.4.1. Analysis of adjective uses based on the new tag-set

Table 7.4.1 uses the new tag-set to show adjective usages in more details.

Table 7.4.1.
A New Tag Set for Adjective.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words

new tag set of adjectives	Freq.	R.F.
*	16	12
adjective: comparative, pure	36	26
adjective: compound, nominative	27	20
adjective: compound, temporal	1	1
adjective: phrasal, -ed particle	1	1
adjective: phrasal, nominative	257	187
adjective: phrasal, possibility	1	1
adjective: simple, -ed participle	21	15
adjective: simple, -ing participle	85	62
adjective: simple, cardinal	309	225
adjective: simple, correctly	1	1
adjective: simple, locative	3	2
adjective: simple, nominative	279	203
adjective: simple, number of times	19	14
adjective: simple, ordinal	150	109
adjective: simple, plural, determiner	1	1
adjective: simple, pure	1178	858
adjective: simple, singular, determiner	1	1
adjective: simple, temporal	4	3
adjective: simple, wh-word, cluster	1	1
adjective: superative, pure	10	7

Table 7.4.1 shows four adjective usages in the third year learner corpus in which the frequency is far greater than the second year learner corpus. They are adjectives: *simple, nominative*; *adjective: simple, ordinal*; *adjective: simple, -ing participle*; and *adjective: simple, cardinal*. Let's examine these four adjective show frequency increases from the second to the third year.

First, let's consider *adjective: simple, nominative*. The new tag-set shows the various collocation patterns and categories (*club activities, musical instruments, cultural*

festival, classes, music festival, holidays, nationalities, cities or towns, private information, and dreams and jobs for the future). The increasing variety of third year usage is of great interest. Second, the new tag set shows a range of usage of *adjective: simple, ordinal increases*, a new tag-set analysis shows. The categories that appear are: *date of writing this assignment, birthday, particular date concerning some events, grade* and, as transition signals, the words *First, Second* and *Third*. Transition signals, in particular, come into view during the third year, indicating a qualitative advance in language development. Third, it is striking that we can see the *adjective: simple, -ing participle*, as in *exciting* and *interesting*. Related collocation patterns for *exciting* are *exciting book, exciting sport, exciting place, exciting festival* and for *interesting* are *interesting sport, interesting day, interesting book, interesting place, interesting school, interesting festival, and interesting club*. Lastly, the usage increase of *adjective: simple, cardinal* increases should be noted. The new tag set shows various categories of usage (*age, language, a term of living in the place, a number of family, a term to work, a number of a brother or a sister, a term to have experience to do sports, a time to go to school by train or bus, and a term for staying in some place*). This reflects learner interest in describing things (*their family, friends, school events, and life experiences*).

7.4.2. Analysis of adverb uses based on the new tag-set

We will examine adverbs usage with the new-tag set. Those that show an increase in frequency from the second to the third year are *adverb: simple, degree; adverb: simple, temporal, adverb: simple, request; and adverb: simple, pure*. The new tag set shows that

the usage of adverb: *simple, degree* shows that the frequency of *so* and *very* increased. Upon examining the collocation pattern of “*so + adjective*”, we can see the collocations *so good, so cool, so beautiful, so excited* and *so cute*. Also shown is that learners mention their feelings regarding *school events, trips* and *places to visit, famous persons, club activities* and *pets*. With regard to the “*very + adjective*” collocation 43 types usages could be found.

New tag set analysis also shows frequency increases for the *adverb: simple, temporal* pattern with increases over the second year for the adverbs, *ago, already, ever, everyday, now, soon, and then*. The usage of “*already*” can be seen in connection with the present perfect sentence that is instructed as a main grammar structure in the third year. Also, the adverb “*ever*” is used with present perfect sentences as well. In relation to the adverb “*now*”, the new tag set reveals that it is used in a present progressive form. It also shows that “*then*” is used with the past tense in their writing. Though these two last grammar structures were already instructed in their first and second years, the increasing use of these adverbs indicates that learners acquire these grammar structures, but need time before they become capable of using them freely in their third year. A striking frequency increase of “*adverb: simple, request*” can be seen over the second year. In particular, the usage of adverb such as “*please*” increased greatly with wide variation in use. We could see it used “*requesting*” was done.

Lastly, we can see much variation concerning the usage of “*adverb: simple, pure*” (*able, back, deeply, Firstly, kindly, Lastly, maybe, naturally, never, often, ready, really, recently, so, specially, sleepy* and *weekly*). Among these adverbs, the adverbs *never* and

often are used with the present perfect and “*Firstly*” and “*Lastly*” are used as transition signals. The adverb “*able*” is used in the “*be able to*” form and the adverb “*back*” is used in the expression “*Please write me back*”.

7.5. Wordlist of Verbs in the third year Learner Corpus

This section shows how the wordlist of third year learner corpus verbs was made and shows a part of that wordlist.

7.5.1. Making the wordlist of verbs

The third year learner corpus was annotated with CLAWS 7 developed by Lancaster University. And as a corpus analyzing tool, AntConc 3.3.4. was used to make a verb wordlist. It is necessary to load the CLAWS 7 tag set into the AntConc 3.3.4. It was also necessary to set AntConc 3.3.4 so it would recognize the CLAWS 7 tag set and extract only verbs from the learner corpus data.

7.5.2. A Wordlist of Verbs

Table 7.7.1 shows a word list standardized as elsewhere at 10,000 words of the 100 most frequent verbs.

Table 7.7.1

20 Most Frequent Verb

R.	Freq.	R. F.	Word	R.	Freq.	R. F.	Word
1	378.96	276	is_vbz	11	39.82	29	s_vbz
2	153.78	112	do?vd	12	38.45	28	live_vv
3	116.71	85	m_vbm	13	37.07	27	know_vvi
4	199.23	73	have_vh	14	37.07	27	want_vv
5	96.11	70	are_vbr	15	34.33	25	can_vm
6	72.77	53	like_vv	16	34.33	25	like_vvi
7	59.04	43	was_vbdz	17	32.95	24	play_vvi
8	46.68	34	went_vvd	18	30.21	22	have_vhi
9	43.94	32	go_vvi	19	28.83	21	live_vvi
10	41.19	30	will_vm	20	27.46	20	be_vbi

7.5.3 An Overview the 100 most frequent verbs

The 100 most frequent third year learner corpus verbs were compared with those of the second year learner corpus. The results of the third year learner corpus shows us verb usage features, allowing us to become familiar with learner language acquisition developmental. The CLAWS 7 tag set shows the ten most frequent verbs of the third year as *is_vbz*, *do_vd*, *'m_vbm*, *have_vh*, *aree_vvi*, *are_vbr*, *like_vv*, *was_vbdz*, *went_vvd* and *go_vvi*. Concerning the verb frequency range of 11 to 100, we can often view them as basic verbs whose use was influenced by the assignment topic and used in connection with the learner's self-introduction, family, friends, daily lives, school life, events, holidays, trips and their interests or favorite things. However, it is not difficult to find other special features of these verb usages at a first glance. Using concordance analysis, this range of verbs was divided into verb usage categories. The first verb category is

related to the usage of to-infinitive. The second concerns verbs with noun phrase variations. The third verb category concerns verb phrase variations (*want to + verb, can + verb, 'll + verb, did + verb* and *be going to + verb*). The fourth verb category concerns verbs that can be seen in a range of sentence forms. In regard to these five verb categories, we will discuss more detail in the following 7.7.4.

7.5.4. Comparing the 10 most frequent verbs in the second and third year learner corpora

It should be noted, when comparing the second and third year learner corpus wordlists of the 10 most frequent verbs to be found in table 7.7.2 that annotations by the CLAWS 7 tag-set appear.

Table 7.7.2.
10 Most Frequent Verbs in 2nd Year Learner's Corpus and 3rd Year Learner's Corpus

<i>2nd Year Learner's Corpus</i>				<i>3rd Year Learner's Corpus</i>			
R.	F.	R.F.	word	R.	F.	R.F.	word
1	369.7	366	is_vbz	1	378.96	276	is_vbz
2	287.9	285	do_vd	2	153.78	112	do_vd
3	129.3	128	m_vbm	3	116.71	85	m_vbm
4	116.2	115	like_vv	4	100.23	73	have_vh
5	111.1	110	like_vvi	5	96.11	70	are_vbr
6	102	101	are_vbr	6	72.77	53	like_vv
7	74.75	74	play_vvi	7	59.04	43	was_vbdz
8	62.63	62	will_vm	8	46.68	34	went_vvd
9	57.58	57	go_vvi	9	43.94	32	go_vvi
10	54.55	54	be_vbi	10	41.19	30	will_vm

Table 7.7.2 shows that the three most frequent verbs are the same in both corpora. It is also striking that the frequency concerning *do_vd* decreases by 134 frequency in third year, probably because of the greater variety of sentence forms learners use in the third year. Only three verbs of the most frequent 10 verbs are unique to that frequency range in the second year learner corpus (*like_vvi*, *play_vvi* and *be_bvi*). Concordance analysis shows that the verb *like_vvi* can be seen in the to-infinitive, the comparative or the superlative forms. The verb *play_vvi* appears as the to-infinitive or with the auxiliary verb “*can*” and, in question forms, with “*do*.” The verb *be_bvi* can only be seen as a to-infinitive (“*I want to be ----.*”). This to-infinitive form is one of main textbook grammar structures in the second year which contributes to its high frequency in the second year. Next, we notice that there are three verbs we can see in only third year learner corpus such as *have_vh*, *was_vbdz* and *went_vvd*. We will examine why these three verbs can be seen in the third year learner corpus. As for the verb “*have_vh*”, though the usage of present perfect can be seen in the third year learner corpus, it seems to depend on a new grammar structure in the third year stage in the textbook. Regarding the verb “*was_vbdz*”, though it is instructed as a new grammar point as past be-verb in the second year stage, there can be seen some variations concerning the usages such as a past form, a past progressive form and also there can be seen in a relative clause with past passive form which is instructed in the third year stage as a new grammar point. In related to the verb “*went_vvd*”, it seems to be influenced the assignment topic and be felt that learners try to do a narrative style writing their experience in their daily lives. We have overviewed 10 most frequent verbs in the second year learner corpus and the third year learner corpus. Now let’s focus on these five out of ten most frequent verbs in the third

year learner corpus and examine more detail whether we can see some interesting results or not in the next section.

7.5.5 The five most frequent third year learner corpus verbs

7.5.5.1. Ranking 1st: *is*

The usage of the verb "*is*" shows a small decrease in frequency when compared with the second year. However, n-gram, concordance, and new tag set analysis show that usages differ. For instance, a tri-gram analysis of "*is*" shows "*is a festival, is a person, is interesting, is a city, is a place, is a school, is a sport,*" and "*is something which.*" More interestingly, these trigram usages can be seen used in relative clauses, a third-year textbook new grammar structure. Antecedent trigram analysis reveals a wide variety of antecedents, illustrating further that learners tend to narrate their life experiences in more detail as they get older. Tri-gram analysis also shows the use of *isn't* in tag questions, "*is one of*" with noun phrases, "*is spoken in*" as present passive and "*is the best*" as superlative form. As has been seen before, third year learners make use of an increasing variety of structures and expression. New tag-set analysis shows that the most frequent usage is as a "*verb: copular, present, singular, third person.*" Furthermore, it shows more clearly relative clause usage of *is* as "*verb: be, copula, present comparative in a relative clause, singular, third person,*" as "*verb: be, copular, present comparison of equality in a relative clause, singular, third person,*" as "*verb: be, copula, present in a relative clause, singular 3rd, person,*" as "*verb: be, copula, present in a that clause, singular, third*

person," as "verb: be, copular, present passive voice in a relative clause, singular, third person," as "verb: be, copular, present progressive in a relative clause, singular, third person," as "verb: be, copular, present superlative in a relative clause, singular, third person" and as "verb: be copular, present, singular in a that clause, third person." As has been seen previously, third year learners can be observed mixing different grammar structures already learned in their first and second years with the relative clause. In addition, it is also interesting to see different usages (*be, copular, present comparative, singular, third person; verb: be, copular, present passive voice; singular, third person; verb: be copular, present progressive, singular, third person; and verb: predicative, present, singular, There as impersonal subject*).

7.5.5.2. Ranking 2nd: do

The usage of “do” as a base form in the third year stage shows a frequency decrease of 134 from 287 in the second year to 153 in the third, probably because third year learners try to use more variety in sentence forms than second year students who overuse “do”. Trigram analysis shows “*Do you know, Do you live, Do you like, Do you have, don't, Do you do, Do you want, Do you play,*” and “*Do you think.*” 11 verb variations may be seen in the “*Do you + verb form.*” Noun phrase variations after the “*Do you know, Do you live, Do you like*” and “*Do you have*” deserve further consideration. A fourth gram analysis for “*Do you know*” reveals a surprising number of nouns (*singer, book, country, people, musical & dance, festival, event, place and character*). “*Do you live*”, however, can only be seen in “*Where do you live?*” The

trigram “Do you like” combined with *subject, sport, musical, sea, book, food* and *animals*”. “Do you have” combines with *brother or sister, family, any questions, dream, friends, pets, any events* and *events*. New tag-set analysis shows the most frequent usage of “do” as *verb: auxiliary, transitive, present, singular, second person*. The second most frequent usage is as *verb: auxiliary, intransitive, present, singular, second person*. Concerning the usage of “do”, though its frequency decreased from the second year to the third year, it, nevertheless, showed greater variety of usage categories.

7.5.5.3. Ranking 3rd: 'm

A 4-gram analysis of the be-verb “am” shows a wide variety of uses. There is heavy learner use in self-introductions when describing age, nationality, grade, being a member of something, one's sex and school. It is also found when learners' future plans in the “be going to” form. New tag-set analysis of “am” is various (*verb: be, predicative, present, singular, first person; verb: be, copular, present, singular, first person; and verb: be, transitive, present progressive, singular, first person*). Other usages are less frequent (*verb: be, transitive, be going to, singular, first person; verb: be, intransitive, present progressive, singular, first person; verb: be, predicative, present passive voice, singular, first person; and verb: be, predicative, past, singular, first person*). We can observe the recycling of grammar structures from the first and second years (the present progressive which is taught in the first year and “be going to” and the present passive which are taught in the second).

7.5.5.4. Ranking 4th: have

A comparison of second and third year frequency for “*have*” shows a notable frequency increase of about 21 words. 4-gram analysis was used to find the reason, showing the use of the present perfect, a third-year grammar structure. There are various 4-gram patterns (*Have you ever been, have lived in Tokyo, have never been to, Have you lived in, have been to foreign, have done and attract, have ever visited, haven't read, have played squash, have not finished some and have you seen fireworks*). Past particles combining with “*have*” in present perfect are *been, lived, done, read, played, finished* and *seen*, which show that learners try to explain about their experience concerning their daily lives and their school life. In addition, through focusing on the usage of the present perfect, we can see usage of the adverbs *ever* and *never*. In addition, 4-gram analysis reveals that another feature of the usage of “*have*” is with the relative clause, a third-year textbook grammar structure follows, (*have a dog which, have a friend who, have a hobby that, have a lesson that, have a sister who and have no friends who*). Though not of high frequency, the use of the relative clause indicates increasing foreign language competence.

The use, however, of the trigram “*have to + verb*” does not concern a new third-year grammar structure. Other features that were revealed by the new tag-set were “*verb: auxiliary, intransitive, present perfect, singular, first person; verb: auxiliary, transitive, present perfect, singular, second person; verb: auxiliary, transitive, present perfect, singular, first person; verb: auxiliary, transitive, present perfect, singular, first person; and verb: auxiliary, transitive, present perfect in a relative clause, singular, first person*. Other features of low frequency existed (*verb: simple, in transitive, present in*

if-clause, singular, second person; verb: simple, transitive, present in an adverbial clause, plural, first person; verb: simple, transitive, present in adverbial clause, singular, second person; verb: simple, transitive, present in relative clause, singular, first person; and verb: simple, transitive, present in a relative clause, singular, third person). Structures which were recycled from learners' first and second years were various (*verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, have to, present, singular, first person; verb: simple, intransitive, present progressive, singular, first person; verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, future, singular, second person; verb: simple, transitive, imperative, plural, implied second person; verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present, singular, first person; verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present, singular, second person; verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present, singular, third person; verb: auxiliary, transitive, present perfect progressive, singular, second person; and verb: simple, transitive, present, have to, singular, second person).*

7.5.5.5. Ranking 5th: are

Doing a bigram analysis of “are”, we find that the collocation “are you” is the most frequent collocation pattern. A trigram analysis shows “How old are, Are you a,” and “How are you,” results seems to be influenced by the assignment topic. (*There are many natural places, There are many interesting and, There are many kind of performances, There are many places, There are dance group and music, There are Tokyo Dome, a tower, There are bands and shows, There are tennis court and volleyball and There are four people in my family*). In addition, concordance analysis shows that

learners often mention their feelings with the adjectives such as interesting and good. New tag-set analysis shows “*There are*” in the context of verb: *be, predicative, present, plural, There as impersonal subject*. And we also can confirm the basic usage of “*are*” is, verb: *be, predicative, present, singular, second person* and verb: *be, copula, present, singular, second person*. Moreover, we can see the present, passive voice that first appeared in the second year stage. It appears as verb: *be, predicative, present passive voice, plural, third person*, as verb: *be, predicative, present passive voice, plural, first person* and verb: *be, predicative, present passive vice, plural, third person* and verb: *be, predicative, present, passive voice, singular, second person*. In addition, the first year structures of verb: *be, intransitive, present progressive, singular, second person* and verb: *be, predicative, present progressive, singular, second person* may be seen.

7.6. Characteristic third year learner corpus verb usage

Next, we will consider verbs with a frequency rank from 11 to 100. Through this, we hope to gain a better insight into the to-infinitive, the present participle, the past participle and relative pronouns (*who, which* and *that*).

7.6.1 Clarifying learner’s developmental language use from the usage of to-infinitive as a key collocation

The to-infinitive form is a grammar point in second year textbooks. We will explore developmental language use we by looking at the usage of the to-infinitive in the third year of instruction.

There are 18 to-infinitive collocation patterns using to-infinitive form verbs (*be, go, meet, play, see, study, dance, know, introduce, read, speak, call, draw, restart, ski, start, take and teach*). The collocation "to be" is seen mainly as "I want to be a ----". Noun variation usages concerning employment are musician, the sax player, nursery teacher and teacher. In the context of the present passive voice, we see "I want to be taught by ---." and with "be able to" as in "I want to be able to speak three languages." To go may be seen with different types of sentence forms ("I am going to go to Italy", "I have to go to Italy", "I don't know how to go to Italy", "I want to go to Okinawa", and "It is pleasure for us to go to TDL."). Concerning "to meet", the collocation is mainly used in the expression "Nice to meet you." Regarding the usage of "to play", we see "I like to play table tennis", " --- has a brother who likes to play ---", "We went to the festival to play ---", "There are places to play and eat", "It is fun to play soccer", and "It has many places to play." Concordance analysis of "to see" shows different forms ("I am glad to see you", "It is fun to see a baseball game", "My favorite is to see movies", "I will go to see --- with my friends", "I'll go to a theater to see a musical", and "I want to see --- again."). "To study" has three different usages ("It is interesting for me to study history", "I went to China to study about forest during summer" and "She doesn't like to study"). "To know" can be seen as "I want to know not only about you", "I want to know you" and "You want to know more about ---". Here the developmental noun phrases "not only about you" and "more about ---" are noteworthy. Additionally, it is clear that learners use the to-infinitive with the

future forms "will" or "be going to"; with "It is + adjective + for + person + to-infinitive"; as a noun, adjective and adverb; with "There ---" sentence form, after "have to"; in relative clauses; and with the basic usage of "I + verb + to-infinitive form."

7.6.2. Clarifying learners' developmental language use of the present participle

This section will make an attempt to clarify learners' developmental language use of the usage of a present participle, which has many conceivable usages (*the present progressive, past progressive, gerund and a post modification such as "noun + present participle.*) First, let's do a bi-gram analysis of the present participle in the present and past progressive forms, by which we find 13 present participles (*looking, going, playing, studying, learning, looking, becoming, cooking, swimming, dancing, putting, reading, waiting and watching*). Concordance analysis reveals various representative examples of use as a present progressive, a past progressive, gerund and as a post modification (*e. g., "I'm looking forward to seeing you", "I'm going to see --- next vacation", "I was playing it then", "My hobby is cooking", "I like reading books" and "girl living"*). With regard to gerund usage, the verbs, like and start also appear with participles. Here, we also can notice that learners use multiple grammar points to create variety in their writing.

7.6.3. Clarifying learners' development in usage of the past participle

The past participle also appears in a variety of sentence forms (*the present passive, past passive, present perfect, post modifier ("noun + past participle")*), present

passive in a relative clause and past passive voice in a relative clause. A bigram analysis of the present passive reveals the appearance of the present passive “*which*” and “*that*” relative clauses. Past participle used for the present passive are *called, held, spoken, arranged, danced, given, loved, played, sold* and *visited*. With regard to the past passive, the only pattern seen was *was + past participle*. The past participles used for the past passive were *born, given, made, held* and *named*. In the case of the present perfect, we find “*have + past participle*” and “*has + past participle*” as collocation patterns. We also find the negative form (“*I have not finished some homework*”) and the usage of the adverb (“*I have never read the book*”).

7.6.4. Clarifying learners’ development in usage of relative pronouns

Beginning with *who*, we will examine the relative pronouns (*who, which and that*), which are treated as third-year textbook grammar structures. Concordance analysis shows different verbs used after the relative pronoun “*who*” (*go, have, speak, play, like, live, foster, is, write, entertain, visit, cook, make and come*). In such contexts, examples of the auxiliary verb “*can*” and the past tense forms such as *wrote* and *made* may be seen. Concerning the relative pronoun “*which*,” concordance analysis shows five types of verb in use (*have, is, like, am and use*). In addition, three past verbs can be seen (*wrote, bought and made*). The present and past passives appear as *is loved, is danced, is held* and *was named*. The use of the past auxiliary verb “*could*” is also notable, as is the comparative form (“*is bigger than any other*”), the superlative (“*The story which I like the best is ---*”) and the objective and subjective usages of the relative clause. A concordance analysis of

the relative pronoun "*that*" shows three present tense verbs (*is, like and belong*) and three past tense verbs (*visited, lived and watched*) being used. There are also a variety of sentence forms (past tense, present and past passive, as a comparison of equality, as a comparative, a superlative, future, a gerund, a present perfect, with the auxiliary verb "*can*" and as a subjective usage of the relative pronoun). A notable feature is the far greater variety of types of usage of "*that*" than the other two relative pronouns such as *who* and *which*. A striking feature of relative pronoun use is *that*, even though it is a new grammar point of third year textbooks, students used it extensively in their writing.

7.7. Content Analysis focusing on usage of verbs and nouns

We will now focus on the usage of nouns and verbs. Figures 7.9.1. and 7.9.2. show that the result of Correspondence Analysis and Co-occurrence Network Analysis

concerning the usages of verbs and nouns.

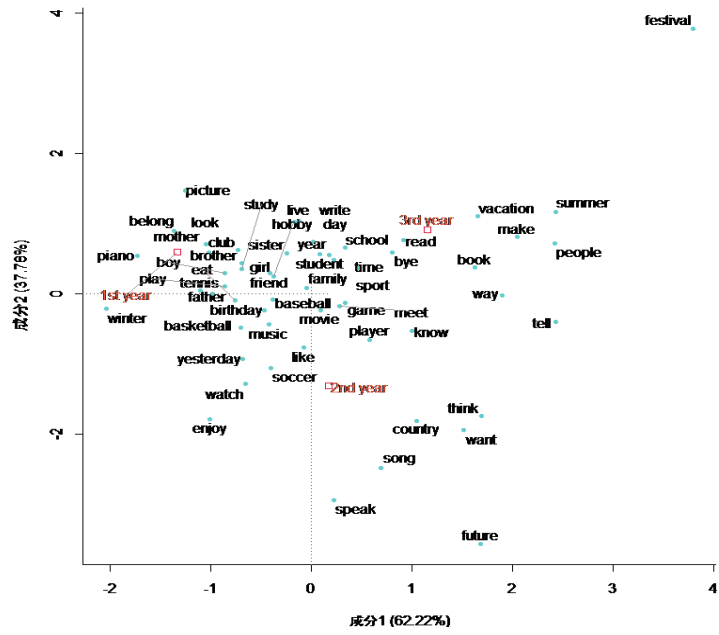


Figure 7.9.1. Correspondence Analysis Results

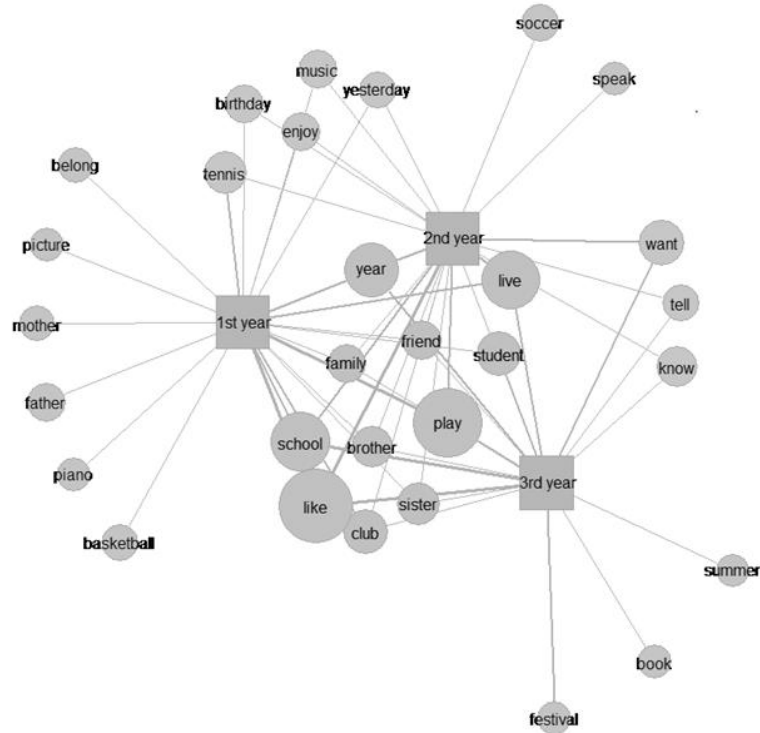


Figure 7.9.2. Co-occurrence Network Analysis Results

From the results of Co-occurrence Network, it was observed as common distinctive features that learners wrote the following things concerning age, family, school, friends, club activity, study, sports and music from first year to third year. In their second year, it was found that learners wrote concerning their amusements, country, language, mentioning their thought and their dreams in the future, which shows that their writing style shifted to a wider range of topics. In their third year, learners mentioned their summer holidays, their experiences in those holidays, books they read before and places that they visited before, which shows a shifted toward a narrative style.

7.8. Preposition use in the third year learner corpus

There are four CLAWS 7 tag sets for prepositions (*_IF (for)*, *_II (general preposition)*, *_IO (of)*, and *_IW (with, without)*), which are inadequate to fully cover the complexity of prepositions. We, thus, cannot get all the information that we might want, which necessitates the need for a new tag set. The following section uses CLAWS 7 to make a frequency list, besides giving a discussion of preposition use. After that, the new tag set is used.

7.8.1. Preposition frequency list by CLAWS 7

An indirect work around for inadequate tag sets can be obtained through the corpus analysis tool, AntConc. Table 7.10.1 shows the CLAWS 7 generated third year preposition frequency list.

Table 7.10.1 focuses on the five most frequent prepositions in the third year learner corpus. Four of these prepositions (*in, to, of, about*) also can be seen among the five most frequent prepositions in the second year learner corpus. Compared with the second year, in the third year learner corpus "*in*" decreases by ten, "*to*" decreases by 20, while "*of*" increases by 47, "*about*" by eight and "*by*" by 13. Certain prepositions (*for, at, with, on, and from*) can be seen in the second year preposition frequency list for the same range.

Table 7.10.1.
*Preposition Frequency List of 3rd Year Learner's Corpus by CLAWS 7
the Number of Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

R.	Preposition	Frequency	R.	Preposition	Frequency
1	in	158	11	during	12
2	to	148	12	since	11
3	of	76	13	after	5
4	about	40	14	like	3
5	by	37	15	around	1
6	for	29	16	between	1
7	at	26	17	near	1
8	with	21	18	through	1
9	on	18	19	without	1
10	from	16			

Compared with the second year, in the third year "*for*" increases by 17 and "*with*" by five, while "*at*" decreases by one, "*on*" by two, and "*from*" by nine. Among the

prepositions ranking 11th to 19th, "*during*" increases by ten over the second year and "*after*" by four, while other prepositions decrease in frequency ("*like*" by six, around by "*three*" and "*near*" by one. Since, between, through and without appear for the first time in the third year learner corpus. As CLAWS 7 is lacking in detail, new tag set becomes necessary.

7.8.2. Preposition frequency list examined by means of the new tag set

Now we will verify preposition usages by means of the new tag set in order to seek out possible reasons for the increases and decreases which are seen. Table 7.10.2 shows

the results of a frequency list of the third year learner corpus examined by a new tag set.

*Table 7.10.2
Prepositions Frequency List by a New Tag
of Frequency Standardised at 10,000 words*

No.	prep	a new tag set	Freq
1	about	what/how about somebody/someth	67
2	after	when a particular event has happened	5
3	around	to many places of an area	3
4	at	preposition: after certain verbs	27
5	at	where someone is	11
6	at	exactly when something happens	1
7	at	during a particular period time	1
8	at	where something happens	6
9	at	what causes feeling	7
10	between	in the time separates two times	1
11	by	who/what does something	67
12	by	preposition: idiom	59
13	by	means/method by doing something	1
14	by	means/method by car etc	3
15	by	writer/composer etc	1
16	during	certain time, a period time	21
17	for	how long situation continues	48
18	for	something arranged for a particular time	3
19	for	thing your feelings are directed towards	30
20	for	what is possible, difficult etc	10
21	for	idiom	3
22	for	after certain verb	1
23	for	who is intended to get/use something	1
24	for	what the purpose of an object, action is	10
25	from	place of birth/work/live	23
26	from	made of something	1
27	from	sent/given by somebody	30
28	from	idiom	3
29	in	place, or area to say where someone/thing is	277
30	in	months, year etc when something happens	58
31	in	place, or area to say where someone/thing is	8
32	in	idiom	11
33	in	how something is done or happens	5
34	like	similar to something else	1
35	near	short distance away	7
36	of	thing of the general you refer to	5
37	of	idiom	47
38	of	what group one/more things/people belong to	56
39	of	what a story, picture etc is about	10
40	off	phrasal verb	1
41	on	being broadcast by radio or television	3
42	on	day/date, during a particular day	16
43	on	phrasal verb	5
44	since	from a particular time in the	16
45	to	idiom	1
46	to	after certain verb	67
47	to	where someone or something goes	244
48	to	idiom	5
49	to	what/who an action, etc affects	26
50	to	who receives is told/shown something	18
51	with	people are together in the same place	52
52	without	not having especially someth	4

Table 7.10.2 shows 52 preposition usages in the third year learner corpus. Though the total frequency only increases three over the second year, there are some prepositions with frequency increases as well as some new preposition usages which can be seen in the third year. Some preposition usages show an increase (“*who/what does something*” by 42, “*by: preposition: idiom*” by 26, “*during: preposition: certain time, a time period*” by 14, “*for: preposition: thing your feeling are directed towards*” by ten, “*for: preposition: how long the situation continues*” by 43, “*for: preposition: what the purpose of an object or action is*” by four, “*from: preposition: idiom*” by one, “*in: preposition: place, or area to say where someone/thing is*” by one, “*in: preposition: idiom*” by five, “*of: preposition: idiom*” by ten, “*of: preposition: what group/more thing/people belong to*” by 13, “*on: preposition: being broadcast by a radio or television*” by two, “*on: preposition: phrasal verb*” by four, “*to: preposition: where someone or something goes*” by twenty, and “*to: preposition: what/who an action, etc. affects*” by six. To find possible reasons, n-gram analysis, concordance analysis and new tag set analysis will be used.

7.8.3. Analyses of prepositions through doing n-gram analysis, concordance analysis and new tag set analysis

In this section, the five most frequent prepositions (*in, to, of, about, by*) will be investigated in more detail to obtain a deeper understanding of third year preposition uses.

7.8.3.1. In

An n-gram analysis of "in" was done to see what collocation patterns exist. Table 7.10.3 shows the five most frequent bi-grams with regard to "in".

Table 7.10.3
5 Most Frequent bi-gram of Preposition "in"
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	bi-gram
1	29	in Tokyo
2	22	in at
3	15	in Japan
4	10	in my
5	4	in it

Table 7.10.3 shows that the most frequent bigram is "in Tokyo" (29). A concordance analysis shows four different grammar structures. They are the "present form," "present perfect," "present perfect in a relative clause" and "post modification of the present participle." These grammar structures are the main grammar points in third year English textbooks. Thus, textbook influence may be noted with regard to "in" usage.

I live in Tokyo.

I have lived in Tokyo since 1995.

--- a Japanese girl that has lived in Tokyo for 15 years.

I am a Japanese girl living in Tokyo for 15 years.

We will now examine the second ranking bigram "in the." Concordances analysis shows the "want + to-infinitive" pattern and the present perfect continuous. Third year learners apparently recycle the to-infinitive form that was a main grammar structure in the

second year stage.

I want to be a singer in the future.

What do you want to be in the future?

I have been running in the track and field club.

Concerning the bigram "*in Japan*," concordance analysis reveals a variety of usages (as a present form, a post modification of a past participle, a superlative, a present perfect and a past passive form). The usage as a past passive form and as a superlative are new grammar structures in the second year stage and the others of the third year stage. In particular, post modification seems to be difficult for third year learners.

I live in Japan.

--- lunch sold at station in Japan.

--- the most famous sightseeing spot in Japan.

Have you lived in Japan?

Japanese is spoken in Japan.

Concordance analysis of the bigram usage "*in my*" shows that the bigram is used to mention one's belonging to something (*a school, a club activity, or a family*). In terms of structure, it is used as an "*adverbial clause*," a "*There as an impersonal subject*," and as in a relative clause. In particular, the impersonal subject usage refers to the number of family members and was very difficult for first year learners and second year learners.

However, third year learners show confidence in its uses.

It's 8:45 in my country.
I belong to the comic media club in my school.
When my school students work in my school, ----.
There are four people in my family.
--- who can cook the best in my family.

Lastly, let's take a glance at the bigram "in it" and look at the bigram "in it" to see what the new concordance has to offer. We see it used with a past passive voice, after the be verb, and as have + something + adjective form. We will now verify more detailed usages with new tag set analysis.

--- attraction are held in it,
--- and a culture club are in it.
But I had something sad in it.

Table 7.10.4
Frequency List of Preposition "in" Analyzed by a New Tag Set to Compare
2nd Year Learner's Corpus with 3rd Year Learner's Corpus
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

	a new tag for prepositions seen in both corpora	2nd	3rd
preposition:	place, or area to say where someone/thing is	267	285
preposition:	months, year etc when something happens	80	58
preposition:	idiom	6	11
preposition:	while doing something	3	0
preposition:	how something is done or happens	5	5

From the above table 7.10.4, we can see a small increase from the second to the third years in the number of preposition uses definable by the new tag set ("place, or area to say where someone/thing is, idiom"). The number of the usage of the "place, or area where someone/thing is" seems to be influenced the writing topic and the time for writing

the assignment before a school festival. On the other hand, there can be seen a slight decrease from the second year to the third year with regard to the new tag sets for the “*month, year, etc. when something happens.*” In the second year we see overuse of the to-infinitive form in the second year for “*I want to be something in the future.*”

7.8.3.2. to

We will focus on the usage of the preposition “to” by means of bigram analysis first, then widen our view by the use of concordance analysis and try to deepen it by means of the new tag set analysis. Table 7.10.5 shows the result of the five most frequent bigrams of the preposition “to”.

Table 7.10.5
5 Most Frequent bigram of Preposition "to"
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Frequency	bigram
1	11	to me
2	11	to the
3	5	to Disneyland
4	5	to Italy
5	5	to Tokyo

Table 7.10.5, alone, is not enough to gain a full understanding of the bigrams appearing. Therefore, each bi-gram will be examined by concordance analysis. First, “to

me" was examined by concordance analysis with the following results.

Please write to me.

It is very exciting sport to me.

--- that is very exciting sport to me.

--- sax that is very difficult for me.

They are very interesting to me.

Write to me soon.

A man gave uchiwa to me.

Please send email to me.

Concordance analysis exposes various sentence structures ("*Please write to me,*" "*Write me soon,*" and "*Please send email to me*"). Various collocation patterns may be seen ("*very + adjective + noun*" can be seen appearing as "*It is a very exciting sport to me*" and "*--- that is very exciting sport to me.*" New grammar structures in the third year stage are to be found ("*It is + adjective + (noun) + to + objective of a personal pronoun*" and "*a relative clause*"). A first step is to find the bigram patterns such as "*to me*" is used in new grammar structures and some fixed expressions that represent recycle use in the email. Second, we will examine the bigram "*to the.*" The result of concordance analysis concerning the bigram "*to the*" is as follows.

--- high school student who goes to the school.
 I'll go to the live next weekend.
 I went to the basketball club summer camp.
 So I belong to the volleyball club summer camp.
 --- is a person that belong to the volleyball club
 Did you go to the museum summer vacation?
 Did you go to the Pooh's attraction yet?

Here it should be noted that third year learners use the definite article with more ease than they did in their first and second years. In addition, there are a variety sentence forms to be seen using the bigram "to the" (relative clauses, the future tense, the present and past tense). New tag set analysis was used to produce table 7,10.6 which compares "to" in both the second and third year learner corpora.

*Table 7.10.6
 Frequency List of Preposition "to" Analyzed by
 2nd Year Learner's Corpus with 3rd Year Learner's
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

a new tag for prepositions seen in both corpora		
preposition: a certain verbs	75	67
preposition: where someone or something goes	24	24
preposition: in	10	5
preposition: what/who an action, etc affects	20	26
preposition: who: receives told/shown something	8	18
preposition: when comparing two numbers etc	1	0

Table 7.10.7 shows increases of the frequency regarding "preposition: where someone or something goes" (+20) and "preposition: what/who an action, etc. affects" (+6). Now, we will examine check these frequency increases.

First, the concordance analysis regarding “*preposition: where someone or something goes*” will be examined. Present perfect usage which is introduced in the third year and the recycling of first and second year grammar structures (present tense, past tense, future tense, be going to and to-infinitive) may be seen.

Have you ever been to Japan?

I go to school every day.

I went to --- with my family in summer vacation.

I will go to the swimming club.

I am going to --- Hall.

I want to go --- with my family.

Concerning “*preposition: what/who an action, etc. affects,*” concordance analysis combined with new tag set analysis is enlightening.

Ennichi is a Japanese festival which made happy us.

festival is a school festival that is very interesting to me.

**The squash that is very exciting sport to me.*

Increasing usage concerning “*adjective + to + (noun) + objective of personal pronoun.*” may be seen. A variety of adjectives are used (*happy, useful, interesting, exciting and difficult*) in order to mention his or her feelings and emotions. On the other hand, there are slight frequency decreases in “*preposition: after certain verbs*” (-8) and “*preposition: idiom*” (-5).

I belong to the volleyball club.

**I like listening to CD.*

--- is a person that belong to the volleyball club.

Does your sister like listening to music?

I'm a student who belong to the ---.

Concordance analysis shows that only "belong to" and "listen to" appear together with "preposition: after certain verbs". The slight decrease in frequency probably reflects a change in the focus to a narrative style from a previous focus of their writing to telling people about their experiences as a narrative. However, developmental language use is also evident in the usage of the relative clause and as a gerund.

I'm looking forward to seeing it.

I'm looking forward to hearing from you.

After that I was going on wearing glasses and I had been used to doing that.

Regarding the usage of "preposition: idiom," concordance analysis shows "be looking forward to ---ing" and "used to ---ing." It is interesting to note that the idiom "be look forward to ---ing" is used with different collocations (e.g. "hear from"). Another is the idiom "used to ---ing" which is used in the past perfect continuous. Though the frequency as an idiom decrease slightly, the usages that appear represent developmental language use. In other words, we see learner language use changing from quantitative to qualitative.

7.8.3.3. of

The preposition "of" ranks third among the ten most frequent prepositions. We will examine the five most frequent bigrams.

Table 7.10.7.
 5 Most Frequent bigrams of Pre
 Frequency Standardized at 10,0

Rank	Freq.	bigram
1	7	of fo
2	7	of tl
3	3	of Jap
4	3	of Japa
5	3	of n

Table 7.10.7 shows that the bigram ranking first is "of four." Checking for collocation patterns "of four," we find "I have a family of four," an expression that is very difficult for first and second year learners to use correctly but for which error analysis yielded no mistakes in the third year. There can be seen only one type of the bigram as above.

I'm a Japanese boy of the junior high school.
It is one of the traditional temples.
 --- *a place that is one of the most famous sightseeing spot.*
And it is one of the most popular festival.

From concordance analysis, one may notices that learners use a noun phrase in each sentence ("*...is one of the most + adjective + noun*") both as a normally appearing noun superlative form and in a relative clause with a superlative form. Concordance analysis shows developmental language use from the word level to the noun phrase level.

--- *in Tokyo that is a capital of Japan.*
 --- *that is a capital city of Japan.*

Concerning the bi-gram "of Japan," it appears as "*a capital + (city) + of Japan*" and in the relative clause, where, tough of low frequency, it represents a change in learner language use from quantitative to a qualitative change.

The next bigram to be considered is *"of Japanese"* for which we can see noun phrase use (e.g. *"the concert of Japanese students"*) and as a modification of the past participle in a relative clause that would be characteristic of third year developmental language use.

- *the band, the concert of Japanese drams.*
- *cartoons made by a lot of Japanese director.*

* --- *student who is a tallest of my third grade*
each of my classmate is a member of ---

It is quite interesting to compare *"of Japanese"* and *"of my"*, as one is in a relative clause with the superlative form and the other is as a noun phrase the expression such as "a member of". Though of low frequency, developmental language change may be seen from the word level to the phrase level to a complex sentence level.

Let's try to compare the preposition usage concerning *"of"* in the second year with the third. Table 7.10.8 shows new tag set analysis of the bigram *"of."*

Table 7.10.8.
Frequency List of Preposition "of" Analyzed by New Tag to Compare 2nd Year Learner's Corpus with 3rd Year Learner's Corpus.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

a new tag for prepositions seen in both corpora	2nd	3rd
preposition: after certain verbs	2	0
preposition: thing of the general you refer to	8	5
preposition: idiom	37	47
preposition: what group one/more things/people belong to	43	56
preposition: what a story, picture etc is about	16	10

We can see increases in *"preposition: idiom"* (+10), and *"preposition: what group one/more things/people belong to"* (+13). On the other hand, slight decreases may be

seen in “*preposition: after a certain verb*” (-2) and “*things the general you refer to*” (-3), and “*preposition: what a story, picture etc is about*” (-6). The usage “*preposition: after certain verbs*” does not appear in the third year. Concerning “*preposition: what group one/more things/people belong to*” also shows an increase (+13).

I have a family of four.

I am a member of the tennis club.

**So I'm a junior high school student who is a tallest
of my third grade.*

From the above concordance examples, it can be noticed that learners come to use correct expressions about the number of their family members in their second year and that learners had difficulty in their first and the second years with major improvement being seen in their third year. Regarding “*a member of*”, much variation was seen (*tennis club, swimming club, flower arrangement club, baseball club, cooking club and orchestra club*). Errors, though, appear in the form of a missing definite article. In the last concordance example above, the superlative form in a relative clause with an “*of*” phrase.

When focusing on the usage of prepositions that decrease in frequency in the third year, we find the patterns “*preposition: after a certain verb*” (-2), “*preposition: thing of the general you refer to*” (-3), and “*preposition: what a story, picture etc. is about*” (-6). When looking at the usage of “*preposition: what group one/more things/people belong to,*” the following concordance lines may be found.

It is the longest story of stories.
It is the one of the most popular festival.
Nikko is a place that is one of the most famous
sightseeing spot in Japan.

From the above examples, one can see that “of” phrases are more used in superlative forms in the second year, which might represent a case of overuse. We can notice, however, the collocation pattern “one of + noun phrase.” Though the frequency is less in the third year than the second year, there can still be seen a variety of noun phrases (*traditional temples, the most famous sightseeing spot, and the most popular festival*). These collocations, too, represent learner developmental language use in the third year. Collocations appearing in a relative clause appear with various antecedent nouns (*TV game, musical instrument, and book*).

Now, let's look at the following concordance examples.

I took some pictures of Daibutsu and Enoshima.
My mother is a person who is a teacher of home economics.

From the above examples, one can notice that learners try to explain in more detail about things or persons through the use of the noun phrase with “of” + noun in a relative clause. In first year, simple sentence usage and repetitions are to be noted, but here that the simple sentence changes to a sentence with noun phrases making use of the preposition “of” and a relative clause. This also represents a qualitative change. The preposition “of,” however, shows no new usage in the third year.

7.8.3.4. about

We will examine the five most frequent bigrams of the preposition "about." In terms of frequency, there are not many examples to be found. Nevertheless, bigram analysis can reveal certain features, when combined with concordance analysis and new tag set analysis. Table 7.10.9 shows the five most frequent bigrams concerning the preposition "about."

Table 7.10.9.
5 Most Frequent bigram of Preposition "about"
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.

Rank	Freq.	bigram
1	12	about you
2	8	about your
3	4	about my
4	1	about forest
5	1	about myself

Though table 7.10.9 shows the frequency for each bigram is not high, concordance analysis can be used to examine certain features in related to learner language use. First, we will examine the usage of the bigram "about you."

How about you?

Would you tell me about you?

Could you tell me about you?

I want to know not only about you but also about your ---.

"How about you?" is more common than other bigrams. It seems to be easy for learners to use and is acquired that in doing pair work or group work in daily English classes. We can also see the use of the auxiliary verbs "would" and "could." Though

these past forms of the auxiliary verbs are used for politeness, they are not listed in English textbooks as a new grammar structure. It is of interest that learners could acquire such auxiliary verb usages based on teacher talk, pair work and group work in daily English lessons. The last concordance example is with the to-infinitive. Moreover, we can notice that the learner uses an idiom such as "*--- not only --- but also ---*" with the to-infinitive form. We will now explore the usage of the bigram "*about you*" by concordance analysis.

How about your school life?

Please tell me about your presentation.

--- not only about you but also about your country.

Tell me about your country.

Will you tell me about your city?

From above concordance examples, we can see various collocation patterns ("*tell + me + about*," "*Please + tell + tell + me*", "*Tell + me + tell + me*", and "*Will you + tell + me*." We can also see the "*How about ---?*" form and an idiomatic form ("*not only --- but*"). Moreover, usage variety can be seen with regard to "*about your + noun*" (*school life, presentation, county and city*). Concerning the usage "*about my*," concordance analysis yields the following.

I'll tell you about my hobby.

I'll speak about my favorites.

I am going to tell you about my summer vacation.

We can see usages expressing the learner's intention and "*I'll*" and "*I am going to*" can be seen used with the bigram "*about my*." In spite of low frequency, variations can

still be seen (*hobby, favorites and summer vacation*). These results seem to be influenced their writing topic where learners try to introduce themselves, their family, their friends, their school life and to mention about their experiences, their hometown and their country, Japan. Lastly, "*about forest*" and "*about myself*" are of very low frequency.

*I want to China to study about forest during summer vacation.
I'll tell you about myself.*

Concordance analysis, however, does make clear the usage of "*about forest.*" On examining the concordance carefully, one can see a connection with the to-infinitive connected with the "*I'll*" form. Now, let's subject "*about*" to new tag set analysis. Table 7.10.10 concerns a comparison of "*about*" between the second and third years.

*Table 7.10.10
Frequency List of Preposition "about" Analyzed by New Tag to Compare 2nd
Year Learner's Corpus with 3rd Year Learner's Corpus.
Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

new tag for prepositions seen in both corpora	2nd	3rd
preposition: what/how about somebody/something	71	67

The above table shows only one usage concerning the preposition "*about,*" "*preposition: what/how about somebody/something*" for which the frequency decreases by 4. Nevertheless, we can see a variety of sentence forms, including the question form with the auxiliary verbs will, would and could, combined with the polite requesting sentence form of "*Please ---*" . Though new tag set analysis shows a slight decrease in frequency, it shows considerable variety in the nouns used after "*about*" (*you, Japan, my hobby, your presentation, my favorites, your family's work, yourself, your city, your*

school life, our festival, this problem, the movies, your food, her words and foreign countries). Nevertheless, no new usages of about are to be seen in the third year.

7.10.3.5. by

Concerning the preposition "by", usage in the present and past passive voice is to be expected. In order to uncover new usages by third year learners, bigram, concordance, and new tag set analysis were undertaken. Table 7.10.11 shows the results of a bigram analysis.

Table 7.10.11
*5 most frequent bigram of Prep
 Frequency Standardized at 10,*

Rank.	Freq.	bigram
1	16	by the
2	3	by many
3	3	by Mr.
4	3	by my
5	1	by students

Table 7.10.11 confirms our expectations regarding the usage of "by" in the present and past passive. It was unexpected, however, that "by the" ranked first. To check the features exhibited by "by the", a concordance analysis was undertaken which showed "by the way" in every case. This revealed learners use of this transition signal at the beginnings of a new paragraph in their writing to show a change of paragraph content.

The second ranking bigram "by many," though of low frequency, illustrates something

interesting with regard to learner developmental language use.

--- a city that is visited by many people.

--- Japanese candy which is loved by many people.

--- folk culture which is danced by many people.

The concordance shows that all bigrams of "many people" are used as a present passive voice in a relative clause. This shows that in their thirds year certain learners become capable of combining two or more two points of grammar to create something more complex. The present passive voice form is instructed as a new grammar structures in the second year and the relative clause form appears as a new grammar structure in the third year. Now, let's examine the usages of the bigrams "by Mr" and "by my" by concordance analysis.

I want to be taught by Mr.---

I ate yakishoba that was made by Mr. ---

I was given electric organ by my aunt when I was ----

I was given a digital camera by my father.

--- nickname which was named by my friends.

Here concordance analysis gives evidence of learner developmental language use, in that the past passive appears. In addition, some examples appear with a relative clause. Though of low frequency, this show a movement from quantitative to qualitative change.

Table 7.10.12 shows the results of the application of new tag set analysis to "by."

Table 7.10.12
*Frequency List of Preposition "by" Analyzed by
 2nd Year Learner's Corpus with 3rd Year Learner's
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

new tag for prepositions seen in both corpora		
preposition: who/what does something	25	67
preposition: idiom	33	59
preposition: means/method by doing something	0	1
preposition: quantity	1	0
preposition: means/method by car etc	7	3
preposition: writer/composer etc	0	1

There can be seen increases in "preposition: who/what does something" (+42), "preposition: idiom" (+26), and "preposition: means/method by doing something" (+1). Decreases were seen in "preposition: quantity" (-1) and "preposition: means/method by car, etc." (-4). Concordance analysis was then applied to examine these usages, with "preposition: agent" coming first.

*Kyoto is a city that is visited by many people.
 And students lunch which mad by cooking club.
 Look at the picture which was taken by my friends in Tokyo Disneyland.
 I was deeply moved by the judo game in Olympic.
 The school festival which was seen by many people was very nice.*

From the above examples, we can note rather many usages as a present or past passive voice form in a relative clause. This represents the integration of grammar points learned in both the second and third years. In addition, learner developmental language use can be seen in the usage of nouns and noun phrases after "by" as part of the present or past passive (*many people, my father, my mother, my sister, my friend(s), a lot of Japanese directors, school students, market, the same director, the judo game in Olympic, J.K.*

Rowling, him and us). Furthermore, these kinds of variation uses can also be seen concerning the usage of the past participle in the passive (*visited, given, made, named, loved, directed, taken, enjoyed, moved, played, used, seen, acted and opened*). A concordance analysis examination of “*preposition: idiom*” shows the common use of “*by the way*” in the third year and no other usage with it being used as a transition signal in writing. It shows that learners try to organize the content of their writing and that this attitude could also be thought of as a type of developmental language use.

The following table 7.10.13 shows new usages of the preposition “*by*” appearing for the first time in the third year.

Table 7.10.13.
*Frequency List of Preposition by New Tag t
 seen newly in 3rd year Learner's Corpus
 Frequency Standardized at 10,000 Words.*

<i>new tag for prepositions seen in onl3yr</i>	
<i>preposimeans/method by doing something</i>	<i>1</i>

In table 7.10.13 can be seen the usage of “*preposition: means/method by doing something.*” It is “**I can get ready relax by talking with my friends which is also fun.*” A first thing to be noted is the gerund usage after “*by*” to indicate something to do. The second thing to note is the usage of a phrasal verb such a get ready, though this represents a case of error usage due to the lack of the preposition “*for*” after the phrasal verb. A third point is a subjective use with a relative clause. Certainly, this is an error usage but it represents some important developmental language features in acquiring correct language use and learner experimentation.

7.9. Error Analysis of the 10 most frequent prepositions

Here we will focus on error patterns of the 10 most frequent prepositions. A new tag set spreadsheet was marked for preposition error as an asterisk (*). As a second step, the data was sorted by the frequency rank. As a third step, the data was examined manually for all error patterns. Finally, the data was adjusted according to type of error pattern.

7.9.1. Error analysis concerning “in”

There are 15 error patterns concerning the preposition “in” which can be divided as follows. An unnecessary usage influenced Japanese (4), a necessary usage before adverb such as “there”(4), an incorrect use which should have been “at (1)” or “on (1)”, an incorrect order in the phrasal verb “take part in” (1), and an incorrect usage due to a lack of “the be verb” (1). The number put in parentheses shows, as elsewhere, the frequency standardized as 10,000 words.

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “in”

*In night, we saw beautiful show.
I had very good time in there.
Also there is middle night and after night festival which
students could only take in parts.
I always go to shopping in weekend.
Look at the picture in left side.*

7.9.2. Error analysis concerning “to”

The error patterns concerning the preposition "to" were 27 and were a necessary usage influenced Japanese (6), an necessary usage before adverb such as "there"(12) and "again"(1), an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (4), an incorrect usage due to the lack of the be verb (1) and an incorrect use of the to-infinitive (1).

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “to”

*Where will you go to next winter vacation?
I will go to shopping tomorrow.
I want to go to again.
I went to there this summer.
It was happy for us to shopping.
I like to speaking English.*

7.9.3. Error analysis concerning “of”

The error patterns concerning the preposition "of" were eight and were an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (5) and an incorrect usage should be "be glad to" (1)

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “of”

*I am a person of born between January 1st and April 1st.
Speaking of summer, Olympics was held.
I was glad of that I could use English in fact.
Because it cure of me.*

7.9.4. Error analysis concerning “about”

No errors usage was seen with regard to "about", largely because its use was limited to certain fixed expressions ("How about you?" or "What do you think about --?").

7.9.5. Error analysis concerning “by”

The error patterns of "by" were four and were an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (2) and an incorrect usage of “by” for "in"(1).

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “by”

What do you do by that?

*I have a teammate who became the champion of Tokyo by
1500 meters race.*

7.9.6. Error analysis concerning “for”

The error patterns concerning the preposition "for" were six and were an unnecessary usage (1), an incorrect usage of “for” for "in" (1), for "of" (1) and for "about" (1), and an incorrect usage involving the use of an unsuitable expression (2).

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition “for”

I ate for yakisoba and mizuame.

Last time, I took the first prize for English composition.

The man is my father whom take a picture for temple.

What do you think for my dream?

7.9.7. Error analysis concerning “at”

The error patterns for "at" were nine and were an incorrect usage of “at” for "or" (1) and "on" (1), an incorrect usage of a suitable expression (2), an unnecessary usage

influenced by Japanese (2), and an unnecessary before the adverb such as "yesterday"(1).

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition "at"

Do you have any events at any planes for autumn?
Ginnan festival is at October 17, 18.
At last time, I had persussionist's autograph.
We were went to summer festival at yesterday.
I'm junior high school student at third years student.

7.9.8. Error analysis concerning "with"

The error patterns for "with" were two and both involved the inability to find a suitable expression.

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition "with"

She cooked not cake with which was very delicious.
She cooked not cake with which was very delicious.

7.9.9. Error analysis concerning "on"

The error patterns of "on" were five and were an necessary usage before "this week" (1) and an inability to find a suitable expression (4).

Examples the error patterns concerning the preposition "on"

Because I has a test on this week.
Will you came on?
We are very busy on festival.
Did you more on Olympic?

7.9.10. Error analysis concerning “*from*”

No errors were found concerning "*from*" in the third year, because its use was limited to a single fixed expression in the email writing task which involved writing "From + sender's name" at the end of the email.

8. Applications

8.1. Corpus-Based Grammar Teaching

Certain methods and approaches have been appearing with greater frequency in Japanese English education, and, over perhaps the last 20 years, the teaching style seems to have been changing from a mainly teacher-centered approach to a mainly learner-centered one. In current English lessons in Japan, Task-Based Approach and Communicative Language Teaching seem to be, more often than not, at the core of many English lessons. On the other hand, it has been pointed out that Japanese teachers of English should return to the basics with regard to the teaching of English, a reaction to the fact that some students cannot read and write English after receiving only communicative approach lessons. Concerning this point, it may be said that each method and approach has advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, it is essential that teachers consider adapting a variety of suitable methods or teaching approaches. In this context, the role of Conscious-Raising (hereafter, C-R) activities might be profitably considered.

The definition of the Grammar Translation Method (hereafter, GTM) can be stated as a deductive approach which starts with the presentation of a rule and is followed by examples in which the rule is applied and can also be defined as rule driven learning, Thornbury (1999: 29). GTM may be seen in Japanese English lessons even now, not only in the lower secondary schools, but also in senior high schools. Especially, it seems that this tendency continues in senior high school English lessons.

In Japanese English education, there are distinct advantages for both the teacher and the students in using GTM. The fact that GTM encourages an explicit explanation of a grammar point, followed by practice writing activities in which translation activities focus on the target grammar, allows the teacher to focus on form effectively in the very limited time available with only three English lessons per week being made available in Japanese secondary schools according to the curriculum as defined by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (hereafter, MEXT). Students, on the other hand, often show a visible sense of relief at being instructed in grammatical matters through the use of their mother tongue. Moreover, some students seem to experience a feeling of accomplishment on the successful completion of grammar exercises.

There are, however, disadvantages in GTM for both students and teachers. The teacher has to use the mother tongue throughout the English lesson and, for students, there is generally less of an opportunity to talk with the teacher. Moreover, there is the danger that the students will get into the habit of perceiving English as a language which should always be approached through the mediation of their first language. As mentioned above, there are pros and cons and, as Thornbury (1999: 47) points out, a lot will depend on how user-friendly the rules being applied are and also on the teacher's presentation of the rules. Taken as a whole, one cannot lightly dismiss the GTM approach with regard to English education in Japan.

Direct Method and Natural Approach can be defined as inductive approaches which are characterized as not exposing learners directly to rules. The learner is

expected to examine examples and derive an understanding of the rule from the examples. As such, these approaches are also known as Discovery Learning, Thornbury (1999: 49). They differ, however, in the position they take as to how best input should be selected and organized. They also take different positions with regard to how and how often the teacher should intervene, Thornbury, S.(1999: 51). Even so, they have found a place in the current practice of Japanese English education.

Here, too, there seem to be advantages and disadvantages for both teacher and students. An advantage for the teacher is that the teacher instructs, using English throughout the English lesson. This encourages Japanese teachers, themselves, in a more continuous study of English than would otherwise be the case. The teacher also can motivate students so disposed to learn English by giving them a chance to practice speaking English. Furthermore, this methodology makes it possible for teachers to stimulate students who take pleasure in discovering things on their own. Such students can discover rules for themselves not presented by the teacher and can become motivated in learning English by having had a chance to speak English.

Disadvantages, however, exist. A teacher needs to take much time in planning a lesson and in providing teaching materials for instruction. Furthermore, some students are not gifted at discovering rules or seem prone to hypothesizing wrong rules. Another problem is that discovering what the rules are often takes quite a bit of time, even for those with a knack for such things. This, paradoxically, often has the effect of limiting the time available for speaking and practicing. Japanese English teachers must, therefore, be sensitive to the issue of how they offer instruction by using these methods

in the classroom, in order to be effective vis-a-vis students because, in the end, they are constrained by the fact already mentioned above that, at the secondary level, English lessons are limited to only three hours per week during the school year.

Communicative Language Teaching (hereafter, CLT) has had and continues to have a great effect on current Japanese English education. Teaching materials seem to have been changed from the mechanical drills of audio-lingualism current 30 and 40 years ago to the more meaningful drills of CLT. One advantage of CLT for the teacher is that it enables students to have an opportunity to more actively use their heads to consider the situations they are faced with when they speak English. Furthermore, as the teacher uses Teacher Talk consciously for a long term during English lessons, it makes for an increase not only in students' receptive vocabulary but also in students' productive vocabulary and in target grammar structures. A disadvantage of some CLT approaches for both teachers and students alike is, as it has been pointed out, that teachers can not schedule enough time for students to practice reading a textbook, resulting in the inability of some students to read a textbook in spite of their English lessons. In other words, the teacher tends to focus on getting students to enjoy their classroom experience, but students' attitudes towards reading seems to remain passive.

As has been noted, there are pros and cons of both deductive and inductive learning methodologies and it seems that there is no one best method of teaching English grammar which would be applicable to all Japanese students, regardless of personality or personal situation. This position finds support in Thornbury (1999: 90)

where one finds the opinion that no single method of grammar presentation is going to be appropriate for all grammar items. Neither will it be so for all learners, nor for all learning contexts.

We have noted above that the GTM is defined as a form of deductive learning, while direct method, audiolingualism, and CLT are defined as inductive learning methodologies. How, then, can C-R be defined? Allwright (1984a) considers that C-R encompasses the notion that, to teach a language, one must not just teach a body of knowledge but also teach how to learn and, thereby, teach learners how to become better managers of their own learning. Thus, C-R emphasizes the process of discovery learning. C-R might, therefore, be profitably considered as an approach which would allow the integrating of some elements of grammar focused lessons with communicative activities.

Grammar C-R can be seen as having a number of different roles to play and several different 'modes' of operation. One is perceived as being concerned with the where and when of data that are crucial for the learner's testing of hypotheses and for the forming of learner generalizations, with the data being made available to the learner in a controlled and principled fashion. This is the 'familiar-to-unfamiliar' progression mode. Another role that re-emphasizes the value of C-R for hypothesis testing which can be deduced from the relationship between universal language principles and language specific information (Rutherford: 1987: 18). When considering Japanese English lessons, C-R activity has so far not achieved any overwhelming popularity. However, it has undeniable potential to add a fresh dimension to English lessons as a

new type of approach which integrates grammar instruction with elements of CLT due to the fact that it would require students to focus on a grammar structure and to find a rule through working on a communicative activity.

This new type of task seems to have some advantages for both the teacher and the students. Teachers can give instruction by using many different activities and this gives a great deal of motivation to students to learn English for students. Furthermore, C-R activities can promote student autonomy in learning English and their information-seeking skills with each other. Rutherford (1987: 20) suggests that we might use C-R to bridge the gap between the learner's prior knowledge of how major constituents may be properly ordered for effective communication (the 'familiar') and the learner's ignorance of the special grammatical devices that English requires for the correct rendering of that order (the 'unfamiliar').

On the other hand, there are again disadvantages. One disadvantage of C-R for teachers is that C-R might mislead students into a false hypothesis when trying to find some rules by using individual knowledge or framing a hypothesis through negotiations. C-R requires deep thinking from students. Therefore, the teacher and students must spend much time to do the work required. Moreover, it is usually not practical for teachers to give enough practice time to students for talking and they need to spend much time in preparation for lessons. For students, sometimes C-R may induce a lot of stress when trying to find a rule or when they have not been given sufficient chance to communicate in English with other students. Even then, student hypotheses may prove to be false. Rutherford (1987: 21) mentioned that for formal instruction, the only

applicable set of conditions, both sufficient and necessary, was that the learner be exposed to genuine language that is slightly beyond his or her present level of comprehension. In respect to this point, Rutherford (1987: 24) also brings forward a counterargument that C-R is a means to the attainment of grammatical competence in another language, whereas 'grammar teaching' typically represents an attempt to instill that competence directly.

It would, however, seem quite probable that C-R activities could provide a different type of approach for Japanese English lessons. As it can be considered an integrated approach which combines a grammatical analysis of structures with communicative activities, it may be expected to give a great deal of motivation to students learning English. Moreover, it might also offer the possibility of increasing the range of teacher approaches in many kinds of tasks which involve C-R concept.

Student centered approaches, such as CLT or the Task-Based Approach, can be frequently seen in lower secondary schools and somewhat less so at the senior high school level where, as mentioned before, the GTM retains a greater currency. In general, however, teachers seek to give students an opportunity to speak English and to communicate with each other through many kinds of activities. Indeed, some Japanese professors of English claim that the focus on communicative activity has become too extreme, there being more than a grain of truth in the assertions of some that students who are not capable of reading their textbooks or writing English using basic target grammar sentences are increasing.

Seen in the context of current English education trends in Japan, the author's own teaching style has changed over the course of the last 23 years from GTM to the Direct Method, and from audiolingualism to CLT and Task-Based Approach. My current teaching approach can be defined as mixed. Some elements show signs of being CLT approaches, but lesson plans also include the use of task-based learning and some elements of pattern-practice and the direct method in oral interaction through English. Personally, my English lesson procedure is ordinarily as follows: (1) Greeting (to use target structures in previous lessons to communicate with students and for increasing Student Talk in English); (2) Guess Work (a guessing game between the teacher and students making use of target grammar sentences to elicit questions and answers in English); (3) Bingo Game (a vocabulary game for increasing the receptive and productive vocabulary of Student Talk); (4) Review Work (Pronouncing previous vocabulary items using flash cards and practice reading in stages, going from chorus reading, to buzz reading, to individual reading, and to reading and looking things up); (5) Presentation of new material (Pair work or group work, making use of interview work, information-gap activities, task-based problem solving activities, jig-saw reading, with one of these activities being selected for each lesson); (6) Writing (Students write up the result of their pair or group work in English with the use of the target grammar structure); (7) Oral Interaction (Teacher talk which involves various functions and previous target grammar structures for increasing Student Talk); (8) Practice the pronunciation of new words using flash cards (chorus practice and individual practice); (9) Reading (Reading new target grammar structures in the textbook going from model reading to reading each phrase and then on to chorus reading, buzz reading, individual

reading and reading and looking things up); and (10) Consolidation and Closing (Explaining the point of the day's lesson, informing the students of the homework to be done, and making a few closing comments). Using teacher talk in 50-minute English lessons, my classes typically consist of forty 13-year old students consisting of 20 boys and 20 girls who are at an elementary level. C-R requires much time to enable such students to focus on form and meaning. Therefore, using C-R in my lessons means changing the usual teaching procedure.

A teacher, of course, needs to understand various methods or approaches and how to instruct students to keep them highly motivated when learning English. In changing the teaching style from teacher centered to a learner centered approach, C-R seems to offer a way of integrating traditional approaches with those of CLT. Especially in the use of corpus data, many possibilities appear for new directions in teaching and learning English for both the teacher and students. These possibilities bring with them implications both as to the production and the process of language learning. Building a learner corpus gives us a new tool for teaching and learning a language from a different angle. In particular, teachers can come to better understand the process of learning English through an analysis of student errors.

To recapitulate, data driven learning and an appropriately designed learner corpus has the ability to be a new and powerful approach in the future of English education. As an illustration of what this might entail in practice, however, please refer to the next chapter where the reader can see discussed a description of two C-R classes which I

have developed and tried out in my own teaching situation as a lower secondary English teacher in Japan.

8. 2. Introducing two Consciousness-Raising activities

C-R activities can mix pair work and group work to good effect. To illustrate this, the following activities will be introduced in an attempt to show how students might, through inductive learning, discover a rule describing the usage of the auxiliary verb 'can' through pair work and group work. In the process, these activities could be expected to promote student awareness of how they might better use their intuition.

As a test case, these C-R activities through pair work and group work were carried out during the 2000-2001 school year by the first year students of the University of Tokyo Education Faculty Affiliated Secondary School (hereafter, UTEFASS), consisting of 60 boys and 60 girls 12 to 13 years of age. The tasks were given as the part of their usual English lessons, the time being fifty minutes, with a ten-minute pair work activity and a twenty minute group work activity. Students were allowed to use their mother tongue in a part of the activity in their pair work but were instructed to use L2 throughout the group work as much as possible.

The first task consisted of reading the following sentences from No.1 to No. 5. If the sentence was correct, they were to write ○. If the sentence was incorrect, they were to write an × in the blank:

- 1. I English speak can.
- 2. I English can speak.
- 3. I speak English can.
- 4. I speak can English.
- 5. I can speak English.

They were then asked to give a reason in Japanese for deciding whether a sentence was correct or incorrect. The third step was to discuss the result with a partner and to make a decision regarding the partner's answer using the following pair work dialogue.

A: OK, now let's think about each sentence. Is it correct or incorrect.

B: OK, do you think that No.1 is correct or incorrect?

A: Let me see, I think that No.1 is (correct / incorrect).

B: Why?

A: Because it seems to be (natural / strange).

The above dialogue was shown and explained to students in order for them to use English and, in doing so, to use target structures which involved 'general verb' usage as an affirmative. It was expected that negatives and question forms would be generated through pair work. The teacher also advised students that they might speak their mother tongue during the pair work, because it would otherwise be difficult to talk about the differences of grammar between English and Japanese for elementary level students.

The second task consisted of students dividing themselves into groups of four to five each. They were to discuss the results of their pair work discussion and to find the

concerned rule of grammar. They were then to report their group's answer in English by means of the following dialogue.

- A (group leader): Now, let's discuss and find our answer.
Let's start from Sentence No.1. I think that No.1 is
(correct / incorrect). How about you, B?
- B: I think that No.1 is (correct / incorrect).
- A: Why?
- B: Because it seems to be (natural / strange).
- A: I see. B thinks that No.1 is (correct / incorrect). How
about you, C?
- C: Let me see, I (agree / don't agree) with B. I think that
No.1 is (correct / incorrect). ----- (The same discussion
continues in the same manner between A and D.)
- A: OK, now let's decide our group's answer. Do you think
that No.1 is (correct / incorrect)? Please raise your hand.
- B, C, D: (B, C, and D raise their hands.)
- A: OK, we decide that No.1 is (correct / incorrect). -----No.
1 to No. 4 are incorrect. No.5 is correct.

The above dialogue involved some target grammar structures which the teacher had taught before, including the 'general verb', the 'third person singular' and some functions such as 'agreement' or 'disagreement' and 'mention the opinion' or 'asking the opinion'. This was attempted as an advanced activity. It involved discussing and finding a rule through group work in English as a form of discovery learning. Moreover, it was the first time for students to learn the concept of the auxiliary verb 'can'. They were not instructed by means of the teacher-centered approach making use of rule driven learning. The teacher did not mention the differences of word order between Japanese and English and did not make explanations using his mother tongue, even though it was expected that the auxiliary verb 'can' might prove difficult to understand for students due to first language influence.

During this activity, the teacher monitored each group's activity, taking into account points of negotiation, Student Talk, and the process of how to find out a rule and the rule to be found. After the activity, work sheets from 10 student leaders (one leader per group) were collected and the kinds of rules found by each group were tabulated. Student descriptions generated from their C-R activity were:

- Japanese and English word order are different.
- The position of the subject is the same.
- The position of the verb is different, the verb being at the end of the sentence in Japanese but after the subject in English.
- We expect that 'can' means 'capacity'.
- After the third person singular, we need to write -s at the end of a general verb but some of our members point out that we need not write -s for the third person singular after 'can' But we do not know whether that it is correct or incorrect.
- We expect that the negative form of 'can' is 'can not' and the question form is 'Can + subject + general verb + something. However, another student says that 'can + do + not + verb' is what should be in a negative sentence and 'Do + subject + can + verb + something for a question.'

As can be seen from the above, students tried, for the most part successfully, to find out rules of grammar through negotiation by means of a C-R activity. Most students seemed to be very active when trying to find this out by themselves. Though the activity seemed to need much time for the discovery of a rule, it did prove to be a refreshing exercise to both the teacher and the students. Furthermore, it may be said that student L1 knowledge actually proved to be useful in leading them to find out something when considering new rules in the L2.

There are other considerations, however. To save time, the teacher should show provide some sample sentences and model dialogues, should explain in detail how to do

work, and should take care in organizing the various aspects of the activity including pair work and group work. Care must be taken to promote student motivation through the use of a discovery learning style. When considered from the viewpoint of ease of use, it does not need so much energy to get ready for the activity, but it requires that the teacher show some target grammar structures in the dialogue as a communicative task for the C-R activity. Moreover, the teacher needs to monitor and check student talk in each pair or group according to language usage, the finding of rules, and student difficulty encountered due to L1 interference.

Of course, C-R activities present difficulties at the elementary level (12 to 13 years of age), but, even so, it may be possible to do C-R activity by considering the student English learning process. If this is properly taken into account, even at the elementary level, it may be possible to use English as a part of a C-R activity and avoid mother tongue use to a large degree. The teacher, thus, can and should organize the class depending on the student level or other conditions. In particular, the teacher might find it expeditious not to require students to discuss in English at the pair discussion stage, though after this stage the teacher can show the students a model dialogue to use as group work for discussing in English. The teacher naturally needs to consider the size of the group, with each group consisting of perhaps 4 and forming 10 groups (more or less as the case may be) to a class, as the case would ordinarily be in Japan. Group size, of course, would be dictated by the need to discuss each idea and listen to others in the process of finding appropriate answers.

As the language level should have an effect on the strategy used, it would be useful to introduce here a second sample lesson, this time at the intermediate level, illustrating how data driven learning can take place through the use of corpus data as an advanced C-R activity. The subjects of this activity were 120 second year UTEFASS students (60 boys and 60 girls) aged 13 to 14 years. For this activity, the teacher showed students many concordance lines of corpus data which involved the auxiliary verb 'can' in COLT. Students experienced data driven learning by means of looking through corpus data to find out new rules of the auxiliary verb 'can' with regard to different usages indicating ability, possibility, and permission.

It was expected that students would notice new rules and that new usages of 'can' would become clear when reading through an appropriate number of lines taken from the concordance. It was also expected that students would notice some common features in each usage by looking carefully at collocations.

As a first step, the students were expected to read the following lines of the COLT concordance and find some new rules of usage for 'can,' writing the rules found on their sheet.

1. Where can we buy souvenirs?
2. Can I borrow your goal keeping gloves this afternoon?
3. Can I have another piece of bread?
4. Can you pass me the black T shirt please?
5. Can you keep an eye on him while I'm doing this dinner?
6. Well, he can speak Spanish?
7. I can hear what they are talking about on ---.
8. I can play rugby now and he's saying no it's not worth ---.
9. And so she can read it quickly!
10. I can ask your daddy what he thinks.
11. You can get a new keyboard.
12. We can go out for lunch, yeah?
13. I can do for the next seven weeks.
14. I can understand that if you were Welsh and Welsh speak-
--.
15. Can you remind me?
16. She can wait outside here.
17. I can play rugby now and he's no it's not worth ---.
18. You can go out and buy another game.
19. You can actually read it.
20. I can wash my hair. .

The students then divided up into pairs to discuss the results they uncovered and to find appropriate rules. They were then to combine into groups of four to discuss the rules governing the usage of 'can'. If they found a new rule, they were to explain how it represented a different usage of 'can'.

As the students did, one should then choose sentences from the above lines of the concordance possessing the same usage of 'can'. After this, a group list should be (and was) made with the appropriate meaning of 'can' being written for each group of concordance lines in the following style.

Sentence Number	The usage of 'can' (meaning)
1. [] → []	
2. [] → []	
3. [] → []	

It was the first experience for students to read lines of a concordance and to find out a rule. It seemed to be a difficult job for the students, but most students tried to do this activity enthusiastically. The teacher monitored each group, taking into account (1) what kind of rules they had not learned which were found by means of the C-R activity, (2) the process of finding out the new rule from reading the lines of the concordance, (3) Student Talk when the model dialogue and other expressions were used, and (4) functions appearing in the use of negotiation. The following are examples of student statements taken from the various groups after this task was completed:

- It was a first time to read these kinds of sentences in an English lesson.
- I felt it seemed to be difficult but we tried to help each other to find out some rules.
- When we found another rule, we felt happy.
- I understood that 'can' has different usages.
- We want much more time.
- We felt a new feeling in getting a clearer understanding by looking through the lines of the concordance.

After this activity, students could find not only new rules but also the importance of negotiation with other friends as a result of having done this task. It was also notable that students tried to find out rules very actively than would ordinarily be normal in a Japanese classroom context. In this point, the potential importance of C-R roles can be

seen as a possible learning methodology that has possibilities for the English education in Japan.

Data driven learning, however, covers a wide range of topics, a range which to a large extent reflects the interests and specializations of students for the better and worse, with the range being weighted rather too heavily for the students' own good towards journalese. The instructor when designing the above-mentioned activity, thus, felt it necessary on occasion to compensate for that weighting. In terms of efficiency, data driven learning may require a great deal of time for teachers to make material for a C-R activity, though computers can make the process less labor intensive than it otherwise would be for the teacher to access corpus data, copy and paste the needed data, and then put together various instructions for how to do the task and how to adjust the work sheet.

Johns (1994: 298) mentioned that the most important principle that has to be borne in mind in carrying out this work is that the inevitable process of selection should not distort the evidence. That is to say, the concordance extracts chosen should represent as far as possible the full range of linguistic and communicative features of the raw data. Furthermore, data driven learning may often require a basic knowledge of grammar use. For these reasons and possibly others, it might ordinarily be more suitable for an intermediate level or advanced level of students. The teacher, however, can arrange materials by using corpus data for grammar learning activities from the elementary level, though it may not be practical for data driven learning to be used often at the elementary or secondary school level in Japan, because the teacher often needs to

explain too much in the L1. On the other hand, the teacher can instruct intermediate level or advanced level students with a far reduced need for L1 use.

8.3. Corpus based vocabulary teaching

This chapter is based on research done by the author in 2001. It concerned Japanese course books designated for English education in lower secondary schools by the Ministry of Education. In these books, there was a vocabulary list of about 100 functional words to be learned during the three years of lower secondary education in Japan, which meant that the teaching of vocabulary in lower secondary schools completely depended on each English teacher who was put in a position, by the very nature of things, to consider the vocabulary list as only a minimum guide line.

There were seven English textbooks for the lower secondary school level which were published by textbook companies and which used different themes as topics (conversations about different situations related to science, culture, society, environment, history, communication, language.) It meant that different words were included in each text, which meant, in a sense, that there was no specific word list for teaching vocabulary in lower secondary school English lessons. Was it better for the Ministry of Education or for the textbook publishers to decide the vocabulary which the teachers should use to teach English? What vocabulary should the teacher select and how should the vocabulary be taught in daily English lessons? These were issues which, unfortunately, still have not been resolved at the beginning of 2009. Details have

changed, but not the problems, so it is hoped that the following discussion will have a certain value, especially to those for whom the application of corpus based techniques in teaching might be of interest or to those abroad with a desire to know more about matters affecting English education in the Japanese system of secondary education.

In discussing issues of vocabulary, we must first consider what a word is. A useful reference can be made to the following definition by Bolinger and Sears (1968: 43) where a word is defined as ‘the smallest unit of language that can be used by itself’. Carter (1998: 4-9) gives other definitions of word in terms of orthography, minimum meaningful unit of a language, minimal free form, etc. He goes on to say (1998: 8) that grammatical words as a closed class comprise a small and finite class of words which include articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions and conjunctions and are also variously known as ‘functional words’, ‘functors’, or ‘empty words’. On the other hand, lexical words, which are also variously known as ‘full words’ or ‘content words’, include nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Other scholars have other systems of analysis.

The definition of word would seem to be necessary as basic knowledge for teachers teaching vocabulary. In practice, however, this is not necessarily an easy piece of knowledge to acquire, as issues of demarcation can arise. Moreover, there is the problem of what to do with certain fixed expressions or other multi-item lexical units.

In addition, we must consider how words combine with each other to form meaningful (and useful) phrases and how to handle lexical variation, ‘idiomaticity’, and

collocational bonding. Nevertheless, for most purposes, a beautifully conceived theoretical framework is not necessary when considering vocabulary teaching issues at the secondary school level in Japan. I will, thus, take a rougher, yet hopefully still informative, approach

English textbook lessons in Japan commonly consist of three pages with the teacher normally teaching one page per 50-minute lesson. About seven or eight words are shown as new words in the approximately seven to ten sentences appearing on each page with each page being designed to include one or more target grammar structures per page. It goes without saying that textbooks have not changed in their fundamental format during the 2001-2009 period.

It would not be out of place to repeat at this point that the MEXT standard wordlist for the first three years of English education in Japan is only 100 words, almost all of which are functional words. MEXT has put a positive spin on this by emphasizing that this that each teacher is given freedom when it comes to choosing and teaching vocabulary. This, however, means that teachers now have an additional responsibility in addition to the many others they are duty bound to fulfill appropriately.

Seven kinds of English textbooks for the lower secondary school level are published and each school district in Japan can choose whichever textbook from this group it wishes to have used for English lessons in its respective school district. Of course, the contents and choice of vocabulary are different in each English textbook. Ideally, it should mean that choosing vocabulary should be an important factor in

choosing from among the different English textbooks, as it would seem to be a matter of urgent concern for teachers, in that the choice of vocabulary used in the textbooks cannot help but to impact what they will be able to teach during the limited time available to them. In other words, is it really a good thing that choosing vocabulary has, by default, become a right of the seven textbook publishers, who do not necessarily employ scientifically sound methodology in deciding what goes in the products they produce?

From an educator's standpoint, word frequency should be the central criterion in choosing vocabulary. If we are to make decisions based on frequency, we would need access to a research corpus. As a first step, I decided to make a textbook corpus and a word frequency list on my own to do, as it were, a product comparison. This could be done by using the corpus analysis software, WordSmith, and it enabled me to then extract all examples of lines of text appearing in the said concordance lines which included whatever key word I wished to do a search for. The corpus thus generated could then be compared with other corpora such as CobuildDirect, British National Corpus, etc.

As mentioned above, about seven or eight words are shown as new words in each section in each lesson of each of the seven textbooks issued for each of the three school years investigated. It is ordinary practice for the teacher to use flash cards on which are written one English word per card. The teacher then shows each flash card and pronounces whatever word is on the flash cards two or three times loudly, making the students pronounce after him or her. After practicing the pronunciation of each word,

the teacher chooses a card to show to the students. The teacher then points his or her finger at some or all of his or her students in turn. After individual practice, the teacher flashes each card and shows each word for a few seconds to the students as a whole, who pronounce each word together. After the lesson, studying vocabulary, usually as an element of homework, is normally thought to depend on each student. It should not take much analysis to see that this method of teaching vocabulary might benefit by being either supplemented or replaced by another.

Using corpora offers another way, especially when it comes to supplementing the sometimes arbitrary vocabulary choices made by Japanese textbook publishers. For purposes of illustration, one might do well to consider a text actually in use and to discuss issues which would have to be faced in its use and how it might be used, something I have done in the succeeding chapter.

According to Willis (2000), if we are organizing input for the learner, we need to assemble a pedagogic corpus, a body of texts which can be made accessible to learners both culturally and linguistically. These texts should be carefully selected to ensure that they will be of interest to learners and will be of a length appropriate for classroom use. My view has much in common with that of Willis, especially when thinking of the importance of learner level (in this case, lower secondary school). I would like to emphasize that the teacher should, while carefully considering the learner level, consider it a requirement to look through and select appropriate lines of text from relevant corpora. In order to give and demonstrate real language use to Japanese lower secondary school learners, it seems to be essential to recognize the advantages and

disadvantages of corpora use in school English lessons. As to the advantages of using corpora, the teacher is given an opportunity to show real language use and to extensively input this language into learners, though of course there is a need to choose carefully from the texts of corpora. Moreover, the teacher could use this kind of authentic data to design many kinds of C-R activities, whether as activities for the individual or as group activities.

Research corpora also offer the opportunity for both teachers and students to more frequently expose themselves to collocations used by native speakers. Even so, a disadvantage of corpora is that items of authentic data often seem to be difficult for lower secondary school students to understand when reading language in actual use. Making one's own corpus might be an option, but only making corpora without a particular goal in mind can very well end up giving a teacher nothing. The kind of corpora the teacher needs for teaching must be one that takes due consideration of the learner level. This, consequently, means that whatever corpora the teacher decides on using should be selected as being apropos to the designing of daily English lessons. However, by building a learner corpus, a textbook corpus and by using other corpora such as CobuildDirect, British National corpus, COLT, etc., the teacher can, with proper care, make new discoveries in real language use. In this point, a corpus based approach might widen teacher and learner knowledge of real language use and give the teacher a chance to consider a long term lexical syllabus design. Of course, though more so than in the past, a corpus based approach to English education can not be often seen at the

lower secondary school level in Japan. Nevertheless, it would appear inevitable that it will occur more often and will give learners further motivation to learn English.

8.4. Textbook page sample and related issues

Before going further, it would perhaps be instructive for readers who are not Japanese to experience briefly a Japanese lower secondary school level officially recognized textbook. It, more than any theoretical discussion, would give a clear idea of the limitations imposed on both textbook publishers and school boards by MEXT guidance. The immediately following text chosen for presentation and analysis is a page from The New Crown English Series, Book 2, published by Sanseido Publishing Company in Tokyo in 2001.

Lesson 6 Speech---‘My Dream’

Section 1 Hello, everyone. All of us will work in the future. We will have many different jobs. Some of us will work in offices. Some will work on farms. Some will work to help old people. Today I am going to tell you about my dream for the future. (Section 1’s new words: everyone, job, office, farm)

Section 2 I want to be a nursery school teacher. Why? First, I like children. Last month I visited a nursery school. I played with the children for a short time. I painted pictures with them. I had a good time. So, I want to work among children in the future. (Section 2’s new words: children, paint, among, for a short time, nursery school)

Section 3 Second, some parents need help. For example, my parents had a lot of things to do when I was a child. When I become a nursery school teacher, I can help people like them. So, nursery school teachers are very important for society. They do many things to help children and their parents. I want to help you and your children some day. Thank you. (Section 3’s new words: parent, child, become, important, society)

Let’s Write (this is as a consolidation section) Hello, friends. I want to be a doctor in the future. Why? First, I like to help people. There are many places without doctors. I can work in these places. Second, I want to join an international volunteer group as a doctor. Then I can help people around the world. Thank you.

(Let’s Write’s new words: doctor, without, group, world)

The first thing to look at would be a list the collocations appearing.

1. I am going to---
2. I want to be a ---
3. a nursery school teacher
4. paint(ed) pictures
5. among children
6. like them

The fixed expressions also deserve notice.

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------|
| 1. All (Some) of us | 4. a lot of |
| 2. last month | 5. some day |
| 3. for a short time | 6. Thank you |

Though the text, itself, may appear simple to the native speaker of English, this may not necessarily be the case for speakers of non-Indo-European languages. With this in mind, let us consider with relation to the above text the matter of word-combination constraint teaching techniques

The first thing to consider would be “I am going to---.” For students, understanding the difference of usage between “am going to” and “will” as an auxiliary verb seems to be difficult. Moreover, the definitions of the usage in Japanese-English dictionaries are too simple to be entirely satisfactory. A fairly typical one would be as follows:

Generally, one expresses “intention” by using “will”. This is mostly used in the following case, as a verb for “I or We” where “will” is mostly used. However, the verb of choice for “You” or “Third singular” is “be going to”. (Shogakukan’s Friend English-Japanese, Japanese-English Dictionary: 587)

As might be expected, students have trouble understanding when it would be more appropriate to use “will” and when “be going to” would be better. Here, in particular, a corpus-based approach might be useful in encouraging student recognition of different usages. For example, by accessing CobuildDirect we can get the following when seeking a representative sample of “am going to”, “is going to”, and “are going to”:

1. I am going to send faxes to the boys and stay in touch”,
said---
2. I am going to make this school safer.
3. I am going to show them here as seven full rows.
4. I am going to Australia.
5. I am going to be a busy lady and erm a year---
6. It is going to happen to them but when---
7. This kind of technology is going to give a lot of surprises--
-
8. She is going to be a major motion picture actress again.
9. Bob announces is going to be able to be more extreme.
10. He is going to be brilliant.

When requesting a representative sample of “will”, CobuildDirect will display the following:

1. I will go for a run.
2. I will call him until further notice.
3. I will never be able to repeat.
4. I will give more information.
5. You will have the opportunity to be taught in lectures.
6. You will never forget.
7. Mrs Thatcher will come here.
8. President Bush that warm relations will also be very good for Washington.
9. They will be taking registrations, ---.
10. Learners will be given a log book, ---

From the above examples we can see, at least in part, the usage of “be going to” and “will”. The teacher can give these concordance lines by printing them out for each student and give them a chance to read the concordance lines and consider some of the meanings which these expressions might have. In addition, the teacher can arrange these items of data into worksheets to add direction to the above materials by having the students read and think about the usage in each sentence. They should be asked to write “I” (which means “intention”) or F (which means “future”) in the blank after each sentence. After this activity, the teacher should check the answers. It would also seem to be useful to show the definition of the usages of “be going to” and “will” to students.

According to Cobuild ENGLISH LEARNER’S DICTIONARY, “be going to” is defined as either meaning something will happen in the future, especially the near future or that one is determined that something will happen. However, “will” is used in terms of giving information about the future, especially in situations where there is no reason to use the present progressive. It also indicates that shall/will is used in predictions of future events to say what one thinks, guesses or calculates will happen. On the other

hand, Longman: Language Activator explains “be going to” as being used when someone intends to do something and has arranged it, whereas “will” is said to indicate a way of saying that something will happen in the future or that someone intends to do something or has arranged to do something in the future.

Now let us consider, “I want to be a ---” which, according to a COLT concordance search, appears not only in the form of ‘I want to be a ...’ but also as ‘I want to be *something* in ...’, thus indicating a need for a different, more amplified, presentation than the one which appears in the Japanese textbook being discussed. What COLT would indicate is that British teenagers also might have their dreams for the future but they might not feel it useful to be clear about mentioning a specific occupation, thus the usage of “something” as a means of presenting their dream would perhaps a bit more tentatively than would otherwise be the case. As this expression does not appear in the Japanese textbook corpus, searching relevant foreign corpora and using the results for teaching might usefully widen student vocabulary knowledge.

In this vein, when accessing the wider corpus, CobuildDirect, we can generate a collocation grid of “I want to be a(n)” with the results being as are shown in Table 4-1 below.

Table 8.4.1.

"I want to be a(n) " collocation grid.

1 teacher	6 mother	11 musician	16 police
2 doctor	7 model	12 journalist	17 cricketer
3 manager	8 great paint	13 agent	18 lexicographer
4 nurse	9 mechanic	14 write	19 steward
5 soccer player	10 surgeon	15 secretary	20 detective

The above table shows that many kinds of nouns collocate after “I want to be a(n)”, which can suggest to teachers some possibilities with regard to new vocabulary teaching as a result of using corpus data. In the Japanese textbook corpus, one can see a far more limited range of collocation which is presented below in Table 8.4.2.

Table 8.4.2.

Collocations of "I want to be" in the textbook corpus

1 teacher
2 doctor
3 nursery school teacher

Only three concordance items can be seen among the three levels of English textbooks, which means that a conscientious teacher can and should give students other useful words, which are determined to be so by a reliable corpus such as CobuildDirect.

A consideration of the collocation, “a nursery school teacher”, calls forth the need to discuss another point which should be thought of concerning collocations, being that a teacher should give students a chance to think of collocations in the L1 language for L2 collocation purposes. For example, the teacher can request to students to think about the collocation of “teacher” in the L1 in a kindergarten school, an elementary school, a junior high school, and a high school. Moreover, teachers can use the collocations for students and widen students’ vocabulary to think about the collocation of “nursery” as follows: nursery education, nursery rhyme, nursery slopes, and nursery stakes. These collocations can not be seen in English textbooks. Thus, by using a concordance of a corpus judiciously, one might widen the vocabulary knowledge of students. Guessing about collocations in the L1 might lead to a common usage in the L2 or to a different

usage. In this point, this kind of activity might give a good motivation for learning vocabulary to students.

An examination of the collocation, “painted pictures,” also leads us to an interesting point, that L1 concepts might have an effect on L2 vocabulary usage. In this particular case, the translation of ‘paint pictures’ into Japanese is “e o kaku”. However, “kaku” (as typically processed by Japanese secondary student minds) can be translated into English three ways, meaning writing, drawing and painting, respectively. Here, too, reference to the definition provided in the Cobuild English Learner’s Dictionary might be effective to understand the difference in usage.

Write means that when you write something, you use a pen or pencil to produce words, letters, or numbers. Draw means that if you draw a picture, pattern, or diagram, you make it using a pencil, pen, or crayon. Paint means that when you paint something or paint a picture of it, you make a picture of it on paper or canvas using paint. When you paint a wall or an object, you cover it with paint and when you paint a design or message on a surface, you put it on the surface using paint.

As the source of a classroom task, making a worksheet for filling in the blanks with these key words by using concordance lines from a corpus like CobuildDirect might be a good practice to master different usages. With this in mind, I would like to present as a sample of what might be possible in the Japanese lower secondary schools the following two tasks.

Task 1: Read the following definitions of three words.
Choose the most suitable definition for each word.

- (a) to make a picture, design, or pattern using a pencil or pen ---- ()
- (b) to paint a picture, a wall, door, piece of furniture and houses---()
- (c) to write words or numbers using a pen, pencil etc. to produce by writing, such as a book, a poem, or a song, to write a letter to someone --- ()

Task 2: Read the following sentences and choose the most suitable word above the definitions.

- 1. He would like to () music for movie soundtracks-----
- 2. I will () this map and then make a contact with---
- 3. I want to () The Eiffel Tower.

The teacher can do the above activities as pair work or group work for students, with one of the above tasks being to think of each word's definition and the other to choose a suitable word for each sentence. That both could be done rather simply would need no further explanation.

8.5. Pair Work and Related Issues

The national syllabus for English teaching places emphasis on promoting communicative ability and the word “communicative” is a frequently used loan word in Japanese education circles. But what is “communicative”, especially in the sense of communicative education?

One crucial criterion of communicative education is cooperation between speaker and listener. From the viewpoint of teaching in the classroom, I would like to consider what is required of teachers. There are many different types of activities that are apparently communicative and they range from drills to simulations, from dialogues to communication games. Among the many possibilities available, what types of activities should teachers be most prepared to carry out in the classroom?

For the last 20 years or so, English teaching in Japan has been putting increasing stress on communicative activities. One often used communicative education technique used in Japanese lower secondary school English lessons is pair work. However, even though the objective is to maximize the amount of English spoken in the classroom, large numbers, if not most teachers, continue to give their explanation of how to do pair work in “Japanese”. As a matter of fact, though, lower secondary school students by and large enjoy doing pair work as well as engaging in interview work. Even so, these activities often end up as being little more than pattern practice drills, indicating that there is still a need for more teachers to more generally emphasize the situational aspects of dialogue to students and to make a greater effort to speak more English than Japanese in their English lessons.

Conditions, though, are less than optimal. There is a tendency for more and more students to have difficulty in reading textbooks fluently, to be unable to pronounce words accurately, and to avoid writing. Moreover, considering the many largely administrative, extra-curricular responsibilities faced by teachers working at any educational level in Japan, it should not be surprising that that a certain percentage of

the total would not wish to make the extra effort required of a learner-centered approach. Moreover, other teachers, perhaps a majority, equally as dangerously simply follow the path of least resistance and do what everyone else is doing without considering the purpose of any particular teaching activity they might undertake.

When I first began considering the above matters, I was a member of the Association of Tokyo Metropolitan Secondary School Teachers of English and had already been doing research on “Communicative Language Teaching” and “Communicative Functions” since 1990. As part of this research, my colleagues and I became interested in pair work activities and their design.

In designing pair work activities, it is important to know what topics students are interested in, to know what kind of topics they talk about in daily life at school, after school with their friends, and at home with their family. When I was a member of Tokyo Metropolitan Research in Foreign Language (English) Group in 1993, we tried to do research in an effort to uncover such topics. The purpose was to enable the better designing of pair work activities that would be related to student interests. (For detailed information see Tokyo Metropolitan Education Research in Foreign Language: 1993/12-13.)

The research project which was undertaken involved a total of 918 students of which first year students were 473 and second year students 445. Of these students, there were 502 boys and 416 girls. The somewhat lower than might be expected number of girls can be accounted for by the fact all-female private schools are rather more

popular in Tokyo than all-male private schools, thus leaving more males than females in the public school system.

The first step was a pre-research period in which we decided on the inquiry items. After that, questionnaires were constructed and research carried out in each school. We asked the students to choose the topic which they talked about the most in their daily life. Furthermore, we asked students to write down the words they used. The results can be seen in the following inquiry item tables.

Table 8.5.1.

Inquiry Item

Q1. What topic do you talk about your friends in the morning?

Rank choice of item	Total	boys	girls
1 yesterday's schedule	24.80%	23.50%	26.40%
2 yesterday's TV program	20.60%	16.50%	25.50%
3 today's lesson & schedule	12.10%	10.80%	13.70%
4 playing	11.10%	15.90%	5.30%

Table 8.5.2.

Inquiry Item

Q2. What topic do you talk about in your school?

Rank	Choice of item	Total	boys	girls
1	Playing	23%	27%	18%
2	TV programme	14%	11%	17%
3	TV game	11%	20%	1%
4	CD/music/song	11%	9%	13%

Table 8.5.3.

Inquiry Item

Q3. What topic do you talk about your teacher?

Rank	Choice of	Total	boys	girls
1	don't talk so	37%	39%	35%
2	prepare for	21%	20%	23%
3	club activity	14%	13%	16%

Table 8.5.4.

Inquiry Item

Q4. What topic do you talk about with your friends after school?

Rank	Choice of	Total	boys	girls
1	today's	23%	14%	33%
2	Playing	19%	26%	12%
3	schedule	16%	17%	14%

Table 8.5.5.

Inquiry Item

Q5. What do you talk about during club activity?

Rank	Choice of	Total	boys	girls
1	practice	33%	33%	33%
2	don't talk so	15%	20%	10%
3	next game	10%	13%	7%

Table 8.5.6.

Inquiry Item

Q6. What topic do you talk about with your parents at home

Rank	Choice of	Total	boys	girls
1	today's	42%	33%	53%
2	don't talk so	11%	14%	8%
3	study/test/e	10%	12%	8%

Table 8.5.7.

Inquiry Item

Q7. What do you talk about with your brother or sister?

Rank	Choice of	Total	boys	girls
1	say weak	17%	15%	19%
2	don't talk	17%	22%	11%
3	School	12%	10%	16%

From this research, it became obvious that students tended to talk with other students about school-related topics such as friends, club activities, school events, tests, homework, and teachers, though they also had as topics of conversation their family,

TV, films, and music. In particular, for secondary students, it may be said that the role of school was very important in their daily life. Most of their interests were related to school life. After this research, pair work sheets were developed related to common conversation topics and, as expected, when implemented, were on the whole positively received on the part of the students..

One problem with pair work implementation in the secondary schools was that most teachers found themselves still having to speak Japanese more than English. When teachers tried to include pair work in their lessons, due to time constraints, they tended to give the instructions in Japanese. If they hadn't, it simply would have taken more time than would normally have been available to lead students into an understanding of how to do it. Considering these problems, I personally tried to handle the time-constraint issue by normally using the same form of pair work in daily lessons, but varying the contents of the conversations required of the students to practice in their pair work. By, as much as possible, using the same form of pair work and, thereby, making things follow expected patterns, it was not only possible to avoid using Japanese but also for pair work, itself, to progress more smoothly.

The following is an explanation of pair work as, based on personal experience, it would normally be carried out in an ordinary Japanese classroom by a teacher accustomed to the procedure.

Care should first be taken to explain the situation dealt with by the conversation to be used in the pair work. To do so, vocabulary should be chosen with reference to the

target sentence(s). Vocabulary pronunciation practice would be done, using a substitution drill before reading the conversation. Sentence reading practice would then be done through the choral reading technique. In the course of this, a student would then be chosen and a demonstration done for the benefit of the class as a whole showing how to do the expected pair work for the lesson.

Students would then form into fixed pairs, by turning and facing a neighboring student. One minute would be given as practicing time. While students are practicing the pair work conversation, the instructor will normally be walking around the classroom and listen to their conversation carefully, giving advice, as necessary, on how to do it, due to the fact that there will usually be a certain number of slow learners in the class. As much as possible, however, students should be allowed to help each other, because this seems to help things stick in their brains better and make their talk with each other go more smoothly later.

After a one-minute practice, students will stand up and walk around the classroom to form open pairs. They will usually try to speak to five students in three to four minutes. In open pair practice, they would be expected to get five answers from other students. Upon finishing the activity, they will then go back to their own seats.

Having mentioned one possible technique for avoiding the use of Japanese on the part of the teacher while doing pair work, it now would seem worth considering how to also encourage students to avoid Japanese, as, all things being equal, there will be a noticeable tendency for students to speak Japanese to each other when they begin to

choose their partner(s) and start pair work. In order to avoid this, care should be taken to teach English expressions which would be useful in approaching and acquiring a partner and then beginning the actual pair work. Examples of such phrases are:

1. Shall we practice pair work?
2. Will you practice pair work?
3. Let's practice pair work!
4. Yes. / Sure. / Of course. / Let's try. / OK.

Simple though the above phrases might seem, preliminary drilling in them can significantly reduce the amount of Japanese mixed in with later pair work practice and increase the smoothness of what is produced.

Another problem to be expected will be that, while they are speaking to each other, they will often not be able to catch or understand what their partner is attempting to say. In such cases, students will inevitably lapse into the use of Japanese. To avoid this happening as much as possible, expressions showing a lack of understanding and requesting that information be repeated should also be taught beforehand. Such expressions might include:

1. Pardon?
2. Pardon me?
3. I didn't catch you.
4. What did you say?
5. Again, please?
6. Will you tell me what you said?
7. I beg your pardon?

A thorough training in such expressions can effectively keep many students talking in English even when communication temporarily breaks down.

It will usually be found desirable to adopt a point system for pair work, the purpose of a point system being to encourage students to avoid using Japanese and, above all, to be more assertive and less afraid in using English. Due to the inhibitions children in Japan seem to naturally acquire as they grow up, it will sometimes be found advisable to give students one point when they do pair work with a member of the same sex and two points when they speak to a member of the opposite sex. Other inhibitions many will have developed regarding their instructors would also indicate that it would not be inappropriate to award three points for attempting pair work with their teacher. Moreover, if students use English when seeking out and acquiring partners to do pair work with, that, too, might be considered as being worthy of extra points. After doing pair work, students should be required to go back to their seats and count their points. Students would then ask their fixed partners to certify the number of points they will have acquired for each pair work activity.

One useful adjunct to pair work would be to include a self-evaluation section in the pair work material provided to students. Self-evaluation should include the following four items:

1. Did you talk with your partner with eye contact?
A B C
2. Did you keep using English?
A B C
3. Did you practise pair work assertively?
A B C
4. Did not need to refer to the pair work sheet?
A B C

On the whole, Japanese children can be relied on to evaluate themselves accurately, though it should also be obligatory for teachers to evaluate their performance. Certainly, it is strenuous to evaluate student performance, but teachers should accept the responsibility of monitoring pair work and keeping appropriate notes. Later in the lesson after the pair work activity finishes, it can often be an effective teaching strategy to pick up on mistakes encountered during pair work and deal with them in the context of yet another classroom experience.

One potential problem of pair work was (and still is) that, when students are first becoming accustomed to it, it must necessarily taken place within the context of a very controlled environment. As, ideally, pair work should mimic the uncontrolled nature of normal conversation, a short discussion of “uncontrolled pair work” is in order. By uncontrolled pair work, free conversation is not meant. What is meant is a gradual decrease in visible teacher control and, for this purpose, it would be imperative to keep in mind the concept of degrees of control.

One should keep in mind that there is a most important distinction between the roles of controller and facilitator, with these two concepts representing rather opposite sides of a continuum of control and freedom. A controller stands at the front of the

class like a puppet-master controlling everything, while a facilitator maintains a low profile in order to make it possible for students to accomplish the tasks assigned them on their own (Harmer, 1991, pp. 235). Ideally, a teacher should always be ready to offer help if it is needed, but should not intrude when help can be dispensed with. It is not meant that the teacher abdicate responsibility or fail to take action when needed, but that, to as large an extent as possible, this control should be exercised imperceptibly.

Different pair work activities can, thus, be envisioned, with each functioning at a different position on the control continuum. For example, simply practicing target sentences with assigned partners for the purpose of learning the target sentences would represent a rather controlled pair work practice. When an element of role play is introduced and the purpose of the pair work becomes to speak English without relying on an already provided script, the pair work can be seen as moderately uncontrolled. When vocabulary is introduced in such a way that the purpose of the pair work becomes the creation by students themselves of one or more English sentences, then we can consider the pair work activity to be more or less fully uncontrolled.

Nevertheless, as a practical consideration, in Japan one must always keep in mind that there will normally be limitations of one sort or another as to what is possible with regard to secondary school students, and especially those at the lower secondary level. Furthermore, in addition to pair work, other activities come to mind which can supplement pair work such as interaction between students and the instructor and the use of skits. The common point to be kept in mind with regard to all activities, though, was and is how, in the context of such activities, to use teacher talk to increase and

develop student talk, this being something which will be considered in the succeeding chapter.

8.6. Teacher Talk

Despite being a member of the Association of Tokyo Metropolitan Secondary School Teachers of English and doing research on CLT and communicative functions from 1990, I did not become engaged in the study of teacher talk until 1993. However, I soon found the concept of teacher talk to be a very useful theoretical tool for teachers to develop and maintain speaking ability, both for themselves and their students. Also, teacher talk was useful as a means of clearing away mental barriers in the learner with regard to listening. An attractive point was that the teacher, with increasing mastery in teacher talk theory, would also be able to more efficiently get students to absorb unlearned new vocabulary. Furthermore, teacher talk gave promise of promoting the long term retention of vocabulary, something of utmost importance in language acquisition. Nevertheless, some have claimed that teacher talk was theoretically suspect, being teacher centered and, thus, by the nature of things, encouraging the teacher to speak English more than the students. Did Teacher Talk really have to be all that teacher-centered? With this point in mind, I would like to discuss about an analysis of teacher talk which I did with regard to my own lessons in Japan the late 1990s and a similar analysis I did of teacher talk done by a British teacher of my acquaintance in England during that same time period.

In addition to a rather long discussion of teacher talk, I would like to also discuss, though more briefly than I would like, how to increase and develop student talk, assuming, of course, that the barriers to increasing and developing student talk normally occur in respect of vocabulary, pronunciation, teacher control, and student generated mental inhibitions. In connection with this, I would, furthermore, like to discuss a bit how these barriers might be removed.

While a learner-centered curriculum as conceived in Japan (and most surely elsewhere) will contain similar elements and processes to traditional curricula, a key difference will be that information from learners will be built into every phase of the curriculum process. Curriculum development becomes a collaborative effort between teachers and learners, since learners will be involved in decision on content selection, methodology and evaluation (Nunan: 1989).

The Association mentioned above produced a list of thirty language functions organized in four areas as follows:

1.0 Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes.

- 1.1 Expressing and asking for ideas, opinions, certainty, or agreement.
- 1.2 Expressing and inquiring about intention or lack of intention.
- 1.3 Expressing and inquiring about possibility or impossibility.
- 1.4 Expressing and inquiring about ability or inability.
- 1.5 Expressing and inquiring about obligation or absence of obligation.
- 1.6 Seeking, giving and withholding permission.
- 1.7 Offering to do something and reacting to it.
- 1.8 Offering something and reacting to it.

2.0 Expressing and finding out emotional attitudes.

- 2.1 Expressing and inquiring about likes, dislikes, interest or lack of interest.
- 2.2 Expressing pleasure, displeasure, satisfaction or dissatisfaction.
- 2.3 Expressing compliments, praise, approval, appreciation or admiration
- 2.4 Expressing & inquiring about desire or lack of desire
- 2.5 Expressing & responding to apology

3.0 Getting things done

- 3.1 Making suggestion & reacting to it
- 3.2 Requesting others to do or not to do something & reacting to it
- 3.3 Inviting others to do something & reacting to it
- 3.4 Advising others to do or not to do something & reacting to it
- 3.5 Directing others to do or not to do something & reacting to it

4.0 Socializing

- 4.1 Greeting people
- 4.2 Leave taking
- 4.3 Introducing oneself & others
- 4.4 Attracting attention
- 4.5 Congratulating
- 4.6 Telephone formulas

They then recorded a lesson on video camera, after which all the teacher talk to be found in the lesson was transcribed and analyzed according to the above-mentioned lists of functions. Lesson tendencies or patterns were then analyzed. An example of this can be seen in Table 8.6.1 below, the figures deriving ultimately from a lesson of mine which was recorded on 21 February 1994 and later transcribed and analyzed. It was a lesson for first year students in their third school term of the year. The lesson aim was to teach the past tense of the general verb and it had pair work as an activity.

Table 8.6.1.
Function List of Teacher Talk in

Function	Total	Function	Total	Function	Total
1.1	0	2.4	0	3.4	0
1.2	16	2.5	6	3.5	101
1.3	0	2.6	18	4.1	4
1.4	0	2.7	8	4.2	2
1.5	0	2.8	0	4.3	0
1.6	0	2.9	0	4.4	0
1.7	0	2.1	0	4.5	0
1.8	2	2.11	1	4.6	0
2.1	7	3.1	0	Total 225	
2.2	0	3.2	8		
2.3	51	3.3	1		

As can be seen from table above, there was a tendency for function 3.5 to be used too much, though it could, if one wished, be justified by the contention that it was a natural result of the lesson form in the classroom. Nevertheless, it must be recognized that the frequency of the function would be different according to the lesson form, the content of the lesson, and the teaching steps used. Also, if students had known the procedures of the lesson, the frequency of function 3.5 would have correspondingly decreased. Moreover, it was also apparent that Function 2.3 was used frequently. The reason for this was the need to praise and motivate students. Functions which were less used or unused included functions 1.3, 1.4, 1.5, 1.7, 2.9, 4.3, and 4.6. These results indicated that certain improvements in lesson strategy seemed called for. In particular, the need to use a greater variety of functions was immediately apparent.

The results (to be found in Table 8.6.2 below) of another demonstration lesson I did for the Association of Tokyo Metropolitan Secondary School Teachers of English on 20 February 1995 are also available. The subjects of the lesson were also in the third

term of their second year. The lesson's aim was concerned with teaching the superlative and pair work was included as an activity.

Table 8.6.2

Function List of Teacher Talk in 1995

Function	Total	Function	Total	Function	Total
1 (1)	11	2 (4)	5	3 (4)	0
1 (2)	19	2 (5)	3	3(5)	72
1 (3)	1	2 (6)	15	4 (1)	3
1 (4)	2	2 (7)	2	4 (2)	1
1 (5)	1	2 (8)	1	4 (3)	0
1 (6)	3	2 (9)	0	4 (4)	2
1 (7)	0	2(10)	0	4 (5)	0
1 (8)	7	2(11)	14	4 (6)	0
2 (1)	13	3 (1)	0	Total	270
2 (2)	2	3 (2)	28		
2 (3)	65	3 (3)	0		

According to the table 8.6.2, it can be seen that students could communicate more through English in interaction with me than in the previous year. It could be said that the portion of the function list I used was more limited in 1994, as there were 16 functions I did not use, whereas, in my lesson in 1995, the total number of functions which I did not use was down to 9. I was also using various functions more skillfully than before. In 1994, I used function 3.5 in 26 percent of my sentences and function 2.3 in 24 percent. In the 1994 lesson, the usage rate for function 3.5 was 44 percent and for function 2.3 was 22 percent. Function 3.5 showed a decrease of 18 percent from 1994 to 1995.

In addition to functions, we counted the number of speaking turns, as shown for 1995 in Table 8.6.3.

Table 8.6.3.

Speaking Turn Totals

<u>Total speaking</u>	<u>Total of Turns</u>
Teacher speaking (English and Japanese)	783
Student speaking (English and Japanese)	422
Total Japanese	28
Teacher speaking (Japanese)	26
Student speaking (Japanese)	2
Total English	1177
Teacher speaking (English)	757
Student speaking	420
<u>Total speaking</u>	<u>1205</u>

As can be seen from the above table 8.6.3, it does seem at least possible to create a student-centered lesson out of what one might normally expect to be a teacher-centered one. This, of course, is predicated on the assumption that teacher talk need not be teacher-centered, something which I think the above tables are suggestive of even in Japan as being possible. Also, from personal experience which is, unfortunately rather more subjective in nature, I learned that it was possible for student attitudes to these lessons to change in a largely positive way, too. Teacher talk can, thus, be a powerful tool for inter-acting with students and, as an added benefit of better interaction with students, one can normally expect the creation of healthier relationships on all sides therefrom.

So far in this chapter, we have been discussing teacher talk from the viewpoint of student activities. However, teacher talk need not concern itself exclusively with student activities, nor would this always be a desirable mode of operation, as the interaction between student and teacher is also of great importance and a mutually stimulating interaction between the two should be encouraged. For this reason, I would now like to deal with observations made of a British teacher's lesson for French students which I

visited while studying on a MEXT teacher training program in England. Although she spoke French and understood Spanish, the teacher whose lesson I visited used English exclusively in the classroom, as the language school had students from Japan, Korea and many other areas of the world. This made her keenly aware of the necessity of being able to teach in English. However, if there was a student who absolutely could not tell her what they wanted in English, she thought it would be fine for them to tell her in French or Spanish. She, though, always spoke English. At first, she taught some useful English expressions for when they wanted to ask her something in English, e.g. when they wanted know how to ask her how to spell something and how to ask for English translations of French words. She usually used English throughout her lessons and she always explained things in English. If the students really did not understand, then she might give a translation, but her classroom language was 99% or more English. She did a lot of speaking and listening and made use of video lessons. She also did a lot of pronunciation practice, because students from France did not get a lot of pronunciation practice in that country. She tried to balance grammar focused lessons with communication focused ones for her adult students. For example, when they had three lessons a day, the lessons were divided first into a lesson of grammar, second a lesson of communication, then third a lesson which she called an authentic materials lesson and which was created specially for the students concerned. She said that the first and second lessons were very important for making a good relationship between teacher and students. The lesson turned out to be a clearly learner-centered one.

The British teacher's lesson took place on 30 October 1996 at a private language school in Exeter. It was the third lesson of an English as a foreign language class for French students and, by means of speaking activities, focused on question forms for 90 minutes from 14:00-15:30. The teacher was British and the nine students (eight boys and one girl), all from France, were 16 years of age. The data used for the analysis which appears in Table 8.6.4 came from a video cassette tape recording.

Table 8.6.4.

Function List of a Class in England in 1996

Function	Total	%	Function	Total	%	Function	Total
1.1	39	13.90%	2.4	0	0%	3.4	8
1.2	15	5.30%	2.5	5	1.70%	3.5	79
1.3	17	6.00%	2.6	1	0.30%	4.1	0
1.4	1	0.30%	2.7	0	0%	4.2	0
1.5	8	2.80%	2.8	0	0%	4.3	0
1.6	0	0%	2.9	0	0%	4.4	0
1.7	0	0%	2.1	0	0%	4.5	0
1.8	0	0%	2.11	1	0.30%	4.6	0
2.1	0	0%	3.1	2	0.70%	Total	280
2.2	0	0%	3.2	2	0.70%		
2.3	102	36.40%	3.3	0	0%		

The lesson analyzed above consisted of a variety of activities, including guess work between the teacher and the students, and guess work in the context of student pairs. There was also problem solving student pair work, student group work in the form of a card game, and pronunciation practice (student-student → teacher-student). It should be obvious that such a variety of activities would encourage students to increase student talk. It was, unfortunately, impossible to record all student talk by video or tape recorder. However, students did speak English to each other throughout these various activities. Moreover, teacher turns were just 280, which was not high for a 90-minute lesson.

As can be seen in the table, Function 2.3 was frequently used, as the teacher seemed to make it a point to praise each student's effort. In percentage terms, it was probably higher than would have been the case with a Japanese teacher's teacher talk. A high frequency can also be seen for function 3.5. The reason for this was that the teacher gave a variety of activities and directed students how to do each activity. However, the percentage of Function 3.5 would still have been less than with an equivalent case of Japanese English teachers' teacher talk. It may be said that the British teacher made extensive use of teacher talk connecting it with the use of a variety of functions.

The use of function 1.1 also appeared to have been higher than it would have been among English teachers. Furthermore, function 1.1 appeared to be directly related to a decrease in the use of function 3.5. The use of functions 1.3 and 1.5 was interesting as Japanese teachers would be expected to use only function 3.5 when directing students to do something. The British teacher, though, resorted to other functions, too, when she directed students in their activities.

The frequency with which function 2.3 appeared in the British teacher's lesson was also of interest. In fact, it caused me, personally, to think not only about how English might be taught but also started me reflecting on the roles of a teacher.

On thinking about the role of a teacher, it certainly seemed incumbent to me that teachers develop the motivation necessary in both themselves and students for learning English through their English lessons. Furthermore, when considering the tendency for some students to lose their motivation, I came to think that the reason more often than

not must lie in some malfunctioning of the dynamics of the student/teacher relationship. The role of the teacher in motivating students to learn English can not be underestimated. Of course, the most important role of an English teacher would be to teach English, but this seemed to me and still seems a part and parcel of the process of developing students' minds through their English lessons.

In lower secondary schools in Japan, teachers tend to pay attention to students only as they come in contact with each other only in the context of school life. The questions arising from this fact were and are numerous for me. After finishing school, how many times does the teacher have occasion to praise or encourage students about their behavior? Within the context of school life, however, is there any significant quantity of praise or encouragement? How about in the English lessons? Unfortunately, it would probably be the case that more praise and encouragement, both inside the classroom and out, would be of benefit many, if not most, Japanese lower secondary school children.

Teachers should, of course, praise and encourage student effort, yet some students, being shy, do not like to be praised in the lesson. Therefore, teachers also have to think about praising their students privately after the lesson. Moreover, for most students courage is needed to speak in front of fellow students, as it is the laughter of their peers which they fear the most. It is, therefore, incumbent upon the teacher to create a class atmosphere that enables students to make mistakes without getting hung up over them. It is also necessary in Japan not to overwhelm students. Although certain aspects of the educational environment, such as the examination system and class size, cannot be

changed by teachers, teachers should make an effort to opportunistically adapt it to their students' needs wherever possible to better promote the learning of English.

8.7. On increasing student talk use

In Japan, English teachers in the lower secondary schools generally depend on MEXT approved textbooks when teaching vocabulary. About five to ten new vocabulary items are included in each textbook lesson section. The amount of new vocabulary is determined by the course of study in foreign languages for lower secondary schools. It seems to be a rule of thumb that approximately 1000 vocabulary items which should be taught during the three years of lower secondary school. This number is, of course, far too limited for students to express ideas which are related to their daily lives in English. One potentially mitigating factor is, however, that most students have already learned a sizeable number of foreign words (some more than 500) during the natural course of their daily lives well before they enter lower secondary school.

Nevertheless, teaching new vocabulary is an important matter. It would seem obvious that teaching only the vocabulary appearing in the textbook should not be considered an option. Even so, as teachers commonly have a tendency to give a test after finishing the teaching of each textbook lesson, this seems to be something that very often happens. However, does this necessarily enhance student motivation to learn English? Properly speaking, learning vocabulary should be an enjoyable means of

expanding students' power of expression. In practice, more often than not it becomes the object of very monotonous drills and post-drill testing.

Moreover, it would seem that there exists a gap between Japanese textbook vocabulary and that which most students use in their day-to-day lives. For example, the word 'milk' is taught as a new item in at least some of the MEXT approved English textbooks of the second year of lower secondary school. Students, though, already know this word before they enter lower secondary school, most probably, in fact, before they enter elementary school as it is a widely used loan word in Japanese. There are other items which relate to fruit. In most textbooks, 'apple', 'orange', and 'melon' are listed, but other words related to fruit are not. Thus, In order for students to better express their ideas in English, it would be necessary for teachers to choose supplementary vocabulary items which are connected with vocabulary appearing in the textbook and which match student interests.

Though vocabulary limitations must be considered barriers to increasing and developing student talk, they are certainly not the only ones. The target sentences that are taught also have an important role to play. The teacher should choose target sentences which enable students to communicate naturally. It is also imperative to give consideration to the best way of introducing target sentences, including, if necessary, the changing of the order in which they are listed in each lesson.

Typically, there is one target sentence in each section per lesson. In a typical English lesson, most teachers practice the target sentence and give students an activity

designed to use the target sentence. There is a tendency for some teachers not to use the target sentences which they have taught in previous lessons. Why are target sentences not recycled and used in following lessons? Certainly, teaching procedures differ between English teachers. However, one of the more typical teaching procedures involves going from a greeting to roll call to review (reading) to introducing new material to new material practice to an oral Introduction to a practice of new words to new material reading to a consolidation of the day's lesson and then to a closing. In this procedure, there would be times at which the teacher could and should use the target sentences of previous lesson sections.

At the review stage, most teachers read the last section of the lesson or do a very simple drill practice of the target sentence as a review lesson. In doing this, however, teachers should keep in mind barriers to student talk. In the time devoted to new material practice, it would also seem that most teachers have an inclination to practice only the new target sentence without linking it with previous target sentences. During the oral introduction period, teachers could and should link their practice with previous target sentences. However, by and large, it seems that there are few lessons in which previous target sentences are used intentionally by teachers and teachers have to make a conscious effort to use previous target sentences in an oral introduction. This is important, as, in interaction between teacher and students, if teachers in Japan required students to express themselves in English without recycling and continuing to use target sentences over the long term, students would encounter more difficulty in building up

English fluency. Target sentence linkage by continuous recycling, thus, can be seen as indispensable for increasing and developing student talk.

Another problem which is probably not limited to Japan but generic to the teaching profession is that it would often seem that teachers talk too much during their lessons. At least in the case of Japan this can be partially attributed to a tendency to over-explain which can be seen as a result of having become too used to the GTM that was characteristic of the heavily teacher-centered lessons of the past. It may be said that this is true not only of English lessons but also of other subjects. It seems that most teachers in Japan did not have experience of learner-centered lessons themselves, meaning that they did not have as children the experience of speaking English in front of their classmates or of being active lesson participants with the one exception quite possibly being those classes connected with physical education. Therefore, the inclination for teachers to talk too much would seem to be natural. It would, furthermore, be aggravated by the average English class size in which, as has been mentioned before, a teacher teaches about 40 students. In this situation, it is very burdensome for the teacher to put communicative language teaching into practice, yet, no matter how difficult, it remains necessary to try. Indeed, the very process of trying to do so often forces the teacher to talk more than would otherwise be the case due to the need to explain to the students in Japanese how the planned communicative activities are to be carried out. Nevertheless, an effort should be made to increase student talk by decreasing teacher talk and the teacher should give students more opportunity for appropriate student to student activities. It is further necessary to think of how to ask

questions of students, whereby the initial question asked by the teacher can lead to many other questions asked by students. To succeed in these goals, teacher talk must, therefore, be seen as something subject to careful design and conscious selection.

Barriers to speaking also exist among the students themselves. Having always been educated in 40-student classes, they will have become accustomed to various forms of teacher-centered education in other subjects than just English from the earliest years of primary school onwards. It may, therefore, be unreasonable of teachers to expect students to be able to speak out in the classroom when they begin to learn English in lower secondary school. Therefore, English teachers can and should create opportunities to increase and develop student talk in their lessons. Teachers should also have in mind the role of being a counselor and strive to make students feel confident in the classroom.

The role of the teacher is very important for students and learners, typically, have certain expectations of their teachers and it is not always the teacher with the best English who is the best English teacher. Certainly, good techniques are desirable, but so are certain other qualities, one of these being a willingness to praise and to encourage students for the efforts they make in learning English.

A related quality is that of being a good monitor. A good teacher will always be observing each student's efforts. Every student possesses a different set of abilities in learning English. Therefore, there should be a different target for each student. The teacher needs to understand this point and try to praise a student effort within the

individual context of each student. It is an unfortunate tendency that most teachers are so occupied in the instruction of students that they forget praise and encouragement. This tendency can be considered a hidden barrier to increasing student talk, for, without praise and encouragement, student motivation to learn English could quite often be lost.

In English lessons, teachers feel the need for a constructive attitude in students, that they should raise their hands and speak out in English in the class. But it may be said that students are very nervous about saying something in English in the class. If the teacher does not understand this point and requires students who are not emotionally prepared to answer in English no matter what, this will put more pressure on students. It can be said that this point is also one barrier to increasing student talk.

I have already mentioned the need for encouragement. There is an equally great need not to discourage students, this being possible in many ways. One would be in the case where a teacher shows a cold manner, not commenting on the wrong answer of a student and just nominating another in the student's place. Another common case is where the student is laughed at for a wrong answer in a manner such that the student will no longer try to speak in the lesson. Yet another problem might be perfectionism on the part of the teacher requiring an impossible degree of accuracy from students, who often shrink into themselves and never speak at all. This will all go to decreasing student talk.

It is essential to help students in the lesson. However, some teachers are too kind to their students and exhibit a tendency to help students in every situation whatsoever

during the lesson. In other words, the teacher becomes overwhelming to the detriment of their students who would cower and not speak during lessons. Overwhelming students should also be considered as another barrier to increasing student talk.

Ideally, learning vocabulary should be enjoyable, in order to increase communication, and helping students to develop vocabulary through enjoyment should be an important goal. In typical English teaching procedure in Japan, vocabulary is practiced in review reading and new material reading. The vocabulary is connected with the content of the textbook. It is very limiting to input vocabulary in these stages. Therefore, teachers should make opportunities to input vocabulary at other times without disordering the teaching procedure. It is not efficient to teach vocabulary in specific activities that demand much time. As for the teacher, the activity should be recyclable and be prepared easily. It seems that the ever popular bingo game would conform to these criteria and, when used at the beginning of a lesson, seems to be a reliable and effective activity. As a warming up activity, the bingo game brings about an active mood in the students to learn English. The bingo game has also been found effective by many Japanese English teachers as a good means of practicing new vocabulary, to input vocabulary which is related to the topic of pair work or skits, and to practice target sentences which students have already learned.

Depending on the situation, of course, other vocabulary building activities are made use of in Japan. For example, many instructors have put the cross word game to good practical use for learning vocabulary as an individual activity. It has also been found possible to arrange pair work as a means of attracting student interest in learning

new vocabulary. The pair work format can often be found designed as a gap filling communicative activity. A cross word activity used as pair work provides another possibility and is sometimes adapted as an element of group work for the third year lower secondary school student lessons.

In addition the previously mentioned activities, vocabulary network could also be considered as a means for expanding student vocabulary in connection with their daily lives. Generally though, at the lower secondary school level in Japan, this particular activity should be seen as a recognition stage rather than production stage activity. Nevertheless, this activity represents a proven means for teachers to increase student vocabulary directly. Students will also generally express interest in this activity as a means of increasing vocabulary which they want to use for expressing themselves in English. The importance of long-term planning cannot be overstated. By means of making a long-term plan to give students vocabulary, teachers may help students to develop a positive attitude when they try to speak in English. Furthermore, by mixing these activities (bingo game, cross word, vocabulary network) in their day-to-day lessons, teachers may contribute to the increase and development of student talk.

Mention has been made of teachers tending to focus on teaching only new target sentences when teaching a new lesson. Target sentences, however, should be continuously recycled over a fairly long period. One way to do this is by using guess work as review practice and by always mixing in some previous target sentences. By using various kinds of props in guess work, it would be possible to introduce different

kinds of target sentences. Moreover, through this guess work, practical experience would suggest students will be able to maintain and use previous target sentences.

In Japan, it would seem very important to have a certain amount of time set aside in the lesson plan for each lesson to use previous target sentences in the lesson. Therefore, it would be recommendable for teachers in a Japanese context to consider several kinds of guess work in order to use different sentences, even though it is, based on personal experience, likely for the teacher to feel difficulty in recycling target sentences by doing only guess work. For this reason, doing simple 'review pair work' instead of guess work and teachers might be considered a preferable option, as would the mixing of activities in review lessons. To recapitulate, preparing a variety of activities will always be a worthwhile use of time for Japanese teachers.

In Japan, and one would assume elsewhere, the effective use of teacher talk demands that teachers should use it in interaction with students. Moreover, teacher talk should be decreased wherever possible in favor of student talk and the teacher should always consider how to maximize interaction with as many students as possible. In order to promote good oral interaction, detailed planning is essential, thinking beforehand about the questions which should be asked, what should be written down on the blackboard, and what kind of cut-out pictures should be used. By considering one's proposed teaching procedure and making a plan in detail about teacher talk, especially in oral interaction, the effectiveness of teacher talk in developing student talk can be increased.

Concerning textbooks, there is really no other feasible option in Japan than considering them as being the sources of the fundamental material which the teacher will have to have at hand when teaching and otherwise interacting with students. It should be taken as a given that Japanese teachers have a duty to attempt linking each of their lessons with the textbook their school district uses for the grade they are teaching. There would, of course, be great difficulty in comprehensively attempting to effectively link all the target sentences the students might be exposed to over the three years they have of lower secondary education in Japan. Of course, teachers should teach more than the English covered in the contents of the textbook, the challenge normally being how to actually make practical use of the textbook and to balance what is in the textbook against the dynamics represented by the class of students taught and the personality of the teacher doing the teaching. The balance of teacher, textbook and students should hopefully work in tandem, something unlikely when lessons become heavily teacher-centered, a situation which quite often happens in this country. On the other hand, when there is a good interaction, we can safely expect other positive educational developments as well.

I have described above certain barriers which commonly discourage the development of student talk in the lower secondary schools of Japan and discussed some of the solutions which have been employed by Japanese teachers to ameliorate a less than ideal situation. I have also considered the role of teacher talk. I think that effective teacher talk can increase and develop student talk. It may also be said that it will often be found advisable for teachers to decrease teacher talk. In other words, by

the very nature of things, the onus for deciding when and how to adjust the use of teacher talk must rest with the instructor.

Naturally, research in Japan in both teacher talk and student talk has progressed over the years and there is now a greater understanding of the issues involved than when I first developed an interest in these matters. Nevertheless, I think that, even so, neither teacher talk nor student talk has been sufficiently researched and that further research would help us to further improve our understanding of the process of developing student talk and this, in turn, would help lower secondary school teachers in Japan to more positively develop their teaching techniques.

8.8. On Using the Sinclair and Coulthard Model

The field of discourse analysis in Japanese English education would not normally appear to be a focus of study in and of itself, though certain aspects of discourse analysis have been discussed previously when considering teacher talk and student talk. When analyzing teacher talk and student talk, one can see the rate of a teacher's speaking in English, his or her student's speaking in English, and also see the total of teacher's speaking and student's speaking, which can then be divided into different functions and categories. However, the focus of such analysis would generally be on each item of teacher talk and student talk, and not so much on the flow of the conversation. Therefore, discourse analysis of English lessons would seem to give an opportunity for teachers to think of new angles for teaching English and may have an

important role in bridging the English specific to the classroom and that found in real language use.

Of course, numerous attempts have been made by scholars to focus on the study of conversation (for example, Palmer and Blandford in 1924 and Firth in 1957) and on written language (Mitchell: 1957). Coulthard (1977:120) made a particularly interesting discussion of a previous research project using discourse analysis techniques by Sinclair and Coulthard in 1975, which investigated the structures of verbal interaction in the classroom.

Seeing a need for more research of Japanese lower secondary education based on discourse analysis methodology, a research project was carried out at UTEFASS by the author, using class 2-A, a group of 39 students consisting of 19 boys and 20 girls, aged 13 to 14 years. The textbook was the NEW CROWN ENGLISH SERIES 2 textbook. It was written for use in teaching lower secondary school students in their second year of study. The lesson from the book which was used was Lesson 3 and was called “Student Reports”. The target grammar structure of the lesson was the past tense of the be-verb (was).

A digital video camera for recording the chosen lesson was used. Using a digital video camera was useful in making possible an analysis of discourse analysis in the classroom, as it might otherwise have been impossible to go back over the same lesson material the necessary number of times needed to divide it into suitable categories for

discourse analysis. Furthermore, this proved particularly helpful in the monitoring of teacher's and students' facial expressions or body language and intonation.

The material gathered was subsequently transcribed as a computer file for purposes of discourse analysis. The video, too, was watched and listened to carefully to grasp the interaction between the teacher and students. The resulting transcription represented a full 50 minute lesson and, feeling that non-Japanese readers of this book might find it interesting as an example of an actual Japanese lower secondary school lesson, it has been included in full at the end of this book in the Appendix.

The next step was making an I-R-F (Sinclair and Coulthard) discourse analysis list. To do so, a grid was divided into seven headings as follows: exchange type, opening, act, answering, act, follow up, act. Firstly, all description data was put into the opening grid. Secondly, with due consideration of the I-R-F model, each item of data was put into its suitable grid line. Much time, of course, was needed to consider the division into suitable exchange types and suitable acts to which each item of data might apply.

It should be noted that, at the beginning of the review work, the word "well" was categorized as a marker. However, it might be possible to categorize it as having had another meaning, being that of attention.

Throughout the review work stage, the mixing and using of certain target grammar structures which had been taught before was the goal. Questions about the day

before or something occurring after school were made to include the past tense (general verbs and irregular verbs) and the future tense (will). Questions included:

- (1) What TV program did you watch?
- (2) Is that popular?
- (3) Did you notice the “TV program’s name”?
- (4) What time did you have dinner yesterday?
- (5) Chinese food?
- (6) Italian food?
- (7) Japanese food?

Most of these question forms were asking for factual information and fitted in the category of elicitation, but if these question forms were asking about expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes (e.g. opinions, agreement, certainty, intention or lack of intention, possibility or impossibility, ability or inability, obligation or absence of obligation) and/or about expressing and finding out emotional attitudes (e.g. likes, dislikes, interest or lack of interest, pleasure, displeasure, satisfaction or dissatisfaction, compliments, praise, approval, appreciation or admiration, desire or lack of desire), it might be better to take into account other categories than just elicitation. Looking through from beginning of a review stage to the end, the data was organized according to five markers, and five boundaries. Each interaction was fit into the Sinclair and Coulthard model as follows:

- (1) I-R-I-R-F-I-R-F
- (2) (boundary) I-I-R-I-R-F-I-I-I-R-F-R-F-R-F
- (3) (Frame)(boundary) I-I-I-F
- (4) (Frame)(boundary) I-I-I-R-R-F-F
- (5) (Frame)(boundary)I-I-I-I-R-F

From the above analysis, certain tendencies could be seen in the rates of teacher talk and student talk use. The number of initiations was 19, the number of responses was 11 and the number of feedback responses was ten. The total speaking through review work was 40. Therefore, the rate of initiation was 47.5%, response 27.5% and feedback 25%. This shows that the students' responses were led by using follow up or boundaries, but that there was a somewhat high tendency of repetition in teacher talk. This tendency was expressed by Coulthard (1977:124) in the following general terms:

A three-move structure was proposed for exchanges- Initiation, Response, Follow Up- and it was suggested that the three-move eliciting structure is the normal form inside the classroom.

Through the review stage, most of the speaking was put into the categories of the Sinclair and Coulthard model, even though there were some difficulties in fitting things to the categories.

The reason why discourse analysis in oral interaction was chosen was that teacher would be effectively leading student response through interaction by mixing target grammar structures and using teacher talk. In the oral interaction stage, direction forms seem much used in the classroom. Furthermore, looking at the details of some forms of direction, one can see different forms which mean that some direction forms can be used not only as typical direction forms but as a sentence which begins from the verb. For example, "Look at this" can be expressed in other forms, such as "I want you to look at this", "Can you look at this?" or "Will you look at this?" and "I would like you

to look at this.” Thus, from the point of view of functional based categories, there would be a division into different categories.

It was, of course, sometimes confusing as to which category in the Sinclair and Coulthard model things should fit. “Today I want to talk about some topic”, in one position was categorized as a meta-statement. A similar expression after that like “Today I have a very small picture” might possibly be categorized as a comment, an informative item, or a marker. There was, thus, ample scope for confusion. Difficulty was also sometimes encountered in the Sinclair and Coulthard model, on account of the fact that the structure forms encountered looked similar or, sometimes, even the same. However, if the usage in each situation was different, it would still be necessary to consider carefully matters of category.

“Can you see the picture?” which was also used as a check seemed to be in need of careful consideration. The word “Right” had the potential of being considered as a marker, a check or as an evaluation, and might be categorized differently according to differences in intonation. Tag questions, too, were typical examples of where difficulties could be induced by differences in intonation in phrases like “You know his name, don’t you?”. This tag question was categorized as a comment according to the Sinclair and Coulthard model. However, if it were used with a rising intonation, it would be considered as another category, a check. Relevant to this point is the following remark by Halliday in 1970:

'the importance of intonation is---that it is a means of saying different things. If you change the intonation of a sentence you change its meaning'.

With regard to intonation changing meaning, Brazil (1994:29) had the following comments.

The information we parcel up into tone units serves to further a speaker's purpose in either of two ways:

- a) *It may refer to some part of the message about which a speaker and listener both already aware.*
- b) *Alternatively, it may include information which is not yet shared.*

Intonation did, indeed, represent an important aspect of Teacher Talk.

Feedback, too, deserved consideration for its role with regard to the six categories of accept, evaluate, informative, acknowledge, comment, and marker. As the teacher's role required keeping interaction with students, feedback seemed the most important element of the English lesson.

The topic of this lesson was "Student Reports" which described the students' experience of volunteer work on "Clean Up Day". In the oral interaction, some cut out pictures were used for introducing new vocabulary about cleaning. The results of using the I-R-F model in an oral interaction showed that the number of times teacher talk was initiated was 109, the number of student talk responses was 33 and the number of follow ups to teacher talk was 33. The above result can show (the base rate being 100%)

the following. The rate of initiation was 62%, the rate of response 19%, and the follow up results 19%. These analysis results made clear that the instructor mostly used follow up unconsciously after student responses, the explanation being that the instructor was using the I-R-F pattern unconsciously to increase Student Talk and to encourage a better oral interaction.

Through oral interaction, the rate of elicitation and informative in Initiation were high, as was the rate of evaluate in follow up. This most likely reflected the teacher giving new information as a means of proceeding from simple student answers in order to add more information by following up with a deeper focus on the topic at hand. Furthermore, accept and evaluate seemed to help student understanding and to promote confidence to interact in English. In this point, Duncan (1973, 1974) suggested that "...the cues for speaker change can be grammatical, paralinguistic or kinesic or any combination of all three as follows; Intonation, Paralanguage, Body motion, Sociocentric, Paralanguage, Syntax."

An analysis of initiation (which includes 11 categories of act) reveals that the rate of elicitation was at a high of 139 and the rate of informative use was the second highest at 57. The teacher frequently used elicitation which requests a linguistic response already covered in the classroom. Clearly, too, the teacher tried to maintain initiation by using student responses in giving informative, the response being an acknowledgement of attention and understanding. It was a surprise to be confronted with the reality of how high informative use was.

Another important feature was that the rate of check and directive were the same (32). The language which was used in the classroom, thus, did not seem to be natural. This was because the teacher needed to ask some questions for which the teacher already knew the answer or needed to use as a check for the real question where the teacher didn't know the answer. The teacher also had the role of checking students' problems and difficulties in their English lessons by using teacher talk effectively. Through this analysis, it was seen that marker use in teacher talk was prominent. In particular, there seemed to be too great a use of markers such as "well", "O.K.", "now", "good", "right", and "alright." Through teacher talk analysis, it became apparent that marker use had two different meanings according to differences in intonation, being the head of a framing move (a falling intonation) and a mark of boundaries (silent stress).

Another point in need of noting was the existence of low-rate starters and meta-statements. As the starter rate was a measure of the instructor's effort at encouraging student responses. Ideally, the rating should have been higher. On the contrary, the use of meta-statement was encouraging. Certainly the usage was not great, but meta-statement use could not be seen in all in a previous discourse analysis of a lesson done by the same instructor in 1994. Though this by no means constitutes a proof of anything, it would indicate the value of repeated analysis over time. It would seem that, when properly carried out in a non-threatening manner, it can be a stimulus for positive changes in instructor teaching styles. In any case, meta-statement was an important element to be measured by discourse analysis and teacher talk, at least in this point, proved itself subject to improvement.

Response within the context of student talk and follow up within that of teacher talk were also subject to analysis. This would cover statement, question, and the use of non-verbal surrogates such as nodding and other non-linguistic actions. As teacher initiated acts, they can be receptive to and productive of speaking. Elicitation as follow up was 24 and react was 21. If compared with comparable data dealing with other instructors, these figures would give an idea of how aggressively the teacher approaches students to lead their answers and keep initiation. Accuracy could be further increased if such measures included non-linguistic actions, things which would seem to have potential in increasing student talk skills and to overcome barriers against speaking out in English in Japan in the classroom. Acknowledgement and acceptance could be seen as typical elements with regard to follow up. The rate of these categories of act was 15. As a skill in teaching English in the classroom, these categories of act could be viewed as being necessary to react to student response as in elicitation and react.

The rate of use of response was 74 and the total of follow up was 71. From the results (almost the same figure), it can be said that teacher tried to interact by using student responses and continuing to the next initiation as a means of recycling the same pattern of the conversation flow.

What was missing in the Sinclair and Coulthard model and, consequently, could not be measured by this model was the element of praise which may indicate a cultural difference at play in the specific language use expected in the classroom outside of Japan. Accordingly, praise was not subject to analysis. With regard to Japan, this can be

seen as a defect, as no instructor of children in Japan, who expects to do a good job, would dream of dispensing with this technique of motivating students to learn English.

The total number of speaking instances (teacher talk and student talk) recorded was 461. Teacher talk consisted of 316 instances of initiation and 71 instances of follow up for a sub-total of 387 instances. Student talk consisted of 74 instances. Therefore, the rate of teacher talk was 83% of the grand total and student talk 17%. However, pattern practice pronunciation drills of new words and pair work activities were not included in this measure of student talk for the simple reason that the video recording did not record all student talk done during pair work. Considering this point, student talk might have actually been about 30%. For this reason among others, the number so far given can not be used to prove anything one way or another. However, taken as a measure of a Japanese secondary school educator's educational practice, they do document a case study and put a bit of flesh and blood on the dry bones of theory with regard to what might be seen as current educational practice in Japan. As for the I-R-F model, itself, it has the capability of showing teacher and student initiation practice clearly and can show certain patterns in language use in the classroom. Furthermore, the I-R-F model could serve a useful role in giving teachers a diagnostic tool for self-use when thinking of new and different angles to initiate language use in the classroom.

9. Conclusion

9.1. The Present Situation

English education in lower secondary schools and senior high schools has seen improvements and enhancements in the curriculum dealing with the fostering of human resources in globalization for many years. On the basis of these efforts, teachers have also been supported with training in the progressive approaches. In addition, goals of English abilities of English teachers and students have been set by educational committees and schools and Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) have been posted. On the other hand, there are many questions regarding English teachers' abilities, what is taught in daily English classes, textbooks, teaching materials and teaching systems. Accordingly, the implementation plan of English-educational innovation was announced by MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology) on December 13th in 2013. In 2016, a survey was conducted which reported the status of the implementation of English education by the MEXT. It observed major problems to resolve for future English education concerning the English ability of teachers and students, the ratio of teaching English through English in lower secondary schools and senior high schools and the ratio of adopting ALTs. The MEXT survey (2016) was conducted at 19,679 elementary schools, 9,460 lower secondary schools and 3,390 senior high schools in Japan. According to the survey, it observed that the ratio was 62.2% for English teachers of senior high schools who had more than CEFR B2 (The EIKEN Test in Practical English Proficiency: Pre-1) and the ratio was 32.0% for English teachers of lower secondary

schools who had the same English ability levels i.e. CEFR B2 (EIKEN Test: Pre-1). Comparing these results with the data of 2015, there was only a 4.7% increase for English teachers of senior high schools and also only a 1.8% increase for English teachers of lower secondary schools. From the results, it could be said that improvements concerning the English ability of English teachers in senior high schools and lower secondary schools was not observed. Next, we will see the results concerning students' English ability at senior high schools and lower secondary schools. According to the survey, the ratio was 36.4% of senior high school students who had EIKEN Test Pre-2nd or a similar level or other tests or higher and 36.1% of lower secondary school students with EIKEN Test level 3 or similar. This amounts to only a 2.1% increase from the results of the 2015 data for senior high school students and a 0.5% decrease for secondary school students. The results show us very surprisingly that improvements concerning students' English ability in both stages were not observed.

With regard to using English in daily English classes, the above survey showed the ratio of using English in daily English in senior high schools was 45.1% while the ratio of it was 64.1% in the first year, 63.2% in the second year and 61.9% in the third year of lower secondary schools. Comparing the results in 2016 with those of 2015 in lower secondary schools, we can see a slight increase of using English in each grade as follow: 6% in the first year, 6.4% in the second year and 7.1% in the third year. From these results, it could be said that the ratio of using English was not so high. The ratio of using English was less than 50% in senior high schools and the ratio of it was about 63% in lower secondary schools. On the contrary, the present situation (2016) of adopting ALTs was better than before: the number of ALTs was 12,424 in elementary schools, 7,722 in lower

secondary schools and 2,842 in senior high schools. It observed that the number of ALTs increased in 2015 (985 in elementary schools, 440 in secondary schools and 211 in senior high schools).

From these results, although MEXT and educational committees are trying to improve the present situation of English education in Japan, it is a fact that not much improvement has been observed yet. Considering the present situation in English education, the results of this PhD research could be meaningful to the English education field for its emphasis on the effectiveness of using teacher talk and teaching English through English. Furthermore this PhD research showed the results of empirical research based on corpus-based teaching and learner corpus research.

MEXT also showed the results of English abilities of secondary school students concerning each different English skill in the survey. Regarding writing ability, the survey set two tasks. The first task form was to fill in the blanks to judge a suitable word to read in written conversation and the second task was to write his/her opinions and express reasons. Concerning the results of the second task, as good points, it observed that more than 67% students could write their opinions and reasons and even 44% students in lower CEFR 1 level could write their opinions and 45% of these students could write reasons. On the contrary, though, it observed that students could make a sentence but it seemed to be difficult for them to write paragraphs. Also, it was also reported that 15.6% of the students got 0%, which usually meant there was no attempt at all to complete the task.

From the results, there seems to be difficulties for secondary school students to write and make paragraphs in English. In this point, the students in this PhD research could write many sentences to introduce their personal information, their family and

friends, their school lives and their experiences on weekends and long holidays. Some academic researchers point out that English teachers should make opportunities to write in English in daily English classes. However, it would be difficult for students, even if the opportunity to write in English increased in daily English classes. In this point, this PhD research showed the effectiveness of Teacher Talk and teaching English through English by means of pair work, group work and oral interaction in daily English classes from an early stage.

f

9.2. Future English teacher training issues

Changes in Japanese teacher training programs need to be considered. This section will discuss the necessity to move from "top down" teacher training to "bottom up" teacher training. It will also discuss the necessity of exchanges between teachers in diverse fields, of promoting leader and teamwork development in the teaching of English in Japan, and of adopting an evaluation system for better teacher training.

Japanese English education underwent a revolutionary change in emphasis through an action plan to cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities" approved by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) as of 2003.

Building on the strategic plan, this five-year Action Plan has established a system for cultivating “Japanese with English abilities”, based on measures included in the strategic plan and measures included in the budget for 2003. The formulation of this concrete action plan clarifies the goals and directions for the improvement of English education to be achieved by 2008 and the measures that should be taken by the government to realize these goals. Cultivating “Japanese with English Abilities” is an extremely important issue for the future of our children and for the further development of our country.

The aim of the action plan was to require changes, many of which were not successfully implemented, not only for English education (including the teacher training programme) but also with regard to obtaining the full understanding of the public and the business world, this being considered as essential as encouraging a more active approach to education by parents. The Action Plan being implemented at the national level, however, was unprecedented in English education in Japan and one of its aspects was to highlight the need for improving English teachers and teaching materials in the English Education field.

The overall objectives of the new English curriculum of the lower secondary schools were *"to develop students' basic practical communication abilities such as listening and speaking, deepening the understanding of language and culture, and fostering a positive attitude toward communication through foreign languages"*. Implementation began in 2002.

Currently we can see many changes in teaching methodology and teaching materials in Japanese English education with teaching style trends, such as game activities, pair work, group work, information gap activities, interview

work, speeches, acting out dialogues, jigsaw puzzle reading, listening activities using movies, singing English songs, writing e-mail, and reading authentic materials which are used for developing the students' four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Moreover, English teachers are required to make students deepen their understanding of language and culture and maintain a positive attitude towards communication through daily English lessons. Therefore, the requirement of a higher quality of teacher development training than before has remained an important societal strategy of this Action Plan.

As a part of Japan's teacher development training program, all English teachers have a chance to attend a teacher training course through the National Centre for Teachers' Development for about 2 or 3 weeks during summer or winter holidays. There are some courses of the program which participants can choose as suited to his or her interests. The syllabus of the teacher training program consists of orientation, instruction by lecturing (teaching methods, teaching materials, etc.), group discussion (sharing ideas, asking advice for problems, etc.), peer group teaching (demonstration lessons and discussion), taking tests (pre-testing and post-testing included), and writing a report for developing the points brought up in the training sessions.

In addition, from the 1990s, there has been a MEXT sponsored overseas training program. It consisted of three types of enrichment periods for English teachers with advanced abilities and was divided into two month, six month, and twelve month periods. In 1996, the year the author participated, participants numbered 200, 85 and 15 respectively.

The participants attended a two-day orientation by MEXT in Tokyo before their departure. The country which each participant would visit was decided on during the orientation, with the countries available for doing overseas training being the UK, America, New Zealand and Australia. With regard to the UK, the 1996 program mainly consisted of three training programs at an English language school to develop English proficiency in the four language skills at Folkestone for two months, followed by a pre-session course for one month and the main course for three months at the University of Exeter. The pre-session course was designed for learning academic listening and note taking. Doing topic-based work on listening and speaking skills was enhanced by being given a chance to listen to guest lectures and being encouraged to develop the writing language skills for successful study at the postgraduate level. Furthermore, the pre-session course was designed with subject work in mind for the purpose of learning the study skills needed in the main course which was to be taken later.

The main course, itself, was organized into seven elements, being (a) an overview of language teaching methods, (b) language teaching workshops, (c) classes in language teaching methodology with other teachers of English, (d) psychological aspects of language learning and teaching, (e) language awareness of the grammar and sociolinguistic aspects of English, (f) visiting speakers, and (g) school visits. The 1996 teacher training program gave one a chance to re-examine daily English lessons and find problems in English education from a broader perspective than was possible as a practicing teacher in Japan.

Particularly, it was helpful in encouraging students to focus on the various elements of the syllabus mentioned above and to make an objective evaluation of overseas training.

In the first lesson of the six month overseas teacher training program, participants had a chance to come to terms with teacher expectations of learners, learner expectations of teachers, types of learners, general teacher roles, teacher roles as English teachers and the obstacles one should prepare oneself for. It was assumed that a language teacher would have an understanding of how the practice of language teaching was shaped by the contexts in which it would take place and of the role of societal, community, and institutional factors in language teaching.

As might be expected, the emphasis placed on these topics from different perspectives had an impact on participants. There was a discussion of teacher expectations of learners and the focus on different types of learners on the basis of day-to-day experience in English language teaching. In contrast, it was very difficult to put participants in a different position than their own and to get them to think of learner expectations of them as teachers. Thus, activities with this in mind were set up for the participants who, thereby, found themselves having to adopt a newer type of multi-thinking than before.

During the writer's period of participation, the ten participants who were Japanese teachers of English had a chance to demonstrate a lesson of his or her own design in which ideas taken from the lectures and workshops which had occurred over the course of the program were adapted, with each participant

demonstrating his or her lesson for about 25 minutes using Japanese English textbooks, authentic materials and original activity sheets. Other participants cooperated as students in the class. The three teacher-trainers participated in the lesson, too, taking roles in video recording, transcribing teacher talk, and analyzing the interaction between the lesson demonstrator and the students (the other participants). After the demonstration, participants were given a chance to discuss the advantages and disadvantages from different perspectives and to suggest to the other participants ideas for improvement. In addition, the three teacher-trainers gave feedback, taking a broad point of view and suggesting some improvements for creating better lessons. The ten participants were five lower secondary school teachers and five upper secondary school teachers. Each participant had a different English education career. This proved to be an important element of cross-fertilization in the peer group teaching which was carried out. This kind of opportunity for teacher-training involving lower school and upper school teachers would probably occur less in Japanese teacher-training of English teachers. A Japanese teacher of English, thus, would not be required to make an effort to know about the different areas of English education in detail. For this reason, the experience of peer group teaching created in the participants positive understanding of different perspectives from a broader than previously available range of viewpoints and better enabled them to share useful ideas.

As Carrier (2003: 245) pointed out, using peer review as part of classroom interaction requires that teacher educators create an instructional unit that

involves training in precisely what teacher trainees are expected to do during the peer review, and also develop protocols for the use of tactful language.

After peer group teaching, the teacher-trainer gave a video tape which recorded the peer group teaching with a feedback sheet that provided an analysis of the lesson and useful suggestions regarding teacher talk, teaching materials, interaction, and teaching techniques. None of the Japanese participants had ever experienced this kind of in-depth feedback in Japan and the comments made gave the participants a positive feeling when thinking of future lessons in Japan. This kind of activity might, thus, also be of use in teacher training programs in Japan as a means of widening educator respect for listening to others, sharing ideas and the adopting of better teaching techniques.

Currently, Japanese English lessons seem to be based on communicative language teaching concepts such as pair work, group work, information gap activity, jigsaw reading, dialogues to act out and so on. With regard to this kind of current fashion of English teaching, it has been pointed out that some teachers focus on doing these activities to the point of neglecting the textbook. As the result, the number of students who cannot read the textbook correctly and pronounce what they are reading with an appropriate intonation has certainly increased. There also seem to be some teachers who do not like using a textbook in their daily English lessons, preferring to use materials they consider more authentic or even textbooks of foreign origin for teaching. In fact, some Japanese teachers of English or assistant language teachers (ALTs) in particular are critical of textbook-based teaching. On the other hand, some Japanese professors in

English education exhort teachers to use a textbook effectively and integrate it in CLT and also emphasize the importance of reading out loud a textbook as a basic practice in learning English.

The advantages of using a textbook have been summed up by Hutchinson and Torres (1994: 323) as:

The structure provided by the textbook saves the teacher work and helps him or her to manage the class. This frees the teacher to concentrate attention on coping with new content and procedures. Furthermore, since it is used on a daily basis, is portable and permanent, the textbook can provide constant support.

On the other hand, as a disadvantage of using such materials, Sheldon (1988) and Bell and Gower (1988) have maintained that:

Note that course books are so static that they are frequency predictable in content.

This is because course books for all proficiency levels are based on a limited number of general interest' topics.

However, further addressing this issue, Hutchinson and Torres (1994: 327) suggested that:

Instead, a central feature of all teacher training and development should be to help teachers become better consumers of textbooks by teaching them how to

select and use textbooks effectively, exploit them in the class, and adapt and supplement them where necessary.

In the MEXT six-month teacher-training program, the ten participants were divided into two groups of five lower secondary school teachers and five upper secondary school teachers. The two different groups used a different classroom and in each class one teacher-trainer gave a demonstration lesson of how to use a Western-based textbook effectively with the participants taking the role of students in each group. After the lesson, each teacher-trainer gave the participants an opportunity to provide feedback and do peer group teaching to share ideas. This workshop, however, did not address the problems involved in using a Japanese course book effectively.

Some programs in the MEXT six-month teacher-training course seemed to have been designed not only for the participants in their role as English teachers but also in their roles as educators. In particular, this was true of lectures dealing with such topics as "School Counselor Roles", "National Curriculum and Teacher Training", "School Visiting", "Boards of Education", "Public Schools", and "Language Schools". It did not seem to be connected with the English teaching field per se but these special programs were very informative and instructive for the participants. In fact, there were (and are) many difficult problems in Japanese education and teachers are confronted with these problems on a daily basis. Therefore, participants could learn many new concepts in the study of other institutions and policies. This has, traditionally, not been an option in the world of Japanese education. After each program, teacher-trainers provided feedback and follow up activities for participants to promote in-depth participant understanding in each

field.

It seems that not only is a specialized knowledge of English teaching required of educators, but also a broad knowledge of the currently changing educational environment. In other words, a teacher in Japan should now be expected to have both a general and a specialized knowledge of what it means to be an educator. In this point, the MEXT teacher training program met the needs of its participants and was well organized to give them an opportunity to reexamine their role as an educator from a broader perspective than had generally been possible for them before.

The MEXT six-month teacher training course was mainly composed of three stages. The first consisted of developing English proficiency at a private English language school for two months. The second consisted of learning study skills at university lessons at the university pre-session course of the University of Exeter's English Language Centre for one month. The third (also at the University of Exeter) consisted of developing teacher courses for four months.

Upon being placed in a private English language school, the participants had a placement test and were divided according to their levels. The class size was small, being no more than 12 at the maximum, and there was a mix of different nationalities among the student body. The lessons at the language school focused on developing the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) of English proficiency. After the lessons, the participants were given an opportunity to use a self-access room in which materials for developing the four skills were divided into different levels, going from the elementary to the advanced level. In general, the four skills' materials were felt to be of a very high quality and more than met the needs of the participants. These materials were made by the

English Language Centre's staff and the participants could choose suitable levels of cassette tapes, a videos, and books, all of which were labeled with different colored seals so that they might be easily identified by the user. A language teacher was always in the room, but the teacher's role seemed like that of a librarian, with the teacher helping the participants learn how to use the room, find materials and, in general, answering the participants' questions. This kind of self-access room was and is still little used in Japanese schools.

However, the most important experience in the two months at the language school was the chance for the participants to communicate with students of different nationalities who had different cultures, but who shared a high motivation to learn English for their future work. This situation, likewise, does not generally exist in the world of Japanese English education and is not a part of Japanese teacher training courses.

By means of the one-month pre-session course at the University of Exeter's English Language Centre, the participants could enhance their study skills for British university level course work. This was especially important for the Japanese participants, as, in Japan, training in proper library use, in note taking, effective presentation, or even writing skills for project work, have not traditionally been available or emphasized. This was and is as true for university level students as for students at lower levels of education. In addition, another highly impressive item was an appraisal system in which another evaluator visited the class and made an evaluation of the lessons. Surprisingly, the student representative of the class was given an opportunity to attend the staff meetings of the language center and could demand improvements be made about the contents of the lesson and the facilities of library and computer room. In line with this, one would hope

that the situation for Japanese education will not continue to be as bleak as it once was, as some boards of education are beginning to adopt appraisal systems. One might hope that, under the stimulus of MEXT sponsored teacher training programs abroad and by other methods, Japanese teachers will become increasingly in improving both themselves and the educational environment they work in.

With regard to language teaching methods at the university undergraduate level in Japan, the focus is not on specifics. This contrasts with the four-month University of Exeter teacher training course which gave the Japanese participants a chance to explore the background of each method and also a chance to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each language teaching method with an eye to the current situation of Japanese English education.

In-depth subject knowledge was also emphasized as a requirement for being a teacher. Therefore, "Grammar and language awareness" was adopted as a lesson in this course. It made the participants re-realize the importance of teaching vocabulary and grammar from with a sensitivity to the inclination teachers often have of teaching fixed meanings or expressions without thinking the broader picture. Unfortunately, the chances for teachers to participate in such an in-depth teacher training program after graduation from the university neither did nor does appear to be easily forthcoming.

The MEXT six-month teacher training program, at least as it was implemented in England in 1996, was not only well-organized but it adopted a "bottom-up" approach and put into practice the "loop input" (Woodward 1986) process throughout. This was important for reasons elsewhere aptly pointed out by Lamb (1995:79):

Models of teacher education which depends on knowledge transmission, or "input-output" models of teacher education, are essentially ineffective. This is because they depend on received knowledge to influence behaviour and do not acknowledge, much less encourage, teacher-learners to construct their own versions of teaching.

Also, Richard (1998:48) mentions that:

Teacher development can be seen as a process of ongoing self-discovery and self-renewal, as top-down approaches to teaching are replaced by more bottom-up approaches, or approaches that blend the two.

Unfortunately, there might be grounds for asserting that the "bottom-up" approach for teacher training programs designed by the National Centre for Teacher Development in Japan has been little put into practice. Typical teacher training programs in Japan still seem to consist of lectures about the improvement of English education in Japan and workshops for those with enough English proficiency. Teaching techniques would typically be dealt with in a one-day workshop. There does seem, however, to be a trend toward requiring long term teacher training programs such as the MEXT program.

It should be noted that the teacher trainers of the 1996 MEXT six-month program at the University of Exeter seemed to have knowledge of Japanese English education. They, therefore, instituted peer group teaching, during which each participant's trial lesson was based on a Japanese textbook of English and not on a textbook published in an English-speaking country. Moreover, from the first lesson of the teacher-training course,

teacher trainers and participants were able to share the obstacles as those faced by the participants, much as if their daily English lessons had taken place in Japan. Therefore, there was little gap between participant need and the program, itself. This contrasted sharply, however, with the complaint of some Japanese teachers of English who have expressed unhappiness at what they have felt to be a big gap between a western based approach to language education and that of Japan. For example, an activity as simple as pair work or group work is easier to carry out in western countries due to differences in class size or cultural differences.

Quality teacher training programs are, in spite of less than ideal circumstances, on the rise in the field of English education in Japan, though there seems to be very little opportunity of participating in teacher training courses where the trainees come from a wide variety of different teaching backgrounds, where lower secondary teachers, upper secondary teachers, and university professors study together. As a result, some teachers face problems which occur due to a lack of knowledge of what type of education is taking place at other levels. In fact, differences in opinion often occur between lower secondary teachers and upper secondary teachers with regard to what should be taught at each other's respective levels. It might, indeed, be desirable to require a teacher training program which, at the very least, can bridge the gap in perceptions between the lower secondary school level and the upper secondary school level. Therefore, it might be considered as an advantage for teachers of various subjects to be given a chance to see different schools' English lessons, ranging from elementary schools to upper schools. In the context of teacher training courses, it might be advantageous to make time to discuss and share ideas from different perspectives, with the aim being better teaching after lesson observation.

As previously stated, in spite of innovations introduced by the Japanese government in the field of English education, it seems necessary to promote good leadership and teamwork not only in school English departments but also within the various boards of education. In other words, leaders are needed who have flexible minds able to cope with current changes and improvements in English education in Japan and who have the ability to listen to other English teachers who have a different background. Nevertheless, the development of such individuals is still not necessarily promoted by the Japanese educational system as one advances from the elementary school to the university level and, to some extent, this might be explained as a difference in national character. In fact, this particular point has been discussed in "The Importance of Leadership" by Peters and Waterman (1982), by Goldsmith and Clutterbuck (1984), and by Jennings and Doyle (1996:177) in "The Process of Team Building". Moreover, Richards and Hino (1983) pointed out something similar in a survey of master's program graduates working in Japan, i.e., little attention has been given to "education" topics such as curriculum development, instructional practice, and evaluation. It would, therefore, seem that participant evaluation would be a necessary addition to teacher training programs.

In contrast to what one would expect in Japan, the humble attitude of the teacher trainers for the six-month MEXT teacher training program at the University of Exeter was very impressive. In particular, every teacher trainer carried out a feedback system after lessons, whether by interview (recording), questionnaire, or as peer group learning and teaching. Currently, the appraisal method is in the process of being adopted in Japan. Although some teachers might feel critical, this kind of management system, which has

long been adopted in other areas of the general economy, remains worthy of finding a place in the world of Japanese education. This would be especially so, when considering that remarkably little has been written about the evaluation of ELT projects, or about the process of evaluation. Nevertheless, as it would appear that the top-down style of teacher training has had greater currency in Japan than the bottom-up style, as a general evaluation method, "summative evaluation" might be a better approach with regard to Japanese teacher training programs and not "formative" or "illuminative" evaluation.

As a result of analyzing what effective teacher training is, it would seem that inevitably that another matter of great importance, "educational management" is in need of consideration. It is true that the quantity of teacher training programs for English teachers has been increasing, but it would seem equally as important to seek the improvement of skills rather than of just concentrating on techniques would be in order. This would seem especially urgent in that more and more teachers have been developing a negative and critical feeling for top-down teacher training.

Although increasing the quantity of teacher training programs seems to be generally a welcome thing for English teachers, in order to increase the number of teachers who have a positive feeling in attending teacher training, more meaningful teacher training (in other words, bottom up style teacher training) should be more often carried out than has hitherto been the case, so that teachers can better share their ideas and build teamwork through teacher training. However, even if participants have a positive feeling, even if their expectations for quality teacher training are met and a "summative" evaluation method adopted, teacher training would not be effective, nor could it be expected to develop teachers' abilities, if the management issues of being an educator are

not addressed. With these issues properly addressed, though, well organized teacher training program helps make for a good teacher who is not only a good English teacher but also a good educator having a broad view teaching and being capable of promoting the growth in students' intellectual capacities. However, to more fully explore this issue would require the writing of yet another book. Nevertheless, forsaking chances to improve the imperfect, even if only slightly, in favoring of just passively waiting for the perfect to make its arrival, should not be considered an option. Every increase in quality teacher training would promote the growth of new leaders in the world of English education and would encourage worthwhile innovation in English education. It should, thus, be not only required in teacher training programs, but also for teacher trainers, principals, members of the various boards of education, and for MEXT members, as innovation across the board would be the surest way of reaping the benefits of teacher training for developing quality teachers and quality leadership in the field of English education and, ultimately, for producing increasing numbers of quality students.

9.3. Research Limitations

As we have examined in previous research on learner corpora, it could be said that in particular the amount of Learner Corpus research on lower secondary schools is very limited. Further, as Nesselhauf (2004) observed, the majority of learner corpora (at that time) were made up of academic essays, for the reason that they could easily be acquired by university researchers and in many cases they were already digitized.

In fact, although most learner corpus research is not longitudinal research and just focuses on the point of learners' development to collect their writing data. Moreover, little learner corpus research was built as the results of having been teaching English for a long time by a teacher (researcher). In this point, this PhD research could be very valuable empirical research focused on secondary school students. In consideration of these research limitations, it would be effective and useful to use or do corpus-based approaches for not only English teachers but also students and to stimulate empirical learner corpus research for future second language acquisition research. The effectiveness of adopting corpus based teaching is not for only teaching English vocabulary but also for teaching collocations and concordances. It is said that one of the problem for L2 learners to use English is a limitation of using a variety of collocations. In this point, Tono (2008: 3) mentioned that the 100 most frequent keywords of verbs would possibly cover 75% of English conversation data. To adopt corpus-based techniques to analysis English would lead a new world to teach and learn English from a different angle. Furthermore, in particular, learner corpus-based research would stimulate empirical research on developmental language use.

In this point, Granger (2002) mentioned that learner corpora contribute not only to research but also to improving second language teaching and learning.

Therefore, it would be very valuable and important to do empirical research for second language acquisition research to analyze and examine in detail regarding learners' interlanguage and developmental language use in various parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverb, prepositions and conjunctions. In addition, we can see the

advantage of using error tagging of a learner corpus in Grenger (2002), who mentioned that it may bring to light frequent error types of which researchers were not previously aware.

From this point, error analysis would be very important resources for teachers and also helpful resources for learners to study and to acquire correct English usages. Through doing teacher training, it would be possible to introduce how corpus-based approach would be effective and how to motivate students to teach and learn vocabulary and grammar from a different angle in order to do active learning.

In this point, Conrad (2000: 556) indicates that the strongest force for change could be a new generation of ESL teachers who were introduced to corpus-based research in their training programs [and] have practiced conducting their own corpus investigations and designing materials based on corpus research.

Therefore, it would be very valuable for teachers to investigate the process of learner developmental language in second language acquisition research field with a knowledge of corpus linguistics and learner corpus research.

9.4. Research Implications

With the spread of corpus research in recent years, it is hoped that corpus-based textbooks and other teaching and learning materials would be encouraged in English education.

Willis (2003) argues the advantage of ‘pedagogic corpora’ is that learners will already be familiar with the context, i.e. the text immediately surrounding the target features, as they will previously have studied the whole text in class.

Romer (2006) has also suggested that course books themselves can be made into corpora so that ‘course book English’ can be compared with ‘real English’.

As the first corpus-based textbook, Tono (2003) published “100-go de start Eikaiwa” that was corpus-based English conversation textbook. The corpus-based textbook adopted the results of BNC (British National Corpus) and showed the most frequent 100 verbs and also focus on most frequent 10 collocations for each verb of the 100 verbs. It was broadcast on NHK TV program for six months in 2003. It is said that the 100 most frequent verbs can cover 75% of all English conversation data. After that, he also published some corpus-based textbooks concerning this corpus-based series such as “Corpus Core Expression Maru Oboe CD”(2004) that focused on the most frequent 72 phrasal verbs and which was based on analyzing ANC (American National Corpus). His work on the collocations of 2000 English conversations was reflected in “Corpus Renshyu Cho Perfect” (2008). Though these kinds of corpus-based textbooks were published, corpus-based English textbooks for daily English classes in lower secondary schools do not exist yet. If this kind of corpus-based English textbook for daily English classes were developed, though, it would be possible for teachers to do more effective teaching and for teachers to learn more efficiently in the future.

Leech (1997) spoke optimistically about the potential of corpora to contribute to language teaching in three ways:

1. The indirect use of corpora in teaching, ie. corpora can be used to inform ELT reference works such as dictionaries and grammars, to inform the content of ELT materials and syllabi, and to inform test design.

Corpus-based dictionaries and grammars, however, have been developed and published in recent years. In 1987 the well-known "Collins Cobuild Dictionary" appeared, being the first corpus-based English dictionary. Since then "Longman Phrasal Verbs Dictionary" (2000), "Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English" (2002), "Cambridge Learner's Dictionary" (Semi-bilingual Version: 2004) have appeared, as have "The Wisdom English-Japanese Dictionary" (the first corpus-based English dictionary published in Japan) and the "Ace Crown English Dictionary" (the first corpus-based English dictionary for lower and upper secondary school students in Japan). The distinctive features of these corpus-based dictionaries is that they provide information about frequency and explain the different meanings and usages of similar words. The information is helpful for EFL learners to understand vocabulary usage. As for corpus-based grammar books, three well known corpus-based grammar book are Leech and Svartvik's "A Communicative Grammar of English" (1975), Swan's "Practical English Usage" (1980), and Carter and McCarthy's "Cambridge Grammar of English" (2006). There common point is that these grammar books show many examples, give comprehensive coverage of spoken and written English, put a special focus on difficult language areas, give guidance on avoiding common mistakes, and point out differences

between British and American English. They are of use in helping advanced EFL learners improve their knowledge of English grammar with a view to real language use. In addition, with regard to ELT materials, we can see corpus-based textbooks such as MaCarthy's "Touchstone" series (2005) where extensive use was made of a corpus to in creating grammatical and lexical syllabi to better enable active learning. Though recently corpus-based materials are coming to be published in other countries, there have been few of these kinds of corpus-based materials published in Japan for English classes at the secondary level. It is, therefore, necessary for a new generation of English teachers to be educated who have acquired the knowledge of corpus linguistics and will be able to develop corpus-based materials for Japanese EFL learners in the future.

2. The direct of corpora in enabling autonomous study.

The use of corpora in teaching, it is usually known as Johns's (1991) data driven learning (DDL), being something like discovery learning. The teacher shows the concordance lines that include a blank and learners are required to read the concordance lines and think of a suitable word to fill in the blank by him/herself and then share their ideas among their fellow group members in each group of four. As this PhD research shows, my daily English classes included corpus-based teaching materials characteristic of DDL concerning vocabulary and new grammar structures. It motivated students to learn English through doing pair work or group work to try to discover new grammar rules or to share their ideas what word they should fill in the blank of the DDL exercises they encountered.

In relation to using corpus data, Allan (2009) suggests that graded readers can be used to create a corpus. Timmis (2015: 132) also indicates for the teacher looking for a way to use DDL with lower-level learners, that graded corpora may offer a reasonable balance of accessibility and authenticity in the data it provides. To consider the effectiveness of DDL, a textbook corpora that was collected from same level textbooks for learners and published by different publishers would also be a good teaching material that could be a stop-gap measure with the ultimate goal of being able to use mega-corpora such as the BNC for lower secondary school students and in providing a graded reader corpora for upper secondary school students. Moreover, a learner corpus needs to be made available for use as DDL material for secondary school students and senior high school students. For example, teacher might show concordance lines that include new grammar structures and students might try to think of a suitable word to fill in the blank in a concordance line and to cooperate with their group members with this in mind. As the learner corpora was based on writing about their daily lives and school lives, it has potential for knowing what to expect of lower level students and to better help them to learn correct expressions as well as how to create more variety in their use of the main grammar structures appearing in their textbooks. Furthermore, a parallel corpus would be very useful and helpful for Japanese EFL learners to compare the English expressions with the Japanese expressions. In using this kind of parallel learner corpus, learners would understand how to express more difficult Japanese expressions in English. In addition, a parallel learner corpus would be valuable for impressing on language learners the correct usage of native speakers when they face difficulties in expressing themselves

in English.

3. Further teaching-oriented corpus development in developing learner English corpora, L1 language development corpora, and corpora of English for Specific Purposes.

The usefulness of various types of corpora depend on the different aims of corpus use. Actually, it would be difficult to use a general corpus for Japanese EFL learners in daily English classes in respect of a big gap in the level between the general corpus and the capabilities of Japanese EFL learners in upper and lower secondary schools. However, COLT (The Bergen Corpus of London Teenage Language) was the corpus used in my daily English classes as DDL. COLT is the first large English Corpus (1993) focusing on the speech of teenagers from 13 years old to 17 years old in different areas of London. COLT was profitably used to teach a new grammar structures such as to-infinitive, auxiliary verbs such as will and be going to, collocations concerning verbs such as have, play, and practice. It allowed a comparison of usages that are shown in the second year English textbook that the students were using for their lessons at school. When targeted at Japanese EFL learners, the COLT was a very effective tool because that there was little of a big gap between language use and the contents of their conversation. Thus, the corpora that examined above emphasize very important roles for both teachers and Japanese EFL learners, depending on the different aims of teaching and learning and on the levels of the learners.

The aim of this PhD was to investigate how teaching English through English could become an effective way to input English and also to implement empirical research

on how students learn vocabulary items, new grammar structures, and the developmental parts of speech through multiple modes of analysis. Through this PhD research, the results of learners' efforts to learn English over a three-year period were brought to light. In addition, the importance of corpus-based active learning methods was made clear.

Appendix I. Teacher Talk & Student Talk Analysis (See Chapter 8.6)

Exchange Type	Opening	act	Answering	act	Follow up	ac t
Elicit	Good morning class.	m	Good morning, Mr. Miura.	rea		
Elicit	How are you today?	n	I'm fine, thank you. And you?	rea	I'm fine thank you, too.	ac c
Elicit	How are you today?	n	I'm fine, thank you.	rea		
Elicit	How are you today?	n	I'm so so.	rea		
Elicit	How are you?	n	I'm so so.	rea		
Elicit	How are you?	n	I'm hungry.	rea		
Elicit	Did you have breakfast today?	el	Yes.	rep		
Check	But you are hungry.	ch				
Boundary	OK. FRAME	m				
Elicit	Will you open your BINGO Book?	s				
Direct	Today's BINGO is No. 21 and No. 22.	s				
Check	Right?	ch				
Boundary	OK FRAME	m				
Elicit	Anyone, please help me.	n				
Elicit	What's the date today?	s	Tuesday, May 6.	rea	OK.	ac c
					Right.	ac c
					Thank you.	ac c
Boundary	Now.	m				

Elicit	Let's enjoy BINGO No. 21.	s				
Check	Are you ready?	ch	Yes.	rea	I can't hear you.	re p
Check	Are you ready?	ch				
Check	No?	l				
Direct	Hurry up, please.	d			I'm waiting for you.	re a
			OK.	rep		
Boundary	OK.	m				
Elicit	Let's start.	s				
	(T and S play a BINGO game.)					
			Bingo! Bingo!	rea		
Boundary	OK.	m			Congratulations!	ac c
Direct	Please come here.	d				
Inform	This is a present for you.	i	Thank you.	rea	Congratulations!	ac c
Inorm	Here you are.	i	Thank you.	rea	You're welcome.	ac c
Boundary	Now.	m				
Elicit	Let's enjoy BINGO once more.	s				
Check	No. 22, are you ready?	ch	Yes.	rep	OK.	ac c
Elicit	Let's start.	s				
	(T and S play a BINGO game.					
			Bingo! Bingo!	rea	OK.	ac c

					Thank you.	ac c
Inform	Here you are.	i	Thank you.	rea		
Inform	Here you are.	i				
Inform	This is a present for you.	i	Thank you.	rea	You're welcome.	ac c
Boundary	OK, now FRAME FOCUS	m				
around the classroom and interview with five students.)						
Elicit	I will give you a sheet of paper for a dictation test.	s				
Check	Today's dictation test is Lesson 4, right?	ch				
Elicit	How many students are there in this line?	el				
Check	Six or seven?	ch	Seven.	rep	Thank you.	ac c
Elicit	How many students are there?	el				
Check	Six?	ch	Six.	rep	Thank you.	ac c
					Here you are.	re a
Boundary	I want you to write today's date, your Class, student number and name.				Thank you so much.	re a
Check	Did you write your class, student number and name?		Yes, I did.	rep		

			No, I didn't.	rep		
Boundary	OK FRAME FOCUS	m				
Boundary	Today's lesson is Lesson 4.	ms				
Direct	Please listen carefully.	d				
	(T reads a textbook.)					
Check	Did you finish?	ch	Yes.	rep	OK.	ac c
Direct	Please collect it from back to the front	d				
Boundary	OK FRAME	m				
Direct	Please open your textbook to Lesson 2, page 6.	d				
	(T reads from the textbook.)					
Boundary	OK FRAME	m				
Elicit	How many stars do you have on page 8?	el				
Elicit	Do you have five stars?	el				
Direct	Raise your hand, please.	d				
Boundary	OK FRAME	m				
Elicit	Will you read this page?	el				
Inform	Only this one page.	i				
Direct	Please read.	d			Yes, yes.	re a
	(S reads from the textbook, page 8.)				Thank you very much.	re a

Direct	Please clap your hands.	d				
Elicit	Any volunteers who want to read this page?	n				
Elicit	Anyone?	n			OK	ack
Check	Nobody?	ch				
Elicit	Please.	n				
	(S reads a textbook, page 8.)	n			Great!	e
					Your reading is nice!	e
					Excellent!	e
Elicit	Did you study English?	el				
Check	Do pair work No. 13.	el				
Boundary	OK.	m				
Direct	Please look at pair work, No. 13.	d				
Elicit	Can you it without looking at the paper?	el				
Elicit	Can you say it?	el			Good!	e
Inform	If you can't remember, it is OK to look at the paper.	i				
Inform	Some of you, I think you studied hard during the Golden Week.	i				
Inform	You can remember all the sentences.	i				
Inform	So you don't need to look at the paper.	i				
Boundary	So I will give you one	ms				

	minute.					
Direct	For just only one minute.	d				
Direct	So everyone stand up and talk in pairs.	d				
Check	By using No. 13 pair work.	ch				
Boundary	For example, FRAME	m				
Elicit	What time did you have dinner yesterday?	el				
Elicit	What did you eat for dinner?	el				
Elicit	Did you listen to music?	el				
Inform	You can add any sentences.	i				
Elicit	Do you like something?	el				
Elicit	Which do you like better, the Giants or the Tigers?	i				
Inform	You can continue to talk.	i				
Inform	But some of you can't speak for one minute.	i				
Direct	For thirty seconds.	d				
Elicit	What is "second" in Japanese?	el	"Byou".	rep	Right!	ack
Inform	If you can't keep talking for one minute.	i				
Direct	Please sit down.	d				
Elicit	Let's start.	s				

	(S try to do three minutes of talk.)					
Direct	Stop.	d				
Inform	One minute!	i			Good	e
					Congratulations!	acc
Elicit	Can you keep talking for one minute?	el				
Check	Yes?	ch				
Elicit	Raise your hand.	cu			Good!	e
					Good!	e
Inform	If you studied hard, you can remember the sentences.	i				
Inform	You can talk for one minute.	i				
Elicit	Right?	el				
Direct	Please answer some questions.	d				
Elicit	Did you watch TV yesterday?	el				
Elicit	Anyone?	n	No, I didn't	rep	Oh, yes, you did.	acc
Elicit	What TV program did you watch?	el	I watched "Hei hei hei."	rep		
Elicit	Is that popular?	el	Yes.	rep	Oh, thank you.	rea
Elicit	Did you watch "Hei, hei, hei" yesterday?	el	(S raise their hands.)		Wow!	ack
Boundary	Well,	m				
Elicit	what time did you have dinner yesterday?		I had dinner at 7:00.	rep		
Elicit	What did you eat for	el	I ate....	rep	Japanese,	re

	dinner?				OK.	a
Elicit	Chinese food?	el				
Elicit	Italian food?	el				
Elicit Japanese food? el I ate "miso" soup and rice. rep Do you like Japanese food? el	Japanese food?	el	I ate "miso" soup and rice.	rep	Do you like Japanese food?	el
			Yes.	rep		
					Which do you like better, Japanese food or Italian food?	el
			Japanese food.	rep		
					Oh, you like Japanese food better.	ack
						com
Boundary	OK. FRAME	m				
Direct	I want to give you some questions.	d				
Elicit	I like Japanese food the best.	el				
Check	Nobody?	ch				
					One, two, three.	rea
Boundary	OK. FRAME	m				

Elicit	I like French food the best.	el				
					It's too expensive.	i
Check	Nobody?	ch	I like Chinese food.	rep		
	I like the Italian food the best. rep OK. Rea		I like Italian food the best.	rep	OK.	re a
	Thank you. Rea				Thank you.	re a
Boundary	OK. FRAME	m				
Inform	Next question?	i				
Elicit	What will you do after school today?	el				
Elicit	Any volunteers?	n	I will watch drama.	rep	Oh, you will watch drama.	re a
Boundary	OK. FRAME	m				
Elicit	Do you have a club activity today	el			Oh, everyone, how about let's go to see a drama after school?	ac k
						re a
					Good information. Thank	e

					you very much.	
						co m
Direct	Close your textbook, please.	d				
Inform	Yesterday was Golden Week.	i				
	(T gives pair work sheet to students.)					
Elicit	How about your Golden Week?	el				
Elicit	Did you enjoy yourself?	el	No.	rep	Why?	re a
Elicit	Did you practice a club activity?	el			Thank you.	re a
					Thank you.	re a
					Sorry.	re a
Elicit	Will you write down today's day and date?	s				
Inform	Today is Tuesday, May 6.	i				
Inform	It's very easy pair work.	i			Sorry.	re a
Elicit	How many sheets do you want?	el	One.	rep	Here you are.	re a
			Thank you.	rep		
Elicit	Today's title, can you see it?	el				
Direct	Please repeat after me Part A.	d				

Direct	Did you go somewhere during the Golden Week?	d				
	(T reads pair work's conversation					
	S repeat after T.)					
	(S do pair work, and walk around the classroom and interview five students.)					
Direct	Stop, please.	d				
	Please go back to your seat.	d				
Check	You got much information.	ch				
Check	I will ask some questions.	ch				
Elicit	Did you go somewhere during the Golden Week?	el	Yes, I did.	rep		
					Where did you go?	el
			I went to the sea.	rea		
					Sea!	ack
Elicit	Did you swim?	el	No.	rep	No?	rea
			Running.	rep	Running?	rea
					You went to the sea	ack

					for running?	
Elicit	Did you go somewhere during the Golden Week?	el	I went to a juku.	rep	A juku!	ac k
Elicit	Was it very hard?	el	So so.	rep		
Elicit	Did you go somewhere during the Golden Week.	el			OK, please.	p
Elicit	How was it?	el	It was great.	rep		
Elicit	Did you go shopping?	el	Yes.	rep		
Elicit	What did you buy?	el	Nothing	rep		
					Oh, just looking.	ac k
Check	You enjoyed window shopping.	ch	Yes.	rep		
Elicit	How about you?	n				
	You stayed at home?	el	I practiced swimming.	rep		
			I practiced swimming.	rep		
Elicit	Oh,	ack				
	do you like swimming?	el	Yes.	rep	I see.	re a
Boundary	Thank you. FRAME					
Direct	OK,	m				
	please stop the game.	d				
	(Oral Interaction)					
Direct	Close your textbook, please.	d				
Boundary	Today I want to talk about some topic.	ms				

Inform	I'm sorry.	i				
Inform	Today I have a very small picture.	com				
Check	Can you see the picture?	ch				
Elicit	OK	m				
	Who is he?	el	Taro!	rep	No, Taro!	re a
Check	You know his name, don't you?	com	Ken.	rep	Right.	e
Inform	He is Ken.	i				
Check	Can you see this picture?	ch				
Elicit	What kind of clothes does he wear?	el				
Elicit	Anyone?	n	He wears a T-shirt.	rep	OK.	e
Inform	He wears T-shirts.	i				
Elicit	And what does he have on the neck?	el	"Yodare kake"	rep	No.	re a
Inform	It seems like a sports towel.	i				
Elicit	What is Ken doing now?	el				
Direct	Guess!	d				
Elicit	What is Ken doing now?	el	Stretching!	rep		
			Working!	rep	Right.	e
			"souji wo siteiru".	rep		
Inform	OK,	m				
	"souji wo suru" is "cleaning."	i				
Inform	He is cleaning.	i				

Elicit	Really?	el				
Elicit	Is he cleaning?	el				
Boundary	I'll show you this picture.	ms				
Elicit	What's this?	el	Can!	rep	It's can.	re a
Direct	Repeat, "Can".	el	Can.	rep	Can.	re a
			Can.	rep		
Elicit	Is this "can" burnable waste?	el				
Elicit	Is this "can" burnable waste?	el				
Inform	This is not burnable waste.	i			This is unburnable waste.	i
					It is not burnable waste.	i
			Banana!	rep	No.	re a
Inform	Burnable waste.	i				
Inform	This is burnable waste.	i			But this is not burnable waste.	i
Elicit	What is "burnable"?	el	"Moeru".	rep	Right.	e
Inform	"Burnable" is "moeru".	i				
Elicit	What is "unburnable waste"?	el	"Moenai gomi".	rep	Right.	e
Direct	Look at this.	d				
Inform	Last Wednesday Ken did volunteer work.	i				

Elicit	What is "volunteer work" in Japanese?	el	"Housi katsudo".	rep	Right.	e
Elicit	How do you say "atsumaru"?	el				
Elicit	Does anyone know the word?	n	Collect.	rep	Right.	e
Inform	Ken was collecting a lot of cans as volunteer work.	i				
Direct	Look.	d				
Elicit	What does she have with her?	el	"Houki".	rep	Right.	e
Elicit	How do you say "houki" in English?	el	Broom.	rep	Right.	e
Elicit	Why do you know the word, "broom"?	el				
Elicit	OK,	el				
	did you see Harry Potter?	el				
Inform	Up! Up!	i				
Inform	It's a broomstick.	i				
Elicit	Do you know Nimbus 2000?	el	Yes.	rep		
Direct	Repeat, broom.	d	Broom.	rep		
Inform	She has a broom in her hands.	i				
Inform	She is cleaning.	i			Right.	e
Elicit	Do you know another word?	el	"Haku".	rep	Yes.	ack
Elicit	How do you say "haku" in English?	el				
Inform	"Haku" is "sweep".	i				
Inform	She was sweeping with	i				

	a broomstick.					
Elicit	Why does she know the broomstick?	el				
Elicit	Do you know Harry Potter?	el	Yes.	rep		
Inform	Nimbus 2000 is a broomstick.	i				
Direct	Look at this picture.	d				
Inform	She is singing a song.	i				
Inform	This is not a joke.	i				
Check	You can see the music sign.	ch				
Inform	She enjoyed cleaning.	i				
Elicit	What is his character?	el				
Inform	How about her?	el				
Inform	She is a very good character.	i				
Check	Right?	ch				
Inform	I'm enjoying volunteer work.	i				
Check	Can you see the picture?	ch				
Inform	One is a boy and the other is a girl.	i				
Elicit	Are they good students?	el	No.	rep	Yes.	ack
Elicit	But why?	el				
Check	Right?	ch				
Elicit	Are they good students?	el	No.	rep		
Elicit	Is she a good student?	el	Yes.	rep		
Elicit	Is he a good student?	el	Yes.	rep		
Elicit	How about you?	n				

Elicit	Do you like cleaning?	el				
Elicit	Do you clean very hard?	el	No.	rep		
Direct	Look at this picture.	d				
					I think this boy is a good student.	c
					Because he has a lot of burnable waste.	c
Elicit	Where did they do volunteer work?	el				
Check	Guess!					
Elicit	Where did they go?	el				
Check	Can you guess?	ch				
Inform	This is a clock tower.	i				
					This is a building.	i
					Yes.	e
					School!	re a
Inform	They did the volunteer work near school.	i				
Inform	So they went to the park near School.	i				
Inform	They went to the streets.	i				
Elicit	Do you like cleaning?	el				
Elicit	How about you?	n				
Elicit	Do you clean your	el	No.	rep		

	room?					
Elicit	How about your desk?	el				
Elicit	Is your desk clean?	el				
	(Practice to pronounce new words.)					
Direct	Please look at the cards.	d				
	(T shows some flash cards to the S.)					
Inform	They did volunteer work for a few hours.	i				
Elicit	Can you do volunteer work for two or three hours?	el				
Elicit	How do you say "Byou" in English?	el	Second.	rep	Right.	e
Inform	They took a lot of cans.	i				
Inform	They took a lot of cans.	i				
Inform	They collect a lot of cans.	i				
					After that, they went to a recycling center.	co
Boundary	I'll ask you some questions about volunteer work.					
Elicit	Have you ever tried to do volunteer work when you were elementary school students?	el				

Elicit	How about explaining your volunteer work in Japanese, OK?	el	She went to take care of old people.	rep		
Elicit	Any other volunteers?	n	Nursery school.	rep	Oh,	m
Elicit	Did you read a picture book for kids?	el	Yes.	rep		
Elicit	Any other volunteer work?	el	Collecting a lot of cans.	rep	Collecting a lot of cans.	ack
Elicit	Other volunteers?	el	Kindergarten school.	rep	Good.	e
(Reading)	(Reading)					
Direct	Open your textbook, page 15.	d				
	Repeat after me.	d				
	(T reads a textbook.)					
Boundary	FRAME					
	T and F questions and questions and answers.	ms				
Check	No. 1: It was clean up day last Thursday.	ch				
	No. 2: They were not busy.	ch				
	No. 3: They cleaned up the park near the school.	ch				
	No. 4: They collected a lot of cans in a few minutes.	ch				
	No. 5: They took them to a recycling center.	ch				
Boundary	I want to check your	ms				

	answers.					
Elicit	How about No. 1?	el				
Direct	Raise your hand.	cue				
Check	True or False	ch				
Check	One finger or two fingers?	ch				
Check	True or False?	ch				
Check	One finger or two fingers?	ch				
Direct	Raise your hand.	cue				
Boundary	OK. FRAME	m				
Inform	There is the bell now.	i				
Boundary	Goodbye class FRAME	m				
Inform	See you.	i				

Appendix II. New Tag

1. Adjectives & Adverbs

adjective & adverb new tag set	example
1 adjective: comparative, pure	older, smaller, ...
2 adjective: compound, nominative	Star Wars, Universal Studio, ...
3 adjective: compound, temporal	near future
4 adjective: phrasal, possibility	as soon as possible
5 adjective: simple, -ed participle	interested
6 adjective: simple, -ing participle	swimming club
7 adjective: simple, nominative	cultural festival, comic book, digital camera, soft tennis, ...
8 adjective: simple, pure	delicious, important, hungry, ...
9 adjective: simple, temporal	summer, winter, ...
10 adjective: superlative, pure	smallest
11 adjective: comparative, pure	bigger, longer taller, worse, ...
12 adjective: compound, nominative	festival's name, opening ceremony, ...
13 adjective: phrasal, nominative	junior high school, a lot of, a little
14 adjective: simple, -ed participle	surprised, tired
15 adjective: simple, -ing participle	exciting, interesting, ...
16 adjective: simple, cardinal	fourteen, fifteen, 5:00, 2000, ...
17 adjective: simple, correctly	right
18 adjective: simple, determiner	next summer vacation, next month, ...
19 adjective: simple, locative	left side
20 adjective: simple, number of times	once, twice, ...
21 adjective: simple, ordinal	first, second, 15, 21, ...
22 adjective: simple, plural, determiner	both
23 adjective: simple, singular, determiner	any, ...
24 adjective: superlative, pure	largest, biggest, tallest, ...
25 adjective: comparative, pure	younger, older, ...
26 adverb: comparative, circumstantial	faster, more
27 adverb: phrasal, disjunctive	of course, for example, at first, ...
28 adverb: phrasal, locative	get home, somewhere, together
29 adverb: phrasal, temporal	today, tonight, yesterday, ...
30 adverb: simple, appropriate	about
31 adverb: simple, circumstantial	again, well, best, better, only, too
32 adverb: simple, comparison	as
33 adverb: simple, conjunctive	however, so, therefore, besides
34 adverb: simple, degree	so, very,
35 adverb: simple, disjunctive	also, always, especially
36 adverb: simple, ended	over
37 adverb: simple, idiom	be about to)
38 adverb: simple, locative	abroad, away, far, here, there
39 adverb: simple, negative	not, n't
40 adverb: simple, pure	able, back best, never, kindly, lastly, firstly, weekly, ...
41 adverb: simple, request	please
42 adverb: simple, temporal	ago, already, early, ever, everyday, now, soon
43 adverb: simple, wh- word cluster	when, where, how, ...
44 adverb: superlative, circumstantial	fastest, most
45 adverb: verbal particle, locative	be look forward to, come here

2. Verbs

No.	new tag set
1	verb: auxiliary, ability, interrogation, present, singular, 1st person e.g. What can I call you?
2	verb: auxiliary, ability, interrogation, present, singular, 2nd person e.g. Can you play...?
3	verb: auxiliary, ability, negation, past, singular, 1st person e.g. I couldn't speak ...
4	verb: auxiliary, ability, negation, present, plural, 1st person e.g. We can't play ...
5	verb: auxiliary, ability, negation, present, singular, 3rd person e.g. She can't play ...
6	verb: auxiliary, ability, negation, present, singular, 1st person e.g. I can't fly.
7	verb: auxiliary, ability, past in a relative clause, singular, 1st person e.g. I was glad that I could use ...
8	verb: auxiliary, ability, present in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person e.g. ... is a person who can play ..)
9	verb: auxiliary, ability, present, plural, 1st person e.g. We can dance ...
10	verb: auxiliary, ability, present, singular, 1st person e.g. I can play ...
11	verb: auxiliary, ability, present, singular, 2nd person e.g. You can play ...
12	verb: auxiliary, ability, present, singular, 3rd person e.g. She can play ...
13	verb: auxiliary, advise, present, singular, 1st person e.g. I should study...
14	verb: auxiliary, advise, present, singular, 2nd person e.g. You should visit ...
15	verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present, singular, 1st person e.g. I don't like....
16	verb: auxiliary, complex, transitive, interrogation, infinitive, singular, 2nd person e.g. Do you like to study?
17	verb: auxiliary, complex, transitive, negation, infinitive, singular, 3rd person e.g. She doesn't like to study ...
18	verb: auxiliary, complex, transitive, present in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person e.g. ... a brother who likes to play ..
19	verb: auxiliary, complex, transitive, present in a relative clause, singular 1st person e.g. ... a shop which I want to be ...
20	verb: auxiliary, complex, transitive, interrogation, present in a relative clause, singular 2nd person e.g. ...any movies that you want to see?
21	verb: auxiliary, complex, transitive, present, plural 1st person e.g. We want to play ...
22	verb: auxiliary, complex, transitive, present, singular 1st person e.g. I want to be ...
23	verb: auxiliary, complex, transitive, present, singular 2nd person e.g. You want to be ...
24	verb: auxiliary, future, interrogation, singular, 2nd person e.g. Will you have a test?
25	verb: auxiliary, future, negation, singular, 1st person

- 26 verb: auxiliary, future, negation, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... she won't play ...
- 27 verb: auxiliary, future, plural, 1st person
e.g. We will interview ...
- 28 verb: auxiliary, future, singular, 1st person
e.g. I will work...
- 29 verb: auxiliary, future, plural, 2nd person
e.g. We will enjoy ...
- 30 verb: auxiliary, future, singular, 3rd person
e.g. She will appear ...
- 31 verb: auxiliary, intention, singular, 1st person
e.g. I will tell you ...
- 32 verb: auxiliary, interrogation, past, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Did you read ...?
- 33 verb: auxiliary, interrogation, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Do you like..?
- 34 verb: auxiliary, interrogation, present, singular, 3rd person
e.g. Does your father like ..?
- 35 verb: auxiliary, interrogation, transitive, present perfect progressive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. How long have you been playing..?
- 36 verb: auxiliary, interrogation, transitive, present perfect, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Have you ever played ..?
- 37 verb: auxiliary, prohibition, present, plural, 1st person
e.g. We mustn't forget ...
- 38 verb: auxiliary, necessity, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I must practice..
- 39 verb: auxiliary, negation, past, singular, 1st person
e.g. I didn't see ...
- 40 verb: auxiliary, negation, past, singular, 3rd person
didn't
- 41 verb: auxiliary, negation, present perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. have never, have not
- 42 verb: auxiliary, negation, present, plural, 3rd person
e.g. ...young people don't like ...
- 43 verb: auxiliary, negation, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I don't think ...
- 44 verb: auxiliary, permission, interrogation, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. May I have your name?
- 45 verb: auxiliary, permission, past in a relative clause, plural, 3rd person person
e.g. ...festival which students could only take part ..
- 46 verb: auxiliary, permission, past, singular, 1st person
e.g. I couldn't take part in
- 47 verb: auxiliary, permission, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. You can call me ...
- 48 verb: auxiliary, possibility, present, plural, 1st person
e.g. We can get
- 49 verb: auxiliary, possibility, negation, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. you man not know...
- 50 verb: auxiliary, possibility, present in a relative clause, plural, 1st person
e.g. ... that we can see a band...

- 51 verb: auxiliary, possibility, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. ... you can walk ...
- 52 verb: auxiliary, present perfect in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. a book that I have finished reading ...
- 53 verb: auxiliary, present perfect in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. The story that I like the best has finished.
- 54 verb: auxiliary, present perfect progressive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have been running ...
- 55 verb: auxiliary, present perfect, plural, 1st person
e.g. We have played ...
- 56 verb: auxiliary, present perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have visited
- 57 verb: auxiliary, present perfect, singular, 2nd person
e.g. You have been to ...
- 58 verb: auxiliary, present perfect, singular, 3rd person
e.g. My mother has worked ...
- 59 verb: auxiliary, request, interrogation, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Could you tell me...?
- 60 verb: auxiliary, request, interrogation, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Will you tell me?
- 61 verb: auxiliary, suggest, interrogation, present, plural, 1st person
e.g. Shall we play ...?
- 62 verb: auxiliary, negation, present, imperative implied 2nd person
e.g. Don't forget.
- 63 verb: auxiliary, negation, present in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. ... test that I don't like
- 64 verb: be copula, present, singular, 3rd person
e.g. It's interesting ...
- 65 verb: be, copula, comparative, present, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... is smaller than me.
- 66 verb: be, copula, interrogation, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Are you a junior high school student?
- 67 verb: be, copula, past, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was happy.
- 68 verb: be, copula, past, singular, 3rd person
e.g. He was a
- 69 verb: be, copula, predicative, past passive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... is my nickname which was named by ...
- 70 verb: be, copula, present comparative in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... town which is bigger than any other ...
- 71 verb: be, copula, present comparative, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... is bigger than ...
- 72 verb: be, copula, present comparison of equality in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... mother who is as big as ...
- 73 verb: be, copula, present comparison of equality, singular, 3rd person
e.g. My mother is as tall as me.
- 74 verb: be, copula, present in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... a sister whose name is ...
- 75 verb: be, copula, present passive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... candy which is loved by ...

- 76 verb: be, copula, present passive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. What is used in your country?
- 77 verb: be, copula, present progressive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... is becoming worse ...
- 78 verb: be, copula, present progressive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... my mother who is cooking ...
- 79 verb: be, copula, present superlative in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. a TV game which is one of the most popular ...
- 80 verb: be, copula, present, plural, 1st person
e.g. We are twin sisters.
- 81 verb: be, copula, present, plural, 3rd person
e.g. They are very kind ...
- 82 verb: be, copula, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I'm a Japanese boy
- 83 verb: be, copular, past passive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was deeply moved
- 84 verb: be, copular, past, in a relative clause, plural, 3rd person
e.g. That song that I heard was exciting.
- 85 verb: be, copular, past, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was glad ...
- 86 verb: be, predicative, infinitive, imperative, plural, implied 2nd person
e.g. Let's be
- 87 verb: be, predicative, infinitive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I will be ...
- 88 verb: be, predicative, infinitive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. What will you be?
- 89 verb: be, predicative, infinitive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. He will be
- 90 verb: be, predicative, interrogation, present progressive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. What are you doing now?
- 91 verb: be, predicative, interrogation, present passive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. What are you called?
- 92 verb: be, predicative, interrogation, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. How are you?
- 93 verb: be, predicative, past in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... this book that was very interesting ...
- 94 verb: be, predicative, past passive in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. .. A story which was written by ...
- 95 verb: be, predicative, past passive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was given
- 96 verb: be, predicative, past passive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. It was given ...
- 97 verb: be, predicative, past progressive in a relative clause, plural, 3rd person
e.g. ... games that was made by ...
- 98 verb: be, predicative, past progressive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... player who was running ...
- 99 verb: be, predicative, past progressive, plural, 1st person
e.g. We were studying
- 100 verb: be, predicative, past progressive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was playing ...

- 101 verb: be, predicative, past progressive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. What were you doing ...?
- 102 verb: be, predicative, past progressive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. He was sleeping ...
- 103 verb: be, predicative, past, past passive in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. ...yakisoba that was made by ...
- 104 verb: be, predicative, past, plural, 2nd person
e.g. ...near houses were brihgt.
- 105 verb: be, predicative, past, plural, There as impersonal subject
e.g. There were a lot of ...
- 106 verb: be, predicative, past, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was born ...
- 107 verb: be, predicative, past, singular, 3rd person
e.g. It was very hard ...
- 108 verb: be, predicative, past, There as impersonal subject
e.g. There was a ...
- 109 verb: be, predicative, present passive, plural, 1st person
e.g. We are taught ...
- 110 verb: be, predicative, present passive, plural, 3rd person
e.g. ... that are made by...
- 111 verb: be, predicative, present passive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I am called ...
- 112 verb: be, predicative, present passive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. It is called ...
- 113 verb: be, predicative, present progressive, plural, 3rd person
e.g. They are learning ...
- 114 verb: be, predicative, present superlative, singular, 3rd person
e.g. She is the best ...
- 115 verb: be, predicative, present, plural, 1st person
e.g. We are very busy
- 116 verb: be, predicative, present, plural, 3rd person
e.g. They are very prettey.
- 117 verb: be, predicative, present, plural, There as impersonal subject
eg. There are many natural places...
- 118 verb: be, predicative, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I'm forteen years old.
- 119 verb: be, predicative, present, singular, There as impersonal subject
e.g. There is ...
- 120 verb: be, predicative, to-infinitive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I want to be ...
- 121 verb: be, predicative, to-infinitive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. What do you want to be...?
- 122 verb: been, predicative, past perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. I had been ...
- 123 verb: been, predicative, present perfect progressive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I had been running ...
- 124 verb: been, predicative, present perfect progressive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. She had been running ...
- 125 verb: been, predicative, present perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have been to ...

- 126 verb: been, predicative, present perfect, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Have you been to ...?
- 127 verb: complex, intransitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. get home
- 128 verb: complex, be going to, future, singular, 1st person
e.g. I'm going to ...
- 129 verb: complex, be going to, future, singular, 2nd person
e.g. You are going to ...
- 130 verb: complex, be going to, future, singular, 3rd person
e.g. It is going to ...
- 131 verb: complex, be going to, intention, singular, 1st person
e.g. I am going to tell you ...
- 132 verb: complex, be going to, interrogation, future, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Are you going to ...?
- 133 verb: complex, has to, present, singular, 3rd person
e.g. My mother has to ...
- 134 verb: complex, have to, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. You have to ...
- 135 verb: complex, intransitive in a relative clause, present, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... a person that belong to ...
- 136 verb: complex, intransitive, past, singular, 3rd person
e.g. She belonged to ...
- 137 verb: complex, intransitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I belong to ...
- 138 verb: complex, intransitive, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. You belong to ...
- 139 verb: complex, is about to, future, singular, 3rd person
e.g. My school festival is about to start.
- 140 verb: complex, transitive, infinitive, singular, 1st person
(e.g. I will make up ...)
- 141 verb: complex, transitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I listen to ...
- 142 verb: complex, transitive, present, imperative, singular, implied 2nd person
e.g. Look at ...
- 143 verb: complex, have to, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have to ...
- 144 verb: simple, infinitive, plural, 1st person
e.g. ... we will win.
- 145 verb: simple, infinitive, present, imperative included singular 2nd person
e.g. Keep in touch.
- 146 verb: simple, infinitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I can do ...
- 147 verb: simple, infinitive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. What will you do ...?
- 148 verb: simple, infinitive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. What does your father do?
- 149 verb: simple, intransitive, gerund, singular, 3rd person
e.g. She is cooking ...
- 150 verb: complex intransitive, imperative, singular, implied 2nd person
e.g. Come on

- 151 verb: simple, intransitive, imperative, singular, implied 1st person
e.g. Let me see, ...
- 152 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive in a relative clause, singular 3rd person
eg. ... a girl who can run fast.
- 153 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, imperative implied plural, 1st person
e.g. Let's go---
- 154 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, past, plural, 3rd person
e.g. ... many students joined.
- 155 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, past, singular, 1st person
e.g. I didn't enjoy.
- 156 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, plural, 1st person
e.g. Shall we go...?
- 157 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, singular 2nd person
e.g. you can walk....
- 158 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, singular, 1st person
eg. I'll become ...
- 159 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Will you go...?
- 160 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. It will become ...
- 161 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, singular, imperative implied 2nd person
e.g. Don't forget.
- 162 verb: simple, intransitive, past participle, past passive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was surprised.
- 163 verb: simple, intransitive, past participle, past perfect, singular, 3rd person
eg. My father has worked...
- 164 verb: simple, intransitive, past passive, past participle, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was born ...
- 165 verb: simple, intransitive, past perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. ...I had done.
- 166 verb: simple, intransitive, past, past perfect in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... a festival that has started ...
- 167 verb: simple, intransitive, past, plural, 1st person
e.g. We danced ...
- 168 verb: simple, intransitive, past, plural, 3rd person
e.g. Japanese players won gold...
- 169 verb: simple, intransitive, past, singular, 1st person
e.g. I became happy.
- 170 verb: simple, intransitive, past, singular, 2nd person
e.g. ... you came to ...
- 171 verb: simple, intransitive, past, singular, 3rd person
e.g. It became ...
- 172 verb: simple, intransitive, present in if-clause, singular, 2nd person
e.g. If you haven't, ...
- 173 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, present progressive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... my mother who is cooking ...
- 174 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle as postmodifier, singular, 3rd person
e.g. The girl sleeping in bed ...
- 175 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, gerund in a relative clause, singular 1st person
e.g. ... a sister who is very good at running.

- 176 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, gerund, plural, 3rd person
e.g. They are important for running.
- 177 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, gerund, singular 2nd person
e.g. Do you like running?
- 178 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, gerund, singular, 1st person
e.g. I like singing.
- 179 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, gerund, singular, 3rd person
e.g. My favorite sport is swimming.
- 180 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, past progressive in a relative clause, singular 3rd person
e.g. ... a player who was running ...
- 181 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, past progressive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was studying ...
- 182 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, past progressive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. He was sleeping ...
- 183 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, present perfect progressive, singular 1st person
e.g. I have been running ...
- 184 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, present progressive, plural 3rd person
e.g. My favorite sport is running.
- 185 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, present progressive, singular 3rd person
e.g. She is running.
- 186 verb: complex, intransitive, present participle, put on, present progressive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I'm putting on ...
- 187 verb: simple, intransitive, present passive, plural, 3rd person
e.g. ... attractions are held ...
- 188 verb: simple, intransitive, present perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. I've already become ...
- 189 verb: simple, intransitive, present perfect, singular, 3rd person
e.g. She has already become ...
- 190 verb: simple, intransitive, present, plural, 2nd person
e.g. We go ...
- 191 verb: simple, intransitive, present, plural, 3rd person
e.g. My brothers dream ...
- 192 verb: simple, intransitive, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. How do you feel?
- 193 verb: simple, intransitive, present, singular, 3rd person
e.g. Our school begins ...
- 194 verb: simple, intransitive, to-infinitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I want to know ...
- 195 verb: simple, intransitive, to-infinitive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I want to go ...
- 196 verb: simple, intransitive, to-infinitive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. She doesn't like to study.
- 197 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I want to live in ...
- 198 verb: simple, intransitive, infinitive, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Where do you live?
- 199 verb: simple, intransitive, past participle, present perfect in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. ... a girl that have lived in ...
- 200 verb: simple, intransitive, past participle, present perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have lived in ...

- 201 verb: simple, intransitive, past participle, present perfect, singular, 2nd person
e.g. How long have you lived ...?
- 202 verb: simple, intransitive, past, singular, 1st person
e.g. I lived ...
- 203 verb: simple, intransitive, present in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. ... who lives in ...
- 204 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle in a relative clause, present perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. ... a Japanese girl living in ...
- 205 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, present perfect progressive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have been living ...
- 206 verb: simple, intransitive, present passive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... which is loved by ...
- 207 verb: simple, intransitive, present, plural, 3rd person
e.g. ... many people live in ...
- 208 verb: simple, intransitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I live in ...
- 209 verb: simple, intransitive, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. ... you live in ...
- 210 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, present progressive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... earth environment is becoming worse ...
- 211 verb: simple, present participle, intransitive, present progressive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I'm dancing ...
- 212 verb: simple, present participle, transitive, present progressive, plural, 3rd person
e.g. My mother and brother are learning ...
- 213 verb: simple, present participle, transitive, present progressive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I'm calling ...
- 214 verb: simple, to-infinitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I want to become ...
- 215 verb: simple, transitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I choose ...
- 216 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present, singular 1st person
e.g. I can't eat ...
- 217 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, present, singular 1st person
e.g. I want you to eat ...
- 218 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, present, singular 2nd person
e.g. Do you want to eat ...?
- 219 verb: simple, transitive, gerund, singular, 1st person
e.g. I like drawing ...
- 220 verb: simple, transitive, imperative, plural, implied 2nd person
e.g. Let's enjoy ...
- 221 verb: simple, transitive, imperative, singular, implied 1st person
e.g. Let me introduce myself.
- 222 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive in a relative clause, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. ... a subject that we can choose ...
- 223 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. I think that I'll tell you about..
- 224 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. a man who can speak three languages ...
- 225 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive in a that clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was glad that I could use English ...

- 226 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, imperative implied plural, 1st person
e.g. Let's enjoy ...
- 227 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, plural, 1st person
e.g. We must not forget ...
- 228 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, plural, 2nd person
e.g. We can get ...
- 229 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... a teacher that can play ...
- 230 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have never read ...
- 231 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present, imperative included plural 1st person
e.g. Let's read ...
- 232 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present, plural, 3rd person
e.g. ... people don't like ...
- 233 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I could choose ...
- 234 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. How much do you know about ..?
- 235 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, present, singular, 3rd person
e.g. Does your school have ...?
- 236 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, singular 1st person
e.g. I can't wait ...
- 237 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. ... you'll have a good time.
- 238 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ...she won't play catch...
- 239 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, imperative implied singular, 2nd person
e.g. Please replay.
- 240 verb: simple, transitive, past in a relative clause, plural, 3rd person
e.g. The song that I heard was ...
- 241 verb: simple, transitive, past in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ...potteries that ... made.
- 242 verb: simple, transitive, past in a relative clause, singular 1st person
e.g. ... a present that I wanted.
- 243 verb: simple, transitive, past in a relative clause, singular, 2nd person
e.g. ... that you cooked.
- 244 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have shown ...
- 245 verb: simple, transitive, past participle as postmodifier, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... apple pies made by ...
- 246 verb: simple, transitive, past participle in a relative clause, There as impersonal subject
e.g. ... stores which made by ...
- 247 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, past passive in a relative clause, singular 1st person
e.g. ...a book that was written by ...
- 248 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, past passive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was allowed ...
- 249 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, past perfect, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... has just sold ...
- 250 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present passive as postmodifier, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... a folk dance called ...

- 251 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have never seen ...
- 252 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present perfect, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Have you seen ...?
- 253 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present passive in a relative clause, plural, 1st person
e.g. ...that was made by ...
- 254 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present passive in a relative clause, plural, 3rd person
e.g. ...that was made by ...
- 255 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present passive, interrogative as subject
e.g. What is used?
- 256 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present passive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I am called ...
- 257 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present passive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. What are you called?
- 258 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present perfect in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... a city that is visited by ...
- 259 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present perfect in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. ...a book that I have finished ...
- 260 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present perfect, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have read ...
- 261 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present perfect, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Have you ever read ...?
- 262 verb: simple, transitive, past participle as postmodifier, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... a musical named CATS?
- 263 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, present passive, plural, 2nd person
e.g. We are taught ...
- 264 verb: simple, transitive, past passive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ...a signboard which was made by ...
- 265 verb: simple, transitive, past passive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... my nickname which was named by...
- 266 verb: simple, transitive, past, plural, 1st person
e.g. ...we watched ...
- 267 verb: simple, transitive, past, plural 3rd person
e.g. ... my family and my friends said, ...
- 268 verb: simple, transitive, past, plural, 1st person
e.g. We did ...
- 269 verb: simple, transitive, past, plural, 2nd person
e.g. ...we finished dancing...
- 270 verb: simple, transitive, past, singular 3rd person
e.g. my mother said, ...
- 271 verb: simple, transitive, past, singular, 1st person
e.g. I ate ...
- 272 verb: simple, transitive, present in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. The story which I like ...
- 273 verb: simple, transitive, present in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... a Japanese girl who likes...
- 274 verb: simple, transitive, present in an adverbial clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... when we use ...
- 275 verb: simple, transitive, present in an adverbial clause, plural, 1st person
e.g. ... when we have meal.

- 276 verb: simple, transitive, present in an adverbial clause, singular, 2nd person
e.g. ... when you have a long vacation.
- 277 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, be looking forward to, singular, 1st person
e.g. I'm looking forward to seeing ...
- 278 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, gerund, imperative included singular, 1st person
e.g. Thank you for reading.
- 279 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, gerund, plural, 3rd person
e.g. My hobbies are reading.
- 280 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, gerund, singular, 1st person
e.g. I like listening to ...
- 281 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, gerund, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Do you like reading a book?
- 282 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, gerund, singular, 3rd person
e.g. She likes playing ...
- 283 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, look forward to, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I'm looking forward to hearing from you.
- 284 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, past progressive, plural, 1st person
e.g. ... when we were playing catch.
- 285 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, past progressive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I was playing ...
- 286 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, past progressive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. What were you doing yesterday?
- 287 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, present perfect progressive, singular, 2nd person
How long have you been playing ...?
- 288 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, present progressive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
The girl who was playing tennis is ...
- 289 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, present progressive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I'm practicing ...
- 290 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, present progressive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. What are you doing now?
- 291 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, present progressive in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. ...my sister who is watching TV.
- 292 verb: simple, transitive, present participle, present progressive, plural, 2nd person
e.g. What are you studying?
- 293 verb: simple, transitive, present passive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ...that was made by ...
- 294 verb: simple, transitive, present passive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ...this movie is directed by ...
- 295 verb: simple, transitive, present, imperative implied 2nd person
e.g. Please read ...
- 296 verb: simple, transitive, present, imperative, plural, 1st person
e.g. Let's play ...
- 297 verb: simple, transitive, present, plural, 1st person
e.g. We call him ...
- 298 verb: simple, transitive, present, plural, 3rd person
e.g. my friends call me ...
- 299 verb: simple, transitive, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. ... you hope ...
- 300 verb: simple, transitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I have ...

- 301 verb: simple, transitive, present, singular, 2nd person
e.g. ... you prefer...
- 302 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. ...movie that you want to see?
- 303 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. a girl who likes to read books.
- 304 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, present in a relative clause, singular, 1st person
e.g. ...that likes to play tennis.
- 305 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, present in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ...who likes to play golf.
- 306 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. ...the library to borrow books ...
- 307 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, present, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ...it is important to help ...
- 308 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, present, singular, implied 3rd person
e.g. Nice to meet you.
- 309 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I want to draw ...
- 310 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Do you want to have ..?
- 311 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. It is interesting to read ...
- 312 verb: simple, transitive, to-infinitive, singular, to-infinitive as subject
e.g. To study ... is fun.
- 313 verb: simple, transitive, past, singular, 1st person
e.g. I lost ...
- 314 verb: simple, transitive, present passive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... is loved by ...
- 315 verb: simple, transitive, present, singular, 1st person
e.g. I love ...
- 316 verb: simple, transitive, present, singular, 3rd person
e.g. He loves ...
- 317 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, singular, 1st person
e.g. I'll help ...
- 318 verb: simple, transitive, past participle, future passive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... will be held ...
- 319 verb: simple, transitive, past passive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ... was held.
- 320 verb: simple, transitive, present passive in a relative clause, singular, 3rd person
e.g. ...a festival which is held ...
- 321 verb: simple, transitive, present passive, singular, 3rd person
e.g. This festival is held ...
- 322 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Do you know ...?
- 323 verb: simple, intransitive, past, plural, 1st person
e.g. We enjoyed.
- 324 verb: simple, intransitive, present participle, present progressive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. How are you doing?
- 325 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, plural, 2nd person
e.g. We'll enjoy ...
- 326 verb: simple, transitive, infinitive, singular, 2nd person
e.g. Can you play ...?
-

3. prepositions

No.	prep.	a new tag set
1	around	preposition: to many places of an area e.g. Squash is played around the world.
2	about	preposition: what/how about somebody/s e.g. Will you tell me about your friend?
3	as	preposition: comparing things e.g. She is as tall as I.
4	at	preposition: where someone is e.g. Because I study English at school.
5	at	preposition: idiom e.g. Are you good at it?
6	at	preposition: after certain verb e.g. Look at the picture.
7	at	preposition: exactly when something happens e.g. I get up at 5:30.
8	by	preposition: who/what does something e.g. So her songs are written by her.
9	by	preposition: idiom e.g. By the way, which do you like better, English or math?
10	by	preposition: quantity e.g. We won by 43-42.
11	by	preposition: means/method by car etc e.g. *It takes only five hours by airplane
12	during	preposition: certain time, a period e.g. Will you go to travel during winter vacation?
13	for	preposition: thing your feeling are directed towards e.g. Thank you for your time.
14	for	preposition: how long situation continues e.g. I have lived J Tokyo for fourteen years.
15	for	preposition: what the purpose of an object, action is e.g. I studied for my exam.
16	for	preposition: idiom e.g. For example, I can play with people who live in...
17	for	preposition: after certain verbs I'm waiting for your e-mail.
18	for	preposition: because of e.g. I will be stronger for that reason.
19	from	preposition: place of birth/work/live e.g. I am from Tokyo, Japan.
20	from	preposition: sent/given by somebody e.g. From ###.
21	from	preposition: after certain verb e.g. I hope to hear from you soon.
22	from	preposition: origin e.g. ...and he ### idea from books.
23	from	preposition: when something starts e.g. When does it start from?
24	from	preposition: idiom e.g. I'm looking forward to hearing from you.
25	in	preposition: place, or area to say where someone/thing is e.g. I live in Tokyo.
26	in	preposition: months, year etc when something happens e.g. Did you go anywhere in November?

- 27 in preposition: idiom
e.g. Also I'm interested in Western music.
- 28 in preposition: while doing something
e.g. And I want to buy a T-shirts to wear in the games.
- 29 in preposition: how something is done or happens
e.g. **Japan* isn't spoken in *spanish*.
- 30 like preposition: similar to something away
e.g. *She has a lot of hit *song* like love, a...
- 31 of preposition: after certain verbs
e.g. What do you think of my ###?
- 32 of preposition: thing of the general you refer to
e.g. Tokyo is a capital city of Japan.
- 33 of preposition: idiom
e.g. I'm a member of the swimming club.
- 34 of preposition: what group one/more things/people belong to
e.g. I have a family of four.
- 35 of preposition: what a story, picture etc is about
e.g. *This is *picture* of my family.
- 36 on preposition: being broadcast by a radio or television
e.g. Did you watched ### on TV?
- 37 on preposition: on a surface
e.g. *There are four pencil on my desk.
- 38 on preposition: day/date, during a particular day
e.g. I enjoy listening to music on Sundays.
- 39 on preposition: idiom
e.g. *If you will go on a trip.
- 40 on preposition: walking
e.g. **I take on foot and train to go to the school.*
- 41 on preposition: phrasal verb
e.g. **Cloth put on ### and small ###.*
- 42 to preposition: after certain verbs
e.g. I belong to the tennis club.
- 43 to preposition: where someone or something goes
e.g. I went to the park yesterday.
- 44 to preposition: idiom
e.g. I'm looking forward to hearing from you.
- 45 to preposition: what/who an action, etc affects
e.g. It's interesting to me.
- 46 to preposition: who receives told/shown something
e.g. Oh, I'm also going to send a post card to my friends.
- 47 to preposition: when comparing two numbers etc
e.g. The score was 81 to 18.
- 48 with preposition: people are together in the sdme place
e.g. I live in Tokyo with my family.
- 49 with preposition: idiom
e.g. *I think this have to do with religions.
- 50 with not having especially something that is necessary
e.g. I want to see them without caption.
-

References

- Allan, R. (2008). Can a graded reader corpus provide authentic input? *ELT Journal* 63 (1), 23-32.
- Anderson, J C. (1996). Do corpora have a role in language assessment? In Thomas, J A and Short, MH (Eds) *Using corpora for language research*. London: Longman.
- Antle, J. (2013). Frequent adjective + noun collocations for intermediate English language learners. *JALT 2013 Conference Proceedings*, 297-307.
- Araki, K. & Amano, S. (Eds.) (2009). *An Introduction to English Corpora*. Tokyo: Eicho sya phenix.
- Barnes, A., Hines, J. & Weldon, J. (1996). *Have fun vocabulary*. London: Longman.
- Bell, J. & Gower, R. (1988). *Writing course materials for the world: A great compromise*. Materials Development in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bennett, G. (2010). *Using corpora in the language learning classroom*. Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.
- Bolitho, R. (eds.). (2003). Ten questions about language awareness. *ELT Journal* Volume 57/3. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Braxil, D. (1994). *Pronunciation for advanced learners of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching. (4th ed.)*. New Jersey: New York: Pearson Education Co.
- Brown, J. D. (2000). *Understanding research in second language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Burns, A. & Coffin, C. (2000). *Analyzing English in a global context*. New York: Routledge.
- Bygate, M. (1987). *Speaking*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Byrne, D. (1987). *Techniques for classroom interaction*. Essex: Pearson Education Co.
- Carey, J. & Dabor, M. (1995). Management education: an approach to improved English language teaching: *ELT Journal Volume 49/1* January. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Carrier, K. A. (2003). NNS teacher trainees in western-based TESOL programs. *ELT Journal Volume 57/3* July. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Carrier, K. A. (2003). Improving high school English language learner's second language listening through strategy instruction. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 245.
- Carter, R. & McCarthy, M. (1995). Grammar and the spoken language. *Applied Linguistics, Vol. 16*, No.2. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Carter, R. (1986). *Vocabulary: applied linguistic perspectives*. New York: Routledge.
- Carter, R. (2003). Language awareness. *ELT Journal Volume 57/1* January. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (2006). *Cambridge grammar of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Castello, E., Ackerley, K. & Cocchetta F. (eds.). (2015). Towards a longitudinal study of metadiscourse in EFL academic writing. *Studies in Learner Corpus Linguistics*. Bern: Peter Lang AG, International Academic Publishers.
- Conrad, S. (2000). Will corpus linguistics revolutionize grammar teaching in the 21st century? The second North American Symposium on Corpus Linguistics and Language Teaching, Flagstaff, Arizona, April 2000.

- Coulthard, M. (1992a). *Advances in spoken discourse analysis*. New York: Pearson Longman Publishing.
- Coulthard, M. (1992b). *An introduction to discourse analysis*. London: Longman.
- David, R. H. & Hewing, A. (2001). *Innovation in English language teaching*. New York: Routledge.
- Diaz-Negrillo., A., Ballier, N & Thompson, P. (2013). *Automatic treatment and analysis of learner corpus data*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Co.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Goldsmith, W. & Clutterbuck, D. (1984). *The winning streak*. London: Wiedenfield and Nicholson.
- Granger, S. (2002). A bird's-eye view of learner corpus research. Computer learner corpora, second language acquisition and foreign language teaching. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Granger, S., Gliquin, G. & Meunier, F. (2015). *Learner corpus research*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of language teaching*. New York: Pearson Education ESL.
- Harmer, J. (2003). Popular culture, method, and context. *ELT Journal Volume 57/3 July*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hunston, S. (2002). *Corpora in applied linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Huston, S., & Francis, G. (1998). Verbs observed: a corpus-driven pedagogic grammar. *Applied Linguistics 19/1*: 45-72. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hutchinson, T., & Torres, E. (1994a). The textbook as agent of change. *ELT Journal* 48, 323.

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1994b). The textbook as agent of change. *ELT Journal*, 48, 327.

Hutchinson, T., & Torres, E. (1994). The textbook as agent of change. *ELT Journal Volume 48/4*, 315-328.

Jackson, A. & Jackson A. (1992). *Elementary grammar worksheets*. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Jaworski, A. & Coupland, N. (1999). *The discourse reader*. New York: Routledge.

Jenning, K. & Doyle, T. (1996). *Curriculum innovation, teamwork and the management of change*. Oxford: Macmillan.

Johns, T. (1991). Should you be persuaded: Two samples of data-driven learning materials (pp.1-13). *ELT Journal Vol. 4*:1-16.

Jones, J. F. (1995). Self-access and culture: retreating from autonomy. *ELT Journal Volume 49/3* July. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kashiwagi, T. (2010). Gakusyusha koupasu no dousibunseki to be dousi no kajyousiyoukaizen eno hitotsu no sian. (A study on verbal usage in a learner corpus and suggestions for remedying overuse of the copula). *LET Ktushu-Okinawa bulletin (10)*, 15-27.

Kennedy, G. (1998). *An introduction to corpus linguistics*. New York: Routledge.

Kimura, M. (2010). Hinshirensa wo motiita dainigengo hattatsu shihyou no tokutei no kokoromi. (Applying pos tag sequences to the search for L2 developmental indices). *Journal of Educational Research 10*, 39-46.

Kimura, M. (2010). Nihonjin daigakusei no eigo essei ni motodoku gakusyusya koupasu no kouchiku to bunseki no itirei -deita no kisojyouhou to neitibu supiiikaa tono

naiyogobunpu no sai- (Constructing and analyzing a learner corpus of Japanese university students' English essays: basic information of the data and comparisons with English native speakers' POS proportions. *Studies in Foreign Language Teaching*, Dokkyo University (28), 51-68.

Kimura, M. (2007). Gakusyusha to kyozuikan gakusyusha koutasu wo kiso deita toshita kyozuizai no igi. *JAFLE bulletin*, 90-96.

Kobayashi, T. (2005). Gakusyusha koutasu wo riyousita korokeishon no bunseki-doushi "have" no kyoukihyougen wo cyuusin ni. *English Corpus Studies* (12), 53-66.

Lamb, M. (1995). The consequences of inset. *ELT Journal Volume 49/1* January. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Leech, G. & Svartvik, J. (2002). *A communicative grammar of English. (3rd ed.)*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Leech, G. & Svartvik, J. (2013). *A communicative grammar of English*. Routledge.

Leech, G. (1997). Teaching and language corpora: A convergence. *In Teaching and Language Corpora Vol 123*.

Leech, G., Rayson P. & Wilson, A. (2001). *Word frequencies in written and spoken English*. London: Pearson Education Limited.

Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (1999). *How language are learned. (2nd ed.)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Macpherson, S. (2003). The short intensive teacher-training course. *ELT Journal Volume 57/3* July. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Malah-Thomas, A. (1987). *Classroom interaction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

McCarthy, M. (1990). *Vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse analysis for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M., McCarten, J. & Sandiford, H. (2005). *Touchstone series*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McEnery, T. & Wilson, A. (1996). *Corpus Linguistics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Mindt, D. (1996). *English corpus linguistics and the foreign language teaching syllabus*. London: Longman
- Moon, R. E. (1994). *The analysis of fixed expressions in texts*. London: Routledge.
- Nation, P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nesselhauf, N. (2004). *Collocations in a learner corpus*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Nomura, M. (2009). Nihonjin eigo gakusyusha no sansyutu moudo no tigai ni yoru genngotokutyō no bunnseki – tyugaku/koukoudankai no gakusyūsha ni shouten wo atete. *Shikoku Eigo Kyouiku Gakkai Kiyō* (29), 15-24.
- Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1998). *Learner centered curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Odlin, T. (1994). *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Peters, T. J, & Waterman, R. H. (1982). *In search of excellence*. New York: HarperBusiness.

- Reda, G. (2003). English coursebooks: prototype texts and basic vocabulary norms. *ELT Journal Volume 57/3* July 2003. Oxford University Press.
- Richards J. C (1998). *Beyond training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. & Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective learning teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. & Nunan, D. (1990). *Second language teacher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching. (2nd ed.)*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. (1998). *Beyond training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, L. C., & Hino, N. (1983). Training esol teachers: The need for needs assessment. *Applied linguistics and the preparation of second language teachers: Toward a rationale*. Washington, D.C: Georgetown University Press.
- Romer, U. (2006). Pedagogical applications of corpora: some reflections on the current scope and a wish list for future developments. *Zeitschrift fur anglistik und amerikanistik* 54 (2), 121-134.
- Sato, T. (2008). Tyuugakusei no goisidou ni kansuru jisshoutekikenkyu eraabunnseki wo tooshite. *Hirosaki Daigaku Kyouikugakubu fuzoku Kyouiku Jissen center Kennkyuu Kiyuu* (6), 41-48.
- Sheldon, L. (1988). Evaluating ELT textbooks and materials. *ELT Journal*, 42 (4).
- Simpson, R. & Swales, J. (2001). *Corpus linguistics in North America. Selections from the 1999 symposium*. Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.
- Sinclair, J. & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sinclair, J. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Stephenson, H. (1994). Management and participation in ELT projects. *ELT Journal Volume 48/3* July. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Swan, M. (1997). *Practical English usage. (2nd ed.)* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Taylor, L. (1993). *Pronunciation in action*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Thounbury, S. (1999). *How to teach grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Timmis, I. (2015). *Corpus linguistics for ELT: research and practice*. New York: Routledge.
- Tono, Y. (2003). *Hyakugo de sutaato eikaiwa. (Start English conversation by 100 words.)*. NHK Press.
- Tono, Y. (2004). *Coupasu coa hyougen maruoboe CD. (Corpus core expressions for learning CD.)*. Alc Press.
- Tono, Y. (2007). *Nihonjin chukosei 10000 nin no eigo corpus*. Tokyo: Shogakukan [*JEFLC corpus: A corpus of 10,000 Japanese EFL learners*].
- Tono, Y. (2008). *Coupasu rensyuuchou paafekuto. (Corpus drill book perfect)*. Tokyo: NHK Press.
- Watcyn-Jones, P. (1993). *Vocabulary Games and Activities for Teachers*. London. Penguin Books.
- Willis, J & Willis, D (Eds.). (1996). *Challenge and change in language teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- White, R. (1988). *The ELT curriculum*. Oxford. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- White, R., Martin, M. & Stimson, M. (eds.). (1991). *Management in English language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Wichmann, A. & Fligelstone, S. (1997). *Teaching and language corpora*. London. Longman.
- William, J. (1991). *Teaching English through English*. London. Longman.
- William, L. (1981). *Communicative language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Williams, M. & Burden, R. (1994). The role of evaluation in ELT project design. *ELT Journal Volume 48/1* January. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Willis, D. (2003). *Rules, patterns and words*. Grammar and lexis in English language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Willis, J. (1990). *The lexical syllabus*. London: Collins Cobuild.
- Woodward, T. (2003). Loop input. *ELT Journal Volume 57/3* July. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Internet Resources

- Anthony, L. (2014). AntConc 3.3.4. Retrieved from <http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc/releases/>
- Garside, R. (1987). *The CLAWS word-tagging system*. CLAWS 7 Retrieved from ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/claws7tags.html
- Haslerud, V., & Stenstrom, A.B. (1995). The Bergen Corpus of London Teenager Language. (COLT). *Spoken English on computer*. Retrieved from <http://www.hd.uib.no/colt>
- Scott, M. (1997). Word Smith. Retrieved from <http://lexically.net/wordsmith/>

Dictionaries

Collins, C.O.B.U.I. L.D. (1998). English dictionary.

Courtney, R. (1984). Longman new junior English dictionary.

Klotz, M. (2003). Oxford collocation dictionary for students of English.

Sinclair, J.M. (Ed.). (1989) Cobuild English learner's dictionary.

Summers, D. (2000). Longman phrasal verbs dictionary.

Tono, Y. (2008). Sanseido's ace crown English-Japanese dictionary.

Walter, E. (Ed.). (2004) Cambridge learner's dictionary.

Japanese English Textbooks for Junior High Schools

Mastuhata, S. & Sano, M. (eds.). (2012). Sunshine (Book 1-3). Tokyo: Kairyudo.

Yada, H. & Yoshida, K. (eds.). (2013). Total English (Book 1-3). Tokyo: Gakko Tosho.

Kasajima, J. & Seki, N. (eds.). (2013). New Horizon (Book 1-3). Tokyo: Tokyo Shoseki.

Takahashi, S. & Negishi, M. (eds.). (2012). New Crown (Book 1-3). Tokyo: Sanseido.

Matsumoto, S. & Ishizuka, H. (eds.). (2013). One World (Book 1-3). Tokyo: Kyoiku Shuppan.

Tohgo, K. & Newell, A. (eds.). (2013). Columbus (Book 1-3). Tokyo: Mitsumura Tosho.

MEXT references

MEXT. (2002). Tsyuugakkou gakusyuu shidou youryou eigo. (English curriculum of the lower secondary schools.

MEXT. (2003). Eigo ga tsukaeru nihonjin no ikusei no tameno senryaku .(The action plan of cultivatin "japanese with english ability."

MEXT. (2013). Groubaruka ni taishoshita eigo kyouiku kaikaku jishi keikaku ni tsuite (The implecation plan of English educational innovation).

MEXT.(2016). Kyouiku jishi joukyou chousa. (The status of the implementation of English education).