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The Effects of Reading Stories Aloud with Word Instruction on Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract

This study investigated the effects of reading stories aloud repeatedly with word instruction in L1 or L2 on EFL children's vocabulary learning. Four classes of fifth-grade children (in total 100 children) participated in the study. Two classes listened to four English stories with word instruction in Chinese (L1 Word Instruction Group), and the other two listened to the same four stories with word instruction in English (L2 Word Instruction Group). Based on their scores on the English final examination in the previous semester, the participants in each group were further divided into the higher proficiency and the lower proficiency subgroups. One week before the treatments, a receptive vocabulary pretest was administered. Then there were four learning sessions within the following four weeks, one session per week. In each session, each group listened to one story read aloud three times and received word instruction in L1 or L2 twice. At the end of each session, the participants took a productive vocabulary posttest and then a receptive vocabulary posttest. The results showed that L1 Word Instruction Group performed significantly better on the receptive vocabulary posttest than L2 Word Instruction Group. On the other hand, L2 Word Instruction Group significantly outperformed L1 Word Instruction Group on the productive vocabulary posttest. Moreover, whether L1 or L2 was used for word instruction, higher proficiency children performed better than lower proficiency children in both receptive and productive vocabulary learning. Finally, there was a significant interaction effect between students' proficiency levels and the languages used for word instruction in productive vocabulary learning. That is, though L2 word instruction was more effective than L1 word instruction in helping all the participants increase productive vocabulary, the higher proficiency children benefited more from L2 word instruction in productive vocabulary learning than the lower proficiency children. The findings of the study suggest that word instruction in L1 is more effective than word instruction in L2 in facilitating receptive vocabulary learning, while word instruction in L2 seems to make greater contribution to EFL children's productive vocabulary learning than word instruction in L1. Furthermore, higher proficiency children seem to benefit more from L2 word instruction than lower proficiency children in productive vocabulary learning.

Key Words: reading stories aloud, word instruction, vocabulary learning

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is one of the fundamental elements for mastering a language. Prior research has indicated that vocabulary knowledge is highly correlated with children's reading ability (Grabe, 1991; Scarborough, 2005), reading comprehension (Chall & Jacobs, 1983; Davis, 1968), verbal intelligence (Anderson & Freebody, 1981;

Sternberg & Powell, 1983) and even overall academic achievement at school (Dickson, 2001; Wells, 1986). As the importance of vocabulary knowledge has been recognized, various approaches have been used to facilitate vocabulary learning. Vocabulary knowledge can be enhanced by teachers' direct word instruction (Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown, 1982; White, Graves, & Slater, 1990), by classroom discussions (Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986) or by incidental exposure to written or oral context (Eller, Papas, & Brown, 1988; Jenkins, Stein, & Wysocki, 1984). Among the teaching approaches and techniques, listening to stories has been recommended as one of the effective activities for developing learners' language skills and vocabulary knowledge.

Many empirical studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of listening to stories on learners' vocabulary acquisition (Blok, 1999; Karweit & Wasik, 1996; Nicholson & Whyte, 1992; Stahl, Richek, & Vandevier, 1991). Although these studies vary in terms of participants' background, the times of story reading, the number of target words and the types of measurements, their findings all suggest that children can acquire novel words from listening to stories.

However, it has been revealed that some variables influence vocabulary acquisition during the process of listening to stories. For example, some research suggested that the frequency of exposure to unfamiliar words could be positively associated with the size of children's vocabulary acquisition. The findings of Robbins and Ehri (1994) revealed that novel words that occurred twice in a storybook were more likely to be acquired than those words that only appeared once. Similarly, Biemiller and Boote (2006) indicated that children gained more vocabulary when they listened to a story four times than when they listened to a story two times.

Moreover, Robbins and Ehri (1994) found that children with larger vocabulary knowledge made greater word gains from listening to stories than children with smaller vocabulary knowledge. The study of Sénéchal, Thomas and Monker (1995) also revealed that children with larger vocabularies could comprehend and produce more target words than children with smaller vocabularies. The results of these studies implied that children's initial proficiency levels were correlated with the amount of vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories.

In addition to the frequency of exposure and a learner's initial proficiency level, word instruction on novel words has been identified as another key variable to affect children's vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories. Elley (1989) and Penno et al. (2002) provided the empirical evidence that children who listened to stories with word explanations made greater word gains than those who listened to stories without word explanations. Furthermore, some research showed that when low proficiency students were provided with word explanations while listening to stories, they could

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perform as well as high proficiency students who received the same word explanations, or they could even perform better than high proficiency students who were not provided with word explanations during the process of listening to stories (Collins, 2005; Coyne, Simmons, Kame'enui & Stoolmiller, 2004).

Although previous studies have indicated the beneficial effects of listening to stories with word instruction on children's vocabulary acquisition, most of the participants in the studies mentioned above are native English speakers or ESL learners, and they received word instruction in English. For EFL learners in Taiwan, they have limited exposure to English and fewer opportunities to listen to storybooks in English than native speakers. If the EFL learners in Taiwan get word instruction in English (L2), will they perform as well as native speakers or ESL learners in the previous studies? Or is it more appropriate for these EFL learners to get word instruction in their native language (L1)? So far, there is no research comparing the effect of L1 word instruction with that of L2 word instruction on children's vocabulary acquisition in the context of listening to stories. However, there has been controversy over whether or not learners' native language should be used to teach a target language.

Auerbach (1993) and Cummins (1984) claimed that the learner's native language had some benefits on target language learning, such as reducing affective filters, linking background knowledge and target language acquisition. Schweers (1999) reported that 88.7 percent of the students and teachers believed that teachers' explanations in L1 helped to enhance the learning of the target language. Moreover, Strohmeyer and McGrail (1988) found that the students were able to improve their writing in L2 when they were provided with explanations in L1. Similarly, Ulanoff and Pucci (1999) found that explanations of novel vocabulary in L1 (Spanish) facilitated the learners' L2 (English) vocabulary acquisition.

On the other hand, other researchers argued for the importance of using the target language (TL) in L2 instruction. Lee and VanPatten (2003) emphasized that for students to gain in the target language proficiency, teachers need to use TL as much as possible during classroom instruction. Turnbull (1999) provided empirical evidence that there was a positive connection between teachers' use of TL and students' general TL proficiency. Similarly, Burstall, Jamieson, Cohen, and Hargreaves (1974) found that students who received instruction in TL got higher scores on tests of oral fluency in the TL than students who received instruction in L1. Furthermore, Wolf (1977) found that the frequency of using L1 in TL instruction had a negative impact on students' test scores of reading and listening comprehension in the TL.

Therefore, this study was proposed to investigate the effects of repeatedly listening to stories with word instruction in L1 or L2 on Taiwanese EFL children's

vocabulary learning. The learning effects were examined in terms of gains in both receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge (i.e., learning of word meaning and oral production of the target word). There were three research purposes. First of all, the researchers attempted to investigate whether there were differences in receptive vocabulary learning between children receiving word instruction in L1 and children receiving word instruction in L2 while listening to stories. The second purpose was to examine whether children receiving word instruction in L1 would perform differently from children receiving word instruction in L2 on the productive vocabulary test. Lastly, the study was conducted to clarify how children with different English proficiency levels would react to the word instruction in L1 and L2.

METHOD

Participants

Approximately 100 EFL children were selected from four fifth-grade classes in the same elementary school in Taipei County. Theses four classes were selected based on their English teacher's recommendation. According to the English teacher, these four classes were nearly equivalent in terms of their English proficiency. They have received English formal instruction in school for two years. To examine the effects of languages used for word instruction, two classes were randomly assigned to L1 Word Instruction Group ($n = 50$), and the other two classes were assigned to L2 Word Instruction Group ($n = 50$). However, both groups were taught by the same instructor, i.e., one of the researchers conducting this study. L1 Word Instruction Group received word instruction in Chinese, while L2 Word Instruction Group received word instruction in English. Children in each group were further divided into a higher proficiency subgroup and a lower proficiency subgroup based on the mean score of the English final examination in the preceding semester. The mean score calculated for the four classes was 80.25. If children's scores on the final English examination were higher than the mean score, they were categorized into the higher proficiency subgroups; on the other hand, if children's scores were lower than the mean score, they were categorized into the lower proficiency subgroups. Table 1 shows the number of children in each word instruction group and each proficiency subgroup.

Table 1 *The Number of Participants in Each Group and Subgroup*

Group	Subgroup	n
L1 Word Instruction	Higher Proficiency Level	27
	Lower Proficiency Level	23
	Total	50
L2 Word Instruction	Higher Proficiency Level	30
	Lower Proficiency Level	20
	Total	50
Total		100

Selection of the Storybooks

Three criteria were used to choose appropriate storybooks for participants in this study. First of all, the books needed to contain colorful illustrations that would appeal to children. Secondly, based on the teaching experience of the researchers, the text would not be difficult for fifth-grade students to comprehend. Thirdly, the instructor of this teaching experiment had to enjoy the book herself so that she could read aloud the stories to children enthusiastically. Based on the selection criteria, four picture books were selected: *If You Give a Pig a Pancake* by Laura Numeroff (2002), *Joseph Had a Little Overcoat* by Simms Taback (1999), *There was an Alligator under My Bed* by Mercer Mayer (1987), and *Where the Wild Things are* by Maurice Sendak (1993). Then, before the study was conducted, these four storybooks were pilot tested with six fifth-graders who did not participate in this study. They responded that these books were interesting and were not difficult to comprehend.

Selection of Target Words

Five words from each of the four picture books were selected as the target words in this study. A total of twenty target words were selected (see Table 2). All these target words were required to meet the following criteria. First, all of these 20 target words are content words, including nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Second, they were unfamiliar and unknown to the participants in this study. After the researchers of the study selected 20 target words from the four stories, these 20 words were tested with 30 fifth-grade students who were not participants in this study. In this pilot test, the students were asked to write the meaning of each target word in Chinese. The results showed that none of these 20 words could be recognized by these children.

Table 2 *The Target Words of Each Picture Book*

Titles of Books	Target Words
If You Give a Pig a Pancake	closet, decorate, nail, suitcase, syrup
Joseph Had a Little Overcoat	button, chorus, fasten, overcoat, worn
There's an Alligator under My Bed	bait, crawl, garage, mess, slam
Where the Wild Things are	claw, frightened, roar, sail, supper

Research Procedure

An experimental design was used to assess the effects of reading stories aloud with word instruction in L1 or L2 on elementary school children's vocabulary learning. This experiment lasted for around five weeks. One week before the experiment, a multiple-choice vocabulary test was administered to all the participants to assess their receptive vocabulary knowledge of target words. Four stories were read aloud with word instruction during the following four weeks. In each week, it took about thirty minutes for each group to listen to one story three times and receive word instruction twice. At the end of each story reading session, the participants took the productive vocabulary posttest and then the receptive vocabulary posttest. Furthermore, since the researchers were interested in finding out whether the treatments would affect students' comprehension of the stories as well as vocabulary learning, the students were asked to answer some comprehension questions after taking the receptive vocabulary posttest.

Two different treatments were implemented in the study. Though both groups listened to the same four stories, children in L1 Word Instruction Group listened to each story three times with word instruction in Chinese (L1) twice. On the other hand, children in L2 Word Instruction Group listened to each story three times with word instruction in English (L2) twice. At the first time of story reading, the instructor merely read aloud the story and showed the illustrations in the book to children. At the second and the third time of story reading, the instructor not only read aloud the story to children but also elaborated on the meanings of target words.

In the group of receiving word instruction in L1, each target word was explained by providing (1) a Chinese translation (e.g. crawl: 爬; 身體貼在地上緩慢移動), (2) a short statement containing the target word (e.g. 嬰兒在地上 crawl), (3) body gestures and (4) a matched illustration. By contrast, in the group of receiving word instruction in L2, each target word was explained in English by (1) using an understandable definition (e.g. crawl: to move slowly with the body near the ground), (2) a short statement containing the target word (e.g. The baby crawls on the floor.), (3) body gestures and (4) a matched illustration. Immediately after the third time of story reading, a productive vocabulary posttest and a receptive vocabulary posttest on the

five target words in the story were administered to assess whether children learn vocabulary differently from receiving different treatments. Figure 1 shows the research procedure.
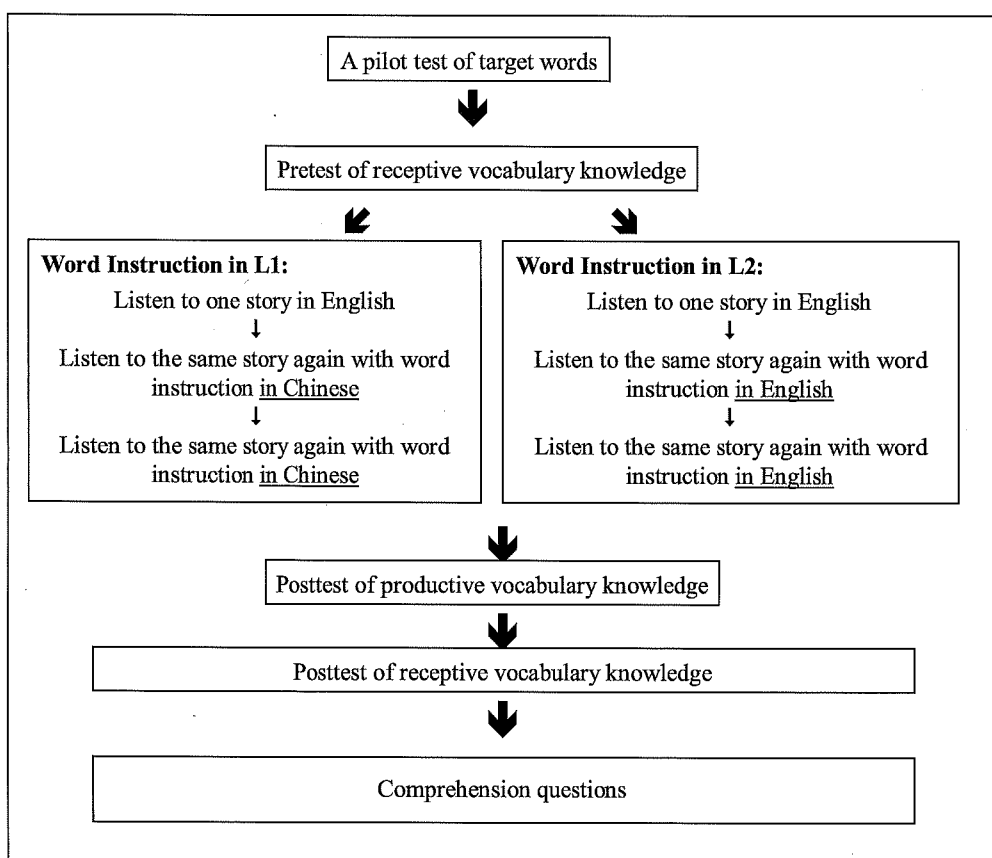

Figure 1. The flow chart of the research procedure.

Vocabulary Pretest and Posttests

Receptive vocabulary pretest. A multiple-choice test was used to assess the participants' receptive vocabulary knowledge of the target words before the treatments. In this receptive vocabulary test, there were totally 28 items; 20 items were the target words and 8 additional words (i.e., bed, boy, cat, candy, eye, ice cream, pig and shoe), which children had been familiar with. These 8 extra words were included in the test to build their confidence to finish the tests. To make sure every participant understood how to complete the test, the instructor used an example item printed in the beginning of the test to explain the testing procedure. In each item, an underlined word was presented, and each child would be required to choose the appropriate meaning of each underlined word from four illustrations. As to the other

three foil options, they are words categorically related, thematically related or phonological related to the target word. Take the target word "chorus" as an example; "orchestra" is categorically related, "piano" is thematically related, and "coach" is phonological related to it (See Appendix A for some sample items on the receptive vocabulary pretest). The total score of the receptive vocabulary pretest was 20 for the 20 target words without including the 8 additional words.

Productive vocabulary posttest. No productive vocabulary pretest was conducted because the pilot test had shown that none of these target words were known by the fifth-grade children and thus it was unlikely that they would be able to produce these words. The productive vocabulary posttest was administered before the receptive vocabulary posttest to avoid the situation in which the participants might enhance their memory of some target words during the process of taking the receptive vocabulary test. Thus, after listening to each story, the participants were required to recall the target words on the productive vocabulary posttest first. During the productive vocabulary test, the instructor showed each child the pictures of target words and asked the child questions related to the pictures (See Appendix B for some sample items on the productive vocabulary test). These pictures were the same as the illustrations used in the receptive vocabulary posttest. For example, the instructor pointed to the referent picture and asked the children in both English and Chinese (e.g., "What is the baby doing?" "這個嬰兒在做什麼?") to ensure their understanding of each question. The children needed to provide an answer with either a sentence "The baby is crawling." or the target word "crawl." Children's responses were scored as follows: "know" (score: 2), "possibly know" (score: 1), or "not know" (score: 0). If children answered the target word correctly, they were regarded as "know". If children answered the question after the instructor provided extra cues in Chinese, such as "C 開頭的單字形容這個嬰兒的動作" they were regarded as "possibly know" (score: 1). If children were unable to answer the question, they were regarded as "not know" (score: 0). Thus, the maximum score of the productive vocabulary posttest was 40 as there were 20 questions related to the 20 target words. Besides, during the productive vocabulary posttest, no corrective feedback was given to disturb children's responses, but all the children received praise so that they would feel encouraged to complete the test.

Receptive vocabulary posttest. After the productive vocabulary posttest, the same 28 items on the receptive vocabulary pretest were used again to evaluate children's receptive vocabulary knowledge. In the receptive vocabulary posttest, the format and the foil options were the same as the receptive vocabulary pretest, but the order of these items was different from that of the pretest. In addition, to prevent the participants from memorizing the pictures used in word instruction rather than the

meanings or the pronunciations of the target words, the corresponding illustration of each target word used in this test and the pretest was different from the illustration used for word instruction. Like the pretest, each item on each target word was worth one point, so the total score of the receptive vocabulary posttest was 20.

Story comprehension questions. To know whether using different languages for word instruction would affect students' comprehension of stories, some comprehension questions were administered following the receptive vocabulary posttest. There were three story comprehension questions for each storybook (See Appendix C for some sample comprehension questions). Each question has one point, so the total score of the comprehension questions was 12.

Data Analysis

This study was intended to investigate the following questions: (1) Will children receiving word instruction in L1 perform differently from children receiving word instruction in L2 on the receptive vocabulary posttest? (2) Will children receiving word instruction in L1 perform differently from children receiving word instruction in L2 on the productive vocabulary posttest? (3) Will children with different proficiency levels benefit differentially from their treatments in terms of their receptive and productive vocabulary learning? To answer these three questions, a two-way ANOVA was conducted twice. At the first time, children's scores on the receptive vocabulary posttest served as the dependent variable. The main effect of languages used for word instruction, the main effect of proficiency levels, and the possible interaction effect between these two independent variables on the receptive vocabulary posttest scores were examined. At the second time, children's productive vocabulary posttest scores served as the dependent variable. The main effect of languages used for word instruction, the main effect of proficiency levels, and the possible interaction effect between these two independent variables on the productive vocabulary posttest scores were examined. The results of these two analyses can reveal whether providing word instruction in L1 or L2 was more effective in helping children gain receptive and productive vocabulary, whether children's proficiency levels influenced their word gains, and whether children with different proficiency levels benefited differentially from different treatments while listening to stories.

RESULTS

The Participants' Performance on the Receptive Vocabulary Pretest

The receptive vocabulary pretest was administered to assess the participants' prior knowledge of the 20 target words before the treatments. An independent samples t-test was conducted to determine whether the two treatment groups were significantly different before the experiment in terms of their prior knowledge of the target words. The results showed that there was no significant difference between these two groups (t =1.225, p > .05). In addition, the mean scores of both groups were very low, which indicates that the participants in either group had very limited knowledge about the 20 target words prior to the study.

Table 3 *The Results of the Independent Samples T-test on the Vocabulary Pretest Scores*

	n	Mean	SD	t-value
L1 Word Instruction Group	50	1.40	0.548	1.225
L2 Word Instruction Group	50	1.00	0.000	
Total	100	1.20	0.327	

The Participants' Performance on the Receptive Vocabulary Posttest

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the performance of the children from the two groups on the receptive vocabulary posttest. Table 4 shows the two-way ANOVA results on the participants' receptive vocabulary posttest scores. The results showed that children receiving word instruction in L1 performed significantly better than children receiving word instruction in L2 on the receptive vocabulary test (F(1, 96) = 46.034, p<.001).

Table 4 *The Results of the two-way ANOVA on the Receptive Vocabulary Posttest Scores*

	SS	df	MS	F
Languages Used for Word Instruction (A)	85.929	1	85.929	46.034***
Initial Proficiency Level (B)	39.847	1	39.847	21.347***
A×B	.472	1	.472	.253
Error	179.198	96	1.867	

*** p<.001

Moreover, the results of two-way ANOVA showed that the main effect of proficiency levels was also significant (F(1, 96) = 21.347, p < .001). In other words,

regardless of what language was used for word instruction, the two higher proficiency subgroups performed significantly better on the receptive vocabulary posttest than the two lower proficiency subgroups. Table 5 displays the mean scores of the four subgroups on the receptive vocabulary posttest.

Table 5 *Subgroup Means of the Receptive Vocabulary Posttest Scores*

Group	Subgroup	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*
Word Instruction in L1	Higher Proficiency Level	27	19.70	.724
	Lower Proficiency Level	23	18.57	1.343
	Total	50	19.18	1.190
Word Instruction in L2	Higher Proficiency Level	30	17.97	1.351
	Lower Proficiency Level	20	16.55	1.959
	Total	50	17.40	1.750
	Higher Proficiency Level	57	18.79	1.389
	Lower Proficiency Level	43	17.63	1.928
	Total	100	18.29	1.737

However, the interaction effect between proficiency levels and languages used for word instruction was not significant on the receptive vocabulary posttest ($F(1, 96) = 0.253, p > .05$).

Participants' Performance on the Productive Vocabulary Posttest

Another two-way ANOVA was conducted to analyze the participants' scores on the productive vocabulary posttest. Table 6 shows the two-way ANOVA results on the productive vocabulary posttest scores. First of all, the results revealed that the main effect of languages used for word instruction was significant ($F(1, 96) = 47.387, p < .001$). That is, children in L2 Word Instruction Group performed significantly better on the productive vocabulary test than children in L1 Word Instruction Group.

Table 6 *The Results of the Two-way ANOVA on the Productive Vocabulary Test Scores*

	SS	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Languages Used for Word Instruction (A)	1073.746	1	1073.746	47.387***
Initial Proficiency Level (B)	2277.098	1	2277.098	100.494***
A×B	188.054	1	188.054	8.299***
Error	2175.275	96	22.659	

*** *p*<.001

Secondly, the main effect of proficiency levels was significant ($F(1, 96) = 100.494, p < .001$). The results of the two-way ANOVA indicated that children with

higher proficiency performed significantly better on the productive vocabulary posttest than children with lower proficiency. Table 7 shows the mean scores of four subgroups on the productive vocabulary test. The scores show that the higher proficiency children in both groups scored higher on the productive vocabulary test than the lower proficiency children.

Table 7 *Subgroup Means of the Productive Vocabulary Test Scores*

Group	Subgroup	*n*	*Mean*	*SD*
Word Instruction in L1	Higher Proficiency Level	27	12.93	5.519
	Lower Proficiency Level	23	6.04	4.172
	Total	50	9.76	5.999
Word Instruction in L2	Higher Proficiency Level	30	22.33	4.866
	Lower Proficiency Level	20	9.90	4.064
	Total	50	17.36	7.634
	Higher Proficiency Level	57	17.88	6.990
	Lower Proficiency Level	43	7.84	4.514
	Total	100	13.56	7.826

Third, the interaction effect between the proficiency level and the languages for word instruction was significant ($F(1, 96) = 8.299$, $p < .001$). As shown in Figure 2, regardless of the languages used for word instruction, the higher proficiency children could produce more target words than the lower proficiency children. That is, the initial proficiency level had an influential role in productive vocabulary learning. In addition, the word instruction in L2 seemed to be more effective than the word instruction in L1 in increasing children's productive vocabulary. Finally, there was a significant interaction effect between the participants' proficiency levels and the languages used for word instruction in productive vocabulary learning. Though both higher proficiency children and lower proficiency children benefited more from the word instruction in L2 than the word instruction in L1 in productive vocabulary learning, the higher proficiency children seemed to benefit more from the word instruction in L2 than the lower proficiency children.
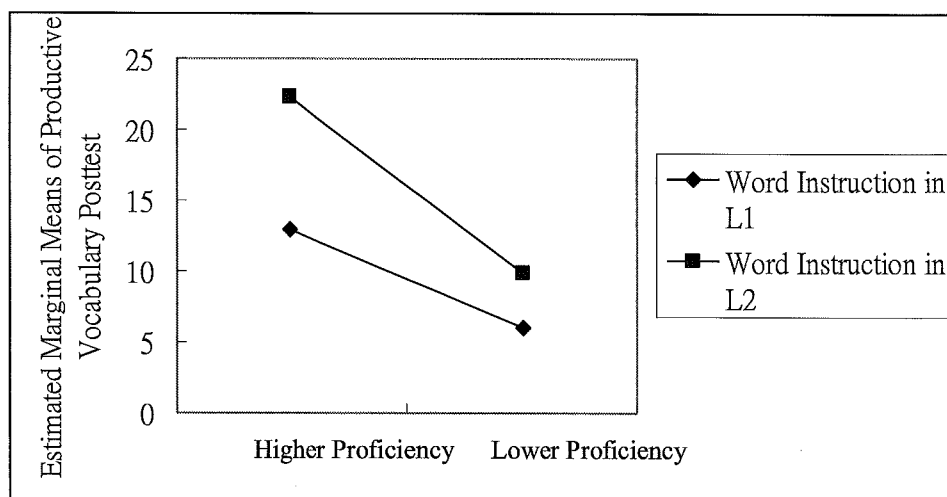
Figure 2. The higher proficiency children's and the lower proficiency children's performances on the productive vocabulary test.

The Effect of Languages Used for Word Instruction on Story Comprehension

In order to know how well children understand stories after listening to stories with word instruction in L1 or L2, their scores on the reading comprehension questions were analyzed as the dependent variable for an independent samples t-test (see Table 8). The results showed that there was no significant difference between these two groups ($t = 1.667, p > .05$). That is, although L1 instruction group performed differently from L2 instruction group in receptive and productive vocabulary learning, the languages used for word instruction had no differential effects on story comprehension.

Table 8 *The Results of the Independent Samples T-test on the Comprehension Scores*

	n	*Mean*	*SD*	*t-value*
L1 Word Instruction Group	50	9.64	2.097	
L2 Word Instruction Group	50	8.92	2.221	1.667
Total	100	9.28	2.159	

DISCUSSION

The present study generated three main findings. First, children receiving word instruction in L1 performed significantly better than children receiving word instruction in L2 on the receptive vocabulary posttest. Second, children receiving

word instruction in L2 performed significantly better than children receiving word instruction in L1 on the productive vocabulary posttest. Third, children's initial proficiency levels affected their receptive and productive vocabulary learning from listening to stories. In both receptive and productive vocabulary learning, the higher proficiency children performed significantly better than the lower proficiency children. In addition, there was a significant interaction effect between students' proficiency levels and the languages used for word instruction in productive vocabulary learning.

The first finding of the present study suggests that word instruction in L1 is more effective than word instruction in L2 for children to learn receptive vocabulary from listening to stories. To gain receptive vocabulary, the participants had to recognize the meaning of each target word. When they received word instruction in L1, it was easier for them to understand the word meanings and memorize the connection between word meanings and target words in the L1 context than the L2 context. That is, word instruction in L1 is more helpful for EFL children to increase receptive vocabulary than word instruction in L2. This finding is also in accordance with the study of Ulanoff and Pucci (1999), who found that elaborations of target words in L1 contributed to receptive vocabulary learning. Similarly, Piasecka (1988) and Auerbach (1993) suggested that L1 had its important role in teaching L2 vocabulary.

The second finding of the study indicates that word instruction in L2 is more facilitative than word instruction in L1 in productive vocabulary learning. Children who received word instruction in L2 could produce more target words than those who received word instruction in L1. One possible reason may be that children receiving word instruction in L2 had to pay attention to the teacher's pronunciation of each word, including the target words, to get the word meanings. To gain productive vocabulary, the participants had to know how to pronounce each target word. Since children receiving word instruction in L2 tended to pay more their attention to word pronunciation than children receiving word instruction in L1, they were better able to connect the pronunciation of each target word with the illustration of target word. As some researchers (Trappes-Lomax & Ferguson, 2002; VanPatten, 2003) suggest, learners can benefit from frequent contact with the target language when the target language is used for instruction. That is, the more L2 input learners can take in, the more opportunities they have to acquire the second language. This finding also echoes their statement that using L2 in word instruction may promote productive vocabulary learning.

The third finding of the present study indicates that on both the receptive and the productive vocabulary test, higher proficiency children performed significantly better than lower proficiency children. This is parallel to the findings of previous studies (Collins, 2005; Ewers & Brownson, 1999; Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Tekmen & Daloğlu,

2006) that children with higher proficiency made greater gains than children with lower proficiency. Sternberg and Powell (1983) suggest that the difference between high proficiency children and low proficiency children in vocabulary learning is due to their literacy skills. Higher proficiency children are more skilled at using contextual cues and getting in new information, so they are better at learning new vocabulary items and retaining them in memory than lower proficiency children. Moreover, learning motivation may be another factor to explain the learning difference between higher and lower proficiency children. According to Robbins and Ehri (1994), higher proficiency children are more motivated and interested in learning new vocabulary than lower proficiency children. Or perhaps higher proficiency children have more experiences in listening to stories than lower proficiency children. Thus, the higher proficiency children in this study could attend to not only the story plot but also the target word instruction.

Furthermore, the significant interaction effect between the languages used for word instruction and different proficiency levels on word learning indicated that word instruction in L2 during repeated story reading seemed to contribute to productive vocabulary learning more for children with higher proficiency levels than those with lower proficiency levels (see Figure 2). This could be due to the fact that higher proficiency children had richer vocabulary knowledge and literacy skills than lower proficiency children. Therefore, it was easier for them to follow the word instruction in L2 and to imitate the teacher's pronunciation of the target words than lower proficiency children. Thus, in terms of productive vocabulary learning, higher proficiency children benefited more from the word instruction in L2 than lower proficiency children.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The major findings relevant to each research question are summarized as follows: First of all, during the process of listening to stories, children who received word instruction in L1 (Chinese) significantly gained more receptive vocabulary than children who received word instruction in L2 (English). Secondly, children receiving word instruction in L2 significantly produced more target vocabulary than the children receiving word instruction in L1. Third, children's initial proficiency levels played an influential role in their vocabulary learning when they listened to stories with word instruction. Whether receiving word instruction in L1 or L2, the higher proficiency children performed better on both the receptive vocabulary posttest and the productive vocabulary test than the lower proficiency children. Furthermore,

though both the higher and the lower proficiency students benefited more from the word instruction in L2 than L1 in productive vocabulary learning, the beneficial effect of L2 word instruction seemed to be greater for the higher proficiency students. To sum up, word instruction in L1 was more effective in enhancing EFL children's receptive vocabulary, while L2 was more beneficial for their productive vocabulary learning. Moreover, higher proficiency children profited more than lower proficiency children from word instruction in both L1 and L2.

Pedagogical Implications

First of all, the results revealed that word instruction in L1 is more effective than word instruction in L2 in facilitating receptive vocabulary learning. Because word instruction in L1 can efficiently help students to clearly understand the meanings of novel words, children can easily gain receptive vocabulary. Thus, if the instructional objective is to increase children's receptive vocabulary, teachers may explain the word meanings in L1 when instructing new vocabulary during story reading.

Secondly, word instruction in L2 seems to make greater contribution to EFL children's productive vocabulary learning than word instruction in L1. When the teacher provides word instruction in L2, children have to carefully attend to the teacher's pronunciation of each word, including the target word, to understand the instruction. As a result, they are more able to remember the pronunciation of the target word. Therefore, if teachers intend to expand children's productive vocabulary knowledge, it is better to use L2 in word instruction so that students will be forced to pay attention to the pronunciation of new vocabulary.

Thirdly, multiple times of exposure to target words may be taken into consideration when providing word instruction in either L1 or L2. As children have more opportunities to get familiar with the pronunciation and meaning of each new word, their chances of learning each word may increase.

Finally, the evidence from previous studies as well as this study showed that whether using L1 or L2 in word instruction, higher proficiency children gained more vocabulary than lower proficiency children. While instructing new words, teachers should interact more with lower proficiency children to clarify their understanding or even provide some opportunities for them to read aloud these words in the story context.

Limitations of the Current Study and Suggestions for Future Studies

Although the study provides some significant findings about the effects of reading stories aloud with word instruction in L1 or L2 on vocabulary learning, there are some limitations in the study. First, the participants in this study were categorized

as either the higher proficiency level students or the lower proficiency students to examine the role the initial proficiency level played in vocabulary learning. This dichotomy prevented us from examining the performance of average students in vocabulary learning. Therefore, it is suggested that future research can classify participants into three proficiency levels. In addition, if children are categorized into three proficiency levels, the sample size in the present study may become too small to statistically analyze data. Therefore, for further studies, it may be more appropriate to have a larger sample size so that the participants can be evenly divided into three ability groups (high, middle, and low).

Moreover, it was a weakness of this study that delayed vocabulary posttests of target words were not conducted. The administration of delayed vocabulary posttests may not only assess children's long-tem retention of target words but also ensure the reliability of vocabulary posttests. In future studies, delayed posttests of the receptive and productive vocabulary can be employed to detect whether children's performance on the delayed posttests will be different from their performance on the immediate posttests.

Furthermore, the results of this study did not show any significant difference between the two treatment groups in their story comprehension. However, this result might have resulted from the limited number and the nature of the comprehension questions used in the current study. There were only three comprehension questions for each story, and the questions tended to focus on the literal comprehension of the stories. Very few questions required inferential comprehension. Therefore, future studies may increase the number and the variety of comprehension question to discover more about the effect of different languages for word instruction on story comprehension.

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APPENDIX A

Sample Items on the Receptive Vocabulary Pretest/Posttest

Example: Circle the picture that shows **an apple**
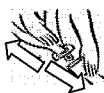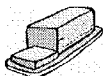
1. Circle the picture that shows **a chorus**

2. Circle the picture that shows a **cat**

3. Circle the picture that shows **to fasten**

4. Circle the picture that shows **an ice cream**

5. Circle the picture that shows **worn**
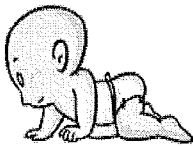
6. Circle the picture that shows **an overcoat**
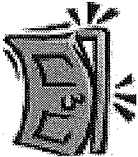
7. Circle the picture that shows a **button**

APPENDIX B

Sample Items on the Productive Vocabulary Posttest

What is the person doing?	What is he doing?	What is this?	What is he doing?
What is on the pancakes?	What is someone doing to the door?	How does he feel?	What is it doing?

APPENDIX C

Sample Comprehension Questions

Joseph Had a Little Overcoat

1. What did Joseph have at the beginning of the story?

   1) a little vest   2) a little scarf   3) a little overcoat

2. What happened to Joseph's button?

   1) It was broken.   2) He lost it.   3) He gave it to someone.

3) What did Joseph make at the end of the story?

   1) a book   2) a handkerchief   3) a necktie

There's an Alligator under My Bed

1. What's under the boy's bed?

   1) a cat   2) a turtle   3) an alligator

2. At the end of the story, where did the boy keep the animal he found under his bed?

   1) in the garage   2)in the living room   3) in the kitchen

3. What did the boy leave for his dad before he went to bed?

   1) a flower   2) a note   3) a flag

朗讀故事搭配字彙教學對國小學童
學習字彙之影響

摘要

本研究旨在探討重複朗讀故事搭配以中文或英文進行字彙教學對國小學童學習英語字彙之影響。本研究對象為某國小四班五年級的學童,共有一百位,隨機分配其中兩班為中文教學組,另兩班為英文教學組。兩組學童聽相同的四個英語故事,但在中文字彙組,研究者以中文進行字彙教學,在英文教學組則是用全英文進行字彙教學。並且,根據學童們上一學期期末考的英文成績,每一組又分為英文程度較高及英文程度較低兩小組。研究時間共為期五個星期,第一個星期學童接受認識字彙的前測,之後的四個星期進行朗讀故事搭配字彙教學。每一個星期,研究者朗讀一個故事三遍,並搭配以中文或英文進行字彙教學。每聽完一個故事,學童先接受應用字彙的測驗,再接受認識字彙的後測。結果發現中文教學組和英文教學組在學習字彙的表現有顯著的差異;中文教學組在認識字彙後測的表現優於英文教學組,而英文教學組在應用字彙後測的表現則優於中文教學組。另外,不論在中文教學組或英文教學組,原本英文程度較高的學童在認識字彙及應用字彙的學習上皆優於原本英文程度較低的學童。同時,在應用字彙的學習上,字彙教學所使用的語言與學童英文程度的高低有顯著的交互作用,也就是說,雖然對所有參與本研究的學童而言,以英文進行字彙教學比以中文進行字彙教學在應用字彙的學習上較有效益,但以全英文進行教學時,原本英文程度較高的學童受益大於英文程度較低的學童。上述的研究結果顯示,以中文進行字彙教學對於增進學童的認識字彙較有助益;另一方面,以英文提供字彙教學則對學習應用字彙較有顯著效果。此外,相較於原本英文程度較低的學童,以英文提供字彙教學,對原本英文程度較高的學童在應用字彙的學習上幫助較大。

關鍵詞: 朗讀故事 字彙教學 字彙學習

How Multi-Word Verbs Are Introduced in EFL Textbooks in Taiwan

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate the use of multi-word verbs (MWVs, e.g., *sit down, look at, come up with*) in English textbooks in elementary and junior high schools in Taiwan. The research materials are taken from three versions of English textbooks in elementary and junior high schools respectively. The versions used at the elementary school level are published by Hess, Pearson, and Kang Hsuan, and those at the junior high school level by Nani, Joy and Han Lin, and Kang Hsuan. The study also explores how MWVs have been incorporated in EFL textbooks for elementary schools and junior high schools in Taiwan. The study found that, firstly, the MWVs used in elementary schools number 38 in total; each textbook version uses different MWVs in different numbers. Secondly, there are 138 MWVs used in junior high schools; again, each textbook version cites different MWVs in different numbers. Finally, there are 147 MWVs used when both elementary and junior high school textbooks are included. Of the 147 MWVs found, 29 from the elementary editions are re-introduced in textbooks used in junior high schools. The findings indicate that most MWVs used in elementary school textbooks can also be found in junior high school versions. However, their distribution appears to differ across various versions and across different levels. It is hoped that the findings of this research can serve as a reference for policy-makers of EFL education in Taiwan, for EFL textbook publishers, and for EFL teachers, and in turn aid EFL learners in Taiwan.

Key words: phrasal verbs, multi-word verbs (MWVs), English textbooks, English
          language teaching (ELT), vocabulary

INTRODUCTION

In an environment like Taiwan, where English is considered a foreign language (EFL), the major access to learning English for children is in school. In the past, English education in Taiwan was required for students aged 12 to 19, covering three years in junior high school, three years in senior high school, and the first year in university. Before 2000, elementary schools did not include English as a subject in their curriculum, and children studying there learnt basic skills in Chinese literacy and numeracy for six years before going to junior high. However, due to the education reforms with the *Nine-year Comprehensive Curriculum for Elementary and Junior High Education*, the age for learning English language has been lowered (MOE, 2006a).

In 2001, children were required to start learning English in the fifth grade, at age 10, in elementary schools. Four years later, the starting age was further lowered to the third grade, at age 8. However, there are many places where city or county councils make their own decisions to allow children to start learning English language from the first grade (MOE, 2006a).

In Taiwan, EFL textbooks are the primary materials used in schools to teach English. In the past, when English education was only administered from junior high schools to universities, the National Institute for Compilation and Translation (NICT) was the only publisher for these EFL materials (MOE, 2002, 2003). It was also the only organization authorized by the government to publish school textbooks in all subject areas, so there was only one version for each subject at that time. However, this situation was later changed as a result of the growing awareness of the world trend toward diversities for Taiwan in 1989 (MOE, 2002, 2003). The policy of one nationwide version of school textbooks was replaced by a textbook authorization system. Thus, private publishers were approved to start publishing textbooks in some subject areas. In 1996, all the school textbooks published by private publishers for all subjects in elementary and junior high schools were approved by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan.

Under this new system, all school textbooks from various private publishers are required to follow the course guidelines announced by MOE (2006a) and to pass an evaluation conducted by NICT (MOE, 2002, 2003). The guidelines define fundamental learning goals and objectives. The purpose of this evaluation is to ensure that all textbooks include the required contents specified in the guidelines. In addition, the most fundamental principle of this system is to enable children to learn the same basics in all subjects even if various versions of textbooks, released by different publishers, are used. For example, a reference vocabulary list of the 2,000 most frequently used English words has been released by MOE (2006a). This list has been compiled after referring to words used in textbooks for native speakers (e.g. USA) and learners of English in neighboring countries (e.g. Korea, Japan). It is also included in the guidelines of the *Nine-year Comprehensive Curriculum for English Education* (MOE, 2006a). This word list, including both "words for production" that learners should learn them how to write and speak and "words for recognition" that learners should learn how to read and understand them, has become the foundation on which the contents of EFL textbooks in Taiwan are built.

Although many studies in Taiwan have been conducted on vocabulary in EFL textbooks (Fan, 2004; He, 2004; Liao, 2006; Lin, 2006), one vital element has been neglected, i.e., multi-word verbs (MWVs) such as *sit down, look at, put up with*, etc. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985). Most previous studies on English

textbook vocabulary mainly investigated one-word vocabulary (e.g. *go, book, good*) and focused on what words are used in different English textbooks, their frequencies and the increased rate of new words at the next level in school (Fan, 2004; He, 2004; Liao, 2005; Lin, 2005). However, multi-word expressions (MWEs, e.g. *ice cream*) are hardly mentioned, let alone MWVs.

As a starting point for research on MWEs, this study begins with MWVs, since they are a great help in students' performance in English (Gairns & Redman, 1986). The following parts are taken as the research questions in this study: In different versions of EFL textbooks used in Taiwan, (1) how MWVs are used in elementary level? (2) how MWVs are used in junior high level? (3) how MWVs are used from elementary to junior high? This study on MWVs might help us understand whether or not the students in elementary and junior high schools in Taiwan have appropriate exposure to these aspects of language learning in their English textbooks.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Some researchers suggest that the lack of exposure to MWVs is one of the causes of EFL learners' lack of ability in using them. Several studies positing this theory have been carried out and four possible causes found: (1) L1-L2 syntactic differences (Dagut & Laufer, 1985); (2) L1-L2 semantic similarity (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989); (3) L2 complexity between literal and figurative MWVs (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Liao & Fukuya, 2004); and (4) a developmental process (Liao & Fukuya, 2004). Apart from the first three causes stemming from linguistic aspects (i.e., syntactic and semantic), the last cause interprets users' lack of fluency as a learning behavior when less proficient EFL learners become more advanced. Furthermore, Liao and Fukuya propose that the key to progressing from avoidance to non-avoidance might be "the amount of exposure to and interaction with English" (p. 214). In other words, this suggests that the more exposure learners have, the less they are likely to avoid using MWVs.

In fact, earlier in 1985, Cornell noticed that learners' inability to use MWVs might stem from their insufficient exposure. He tested university learners of English for their active knowledge of idiomatic MWVs, whose meanings cannot be reasoned from their constituents, e.g. *make up, put up with*. The participants were given pairs of sentences. In each pair, one sentence included an MWV, but the particle(s) of the phrasal verb was replaced by a blank; the other sentence was a paraphrase. According to the meaning of the paraphrased sentences, the participants chose the appropriate ones from a list of particles to fill in the blanks. The results show a low accuracy rate

in choosing the correct particles (i.e., adverbs and/or prepositions) and an ignorance of MWVs. He concludes that the participants have been exposed to "bookish English" for too long and encountered too few MWVs. He assumes that the basic reason for unsuccessful learning of MWVs at school might be "limited contact" through EFL textbooks (p. 237).

Though both Cornell (1985) and Liao and Fukuya (2004) noticed that insufficient exposure to MWVs might cause EFL learners to avoid using them, little research has been done on the frequency of MWVs in EFL. There appears to be only one closely related piece of research in this area, which was carried out by a language teacher of English in Estonia (Rannu, 2000). This teacher aimed to conduct a study on differences in inclusion of MWVs between course books and a national proficiency examination for 18-year-old Estonian students of English. To find out if there was a difference between the textbooks and the exam, Rannu's study began with an investigation of types, frequencies, and selections of MWVs in the textbooks as well as the exam. Although Rannu (2000) focused more on learning MWVs for the test's sake, the results provide relevant information of exposure to MWVs, i.e., a list of MWVs taught in EFL textbooks. In contrast, in Taiwan, it is not easy to find such research on textbook MWVs.

In English, verbs, either single-word or multi-word, are essential in a sentence. Moreover, MWVs are particularly important in imperative sentences (e.g. *Watch out!*) in which *subject* is omitted, and there may not be any *object*. In the case of the imperatives, not knowing the meaning of *Watch out!*, for instance, implies not knowing a sentence (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002), let alone knowing how to use it. Consequently, it is necessary to investigate and understand how MWVs are used in the EFL textbooks in Taiwan in order to see if there is a need to improve within this area and to further help English learners in Taiwan learn vocabulary in a more comprehensive way, that is, to have appropriate exposure to MWVs. Constant exposure has a long-term influence on how well learners internalize and use MWVs rather than avoiding them (Ellis & Sinclair, 1996; Gairns, & Redman, 1986). In turn, EFL learners are able to get used to and have a good command of MWVs.

In an EFL environment, vocabulary is mostly learned through textbooks. Consequently, what vocabulary should be placed in the EFL textbooks is worth serious consideration. For choosing the appropriate vocabulary, Gairns and Redman (1986) present four criteria: *frequency, cultural factors, need and level,* and *expediency*. Even though frequency does not promise usefulness, it gives a promising start for beginners (Nation & Newton, 1997). Nation and Hwang (1995) propose that the number of the most frequently used words is 2,000, which accounts for around 80-85% of words in written texts and a higher percentage in spoken texts (Nation,

2001; Nation & Newton, 1997; Nation & Waring, 1997). Furthermore, the significance of this 2,000-word threshold is emphasized by Nation and Newton (1997).

The second criterion proposed by Gairns and Redman is cultural factors (1986). Words do not always have equal usefulness between native speakers and learners of English, for example, *Mid-Autumn Festival*, which is more useful for EFL learners in Taiwan but of little importance to native English speakers. The next criterion is related to need and level. After the 2,000-word threshold for survival purposes, learners' proficiency level and special needs become the main concerns. In accordance with Gairns and Redman (1986), Nation and Newton (1997) recommend that next to the high frequency 2,000 words are academic vocabulary, low-frequency words, and technical vocabulary. Based on learners' needs, they may need to learn only one or two, but not all three different vocabularies. For instance, if learners want to continue with further studies, learning the academic vocabulary will be necessary.

The last criterion refers to expediency of grammatical terminology and classroom language. Concerning the former, Gairns and Redman (1986) suggest that learners' age, course duration, and language learning background should be taken into consideration since these factors influence how well learners adopt the terminology. Regarding classroom language, they say that, "Without it they will experience considerable frustration" (Gairns & Redman, 1986, p. 64). This suggests that being unfamiliar with classroom language means that learners are not able to follow instructions for activities and learning in class.

Furthermore, Nation and Newton (1997) also mention some other factors. Words we want to select should have "the ability to combine with other words, the ability to help define other words," and "the ability to replace other words" (p. 238). It implies that words with these abilities are more flexible in language use than those without. Moreover, these factors indicate whether or not it is indispensable to include certain words at the point during the process of selecting vocabulary.

In order to understand the use of MWVs in EFL textbooks in Taiwan, it is necessary to discuss their syntactical structures. The knowledge of the verb-particle constructions might help define what MWVs are. In syntactical structures, syntactic categories refer to the structures of a single-word verb plus particle(s) which are considered as MWVs. There are three categories of MWVs: *phrasal verbs, prepositional verbs,* and *phrasal-prepositional verbs.* They share a deep structure in common (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999; Claridge, 2000; Gairns & Redman, 1986; Quirk et al., 1985): one single-word verb plus one or two particles.

The structure of phrasal verbs, as the first syntactic category of MWVs, is a single-word verb preceding a spatial adverbial particle (Biber et al., 1999; Claridge,

2000; Quirk et al., 1985). This category is further divided into two subcategories: intransitive and transitive phrasal verbs. Among them, intransitive phrasal verbs do not have a direct object (Biber et al., 1999; Quirk et al., 1985). In addition, particles in intransitive phrasal verbs are not separable from their verbs. For instance, *take off*, an intransitive phrasal verb in the sentence *The plane took off successfully*, cannot be separated as **The plane took successfully off*. On the other hand, transitive phrasal verbs have a direct object (Biber et al., 1999; Quirk et al., 1985) and their verbs are separable from their particles. For example, *take off* also functions as a transitive phrasal verb, so *off* either can precede or follow its direct object, for example, *Please take off your shoes* or *Please take your shoes off*. One thing to be noted is that when the direct object in the above examples of transitive phrasal verbs becomes a pronoun, the particle can only follow the direct object, that is, *Please take them off* rather than **Please take off them* (Biber et al., 1999; Quirk et al., 1985).

The second syntactic category of MWVs is prepositional verbs. These are composed of a single-word verb plus "a preposition with which it is semantically and/or syntactically associated" (Biber et al., 1999; Claridge, 2000; Gairns & Redman, 1986; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1155). Though Gairns and Redman mention that whether or not particles are separable from verbs in MWVs distinguishes between phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs, this is not exactly correct. With more investigation on this point from different researchers, Biber et al. claim that prepositional verbs have two patterns and Quirk et al. name these patterns intransitive and transitive.

Unlike intransitive phrasal verbs, intransitive prepositional verbs (e.g. *look at*) have an object or a prepositional complement. The verbs in intransitive prepositional verbs are not allowed to directly precede the prepositional complement. In other words, the verbs and particles are not separable from each other, and the complement can only follow the particles in intransitive prepositional verbs. For example, *their daughters* in *Look at their daughters* can only follow the prepositional particle, *at*, even when it becomes a pronoun, that is, *Look at them* instead of **Look them at* (Biber et al., 1999; Quirk et al., 1985). On the contrary, transitive prepositional verbs (e.g. *rob...of...*) "are followed by two noun phrases, normally separated by the preposition: The former is the direct object while the latter is the prepositional object..." (Biber et al., 1999; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1158). That is, in transitive prepositional verbs, the verbs are immediately followed by a direct object, which is followed by a prepositional particle, which is followed by a prepositional complement. For example, *them* is the direct object and *their valuables* is the prepositional object in *The pirates robbed them of their valuables*.

Phrasal-preposition verbs, the third syntactic category, comprise a single-word verb followed by an adverb and a preposition in order (Biber et al., 1999; Claridge,

2000; Gairns & Redman, 1986; Quirk et al., 1985). Additionally, Quirk et al. say that phrasal-preposition verbs may also be intransitive or transitive while Biber et al. assert that they are just two patterns of phrasal-prepositional verbs. Like intransitive prepositional verbs, intransitive phrasal-prepositional verbs (e.g. *looking forward to*) have a prepositional complement. The complement does not directly follow the verbs, but follows the particles in intransitive phrasal-prepositional verbs, for example, *Judy has been looking forward to the trip* (Biber et al., 1999; Quirk et al., 1985). Moreover, even when the complement is a pronoun, it does not change its position, such as *Judy has been looking forward to it*. The passives of verbs in this subcategory are not common but some are acceptable, such as *put up with* in *The smell of the fish could not be put up with any more* (Quirk et al., 1985).

On the other hand, transitive phrasal-prepositional verbs (e.g. *put...down to...*) have a direct object. The object, which can be a pronoun, directly follows the verb but precedes the adverb and the preposition (Biber et al., 1999; Quirk et al., 1985), for instance, *their failure* in *They put their failure down to Bob's lousy preparation*. Regarding the passives, only a limited number of transitive phrasal-prepositional verbs are used in passive sentences, like *be fobbed off with, be put down to, be fixed up with,* and so on (Quirk et al., 1985). Compared and contrasted to the first two syntactic categories of MWVs, this category is relatively easier to learn and remember.

The sizes of the above three categories of MWVs are different and, therefore, so is their ratio. In the Lampeter Corpus for early modern English (Claridge, 2000), it reveals that the phrasal verb has the largest of the three categories. The prepositional verb comes second and the phrasal-prepositional verb is last. The ratio for the three is 17:5:1. However, it does not correspond to that in real-life usage. In *Longman Grammar of Spoken & Written English* (hereafter the *Longman Grammar*; Biber et al., 1999) the authors posit that the ratio of the "most often used" phrasal, prepositional, and phrasal-prepositional verbs of MWVs (over 400 times or at least over 10 times per million words) retrieved is 2:4:1. It shows that more prepositional verbs are exploited than are phrasal verbs. These two different ratios suggest that we should also notice how different categories of MWVs are utilized in our real life.

In addition to their rather complicated syntactic characteristics, MWVs also have a semantic complexity as they are involved with the issues related to *idiomaticity, multiple meanings*, and *synonymity*. In general, the verbs in MWVs retain their original semantic characteristics (Biber et al., 1999). Of phrasal verbs, around 75% are activity verbs, for instance, *go off, make up,* and *come over*. Similarly, phrasal-prepositional verbs are often used to refer to actions, such as *get out of, get back to*, and *catch up with*. On the contrary, except being aspectual verbs,

prepositional verbs are common in every semantic category of verbs, like *look for* in the activity domain, *speak of* in the communication domain, *concentrate on* in the mental domain, *result in* in the causative domain, *happen to* in the occurrence domain, and *belong to* in the existence domain. Besides, mental activities are often indicated as activity verbs, such as *go through N* for *consider N in detail*, *get into N* for *become interested in N*, *arrive at N* for *decide on N*, in which the *N* stands for nouns.

In addition to their syntactic and semantic features, the importance of MWVs in the English language is highlighted by their size and influence on EFL learners. Regarding the frequent occurrence of MWVs, Cornell (1985) mentions that their number is a good indicator of their value, for instance, those listed in dictionaries. In the 2nd version of *Collins Co-build Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* (HarperCollins Publishers, 2002), there are more than 4,500 entries. The latest *Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary* (Cambridge University Press, 2006) lists a more astonishing 6,000 phrasal verbs in American, British, and Australian English. Moreover, the number of MWVs in the *Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary* even exceeds that of single-word verbs in the electronic versions of the Alvey Natural Language Tools (ANLT) lexicon (i.e., 5,667 verbs) and the Complex lexicon (i.e., 5,577 verbs) respectively (Villavicencio, 2003). With such a comparable number of combinations, MWVs significantly emphasize their role in the English language.

Besides their quantity, the influence of MWVs on learners of English is also significant. The use of MWVs, either in formal or informal contexts, is natural to native English speakers (Claridge, 2000; Fletcher, 2005; Kohnhurst, 2003), yet for EFL learners, it is not the case. MWVs actually cause a lot of learning obstacles (Cornell, 1985; Gairns & Redman, 1986; Moon, 1997; Rundell, 2005). Huddleston and Pullum (2002), among past studies, summarize the difficulties encountered in learning MWVs for EFL students under two topics: *comprehension* and *speaking and writing*. In comprehension, learners of English do not recognize the existence of MWVs in a sentence, and consequently do not fully understand the meaning of the sentence. Furthermore, although learners recognize the form of MWVs, they misinterpret their meanings due to their semantic complexity.

In speaking and writing, there are also learning problems. In their performances, learners of English forget particles, use them incorrectly, or randomly add one to create an MWV. They also have trouble using transitive MWVs, which allow direct objects placed between the verbs and particles. What is more, learners may use single-word verb equivalents in place of MWVs, or use literal ones more than idiomatic ones (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993). In contrast, learners also overuse MWVs when it is not necessary (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). Side (1990) also pinpoints several other difficulties,

such as a great number of constructions of verbs and particles as MWVs, transitivity of MWVs, register differences, and learner's capability of comprehending and utilizing MWVs. In a word, learners' difficulties with MWVs mainly result from two sources, that is, learners' language proficiency and MWVs themselves. Because of such obstacles, learners of English, especially at the intermediate proficiency level mainly from the past studies, have a tendency to avoid the use of them and/or use their one-word counterparts, if any, instead. These tendencies can be found in many studies conducted by several researchers (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Kohnhurst, 2003; Liao & Fukuya, 2004; Side, 1990; Steele, 2005). With such avoidance of MWVs and/or inappropriate use of their single-word substitutes, EFL learners often sound unnatural to native speakers of English (Fletcher, 2005; Pilleux, n.d.).

However, in view of language teaching and learning, using MWVs properly has a noteworthy benefit for EFL learners and should be highly promoted. In their suggestions regarding the teaching of MWVs, Gairns and Redman (1986) point out that, "Used appropriately and accurately these verbs certainly contribute to a colloquial ease and fluency which is clearly a great asset" (p. 35). In other words, the use of MWVs can remarkably enhance EFL learners' speech. Furthermore, Gairns and Redman also remind us that whether MWVs are used or not, they are "essential at a receptive level" (p. 35). Even if they do not use them, learners of English should understand what they mean when encountering them in various contexts (i.e., formal vs. informal, and spoken vs. written languages). The overall influence of MWVs on productive and receptive skills of learners of English is strongly worth teachers and learners' attention to MWVs.

As a result, for teachers of English, *how* to teach MWVs becomes a main concern (Truscott & Strahl, 2002). To go further, many researchers and teachers have proposed quite a few suggestions. Gairns and Redman (1986) offer some implications in relation to teaching. They posit that instead of using root verbs in MWVs, "...With some phrasal verbs there is justification in starting with the adverbial particle, ... performs a fairly consistent function with regard to the influence on the root verb...." This coincides with the semantic family resemblance of particles in MWVs addressed by Quirk et al. (1985). Moreover, another implication is to gradually increase learners' exposures to MWVs. Gairns and her colleague propose that "...certain multi-word verbs, e.g. turn on/turn off, will be introduced at a very early stage and more will be added at regular intervals thereafter...." (p. 35). This implies that even for beginners of English, MWVs should not be totally avoided. On the contrary, they should be introduced little by little.

PROCEDURES

In order to investigate the MWVs used in the English textbooks at elementary and junior high levels, three versions for each school level have been gathered. Each version in each school level is published by one publisher. All textbooks are based on the course guidelines regulated by the government, the Guidelines 2000 for Grades 5-6 in elementary schools and the Guidelines 2003 for junior high schools (MOE, 2006a). However, in the present study, the number of EFL textbooks in one version for each school level is different. For elementary schools, one version has four books for Grades 5 and 6, that is, one book per semester, and two semesters as an academic year. For junior high schools, one version has six books for students from Grades 7 to 9. In a word, the number of the EFL textbooks comes to 30 in total (i.e., four books per version in elementary schools times three versions and six books per version in junior high schools times three versions).

In selecting the versions of EFL textbooks to be studied in this research, several criteria are referred to. These include recommendations from English teachers teaching in both school levels, comments from teachers working as professional ELT (English Language Teaching) counselors in Taiwan, statistics of market shares on EFL textbooks used locally (Kang Hsuan Educational Publishing Group, 2006), and statistics of EFL textbooks being used in different cities or counties in Taiwan (Lin, 2005; Su, 2004; Yang, 2004). The final publishers selected include: Hess Educational Organization (何嘉仁文教機構), Kang Hsuan Educational Publishing Group (康軒文教集團), and Pearson Education Taiwan (台灣培生教育) for elementary schools, and the alliance of Joy Enterprises Organization and Han Lin Publishing Company (佳音翰林九年一貫策略聯盟), Kang Hsuan Educational Publishing Group (康軒文教集團), and Nani Book Company (南一書局) for junior high schools.

In an attempt to observe the use of MWVs in EFL textbooks in Taiwan, two kinds of materials are necessary, namely research and reference. The research materials are the raw texts from the EFL textbooks utilized in elementary schools and junior high schools as mentioned above. The reference material is an online English dictionary, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (Oxford University Press, 2006). The purpose of using this dictionary is to help verify the textbook MWVs which resulted from the computation, because not all MWVs computed are accepted as MWV entries in the renowned dictionary. For example, CLAN would retrieve *leave after* as an MWV from *Please leave after the beep.* However, *leave after* is not a real MWV confirmed by Oxford Dictionary. Moreover, the online version of Oxford dictionary has been kept updating regularly and included latest MWVs that other dictionaries were unable to include, such as *cosy up to, copy in,* and *sex up* at the time

of this study. Hence, Oxford Dictionary online version is considered as a useful reference to confirm the MWVs. In sum, only those that are also listed in the Oxford Dictionary are considered as MWVs in this research.

In the computing process, a language program, *CLAN*, is used along with a part-of-speech tagger, *CLAWS*. CLAN (Computerized Language ANalysis) is a program to carry out a huge number of automatic analyses for wanted linguistic patterns (MacWhinney, 2006). For example, it can search for a pattern like the verb followed by an adverbial particle, *take off* in sentences like *The plane took off successfully* or *Please take your shoes off*, no matter what the phrasal verb serves is an intransitive phrasal verb or a transitive phrasal verb. On the other hand, CLAWS (abbreviated from Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System) attaches labels of part-of-speech to each word (UCREL, 2006, Leech, Garside, & Bryant, 1994), making the sentence *The plane took off successfully* into *The_AT0 plane_NN1 took_VVD off_AVP successfully_AV0*. This kind of label attachment becomes very useful when dealing with open-class words, such as *nouns, verbs, adjectives,* and *adverbs*. CLAWS was once used to tag the 100-million-word British National Corpus (BNC), one of the famous linguistic corpora. Both CLAN and CLAWS programs have been tested and used by many researchers and found to be reliable enough in computational linguistics (MacWhinney, 2006; UCREL, 2006).

Finally, the outputs of MWVs generated from CLAN and CLAWS are further checked with the Oxford Dictionary to confirm that all of them are genuine. Then they are gathered as entries of MWVs, the main focus of this research. Later they become the final list of MWVs that are used currently in the EFL textbooks of primary and junior high schools in Taiwan.

RESULTS

The MWVs Found in Elementary School EFL Textbooks

For the elementary school level, the MWVs used in the current study are extracted from three versions of the English textbooks. A list of 38 MWVs was finally processed, as shown in Tables 1 to 3 and Figures 1 to 3. First, Table 1 lists the 38 elementary school MWVs. The mean number of the MWVs across the three versions is 12.67. Of these 38 elementary school textbook MWVs, as illustrated in Figure 1, 28 are used in Hess's version (14 only found in its version + 9 also in Pearson + 1 also in Kang Hsuan + 4 also in both Pearson and Kang Hsuan , i.e., 73.68%), 21 in Pearson's version (7 only found in its version + 9 also in Hess + 1 also in Kang Hsuan + 4 also in both Hess and Kang Hsuan, i.e., 55.26%), and 8 in Kang Hsuan's version (2 only

found in its version + 1 also in Hess + 1 also in Pearson + 4 also in both Hess and Pearson, i.e., 28.57%). Table 2 also lists what MWVs were found in one version, in two versions, and all three versions accordingly.

Table 1 *The List of 38 MWVs Found in the English Textbooks of Elementary Schools*

1. ask for	11. get up	21. pick up	30. turn around
2. clean up	12. go back	22. put on	31. turn down
3. come back	13. hand out	23. sign up	32. turn off
4. come in	14. happen to	24. sit down	33. turn on
5. come on	15. hold on	25. stand up	34. turn up
6. cross out	16. line up	26. substitute with	35. wake up
7. cut out	17. live on	27. take off	36. watch for
8. eat out	18. look around	28. take out	37. watch out
9. end in	19. look at	29. think of	38. write down
10. fill up	20. 21. look for		

Moreover, in Figure 2, of the 38 elementary school MWVs, 23 are only found in one version (Hess: 14, Pearson: 7, Kang Hsuan: 2, i.e., 60.53%), while 11 are found in two versions (Hess & Pearson: 9, Pearson & Kang Hsuan: 1, Kang Hsuan & Hess: 1, i.e., 28.95%), and 4 are found in all three versions (10.53%).
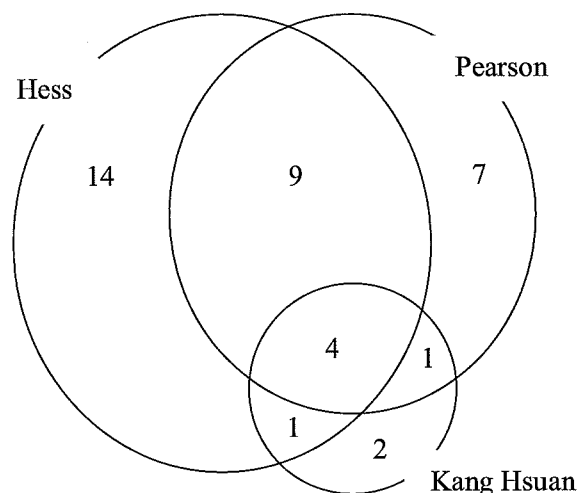

Figure 1. The Venn diagram for 38 MWVs found in the English textbooks of elementary schools, in one version, two versions, and all three versions.

From Table 2, we can also see that all the verbs, those underlined, that the 38 MWVs are based are from "words for production" in the 2000 most frequently used English words required by MOE (2006b), which learners should learn them how to write and speak. For the "words for recognition," there is no MWV that is based on them that learners need to learn them in a receptive manner just to read and understand. However, it might need a further investigation to see if this kind of arrangement--all 38 MWVs based on verbs of "words for production," is appropriate for elementary school learners.

Additionally, Table 3 lists MWVs in each of the three versions of the elementary school English textbooks studied as phrasal verbs, prepositional verbs, and phrasal-prepositional verbs. Hess has 21 phrasal verbs and 7 prepositional verbs while Pearson has 17 phrasal verbs and 4 prepositional verbs. Kang Hsuan has 8 phrasal verbs. However, none of the three versions introduces the third type of MWVs, i.e., the phrasal-prepositional verb. Accordingly, Figure 3 illustrates how the elementary school MWVs are composed of 30 phrasal verbs and 8 prepositional verbs, but no phrasal-prepositional verbs. The ratio for the three syntactic categories introduced is 3:1:0.

Table 2 *The List of 38 MWVs Found in the English Textbooks of Elementary Schools, in One Version, Two Versions, and All Three Versions*

Versions	Versions			
	Hess	Kang Hsuan	Pearson	H + KH + P[a]
Hess	1. <u>cross</u>[b] out	1. <u>come</u> in	1. <u>ask</u> for	1. <u>get</u> up
	2. <u>cut</u> out		2. <u>come</u> back	2. <u>go</u> back
	3. <u>end</u> in		3. <u>line</u> up	3. <u>sit</u> down
	4. <u>happen</u> to		4. <u>look</u> around	4. <u>stand</u> up
	5. <u>live</u> on		5. <u>look</u> at	
	6. <u>sign</u> up		6. <u>look</u> for	
	7. <u>substitute</u> with		7. <u>put</u> on	
	8. <u>think</u> of		8. <u>take</u> out	
	9. <u>turn</u> around		9. <u>turn</u> off	
	10. <u>turn</u> down			
	11. <u>turn</u> on			
	12. <u>turn</u> up			
	13. <u>watch</u> out			
	14. <u>write</u> down			
Kang Hsuan	1. <u>come</u> in	1. <u>come</u> on	1. <u>wake</u> up	1. <u>get</u> up
		2. <u>hold</u> on		2. <u>go</u> back
				3. <u>sit</u> down
				4. <u>stand</u> up
Pearson	1. <u>ask</u> for	1. <u>wake</u> up	1. <u>clean</u> up	1. <u>get</u> up
	2. <u>come</u> back		2. <u>eat</u> out	2. <u>go</u> back
	3. <u>line</u> up		3. <u>fill</u> up	3. <u>sit</u> down
	4. <u>look</u> around		4. <u>hand</u> out	4. <u>stand</u> up
	5. <u>look</u> at		5. pick up	
	6. <u>look</u> for		6. <u>take</u> off	
	7. <u>put</u> on		7. <u>watch</u> for	
	8. <u>take</u> out			
	9. <u>turn</u> off			

Note. [a]H, KH, and P stand for Hess, Kang Hsuan, and Pearson respectively.

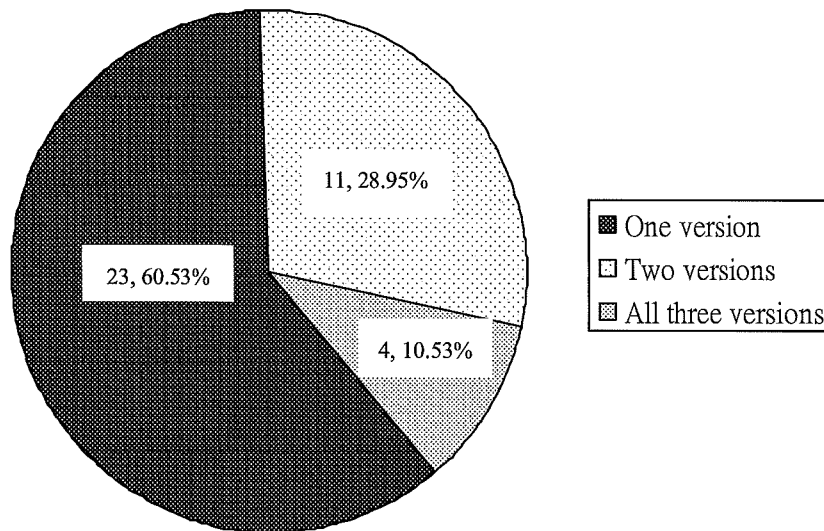[b]All underlined are verbs of "words for production" (MOE, 2006b).

Figure 2. The distribution of 38 MWVs found in the English textbooks of elementary schools, in one version, two versions, and all three versions.

The MWVs Found in Junior High School EFL Textbooks

With reference to the junior high school level, the MWVs examined are retrieved from three versions of the English textbooks. In each version, there are six books from which 138 MWVs were retrieved, as shown in Table 4. The mean number of the MWVs across the three versions is 46. Furthermore, as shown in Figure 4, from these 138 MWVs, Nani exploits 84 (34 only found in its version + 13 also found in Joy & Han Lin + 10 also found in Kang Hsuan + 27 also found in both Joy & Han Lin and Kang Hsuan, i.e., 60.87%), Joy and Han Lin's version uses 82 (38 only in its version + 13 also in Nani + 4 also in Kang Hsuan + 27 also in two other versions, i.e., 59.42%), and Kang Hsuan's version employs 53 (12 found only in its version + 10 also in Nani + 4 also in Joy & Han Lin + 27 also in two other versions, i.e., 38.41%). In addition, Table 5 lists what MWVs were found in one version, in two versions, and all three versions in junior high schools.

For the part of the verbs that the MWVs are based, we can see from Table 5 that most of them are from "words for production" in the 2000 most frequently used English words required by MOE (2006b), which learners should learn them how to write and speak. For the other part of "words for recognition," only four MWVs, among 138, are based on this kind of verb that learners need to learn in a receptive manner, just to read and understand them. These include *add to, remind of, figure out,* and *calm down.* The allocation, 4 out of 138 MWVs, arranged by the three publishers seems reasonable for learners in the Junior High Schools.

In Figure 5, of the 138 MWVs at the junior high school level, 84 were found only in one version (Nani: 34, Joy & Han Lin: 38, Kang Hsuan: 12, i.e., 60.87%), 27 were found in two versions (Nani & Joy and Han Lin: 13, Joy & Han Lin and Kang Hsuan: 4, Kang Hsuan and Nani: 10, i.e., 19.57%), and 27 were found in all three versions. For syntactic categories in Figure 6, of the 138 junior high school MWVs, 94 are phrasal verbs (68.12%), 31 are prepositional verbs (22.46%), and 13 are phrasal-prepositional verbs (9.42%). The ratio for the three categories is 9:3:1.

Moreover, Table 6 lists MWVs in each of the three versions of the junior high school English textbooks studied as phrasal verbs, prepositional verbs, and phrasal-prepositional verbs. Joy and Han Lin have 56 phrasal verbs, 19 prepositional verbs, and 7 phrasal-prepositional verbs whereas Nani has 59 phrasal verbs, 22 prepositional verbs, and 3 phrasal-prepositional verbs. Kang Hsuan has 34 phrasal verbs, 14 prepositional verbs, and 5 phrasal-prepositional verbs.

Table 3 *The List of 38 MWVs Found in the English Textbooks of Elementary Schools,*
as Phrasal Verbs, Prepositional Verbs, and Phrasal-prepositional Verbs

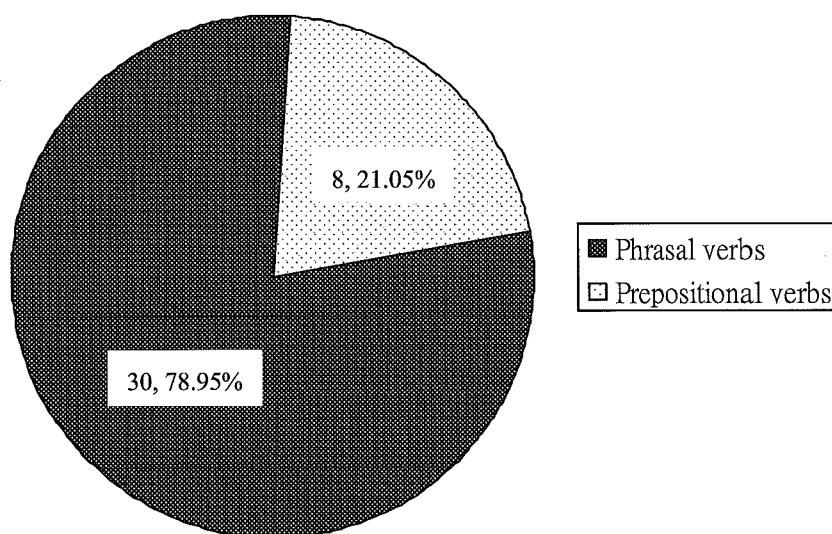| Categories	Versions		
	Hess	Kang Hsuan	Pearson
Phrasal verbs	1. come back	1. come in	1. clean up
	2. come in	2. come on	2. come back
	3. cross out	3. get up	3. eat out
	4. cut out	4. go back	4. fill up
	5. get up	5. hold on	5. get up
	6. go back	6. sit down	6. go back
	7. line up	7. stand up	7. hand out
	8. live on	8. wake up	8. line up
	9. look around		9. look around
	10. put on		10. pick up
	11. sign up		11. put on
	12. sit down		12. sit down
	13. stand up		13. stand up
	14. take out		14. take off
	15. turn around		15. take out
	16. turn down		16. turn off
	17. turn off		17. wake up
	18. turn on		
	19. turn up		
	20. watch out		
	21. write down		
Prepositional verbs	1. ask for		1. ask for
	2. end in		2. look at
	3. happen to		3. look for
	4. look at		4. watch for
	5. look for		
	6. substitute with		
	7. think of		
Phrasal-prepositional verbs	0	0	0

Figure 3. The syntactic categories of 38 MWVs found in the English textbooks of elementary schools, across all three versions.

The MWVs Found in Both Levels of EFL Textbooks

The sum of the elementary and junior high school MWVs is 176. However, as shown in Table 7, there are some overlaps between these two school levels (i.e., 29 MWVs found at both school levels). These overlaps reduce the sum of MWVs to 147. Shown in Figure 7, the mean of the junior high school MWVs (i.e., 46 MWVs per version) is more than 3.5 times the mean of the elementary school MWVs (i.e., 12.67 MWVs per version.) Additionally, Figure 8 shows how the mean of the junior high school phrasal verbs (e. g. 94 for three versions in Figure 6; i.e., 31.33 MWVs per version) is about three times the mean of the elementary school phrasal verbs (e.g. 30 for three versions in Figure 3; i.e., 10 MWVs per version). Furthermore, the mean of the junior high school prepositional verbs (e.g. 31 for three versions in Figure 6; i.e., 10.33 MWVs per version) is nearly four times the mean of those at the elementary level (e.g. 8 for three versions in Figure 3; i.e., 2.67 MWVs per version). For the phrasal-prepositional verbs, however, the means of the elementary school (e.g. zero for three versions in Figure 3) and junior high school (e. g. 13 for three versions in Figure 6) are incomparable (i.e,. zero MWV per version at the elementary school level vs. 4.33 MWVs per version at the junior high school level).

Table 4 *The List of 138 MWVs Found in the English Textbooks of Junior High Schools*

1. act out	36. decide on	71. keep away from	106. set up
2. add to	37. die out	72. keep down	107. shout out
3. ask for	38. dress up	73. keep from	108. show up
4. be sold out	39. dry out	74. keep out of	109. sing out
5. believe in	40. eat out	75. knock down	110. sit down
6. belong to	41. feed on	76. knock out	111. speak to
7. blow out	42. figure out	77. laugh at	112. stand u
8. bring back	43. fill in	78. listen in	113. start off
9. bring down	44. find out	79. listen up	114. start up
10. burn up	45. get back	80. live with	115. stay away from
11. call back	46. get back to	81. look around	116. stay over
12. call in	47. get in	82. look at	117. stay up
13. call on	48. get into	83. look for	118. take away
14. calm down	49. get off (work)[a]	84. look up	119. take off[b]
15. camp out	50. get out of	85. make into	120. take off[b]
16. catch up with	51. get up	86. make up	121. take out
17. cheer up	52. give back	87. move into	122. talk out
18. clean up	53. give up	88. nod off	123. think about
19. come after	54. go after	89. pick out	124. think of
20. come back	55. go back	90. pick up	125. try on
21. come back to	56. go by	91. point out	126. turn around
22. come from	57. go on	92. pull over	127. turn down
23. come in	58. go out	93. put back	128. turn into
24. come on	59. go over	94. put down	129. turn off
25. come out	60. grow up	95. put into	130. turn on
26. come out of	61. hand in	96. put on	131. turn over
27. come over	62. hand out	97. put out	132. wake up
28. come up	63. hang out	98. read out	133. watch out
29. come up with	64. happen to	99. remind of	134. watch out for
30. cool down	65. hear from	100. report to	135. work on
31. cry out	66. hear of	101. run after	136. work out
32. cut down	67. heat up	102. run away	137. write back to
33. cut down on	68. hold on	103. run away from	138. write down
34. cut off	69. hurry up	104. run into	
35. cut out	70. keep away	105. run out	

Note. [a]*Get off* in *Get off work* is a phrasal verb, but a free combination in *Get off at the next stop.*

[b]*Take off*'s have different meanings: *Take off your shoes* vs. *The plane takes off.*
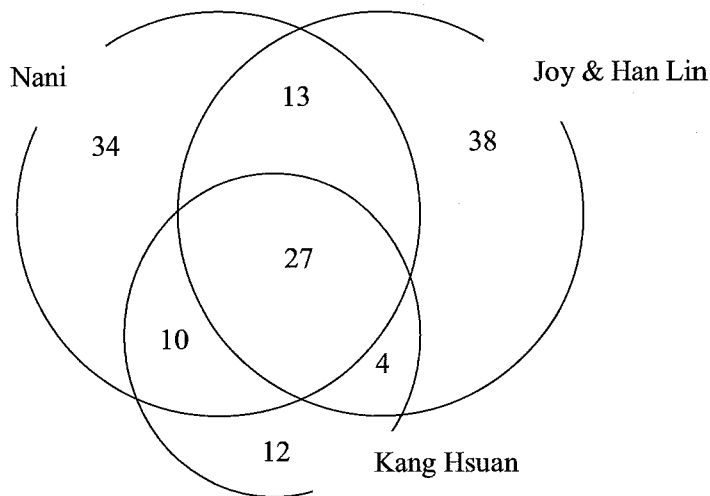
Figure 4. The Venn diagram for 138 MWVs found in the English textbooks of Junior High schools, in one version, two versions, and all three versions.

Table 5 *The List of 138 MWVs Found in the English Textbooks of Junior High Schools, in One Version, Two Versions, and All Three Versions*

Versions	Versions			
	Joy & Han Lin	Kang Hsuan	Nani	JH + KH + N[a]
Joy & Han Lin	1. add to	1. come over	1. keep down	1. think of
	2. call[b] in	2. get into	2. belong to	2. take out
	3. catch up with	3. get out of	3. clean up	3. laugh at
		4. hurry up	4. go back	4. ask for
	4. come after		5. grow up	5. come back
	5. come in		6. hand in	6. give up
	6. come out of		7. hear of	7. get up
			8. look up	8. come from
	7. cry out		9. put out	9. come on
	8. cut off		10. report to	10. cut down
	9. dry out		11. show up	11. eat out
	10. feed on		12. take off	12. fill in
	11. get back to		13. write down	13. find out
	12. give back			14. go out
	13. go on			15. happen to
	14. keep away			16. hold on
	15. keep away from			17. look at
				18. look for

16. keep from	19. pick up
17. keep out of	20. put on
18. knock down	21. sit down
19. knock out	22. speak to
20. listen in	23. stand up
21. nod off	24. take away
22. point out	25. turn off
23. pull over	26. turn on
24. read out	27. wake up
25. remind of	
26. run into	
27. set up	
28. sing out	
29. start off	
30. start up	
31. stay away from	
32. stay up	
33. take off	
34. talk out	
35. think about	
36. try on	
37. turn down	
38. work out	

Table 5 *The List of 138 MWVs Found in the English Textbooks of Junior High Schools, in One Version, Two Versions, and All Three Versions (continued)*

Versions	Versions			
	Joy & Han Lin	Kang Hsuan	Nani	JH + KH + N[a]
Kang Hsuan	1. come over	1. watch out for	1. work on	1. think of
	2. get into		2. watch out	2. take out
	3. get out of	2. turn around	3. turn into	3. laugh at
	4. hurry up		4. run after	4. ask for
		3. run away	5. blow out	5. come back
		4. make into	6. bring back	6. give up
		5. be sold out	7. cheer up	7. get up
		6. believe in	8. come back to	8. come from
		7. come up with	9. come out	9. come on
				10. cut down

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		8.	cut down on	10.	put into	11.	eat out
		9.	cut out			12.	fill in
		10.	figure out			13.	find out
		11.	put back			14.	go out
		12.	put down			15.	happen to
						16.	hold on
						17.	look at
						18.	look for
						19.	pick up
						20.	put on
						21.	sit down
						22.	speak to
						23.	stand up
						24.	take away
						25.	turn off
						26.	turn on
						27.	wake up
Nani	1. belong to	1.	blow out	1.	act out	1.	think of
	2. clean up	2.	bring back	2.	bring down	2.	take out
	3. go back	3.	cheer up			3.	laugh at
	4. grow up	4.	come back to	3.	burn up	4.	ask for
	5. hand in			4.	call back	5.	come back
	6. hear of	5.	come out	5.	call on	6.	give up
	7. keep down	6.	put into	6.	calm down	7.	get up
		7.	run after	7.	camp out	8.	come from
	8. look up	8.	turn into	8.	come up	9.	come on
	9. put out	9.	watch out	9.	cool down	10.	cut down
	10. report to	10.	work on	10.	decide on	11.	eat out
	11. show up			11.	die out	12.	fill in
	12. take off			12.	dress up	13.	find out
	13. write down			13.	get back	14.	go out
				14.	get in	15.	happen to
				15.	get off (work)	16.	hold on
				16.	go after	17.	look at
				17.	go by	18.	look for
				18.	go over	19.	pick up
				19.	hand out	20.	put on
				20.	hang out	21.	sit down
				21.	hear from	22.	speak to
						23.	stand up

22.	<u>heat</u> up	24.	<u>take</u> away
23.	<u>listen</u> up	25.	<u>turn</u> off
24.	<u>live</u> with	26.	<u>turn</u> on
25.	<u>look</u> around	27.	<u>wake</u> up
26.	<u>make</u> up		
27.	<u>move</u> into		
28.	<u>pick</u> out		
29.	<u>run</u> away from		
30.	<u>run</u> out		
31.	<u>shout</u> out		
32.	<u>stay</u> over		
33.	<u>turn</u> over		
34.	<u>write</u> back to		

Note. [a]JH, KH, and N stand for Joy and Han Lin, Kang Hsuan, and Nani respectively.

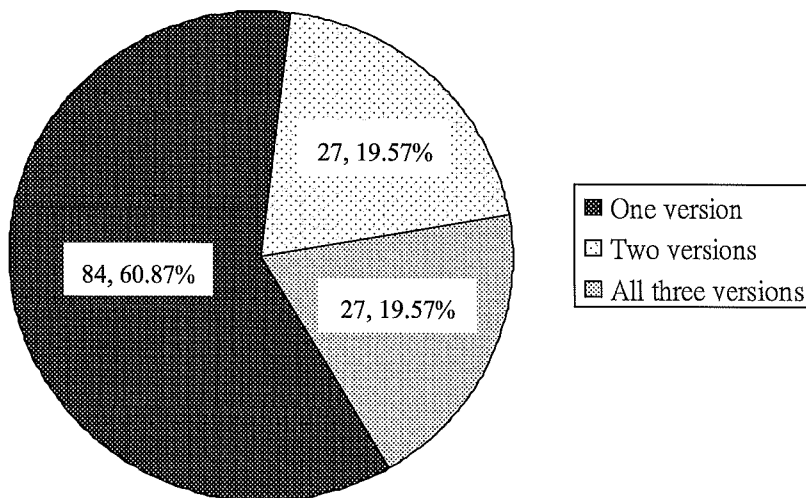[b]All underlined are verbs of "words for production" (MOE, 2006b).

Figure 5. The distribution of 138 MWVs found in the English textbooks of Junior High schools, in one version, two versions, and all three versions.
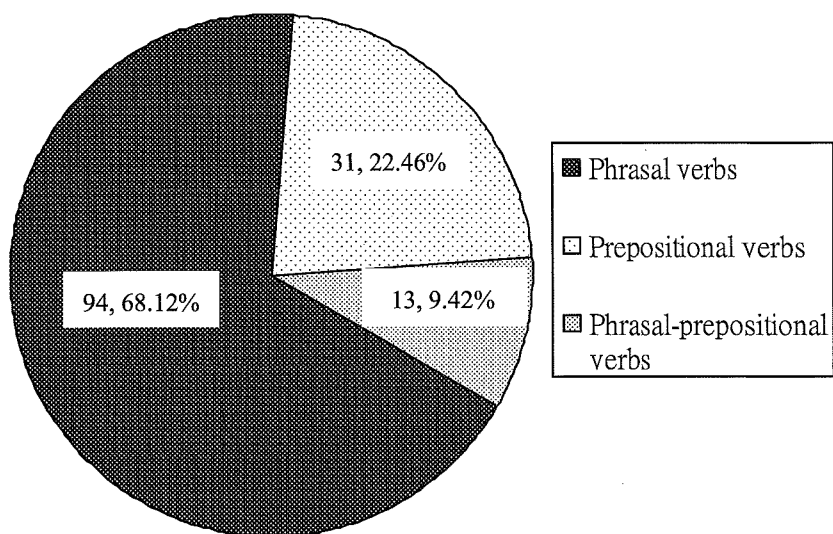
Figure 6. The syntactic categories of 138 MWVs found in the English textbooks of junior high schools, across all three versions.

Table 6 *The List of 138 MWVs Found in the English Textbooks of Junior High Schools, as Phrasal Verbs, Prepositional Verbs, and Phrasal-prepositional Verbs*

Categories	Versions		
	Joy & Han Lin	Kang Hsuan	Nani
Phrasal verbs	1. turn down	1. turn around	1. turn over
	2. try on	2. run away	2. stay over
	3. think about	3. be sold out	3. shout out
	4. talk out	4. cut out	4. run out
	5. take off	5. figure out	5. pick out
	6. listen in	6. put back	6. make up
	7. knock down	7. put down	7. listen up
	8. knock out	8. come over	8. look around
	9. keep away	9. hurry up	9. heat up
	10. call in	10. watch out	10. hand out
	11. give back	11. blow out	11. hang out
	12. come in	12. bring back	12. go over
	13. cry out	13. cheer up	13. go by
	14. cut off	14. come out	14. get off (work)
	15. dry out	15. take out	15. get in
	16. go on	16. come back	16. get back
	17. nod off	17. give up	17. act out
	18. point out	18. get up	18. bring down
	19. pull over	19. come on	19. call back

20. read out	20. cut down	20. call on
21. set up	21. eat out	21. calm down
22. sing out	22. fill in	22. camp out
23. start off	23. find out	23. come up
24. start up	24. go out	24. cool down
25. stay up	25. hold on	25. die out
26. work out	26. look at	26. dress up
27. come over	27. pick up	27. keep down
28. hurry up	28. put on	28. clean up
29. keep down	29. sit down	29. go back
30. clean up	30. stand up	30. grow up
31. go back	31. take away	31. look up
32. grow up	32. turn off	32. put out
33. look up	33. turn on	33. show up
34. put out	34. wake up	34. take off
35. show up		35. write down
36. take off		36. watch out
37. write down		37. blow out
38. take out		38. bring back
39. come back		39. cheer up
40. give up		40. come out
41. get up		41. take out
42. come on		42. come back
43. cut down		43. give up
44. eat out		44. get up
45. fill in		45. come on
46. find out		46. cut down
47. go out		47. eat out
48. hold on		48. fill in
49. pick up		49. find out
50. put on		50. go out
51. sit down		51. hold on
52. stand up		52. pick up
53. take away		53. put on
54. turn off		54. sit down
55. turn on		55. stand up
56. wake up		56. take away
		57. turn off
		58. turn on
		59. wake up

Table 6 *The List of 138 MWVs Found in the English Textbooks of Junior High Schools,*
as Phrasal Verbs, Prepositional Verbs, and Phrasal-prepositional Verbs (continued)

	Versions		
	Joy & Han Lin	Kang Hsuan	Nani
Prepositional verbs	1. speak to	1. make into	1. speak to
	2. look for	2. believe in	2. look for
	3. happen to	3. get into	3. look at
	4. look at	4. work on	4. happen to
	5. keep from	5. turn into	5. move into
	6. add to	6. run after	6. live with
	7. come after	7. put into	7. hear from
	8. feed on	8. think of	8. go after
	9. remind of	9. laugh at	9. burn up
	10. run into	10. ask for	10. decide on
	11. get into	11. come from	11. belong to
	12. belong to	12. happen to	12. hand in
	13. hand in	13. look for	13. hear of
	14. hear of	14. speak to	14. report to
	15. report to		15. work on
	16. think of		16. turn into
	17. laugh at		17. run after
	18. ask for		18. put into
	19. come from		19. think of
			20. laugh at
			21. ask for
			22. come from
Phrasal-prepositional verbs	1. get out of	1. watch out for	1. write back to
	2. stay away from	2. come up with	2. run away from
	3. get back to	3. cut down on	3. come back to
	4. come out of	4. get out of	
	5. catch up with	5. come back to	
	6. keep away from		
	7. keep out of		

Table 7 *The List of 147 MWVs (or 176 MWVs with Overlaps) Found in the English Textbooks of Different School Levels*

School levels	Items of MWVs					
Elementary school only	1.	cross out	4.	line up	7.	substitute with
	2.	end in	5.	live on	8.	turn up
	3.	fill up	6.	sign up	9.	watch for
Both elementary and junior high school	1.	ask for	11.	happen to	21.	take out
	2.	clean up	12.	hold on	22.	think of
	3.	come back	13.	look around	23.	turn around
	4.	come in	14.	look at	24.	turn down
	5.	come on	15.	look for	25.	turn off
	6.	cut out	16.	pick up	26.	turn on
	7.	eat out	17.	put on	27.	wake up
	8.	get up	18.	sit down	28.	watch out
	9.	go back	19.	stand up	29.	write down
	10.	hand out	20.	take off		
Junior high school only	1.	act out	38.	get back	74.	pick out
	2.	add to	39.	get back to	75.	point out
	3.	be sold out	40.	get in	76.	pull over
	4.	believe in	41.	get into	77.	put back
	5.	belong to	42.	get off (work)	78.	put down
	6.	blow out	43.	get out of	79.	put into
	7.	bring back	44.	give back	80.	put out
	8.	bring down	45.	give up	81.	read out
	9.	burn up	46.	go after	82.	remind of
	10.	call back	47.	go by	83.	report to
	11.	call in	48.	go on	84.	run after
	12.	call on	49.	go out	85.	run away
	13.	calm down	50.	go over	86.	run away from
	14.	camp out	51.	grow up	87.	run into
	15.	catch up with	52.	hand in	88.	run out
	16.	cheer up	53.	hang out	89.	set up
	17.	come after	54.	hear from	90.	shout out
	18.	come back to	55.	hear of	91.	show up
	19.	come from	56.	heat up	92.	sing out
	20.	come out	57.	hurry up	93.	speak to
	21.	come out of	58.	keep away	94.	start off
	22.	come over	59.	keep away from	95.	start up
	23.	come up	60.	keep down	96.	stay away from

24. come up with	61. keep from	97. stay over
25. cool down	62. keep out of	98. stay up
26. cry out	63. knock down	99. take away
27. cut down	64. knock out	100. take off
28. cut down on	65. laugh at	101. talk out
29. cut off	66. listen in	102. think about
30. decide on	67. listen up	103. try on
31. die out	68. live with	104. turn into
32. dress up	69. look up	105. turn over
33. dry out	70. make into	106. watch out for
34. feed on	71. make up	107. work on
35. figure out	72. move into	108. work out ·
36. fill in	73. nod off	109. write back to
37. find out		
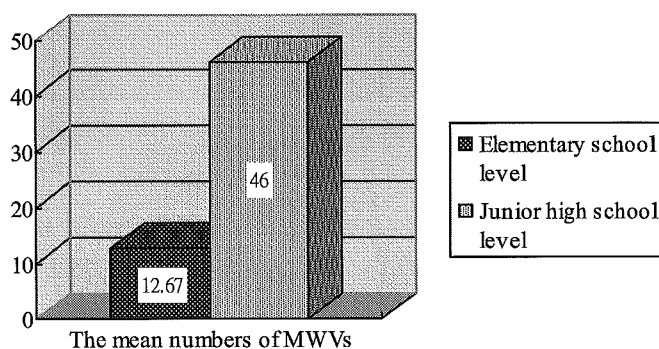
Figure 7. The mean numbers of MWVs in elementary and junior high schools.
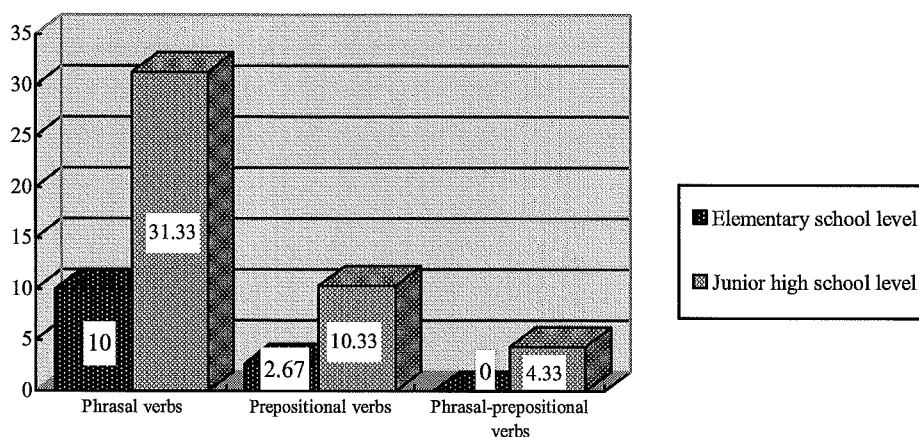
Figure 8. The mean numbers of the syntactic categories of MWVs in elementary and junior high schools.

DISCUSSION

Discussion on the MWVs Introduced at the Elementary School Level

The findings of this investigation show that less than 11% of the 38 MWVs present at the elementary school level were found among the three English textbooks published by different publishers (i.e., 4 out of 38 in Table 2 and Figure 2). This implies that there are differences between the versions of textbooks at this level. Such differences might, in turn, further create a discrepancy in students' exposure to MWVs. Some further discussions are given below trying to explain why there are such differences.

Version differences have been common since various private publishers were allowed to publish school textbooks (Yang, 2004). Different publishers are highly unlikely to produce the same versions of textbooks. Consequently, divergences across versions, more or less, may be inevitable, especially when the use of the English textbook MWVs is not regulated in the course guidelines, the *Nine-year Comprehensive Curriculum for Elementary and Junior High Education*, announced by MOE (2006a).

Gairns and Redman's four criteria of word selection in textbooks (i.e., *frequency, cultural factors, need and level,* and *expediency*; 1986) might give us some insights into the causes of version differences in addition to the lack of the MOE regulation. Little research has been done within this field, and without reference to the *Longman Grammar* (Biber et al., 1999) it is possible that editors or those with the power to

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choose textbook vocabulary might depend mostly on their own language competence when selecting and incorporating MWVs within their textbooks. Personal experiences might be right, but that could be skewed, too, since they are neither objective enough nor supported by convincing corpus data, like those provided in the *Longman Grammar*.

Taking the view of Gairns and Redman's criteria of word selection (1986), aside from frequency, the three other criteria are allowed to be more subjective and rely more on the language competence of editors. Cultural factors, need and level, and expediency (e.g. classroom language for instructions) require editors to consider from the perspective of EFL learners what time would be appropriate to learn what items and whether those items are necessary to be learned in the EFL textbook.

In a word, it seems that the lack of MOE regulation and individual decision making in relation to vocabulary selection in EFL textbooks might well explain version differences in the choice of MWVs.

Regarding the size of the textbook MWVs in each of the three versions, Hess uses most (28, 73.68% in Figure 1); Pearson comes second (21, 55.26% in Figure 1), and they exploit about half of these 38 MWVs. Kang Hsuan comes last and incorporates only a few (8, 28.57% in Figure 1). From the overall size of the textbook MWVs in each version, it seems that students who use Hess's textbooks are more readily exposed to MWVs than those who use either one of the other versions, especially, Kang Hsuan's. However, the mean of the MWVs used in the three versions is 12.67. In light of the mean number of MWVs, it shows that Hess, with 28 in number, might include too many - more than two times the size of the mean. This suggests that students who choose Hess's English textbooks may be exposed to too many MWVs, which is more than the sum of MWVs from both Kang Hsuan's and Pearson's textbooks (24 in Figure 1).

However, when the number of books as well as that of lessons in each version is taken into consideration it appears that both Hess and Pearson have the correct amount of MWVs in their textbooks, but Kang Hsuan has relatively few. Excluding review lessons, which do not teach new material, Hess has 30 lessons in 4 books with 28 MWVs, Pearson has 20 lessons in 4 books with 21 MWVs, and Kang Hsuan has 24 lessons in 4 books with 8 MWVs. In other words, Hess has nearly one MWV per lesson or 7 MWVs per book. Pearson has one MWV per lesson or 5 MWVs per book, but Kang Hsuan has one MWV every 3 lessons or 2 MWVs per book. Having one MWV in each lesson does not sound like a heavy load for students. In contrast, for students with Kang Hsuan's textbooks, having only one MWV in every three lessons seems to be a piece of cake.

Furthermore, in terms of the time students spend on the textbook MWVs in each semester (i.e., about 20 weeks) with one book, students with Hess's version have one MWV in 3 weeks and those with Pearson's version have one in 4 weeks, but those with Kang Hsuan's version have one in 10 weeks. It appears that students with Kang Hsuan's version may be over-exposed to just one MWV at any one time. It appears that Hess and Pearson neither contain too many MWVs or burden students with a heavy workload, while Kang Hsuan may not be stretching students far enough.

Discussion on the MWVs Introduced at the Junior High School Level

At the junior high school level, 138 MWVs were identified, as shown in Table 4. However, less than half of the junior high school MWVs were found across at least two of the versions of textbooks (i.e., in Table 5 and Figure 5). This implies that using different versions may highly influence what MWVs are used. Below are some further discussions trying to explain the possible meanings implied.

Version differences also influence the selection of the textbook MWVs at the junior high school level. Such differences are inevitable partly because MOE does not recommend what MWVs are to be used as textbook MWVs in the course guidelines (2006a). On the other hand, publishers have their own considerations on the criteria for word selection in their textbooks (i.e., frequency, cultural factors, need and level, and expediency; Gairns & Redman, 1986). As a result, the use of the textbook MWVs differs from version to version, or rather from publisher to publisher. However, the problem of version differences can be solved (He, 2004; Lin, 2005). One possible solution is upcoming MOE suggestions on the use of the textbook MWVs, which might help diminish such differences.

With reference to the number of MWVs in each version, both Joy and Han Lin (82, 59.42% in Figure 4) and Nani (84, 60.87% in Figure 4) include more than half of the 138 junior high school MWVs. In contrast, Kang Hsuan contains only a little more than one-third of these junior high school MWVs (53, 38.41% in Figure 4). It appears that choosing either Joy and Han Lin's or Nani's textbooks does not make any difference to exposure to MWVs, but for students who use Kang Hsuan's textbooks, the exposure is likely to be lower. The mean number of the junior high school textbook MWVs is 46. All three versions exceed the mean; however, Joy and Han Lin as well as Nani include more MWVs, nearly two times the size of the mean. This implies that students who choose either Joy and Han Lin's or Nani's English textbooks may be exposed too far more MWVs.

However, in terms of the number of books as well as that of lessons in each version, it is not the case. Except for the review lessons that help students remember what they have covered earlier, Nani includes 56 lessons in 6 books with 84 MWVs,

Joy and Han Lin contains 46 lessons in 6 books with 82 MWVs, and Kang Hsuan has 56 lessons in 6 books with 53 MWVs. That is, Nani has 1.5 MWVs per lesson or 14 per book, Joy and Han Lin have 1.78 MWVs per lesson or 13.67 MWVs per book, but Kang Hsuan has 0.95 MWVs per lesson or 8.83 MWVs per book. It seems reasonable for students to be exposed to one to two MWVs in each lesson as all three publishers agree this range.

Discussion on the MWVs Shared by Both Levels

By pooling together both the EFL textbooks from elementary and junior high schools, the findings are discussed in terms of the shared MWVs across the two school levels. Between these two school levels, the sum of the different English textbook MWVs is 147. Nine are found at the elementary school level, 109 are present at the junior high school, and 29 are found at both levels (Table 7). More discussions on these are further discussed below.

In terms of the 38 elementary school MWVs, 29 found-in-both-level MWVs suggest that most of the 38 elementary school MWVs can also be found at the junior high school level. This reflects the viewpoint of Gairns and Redman (1986) and Ellis and Sinclair (1996) on continuous exposure of learning, that is, to learn again what has been learned. Consequently, previous knowledge can be internalized in students' learning. Moreover, this pattern of distribution can increase students' familiarity and command of MWVs and this also enables learners to use these MWVs with ease beyond the reception level. Namely, students are capable of not only understanding MWVs in listening and reading but also making use of them in speaking and reading (Gairns & Redman, 1986). Additionally, as Gairns and Redman (1986) suggest, being able to take advantage of MWVs enables students to facilitate their speech and become fluent in using language.

Moreover, in comparing the mean numbers of the elementary and junior high school MWVs (i.e., 12.67 MWVs vs. 46 MWVs per school level in Figure 7), it seems that there is a sharp growth in the size of MWVs at the junior high school level. In comparison with He's findings (2004), the growth of MWVs in junior high school English textbooks seems smaller. In her study, He (2004) examined the vocabulary size of the first book of junior high school English textbooks from nine versions and compared it to that in elementary school English textbooks. She reports that the word size of the first book in junior high schools is four to seven times bigger than that used in elementary schools. This suggests that the increase of MWVs from these three versions at the junior high school level is not drastic but acceptable.

Regarding the categories of the total 147 textbook MWVs used at two levels, the tendency of using more phrasal verbs is still obvious, nearly 70%. In contrast with the

ratio from Biber and his colleagues' grammar book (i.e., 2:4:1; 1999), the ratio of the three categories of the total MWVs is 9:3:1. It shows that phrasal verbs (i.e., 9 in 9:3:1) are used a lot more than prepositional verbs (i.e., 3 in 9:3:1). Again, it implies that it might be necessary to adjust the size of the three categories of MWVs to meet the use of the frequent MWVs from each category in the real world (i.e., 2:4:1; Biber et al., 1999).

In addition, concerning the increased number of categories of MWVs, the findings show that in terms of the mean number of MWVs as presented in Figure 7, there is a growth (i.e., three to four times) from the elementary school level to the junior high school level. In comparison with He's findings (i.e., four to seven times from elementary school to junior high school; 2004), the growth seems reasonable.

CONCLUSION

Drawing on the findings, this research does not necessarily suggest that those textbooks with more MWVs are better than those with fewer, since there is lack of research on how many MWVs should be taught or learned. On the other hand, there are some pedagogical implications to be drawn from this naturally. Through these implications, it is hoped that MOE, textbook publishers and editors, and language teachers of English can help improve EFL learning on MWVs for elementary and junior high school students who are still beginning learners of English and therefore require more support.

With regard to MOE, a regulation or a recommendation on the use of the textbook MWVs in the course guidelines is an issue that cannot be ignored since there are remarkable version differences between the use of MWVs in the English textbooks. Without such a regulation or recommendation from MOE on the use of the textbook MWVs, there is a risk that students using different versions of the English textbooks will not be exposed to the same basic MWVs, and therefore their learning will be uneven. When encountering MWVs outside the classroom context, whether or not students are able to handle them is a concern since we are not sure if they are equipped with the basic knowledge and enough MWVs. To minimize such a concern about students' capability to deal with MWVs, a recommendation on the incorporation of MWVs in English textbooks might help. As references for MOE to make a list of the textbook MWVs, Tables 1 to 3 for the elementary school level, Tables 4 to 6 for the junior high school level, and Table 7 for both levels, are recommended.

For textbook publishers and editors, the selection of MWVs for their textbooks may appear problematic as there are no regulations to follow, which is the most possible explanation for version differences. On the other hand, it is also good news for them since "no regulation" means that they are given greater freedom to make their own decision on the choice of words. To include appropriate MWVs in their textbooks, the application of Gairns and Redman's four criteria of textbook vocabulary selection (i.e., frequency, cultural factors, need and level, and expediency; 1986) might be a great help. That is, whether or not the MWV to be chosen is often used, is of use in an EFL context (e.g. Taiwan), is suitable to be learned, or is required for classroom instructions needs to be given serious consideration. Choosing suitable MWVs for textbooks not only benefits English learning for students but also enhances the quality of English textbooks for publishers and editors.

For language teachers, it is necessary to help students learn requisite and adequate MWVs, since knowing how to use MWVs either at a receptive level or at a productive level, benefits students in their performance in English (Gairns & Redman, 1986). From the findings and discussion, we realize that there are version differences in the textbook MWVs and such differences might influence how students learn MWVs and what MWVs they learn from their English textbooks. Being aware of such a situation, language teachers can help students learn MWVs by incorporating into their teaching those which are important but not yet included in their textbooks.

There are some limitations of this study in terms of the research materials, the data analysis and discussion, and suggestions are made herewith. Concerning the research materials in this study, only three versions of the English textbooks for each school level are included. Therefore, the findings may not apply to English textbooks published by other publishers. An inclusion of more versions is suggested if any researchers are interested in conducting further studies in this area.

Additionally, there is a need to compare our English textbook MWVs to those used in the English textbooks utilized by native English-speaking children (e.g. in the UK, or USA) and learners of English in neighboring countries (e.g. Korea, Japan). Through this comparison, we can gain more understanding of what MWVs should be integrated into our English textbooks in Taiwan according to school levels, just like the 2,000 reference wordlist in the MOE guidelines edited by referring to the words in the textbooks for native speakers and learners of English. As a result, MWVs chosen for our textbooks can be as authentic and useful as possible in our context for students learning English. In other words, MWVs in the textbooks for native English-speaking children and learners of English can be valuable references for our own textbook MWVs.

Moreover, English textbooks in senior high schools in Taiwan are also recommended to be involved in future research. The purpose of this is to discover whether there is a connection between the use of MWVs from elementary schools to senior high schools, that is, if there is constant exposure of the textbook MWVs from elementary schools to senior high schools. If yes, that is good. If not, it creates a need to strengthen the constant exposure and, in turn, to facilitate MWV learning across school levels as a whole.

Regarding the limitations in the light of the data analysis and discussion, the frequency counts of the textbook MWVs should also be included. Therefore, not just lists of the textbook MWVs but also lists with more details (e.g. frequency ranking) can be provided as more useful and helpful references. Furthermore, the theory of curriculum design for EFL should also be incorporated in the discussions of MWVs found in the textbooks so as to help publishers integrate MWVs.

In addition to the suggestions on the textbook MWVs, there is also a recommendation for future studies to look into MWVs from another perspective, that is, the positions of the pronouns in MWVs. To find out the reasons for the difficulties and avoidance of their use in learners' performance, MWVs have been studied for L2 semantic complexity between literal and figurative MWVs (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Liao & Fukuya, 2004). For future research, MWVs can be examined for L2 syntactic complexity through the positions of the pronouns when they are used to replace the direct objects in transitive phrasal verbs (e.g. *Take it off* in place of *Take off your coat*) and the prepositional complements in intransitive prepositional verbs (e.g. *Look at it* for *Look at the picture*).

The difference between transitive phrasal verbs and intransitive prepositional verbs is the word classes of their particles (i.e., adverbs for the former, e.g. *off* in *Take off your coat*, and prepositions for the latter, e.g. *at* in *Look at the picture*). The word classes enable learners of English to tell where to place the pronouns when they are substituted for the direct objects in transitive phrasal verbs and the preposition complements in intransitive prepositional verbs. For instance, *Take off your shoes*, a transitive phrasal verb, becomes *Take them off* when the direct object becomes a pronoun. In contrast, the position of the pronouns in intransitive prepositional verbs remains the same, for example, *Look at it* for *Look at the picture* rather than **Look it at*.

However, most dictionaries do not provide learners of English with such detailed information, that is, the categories of MWVs or the word classes of their particles. Without this information, where learners should place the pronouns in MWVs becomes a problem. Provided that learners of English have appropriate exposure to MWVs, knowing the accurate positions for the pronouns in MWVs

implies that English learners pay attention to the use of MWVs and, in turn, have better command of the use of MWVs. On the other hand, not knowing the correct positions suggests that learners of English might not be sensitive to MWVs and, therefore, become less familiar with the use of MWVs. This enables researchers to see how well learners of English are capable of using MWVs. Moreover, learners' difficulties in the positions of the pronouns in MWVs might further help researchers explain why MWVs are difficult and are sometimes avoided by learners in their performance from the standpoint of L2 syntactic complexity.

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多字動詞在臺灣英語教科書之引介現況

摘要

此研究主要探討尚未被列入教育部國中小英語二千字詞表的多字動詞（例如：*sit down, look at, come up with*），探查其在不同版本英語教科書中之使用情形。本研究對象為國中、小最常使用的三種英語教科書版本（國小：何嘉仁、朗文、康軒。國中：南一、佳音翰林、康軒），討論主題為：國小版本之間、國中版本之間、以及國小和國中之間多字動詞之引介情況。研究所獲得之主要發現：國小英語教科書方面，三個版本共使用 38 個多字動詞，但各版間互有重複，且各版本使用量多寡亦有不同。國中方面，三個版本共使用 138 個多字動詞。版本間一樣互有重複，使用量多寡各版本同樣有所差別。若以國小和國中合計，則共有 147 個多字動詞，其中 29 個在國小引介之後，繼續在國中教科書中使用。

關鍵詞：　片語動詞　多字動詞　英語教科書　英語文教學　英語單字

Effectiveness of a Cooperative Project on Analyzing Common Culture

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Abstract

Studies on the application of linguistics theories with the goal of analyzing perceptions of popular culture among undergraduates are relatively few compared with the number of other educational EFL studies. In the present study, learners were motivated to explore the functions and structures of songs and commercials using theories and examples examined in the course Introduction to Linguistics. The students' attitudes toward cooperation in the analysis of linguistic structures as derived from their coursework at a university in Taiwan were examined. Seventy-four sophomores were divided into groups of four or five; each group was required to analyze two songs and two commercials (one of each in English and the remainder in Chinese). The corpus of 17 English and Chinese songs as well as 17 English and Chinese commercials was analyzed from the points of view of phonetics, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. The students in this study were required to fill in a questionnaire, focusing on the learners' attitudes toward their assignments, their peer relationships, and the roles they played in the presentation of their assignments. The results showed that students chose texts for analysis according to their interests and the texts' titles, and required the teacher's guidance in the form of example demonstrations. They spent time discussing and negotiating during the project and enjoyed the cooperative process. The promotion of student reflection on the gradual understanding of complex linguistic theories and various implications therein related to materials that piqued student interest are considered. A discussion of possible limitations to and recommendations for the approach to the linguistic analysis is provided for teachers interested in determining the extent to which curriculum design motivates students to master current linguistic theories. This paper suggests that more meaningful commercials be created, more cooperative learning be promoted, and more motivating projects be designed in order to promote a more effective learning environment.

Key words: commercials, common culture, cooperative learning, learning attitude, linguistic analysis

INTRODUCTION

Background

Autonomy has been given little attention in Taiwan (Cheng & Dornyei, 2007). Considered as a Western cultural concept (Loncar & Chen, 2007), autonomy is defined as a state in which "learners are able to take charge of their own learning, determine their objectives, select methods and techniques and evaluate what has been acquired" (Littlewood, 1999, p.75). When the responsibility for the language learning

process (which includes setting goals, selecting learning strategies, and evaluating progress) is transferred from teachers to learners, learner autonomy may develop (Cotterall, 2000). Among East Asian students it is important to cultivate autonomy in carrying out assignments, as most students are not used to taking an active role in directing their learning (Loncar & Chen, 2007). How can teachers promote students' autonomy in learning? Teachers must select the most appropriate model by which their students are likely to achieve the best learning effect. One way is to use the ARCS motivational model, which can integrate motivation in the systematic instruction design process, including attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (Chao & Wang, 2005).

Most teachers of linguistics stress content-based learning, featuring the infusion of theoretical concepts. Students are often instructed with regard to linguistics theories and may only need to memorize definitions of terms, without understanding the real meanings of concepts related to their daily life. The constructionist paradigm of learning assists teachers in guiding students to internalize concepts in context (Allen, 2004; Wright, 2000). According to Cheng & Dornyei (2007), "Making the learning tasks stimulating" and "familiarizing learners with L2-related culture" are two important but poorly used macrostrategies in Taiwan. Common culture is everywhere, and one can hardly avoid its effect (Fantini, 1997). Understanding the culture of the addressers and addressees in a communicative setting is important for promoting adequate communication. Commercials are a type of popular media in modern society whose language provides teaching materials rich in tropes (Shie, 2005a & 2005b). In view of such statements, the investigator attempted to link linguistics with common culture so as to substantiate the students' linguistics concepts.

In this class, a final team-task of analyzing interesting cultural content is required. Cooperative tasks "emphasize conceptual learning and development of social skills as learners work together in small heterogeneous groups according to the principles of positive interdependence, individual accountability, face-to-face promotive interaction and group processing" (Johnson, Johnson & Stanne, 2000, quoted in Shaaban & Ghaith, 2005, p.15). Cooperative projects actively involve students in the learning process, thus serving as a good example of ARCS implementation. For this reason, such projects should be promoted more often in the current educational setting. The effect of implementing such a task is worth exploring.

The purposes of this study are, first, to discover students' motivations when analyzing common culture and the degree of assistance needed for the project; second, to observe and analyze students' preparatory analytic processes with regard to the distribution of work; third and fourth, to ascertain the benefits of completing this linguistic analysis and to assess the benefits to their learning skills; and fifth, to

ascertain the easiest, most difficult, and favorite texts for students to analyze. A final goal is to examine the correlation between students' backgrounds and their responses to the questions used in this study.

Research Questions

The research questions investigated in this study are as follows:

First, what motivates students' analysis of common culture, and what degree of assistance is needed for the project?

Next, what are students' preparatory analytic processes, and how do they distribute the work?

Third, what are the benefits of completing this linguistic analysis?

Fourth, what are the benefits of improving learning skills?

Fifth, what factors determine which texts are the easiest, most difficult, and favorite when students choose material for analysis?

Last, what is the relationship between students' backgrounds and their responses?

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section is divided into three parts: (1) the relationship between motivation and task performance; (2) the importance of teaching common culture in class; (3) characteristics and purposes of cooperative learning.

The Relationship between Motivation and Task Performance

Literature offers various results on the relationship between motivation and achievement (Cheng & Dornyei, 2007). In an investigation of Taiwanese English teachers' beliefs and their application of motivational strategies, Cheng and Dornyei found that several strategies could be applied in various cultures, but not Taiwanese culture. In Taiwanese educational settings learner autonomy is not promoted; neither is literature available regarding team-based learning that relies on students' experiences or grade performance (Livingstone & Lynch, 2000). Wenden (1998) contended that learners' attitudes toward their own autonomy were related to whether or not they could evaluate their role in learning. Higher-level students tended to manage their learning strategies better than their lower-level classmates (Wen & Johnson, 1997).

Murphy (2003) found that individuality could affect how goals are accomplished with respect to the task assigned by the teacher. He contended that to avoid too much individuality, desired pedagogical results could be achieved by attracting the learners'

attention with selected tasks. According to Murphy, learners' task perception can affect the learners themselves, influencing their attitude towards achievement or survival. However, the correlation between the learning strategies adopted and attitudes or motivations of the learners receives little attention in Asia. The learners considered in this study were required to reflect on the approach and language needed to complete the task, as this is supposed to help them develop learner autonomy (Murphy, 2003).

A complex and dynamic mixture of internal cognition, affection, external incentives, and social context may account for different degrees of learners' academic success (Gan, Humphreys & Hamp-Lyons, 2004). Another study (Kromrey & Purdom, 1995) showed that their college level students attained similar levels of achievement regardless of the treatment received. The short-term nature of the experiment (only two weeks) might explain their findings. Livingstone and Lynch found that the skills required for good group work differed from those needed for good individual work. In addition, they found that the skills required for good group work explained an individual's university assessment, because "getting the group roles and the group structure clarified could compensate for individual differences" (Livingstone & Lynch, 2000, p.341). In addition, students differed in their interpretations of their learning environment, their understanding of learning, and their interpretations of the tasks set for them, yielding variations in study actions that would affect learning results (Biggs, 2003, quoted in Goodyear & Zenios, 2007).

Exploring college students' expectations about teaching, learning and assessment, Sander, Stevenson, King, and Coates (2000) found that students liked to be taught by formal and interactive lectures, and preferred interactive lectures and group-based activities. Students' least favored learning methods were formal lectures, role-playing, and student presentations. Coursework assessment was preferred over essays, research projects, and problems/exercises. Additionally, discussion plays an important role in epistemic activities, as it can build collaborative knowledge or aid collaboration and improve learning (Goodyear & Zenios, 2007). The qualities selected by students that describe good teachers were, in decreasing order of importance, teaching skills, approachability, knowledge, enthusiasm, and organization. Sander et al.'s paper suggested that students prefer teacher led instruction and learning as well as active participation (Sander et al., 2000), but different learning styles were observed among students in different subject areas.

Trigwell, Prosser, and Waterhouse (1999) discovered that teaching with an information transmission/teacher-centered approach was closely related to surface approaches to learning and that teaching with a conceptual change/student-centered approach was closely related to a deep approach to learning. The former tended to

yield lower-quality learning outcomes, whereas students who were reported as having experienced good teaching techniques often adopted the latter. Therefore, teachers should design curricula differently in order to suit different students' needs—an action likely to make their teaching more effective and beneficial insofar as it meets their students' learning expectations. It is interesting to explore learning effects when students are provided with autonomy, competence, and relevant materials and learn in an interesting, challenging, and intrinsically motivating environment (Filak & Sheldon, 2003).

The Importance of Teaching Common Culture in Class

Defining culture in order for it to be taught or learned is difficult (Good, 2006). Culture can be considered to resemble an iceberg, in that only certain parts are noticeable, whereas the deeper parts remain invisible, immersed in the deep sea (Peterson, 2004, quoted in Good, 2006). According to Peterson, there are broad categories and details of culture. Constructivist information processing or the information-acquisition approach can be used to learn culture (Wright, 2000). Wright found that the former model could help students' understanding, internalization and comfort with unfamiliar social demands. The students can show their personal experience, attitudes and values in the learning process.

Common culture, such as certain songs and commercials, is widely known and frequently alluded to in the media. People cannot help learning from an environment saturated with common culture, as it supplies ready-made images, ideas, and patterns of behavior. In contrast to high culture and folk culture, common (pop) culture is the most immediate and contemporary element in our lives. Mass media brings people together within a body of common knowledge of a transitory nature (Fantini, 1997). "Pop culture is the shared knowledge and practices of a specific group at a specific time … and often an initiator of change" (Fantini, 1997, p. 4). Pop culture includes certain standards and commonly held beliefs about beauty, success, love, and justice. It also exerts a great influence on people's lives. Shaping society and individuals, pop culture determines the role individuals must play (Fantini, 1997). "Analyzing pop culture with a critical eye allows you to begin to free yourself from the manipulation of the media; it is an important step toward living an examined life" (Fantini, 1997, p. 2). Students need to acquire universal cultural literacy in order to better understand messages in intercultural communication.

Issues related to student life should be inserted into class lessons. For example, authentic materials, such as *The China Post* or *Sinorama,* were used to teach students to express their cultural awareness and feelings in English (Liao, 2004). Structures and strategies were manipulated for conducting successful culture-learning activities.

In the above case two steps are involved: First, learners' emotional reactions are identified and addressed in order to ensure learning is meaningful. Second, appropriate classroom behavior can be expected in a comfortable, easy, and safe environment as teachers adopt culturally sensitive strategies. In other words, teachers should use the experiential learning cycle as a framework for motivating students, and adopt meaningful strategies in the learning setting (Ryffel, 1997).

There are three main reasons for the researcher to ask students to analyze songs, namely, for affective, cognitive, and linguistic purposes. First, an atmosphere conducive to song learning leads to a weak affective filter. Second, it promotes language learning, and fosters autonomy. Third, it provides the best approach to learning colloquial English (Hsiao & Hsiao, 2005). Hsiao and Hsiao chose songs related to the story theme of their lessons as a warm-up activity, which proved to be a successful link in their lesson design. Balaz (2007) pointed out that "well-crafted popular songs often have thought-provoking content and discussing this allows learners to immediately recycle (or talk about) the language forms they brought into awareness by consciously analyzing the song" (p. 122).

In addition to songs, commercials are also an integral part of our language experience, providing valuable elements in language learning. The commercials characteristics can be judged in terms of artistic features, promotional merits or communicative effects (e.g., degree of popularity, comprehensibility, memorableness, and the audiences willingness to buy). Promotion of a product includes advertising, sales promotion, personal selling, and public relations. Advertisers' strategies are comprised of appealing methods, expressive styles, tone and manner, and media plans, which is called communication mix with total communication and direct marketing. Consumer perception is related to selective attention, distortion (prejudice or presumption), and retention (impact, tempo, or background music) (Hsiao, 1992, p.58-59). David Ogilvy contends that, when we see an advertisement, we are supposed to think, not about its creativity, but its meaningfulness, and then go buy the product (Hsiao, 1992, p. 61). In other words, the effect of a product depends, not on its features, but on its potential positioning in the client's mind. Silversten (2006, Li translated) also pointed out that the success of a great brand depends on: (a) a reliable and attractive product; (b) positioning of the brand; and (c) the cooperative group practice of taking risks.

Commercials can be used as teaching materials (Shie, 2005b). Several features characterize English commercials, such as conveying the correct product message, appealing to customers' feelings or reason, and caring about readers' thoughts and needs (Huang, 2000). The sentence patterns of commercials often draw the viewer's attention, provoke their interest, and intensify their memory, as commercials often

employ substitution, elision, parallelism, unconventional design and so on. Tropes, puns, personalization and vagueness are also used to create analogous meanings (Shie, 2005b). Style shifting or code switching also appears in commercials, potentially aiding viewers to understand multilingual social phenomena (Gijsel, Speelman, & Geeraerts, 2008; Martin, 2002). Consequently, Huang (2000) suggested that teachers grasp opportunities, select materials, adjust their methods to the teaching of commercials, and focus on functional grammar in order to improve their students' language skills.

The following are additional exercises and research involving commercials. To obtain more effective results than conventional teaching practices, Shie (2005) suggested ten kinds of exercises involving the practice of tropes in commercials: matching tasks, question and answer, sentence-making, group discussion, guided reading, brain storming, information gap, reasoning gap, inference, and connection of definitions with the defined word; these exercises are supposed to provide interesting, active ways of assimilating abstract notions. Teachers can also demonstrate such marketing strategies between Anglo-American and Taiwanese Mandarin online advertisements in terms of text connectives, code glosses, illocution markers, narrators, modality/validity markers, attitude markers, and commentaries so as to make students better understand business communication (Chang & Lin, 2007). Kuo (2008) demonstrated specific cultural understanding and social consciousness by asking reader-based metaphorical responses to texts. In the present study, the investigator is also interested in determining which components especially interest students through exploration of selected commercials and songs.

Characteristics and Purposes of Cooperative Learning

There are several rationales for using cooperative learning. Many teachers employ cooperative learning in an attempt to solve student issues, such as shyness, reticence, and passivity; which can be accounted for by factors related to other learners, teachers, classroom or school culture. Cooperative learning tends to create an atmosphere characterized by trust, mutual support, collaboration and lack of anxiety (Iftimie, 2007), because it emphasizes three important qualities: respect, empathy, and honesty (Edge, 1992). The ability to articulate experiences, thoughts, and feelings is vital to learning and knowledge (Kilthey, 1976, quoted in Edge, 1992, p. 62), though activities can influence the success or failure of the cooperative effort. When selecting an activity, teachers must keep in mind the following criteria: instruction, pacing, teacher participation or intervention, grouping, student participation, learning preferences, discussion, and students and teachers as sources of information (Ryffel, 1997).

A concrete example of providing students with a cooperative learning environment is presented for reference. In order to explore students' experiences when participating in cooperative learning, Iftimie (2007) compiled data concerning the topic "our university". He used a camcorder, students' feedback to questionnaires, and the teacher's diary, and concluded motivating, creative, and authentic cooperative projects help students learn, get involved, build team spirit, and increase autonomy.

Cooperative learning also helps develop students' research, organizational, social and speaking skills. Lang (2007a & 2007b), for example, adopted a literary circle as a cooperative approach to promote students' critical reading ability; each member of the circle had a role to play and was responsible for exchanging ideas on various issues with the others. Thus, each member of the circle became better able to understand the text, construct meaningful sentences, and acquire literacy skills.

Learners need to develop nine cooperative skills in order to achieve good interaction: attending, reflecting, focusing, thematizing, challenging, disclosing, goal-setting, trailing, and planning (Egan, 1986, quoted in Edge, 1992, p. 64). "Team-based learning can be a method of increasing complexity in the learning experience, which thus strengthens students' preparedness for the complex environments" (Livingstone & Lynch, 2000). The learner's contribution, task, and context within which the task is completed are three important factors influencing the learning outcome.

In order for students to acculturate to another language they need to revise their linguistic and cultural patterns; attitudes affect both students' motivation to learn the language and their willingness to learn about and participate in acculturation (Mantle-Bromley, 1992). Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to promote student reflection on their internalization of complex linguistics theories by cooperatively analyzing interesting materials of their own choice, such as commercials and songs, as well as to understand students' individual attitudes towards carrying out the cooperative project.

METHOD

Subjects

Out of 74 college students who took the course "Introduction to Linguistics" and participated in the study, 72 completed the questionnaire; the majority of them were female ($N = 62$). The number of students who had studied English for 7-9 years ($N = 29$) was similar to that of students with 9 to 12 years of English instruction ($N = 28$). Ten students had studied English for more than 12 years and five for less than seven

years. Similar numbers of students expressed their fondness of Chinese songs ($N = 70$) and commercials ($N = 71$). A slightly smaller number of students liked English songs ($N = 66$), and a much smaller number of students liked English commercials ($N = 56$). It seems natural that most students prefer songs or commercials in their mother tongue, but the respondents might not have had many opportunities to watch or listen to English commercials and songs.

Instrument

The students involved in the study were required to analyze authentic learning materials, such as commercials and songs, and to utilize all available resources related to the linguistics theories learned in class. This design was used in order to help the students better understand and communicate abstract concepts used in their native language to manage difficult tasks and collaborate with peers. The students were required to write one-paragraph reactions to this project. The questionnaire, entitled "Effectiveness of a cooperative project on analyzing common culture," was an adapted version of Lang's questions (2007a & 2007b) and consisted of 27 multiple-choice questions and three open-ended questions (See appendix A). It contained five subcategories: "background information," "song, commercial preference and selection", "benefit of the linguistic analysis", "presentation", and "collaboration". The questionnaire required about 20 minutes to complete. Cronbach's α of this questionnaire was 0.84, which meant that it had good reliability. The questionnaire was piloted and revised before being administered to the class.

Data Collection Procedure

A linguistic analysis of common culture was a final project for the course "Introduction to Linguistics". At the beginning of the class, the students were told that they would need to take a midterm and do a final project for the course. The students divided themselves into groups of four members each, and were explicitly guided on how to explore the topic, analyze the data, and present their project. A sample paper was shown to the students twice, and the investigator made sure the students understood how to perform the analysis. Each of the four group members was required to choose one of four texts to analyze: a Chinese song, an English song, a Chinese commercial, or an English commercial shown on TV or the Internet. TV and Internet commercials were specified because they possess sound, color, shape and action, which stimulate the audience in different ways, are fast-paced and widespread. Internet commercials are broadcast repetitively, providing repeated stimulation and forming deep impressions (Cheng, 1999). TV is also considered as a synthetic media, which has high penetration, dynamism, and commercials (Hsiao, 1992).

In order to complete their paper, students were required to apply the linguistic concepts acquired from units such as phonetics, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and discourse analysis. During the last class meeting of the course, students presented their papers in PPT format and recorded the data as a digital file. The students were evaluated based on their analytical inquiry, multimedia presentation, and written paper. After their presentations, the students were asked to fill out a questionnaire related to their attitude towards this project of putting linguistics theories into practice.

Data Analysis

The data from this study were analyzed in terms of frequency and percentage using the SPSS statistical package. A Likert Scale was used for the answers to multiple-choice questions 15-17, 20, 23-27, 29-30 (11 questions). For the questionnaire, participants had to answer every question and choose the answer they agreed with most. If students chose *strongly agree*, they received a score of 4, if they selected *strongly disagree*, they received a score of 1; a score of 3 corresponded to *agree* and 2 to *disagree*. Question 27 "Do you think that the linguistic analysis is a copy-and-paste (剪貼) job from the Internet?" is a negative question, the scores for which were reversed—that is, 4 for *strongly disagree*, 1 for *strongly agree*, 3 for *disagree* and 2 for *agree*. The higher a participant's total score, the more favorable their impression of the cooperative project. For open-ended questions 11-13, the students' answers were arranged into six categories: English songs (**ES**), English commercials (**EC**), Chinese songs (**CS**), Chinese commercials (**CC**), the answers differed from the four texts (**others**), and the answer is blank (**missing**).

The students' explanations of their responses were synthesized and translated into English if necessary. Different themes emerged in the analysis of the data pertaining to students' understanding of the project, their attitudes, the time allotted for preparing the project, preparation of resources, influence of the course topics on their judgment, and their concept of the cooperation process. These themes are presented within a framework that spans several dimensions in order to elaborate students' attitudes toward and understanding of this cooperative project.

RESULTS

The results of the current study are arranged according to the six research questions: First, what motivates students' analysis of the task and what level of assistance do they need for this project? Next, what are students' preparatory

processes for the analysis and distribution of work? Third, what are the benefits of completing this linguistic analysis? Fourth, what are the benefits of improving learning skills? Fifth, which texts are the easiest and most difficult, and which do students prefer to analyze? Finally, what is the relationship between students' backgrounds and their responses?

Students' Motivations for Analyzing the Task and Level of Assistance Needed for the Project

This first section concerns the top three reasons why most students choose songs or commercials. The most popular reason was personal interest (17.4%), followed by titles or topics (14.0%) and, finally, depth of meaning of the songs or commercials (12.4%). Close to seven tenths of the students (68.9%) believed that certain songs and commercials attracted more attention than others. The students' perceptions of the teacher's assistance revealed they expected the teacher to help them choose the songs or commercials by giving examples of previous reports (43.3%), introducing the titles of the songs and commercials (22.1%), making the songs and commercials available to them (21.2%) and, in certain cases, introducing famous singers (13.5%).

Similar to Lang's (2007b) results, students chose songs according to their interests, as well as the contents and titles of the songs. They also expected the teachers to introduce famous singers, song titles, and song availability. Personal interest and titles were possible factors that attracted learners to a given task. Models are important for stimulating creativity, but students need guidance to carry out their work. Sufficient practice or trial and error is crucial before making the final decision. On the other hand, students may choose what to analyze or be assigned a title, and work discussion and negotiation are important in forming a successful team.

Student Preparation for Analysis and Distribution of Work

More than half of the students studied at least four songs or commercials in preparation for this presentation (58.1%), and 33.8% studied two to three items. When the students decided on their individual parts of the assignment, an equal number of them reported that a voluntary decision (24.3%) or an assignment by the group's other members (24.3%) had prompted them to get involved. Most students worked hard on the project. The groups met 4-6 times (40.5%) or 1-3 times (39.2%) before presenting. The majority of the students (79.7%) reported that their group members formed a successful, cooperative team. More than seven tenths liked the arrangement of the task (analysis of 4-5 songs or commercials in groups of 4-5 members). This is again consistent with Lang's results (2007b), in which most of the students considered the literature circle successful. If students could make their own decisions to perform

their work, they might feel more satisfied than if they had been forced to do it.

Benefits of Completing the Linguistic Project

Close to seven tenths of the students (68.9%) believed that this assignment helped them develop literary and critical skills for English reading. This value is similar to Lang's (2007b) result of 71.7%. As for knowledge development, four fifths of the students felt that the assignment helped them become aware of the existence of interesting songs and commercials that they could listen to or view in their free time (81.1%), broaden their knowledge (81.1%), notice beautiful and important sentences in songs and commercials (82.5%), and develop an interest in finding out more about the singers' and reporters' backgrounds (83%). Three fourths of the students thought that this assignment helped them reflect on their feelings about the songs and commercials and link the latter to their daily life (75.7%), increased their motivation to view more commercials and listen to more songs (78.4%), provided them with others' interpretations when sharing their classmates' comments on the questions (75.7%), and helped them imagine the songs and commercials with pictures (75.4%). However, only about half of the students were willing to listen to and view the songs and commercials that other groups presented in this class (55.4%).

It is surprising to find that only half of Lang's (2007b) students wanted to know more about the authors' backgrounds, but a majority of them also agreed to having broadened their imagination, related the project to daily life, learned beautiful sentences, and tried to read others' books from the literature circle. The results are similar to Cheng and Dornyei (2007), reinforcing the fact that task learning should be made stimulating. External help can stimulate students to expand their comfort zone and willingness to learn more interesting things related to the study. Students could also be made more aware of their affective domains and artistic insights.

Benefits of Improving Learning Skills

Three fifths of the students felt that their English listening speed increased after they listened to English songs and commercials. Only about half of the students reported that their viewing and listening motivation had been enhanced (51.4%). Seven tenths found enjoyment in reading (70.3%), 30.6% used the strategy of making links with their background knowledge, 25% used vocabulary guessing, and 19.4% used interpretation during reading. Close to half of the students (47.3%) agreed that they improved their speaking skills after this assignment. Three fifths of the students (60.9%) reported that their skills in creating a Microsoft Word file (writing a paper) improved via this assignment. Half of the students (54.1%) found that they had improved their self-esteem by speaking in front of other people. For more than half of

the students (55.4%), this assignment was not just a matter of copy-and-paste from the Internet. Learning was an interrelated process. By preparing for this project, students also improved their four-skill ability or learning strategies. Lang (2007b) also showed that half of the students improved their self-esteem, and more students improved their Power Point (presentation creation) and speaking skills. Although only half improved their self-esteem, all students were given opportunities to express themselves, which is often a source of anxiety for Taiwanese students.

The Easiest, Most Difficult, and Favorite Texts

The students' answers to open-ended questions 11-13 are presented in Table 1 below. Some students considered English songs easy to analyze. Their reasons included the following: English content is long; the lyrics are simple; the melody is wonderful; it has complete English structure; it does not change its structure and is easier than the Chinese analysis; the teacher taught the analysis in English.

Some considered Chinese commercials difficult to analyze. The reasons provided for this opinion included: Chinese structure is a little different (in that it does not follow normal grammar); they omit a lot of structures and may not have strong structure for analysis; it consists of complex structures; it combines three languages (Taiwanese or short sentences in classical Chinese, which are hard to analyze); Chinese grammar is not like English, some words were omitted and this affected the meaning; above all, because they used the analytic method in English, they had to listen to it carefully.

It is interesting that if given the opportunity, most students would choose English songs to analyze. However, in the answers to questions 1 to 4, more students stated to like songs or commercials in Chinese rather than those in English. Students' reasons for their preferences included: The lyrics are good and easy, very sweet, beautiful or interesting; the content is lyric-centered, word-formation structures are easy to analyze; songs are easy to find, as students listen to songs very often, for example, one student usually listens to music while reading. Students enjoy singing and like some singers, as they are relevant to different kinds of American culture. One can learn a lot from the lyrics of English songs.

As the course "Introduction to Linguistics" is taught mostly in English, and most linguistic knowledge, such as phonetics, syntax and morphology, is related to the English language, students felt that the familiarity of the theory and practice helped them to apply knowledge obtained from the course to the project involving the linguistic analysis.

Table 1 *Students' Reported Easiest, Most Difficult, and Favorite Texts*

Text	ES	EC	CS	CC	Other	Missing
Easy to analyze	15	10	5	9	11	22
Hard to analyze	17	4	8	16	7	20
Favorite to analyze	23	3	3	16	9	18

Note. **ES** means English songs, **EC** means English commercials, **CS** means Chinese songs, **CC** means Chinese commercials, **Other** indicates a response other than the four preceding options, and **Missing** means that no response was provided.

The Relationship Between Students' Backgrounds and Their Responses

The information collected in the final part of this section is related to the students' learning background, which affected their perception of the project. The total score of the answers to the 11 multiple-choice questions in the questionnaire showed a maximum score of 86 and minimum score of 53 ($M = 67.42$, $SD = 6.67$). The students who answered that they liked to sing or listen to songs ($M = 67.98$, $SD = 6.39$) and liked to watch English commercials ($M = 68.60$, $SD = 6.52$) received significantly higher total scores on the questionnaire than those who answered "It depends" ($M = 62.17$, $SD = 7.57$), having t values of ($t = 2.08$, $p < .05$) and ($t = 2.57$, $p < .05$) respectively. The students who answered that they liked to watch Chinese commercials ($M = 3.94$, $SD = 0.6$) received significantly higher scores than those who answered, "It depends" to the statement "I am interested in finding out more about the singers' and actors' backgrounds" ($t = 2.22$, $p < .05$). The students who answered that they liked to sing or listen to songs ($M = 4.11$, $SD = 0.6$) received significantly higher scores than those who answered "It depends" ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 0.54$) to the statement "The project has introduced me to different interesting songs and commercials that I could listen to or watch in my free time" ($t = 2.29$, $p < .05$). Those who answered that they liked to sing or listen to songs ($M = 3.95$, $SD = 0.63$) received significantly higher scores than those who answered, "It depends" ($M = 3.29$, $SD = 0.94$) to the statement that they found enjoyment in reading with the use of this linguistic analysis ($t = 2.72$, $p < .05$).

It seemed that a positive attitude toward English songs or commercials might influence the students' preferences by increasing their exposure to songs and commercials, as well as the level of enjoyment connected with the task. A fondness for Chinese songs did not have any influence on the students' attitudes toward songs or commercials. The findings might imply that the more one gets in touch with some things, the more one can handle similar things well.

DISCUSSION

This study explored the advantages of using cooperative projects in college student linguistic analyses of commercials and songs. It attempted to determine what particular benefits students obtain from teamwork. The findings of this study partially confirm the hypothesis that the cooperative linguistic analysis project influences students. It demonstrated that by completing the project, students benefited with regard to their understanding of linguistics theories, and their progress in becoming more critical and responsible in the learning process.

According to the research questions, this study presents the following findings: First, most students chose songs or commercials according to their personal interests, titles, or content meaning. They expected the teacher to show previous reports and introduce titles and authentic examples. As expected, the students chose learning materials according to their personal interests, which made the assignment more stimulating. Second, students considered at least two or three items before making a choice for analysis, and either selected a topic on their own, or they were assigned one. Half of the students met more often than the other half. Third, most students liked the arrangement and considered the cooperative project to be successful. Students could demonstrate their abilities in various areas covered by this project. Fourth, most students believed that the assignment helped them develop literary and critical skills for English reading, as they demonstrated a broadened linguistic knowledge and autonomous interest in learning about related topics. The project allowed students to reflect on their feelings, link their analysis with life, read more, and expand their imagination. Most students improved their learning skills, such as listening and reading strategies, but only about half improved their speaking skills, particularly with regard to self-esteem, or skills related to paper writing. They also became concerned about social harmony and fairness within the group, as the task imposed some burden and pressure on all group members. Most of the students enjoyed the dynamics and roles involved therein. Fifth, English songs were easy to analyze; Chinese commercials were difficult to analyze; their favorite materials were English songs. Sixth, a pre-existing interest in English songs or commercials might influence the students' interest in listening to and watching more songs and commercials.

Choose Attractive and Meaningful Commercials

Choosing effective commercials is a complex process. It is therefore not surprising that students need examples to help them in their choice and analysis. Commercials include several elements: headlines, body copy, slogan or tag lines, trademarks, and illustrations (Cheng, 1999, p.32). Headlines should be remarkable,

terse, simple, precise, and tempting. The body copy is the core of a commercial, and provides quality, features, method, price, place, and service to prompt the audiences' desire to buy, because students are also among the customers, who will be attracted by the effective features of commercials.

Advertising objectives include increasing awareness of the product, providing a good impression of the product's quality, creating a desire to buy the product, and creating a good overall product impression. Being understandable, persuasive, and empathetic are components of perfect advertisements, and have interrelated benefits. The impression of ads refers to emotional responses related to five impressions: flavor, clients, products, situation, and position (Shu, 2000, p.65). The product can make the audience feel happier, which is the charm of advertisements (Shu, 2000). Therefore, advertisement designers may need to create their ads' expressions and features carefully when presenting their product.

Promote Cooperative Learning

"Introduction to Linguistics" is a difficult course, so it is a good idea to divide students into small groups. Even though each student has his/her own preferences and abilities, not all students may readily understand all linguistic phenomena. One may lack an understanding of or neglect some important areas; others can help by providing suggestions or assist in overcoming problems. In particular, when discussing knowledge with others, one may begin to reflect on what one has learned or amend existing knowledge so that further progress is possible. Cheng and Dornyei (2007) pointed out the importance of increasing learner autonomy in Taiwan, as well as promoting group cohesiveness and setting group norms. Cooperative learning is promoted to help most students express themselves, respect others, and become accountable. In modern society, working with others is very important, and different roles should be distributed. Before a student decided to analyze any song or commercial, browsing through a few others was necessary. This process helped to strengthen students' decision-making, and students also learned to negotiate with their partners when choosing their portion of the project. Since the groups needed to meet for discussion, they developed positive interaction and learned to like their arrangements. This process entails both respect for individuality and synthesis of group power.

Vary Motivating Missions in Class

There is no end to learning. Students today can get in touch using various modern technologies, and thus tend to be attracted by visual and audio stimulation that exceed the capacities of traditional curriculum design. Students are often

surrounded by a lot of media and tend to be unable to sit patiently for long periods of time. Introducing interesting, life-related activities, such as commercials and songs, helps students maintain a higher level of motivation while learning.

Variety and flexibility are two important traits for teachers to apply in their teaching settings. While creativity has recently been emphasized in education, demonstration is also required. Therefore, teachers need to prepare various and vivid samples and examples, but it is inappropriate to instruct students how to execute the project on a step-by-step basis. It is more interesting to observe students demonstrate their own individuality in the project, and this lends some enjoyment to the tedious process of correcting the students' papers.

Although the researcher expected students to express their individuality, the students also needed the teacher's help and guidance, for example, by providing examples of analytic work performed by former students so they would know how to proceed. Such examples may include famous songs and commercials or a more detailed introduction to the singers. With the accessibility of the Internet, students had little difficulty finding the materials they needed.

Love your neighbors; love the birds. It is hoped that students can apply what they learned to notice the amazing things around them. Through the project requirements, students broadened their perspectives by learning more about songs and commercials. Students learned beautiful sentences during the process; they were given the chance to reflect on their feelings; their reading skills were better than their other three language skills: listening, speaking, and writing; some abilities, such as reading and using various strategies, nonetheless improved. Students also gained confidence, but felt anxious about their presentations, perhaps due to feeling significant pressure. Therefore, teachers should create interesting classes and present proper tasks (Cheng & Dornyei, 2007).

CONCLUSION

Students' perceptions of the tasks involved in this project were related to their backgrounds, motivation to find out more about the singers or actors, and interests, such as singing. Students also received better grades when they enjoyed reading the project materials. It is not difficult to infer from this project that it is important to try to increase student interest in learning. The teacher should design learning activities related to students' lives so that the learning process readily is applicable, not just a dead absorption of knowledge. Common culture is interesting and beneficial to students if it is attractive and can expand the students' breadth of knowledge while

providing engaging discussion topics.

Attaining a higher level of proficiency in English and a higher level of cultural knowledge are the most important goals of this project. Students tended to show ingenuity, insight, and a sense of meta-linguistic awareness in their reflections. The results demonstrated that students were able to engage in analyses, accumulate knowledge beyond the standard course instruction, and experience active acquisition of knowledge about common culture. However, for a group project to be successful, resources, support, academic challenges, and group working structures should be provided and distributed. Students may need to experience other study techniques, including training in generic group skills. Group skills materials should be presented to the students, and specific roles should be selected before completing the project (Livingstone & Lynch, 2000).

The results of this study should be interpreted with some caution. Several limitations of this study are apparent, such as the small sample size and limited duration of the experiment. Variations in the details of the explanations of linguistic concepts should be provided in order to obtain more evidence of beneficial effects. It is hoped that students can become life-long learners with greater experience in joining cooperative projects promoting interdependency and autonomy.

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APPENDIX A

Effectiveness of a Cooperative Project on Analyzing Common Culture

No:

This is a questionnaire aimed at understanding what you have done in the assignment (linguistic analysis). Please feel free to fill in the answers honestly. Your answers will not affect your grade or your personal reputation. They will be used for academic purposes so that the course can be improved appropriately. Thank you for the kindness and cooperation.

Li-hsueh Hsieh (June 2007)

Please check one answer unless the question is specified as requiring multiple answers.

A. Basic information

Gender：☐ male　☐ female

Years of English learning：☐ 6 年 ☐ 7-9 年以下 ☐ 9-12 年以下 ☐ 12 年以上

1. Do you like to sing (listen to) Chinese songs?
　☐ Yes
　☐ It depends. Please specify the conditions._____

2. Do you like to watch Chinese Commercials?
　☐ Yes
　☐ It depends. Please specify the conditions._____

3. Do you like to sing (listen to) English songs?
　☐ Yes
　☐ It depends. Please specify the conditions._____

4. Do you like to watch English Commercials?
　☐ Yes
　☐ It depends. Please specify the conditions._____

B. Song, commercial preference and selection

5. What factors do you consider when you decide which songs and commercials to use as your target in the linguistic analysis? (Multiple answers possible)
　☐ title, topic ☐ availability in the library ☐ personal interests☐ rich content
　☐ type of music & commercials ☐ singer popularity ☐ genre (romance, horror)
　☐ simplicity of the content ☐ difficulty of the songs or commercials ☐
　reputation of the singers/reporter/actors ☐friend's recommendation ☐availability
　of the Chinese version ☐ meaningful depth of the songs/commercials

6. Please name the song and commercial titles you chose for analysis in your group presentation and personal reading report here.

Group report _____

Personal report _____

7. Regarding the song and commercial selection, what help do you expect your teacher to provide?

☐ availability to the songs commercials (VCD) ☐ introduction to the songs/ commercials titles ☐ examples of previous reports ☐ introduction to the famous singers reports (actors) in certain types ☐ others (please specify!) _____

8. How many songs and commercials did you read for your presentation of this paper?

☐ one ☐ 2-3 ☐ more than 4

9. What version(s) of the songs and commercials did you personally analyze?

☐ English ☐ Chinese ☐ Both

10. How did you decide which part you would analyze in the linguistic analysis activity?

☐ by lot ☐ volunteer decision ☐ individual talent ☐ group members' nomination ☐ others (please specify!) _____

11. Which song and commercial do you consider to be the easiest one(s) for the linguistic analysis? Why?

12. Which song and commercial do you consider to be the most difficult one(s) for the linguistic analysis? Why?

13. If you could choose the song and commercial you most prefer, which one would you like to analyze and why?

14. Do you agree that certain songs and commercials are more effective than others in attracting the attention of the audience?

☐ Strongly agree, for example_____

☐ Agree, for example_____

☐ Neutral_____

☐ Disagree_____

☐ Strongly disagree_____

C. Benefits of this linguistic analysis

15. The following are areas in which the linguistic analysis could be of some benefit to you. Please indicate your opinions about these statements.

a. It introduces me to different interesting songs and commercials that I might listen to or watch in my free time.

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

b. It broadens my knowledge.

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

c. It allows me to reflect on my feelings for the songs and commercials, which I could link to daily life.

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

d. It increases my motivation to watch more commercials and listen to more songs.

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

e. It provides me with people's interpretations via sharing classmates' discussion questions.

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

f. It helps me to notice the beautiful and important sentences in the songs and commercials.

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

g. It stimulates my interest in finding out more about the singers' and actors' backgrounds.

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

h. It helps me imagine the songs and commercials with pictures.

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

16. Do you find that your English listening speed becomes faster after you listen to English songs and English commercials?

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

17. Do you feel that the linguistic analysis helps you develop a literary and critical mind in terms of English reading?

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

18. Apart from the songs and commercials you analyzed in the linguistic analysis, have you ever tried to listen to or watch the songs and commercials that other groups presented?

☐ Yes

Please provide the song and commercial titles here. _____

☐ No

19. After this activity, how do you think your watching and listening motivation

has changed?

☐ My watching and listening motivation has increased.

☐ My motivation to watch and listen is the same as before.

☐ My motivation to watch and listen has decreased.

20. Do you find enjoyment in reading through this linguistic analysis?

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

21. What reading strategies did you use for reading? (multiple answers)

☐ links with background knowledge ☐ predicting ☐ vocabulary guessing
☐ making inferences ☐ interpreting

22. Of the above, which point do you think the linguistic analysis helps you to develop most?

D. Presentation

23. Do you find that your speaking skills improved through this activity?

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

Why?_____

24. Do you feel that your skills in creating Word files (writing a paper) improved through this activity?

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

Why?_____

25. Do you find this activity helped you develop confidence in speaking in front of other people?

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

26. What do you think about the atmosphere of the classroom lessons?

☐ boring ☐ happy ☐ anxious ☐ relaxing ☐ pleasant ☐ others

27. Do you think that the linguistic analysis is a copy-and-paste (剪貼) job from the Internet?

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

E. Collaboration

28. After you decided which songs (commercials) to analyze, how many meetings did you have before your actual presentation?

☐ 1-3 times ☐ 4-6 times ☐ 7-9 times ☐ more than 10 times

29. Do you think that cooperation among group members creates a successful analysis team?

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

30. A group containing 4-5 people selects 4-5 songs and commercials. What do you think about this arrangement?

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neutral ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree

合作分析通俗文化之成效

摘要

一般語言學課程以內容取向為主要上課方式。爲了加深大學生應用所學之語言學理論概念，本文作者設計合作分析通俗文化之報告，要求學生應用上語言學概論所學之概念，探討生活中的歌曲及廣告。作者研究台灣一所大學之七十四名大二生，每四人一組，共分成約十七組，各分析一篇中文廣告、中文歌曲、英文廣告、英文歌曲。成員需應用本課程所學習的理論去分析，學生在期末時需填寫一份問卷，以了解本合作報告對學生的影響，以及了解學生背景是否與回答之意見相關。本文發現，學生依照興趣和內容選擇文體，需老師展示例子以解釋，完成分析的過程中，須不斷尋求最適宜的歌曲及廣告，並與他人合作協調，經由本研究之反省，學生學習去應用所學，更能關照生活中有關之通俗文化。本身喜歡歌唱者，更能從研究學習中得到正面反應。本文作者建議未來廣告業者可多設計有意義之廣告，學校多倡導合作學習，老師多變化教學任務，以製造更有成效之學習環境。

關鍵詞： 合作學習　通俗文化　語言分析　廣告　學習態度

Intertextuality in Drug and Dietary Supplement Ads: Maximizing Relevance

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Abstract

This paper examines the use of visuals and discourse features of advertisements for drugs and dietary supplements in four different monthly health magazines. Drawing on Sperber and Wilson's relevance theory, the present study compared the form and organization of linguistic and visual elements in the ads through a discourse analysis approach. The findings show that drug ads depended more on visuals to reconstruct contexts that the potential consumers could relate to than ads for dietary supplements. This contextual effect thus maximized the relevance of products to the magazine readers. Three discourse features that reflect intertextuality were identified in the data, including adopting discourse representation or speech reportage, mixing discourse types, and recycling. Both visuals and linguistics/discourse devices were used strategically to a certain extent in order to reinforce the contextual implicature and relevance between products and potential consumers.

Key words: discourse analysis, drug ads, dietary supplement ads, intertextuality, visual analysis

INTRODUCTION

This study examines the advertisements for dietary supplements and drugs in four monthly magazines that target different groups of readers. The purpose was to investigate the use of visuals and discourse features of the ads and examine how the use of such features creates or maximizes the products' relevance to potential consumers. Although both drug and dietary supplement advertisements belong to the same genre of media discourse and can be considered as a type of medical discourse due to the nature of the products, the strategies ad copywriters resort to can vary to some extent because different products tend to target different groups of consumers. Both the form and the organization of linguistic and visual elements in the two kinds of ads will be analyzed and compared. The notion of intertextuality and Sperber and Wilson's (1995) relevance theory will be used as analytical frameworks in this study.

In her discussion of relevance theory and the language of advertising, Byrne (1992) notes, "[advertising] is an exercise in communication economics in which the communicator endeavors to utilize scarce resources in the best and most effective

combination to bring the desired return" (p. 1). It is a genre of media discourse with persuasive intent. Whether it is used to inform the public of or to promote a certain product or idea, advertising falls into the category of persuasive communication that can be found in various genres of media discourse (e.g., TV, radio, magazines, newspapers, posters, and commercial websites) (Rotzoll, 1985). Most often, the main purpose of advertisers is to alter viewers' behavior, level of awareness, knowledge, and attitudes "in a manner that would be beneficial to them" (Rotzoll, 1985, p. 94).

Rotzoll (1985) defines advertisements as a "symbol package" with several characteristics (p. 99). First, advertisements lack immediate feedback. The feedback is usually inferred from the increase or decrease of product sales. Second, repetition of the same message can usually be observed in most advertisements, whether it's through verbal or visual enhancement. Third, ads commonly involve hyperbole, "'puffing,' exaggeration, [and] fancy" (p. 99). They usually serve as "a form of alleviating imagery…offering a world far more interesting, glamorous, sinful, alluring, clean, better ordered, and exciting than that we found around us" (Rotzoll, 1985, p. 99).

ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Researchers have suggested that the linguistic-pragmatic effectiveness of advertising text determines whether certain ads achieve what advertisers intend to do (Bryne, 1992). Factors that can influence the degree of such effectiveness include "the interaction between the text, the reader/hearer's context (cognitive environment), and the effort [s/he] is prepared to make to interpret the message and its implications" (Bryne, 1992, p. 1). Because ads can involve a high degree of creative language use, Bryne argues that a linguistic-pragmatic study would be helpful in examining the effectiveness of such creative device. Sperber and Wilson's relevance theory, according to Bryne (1992), is a useful framework for such a study since it "accounts for the recovery of both the explicature of an utterance and its implicatures, the semantic and pragmatic elements, what is said and what is implied" (p. 2). Although relevance theory is usually used in the analysis of semantic elements (e.g., pictorial metaphors), Bryne contends that it is "essentially" a theory of pragmatics that takes into accounts the "contextual and occasion factors in the interpretation of an utterance" (pp. 2-3). Sperber and Wilson also note that pragmatic process should be "used to bridge the gap between the semantic representations of the sentences and the interpretation of utterances in context" (1995, p. 167).

Sperber and Wilson's relevance theory aims to explain "how the hearer infers the speaker's meaning on the basis of the evidence provided" (qtd. in Ward & Horn, 2004, p. 607). They argue that "humans tend to pay attention to the most relevant phenomena and to process them in a context that maximizes their relevance" (1995, p.9). Although in many cases, advertisements are usually designed to convey certain messages, either explicitly or implicitly, to potential consumers, whether the ads serve this purpose depends on how relevant the reader perceives it is to his/her situation.

In terms of communication, Sperber and Wilson (1995) identify 'informative intention' and 'communicative intention.' While 'informative intention' refers to a person's wish to communicate a certain message, 'communicative intention' is his or her wish to have readers/hearers' attention. In the case of advertising, the advertiser is the communicator whose intention to inform the public of a certain product or idea is always embedded in the ad that "in itself embodies a bid for attention" (Forceville, 1996, p. 98). Based on the relevance theory, which focuses on "speaker meaning and hearer interpretation by means of contextual implication," the ads will not have an impact on readers/hearers unless they find the advertising messages relevant to them (Forceville, 1996, p. 99). Quoted in Bryne (1992), Day (1984) notes:

> If the product is not perceived as being sufficiently relevant to enough people, the product dies [...]. The product must be seen to be 'relevant' to the way people live, which means the communication must start from a common point of reference.

Sperber and Wilson note that linguistic styles "[arise] in pursuit of relevance and that the degree of responsibility the hearer has to take for the interpretation of an utterance varies according to poeticness of the style used" (qtd. in Bryne, 1992, p. 6). Although Sperber and Wilson focus mainly on spoken discourse, their theory can also be applied to the language used in ads because ads usually comprise "written-to-be-spoken" (scripted) language and ad copywriters tend to "reproduce the spontaneous everyday language of the target audience" (Bryne, 1992, p. 6; Leech, 1966). Sperber and Wilson's relevance theory is thus useful in analyzing ads that promote products with a narrowly-defined group of consumers. Because not everyone who views the ads will find the products relevant to them, the advertisers need to manipulate texts, both verbal and visual, to maximize their relevance.

In addition to the relevance theory, Bakhtin's idea on intertextuality will be used in the analysis of the ads collected. In media discourse analysis, Fairclough suggests that one also adopt intertextual analysis since it "has an important mediating role in

linking text to context" (1995, p. 211). This notion is supported by a three-dimensional view of discourse analysis (i.e., analysis of context, analysis of processes of text production and interpretation, and analysis of text) (Fairclough, 1995). It is argued that most texts are "linguistically heterogeneous, i.e., made up of elements which have varying and sometimes contradictory stylistic and semantic values," and a certain text may draw upon a plurality of prior genres, discourses or narratives" (Bakhtin 1986; Fairclough, 1995, p. 189; Kristeva, 1986). Since advertisements are a genre of media discourse, an intertextual analysis can provide us with a better understanding of persuasive advertising messages.

Drawing on Sperber and Wilson's relevance framework, Bryne suggests that when analyzing ads, one also look at the linguistic styles that increase contextual implications. These linguistic styles include phonetic effects, length of texts, metaphors, and various linguistic devices (e.g., use of imperatives, cohesive devices, hyperboles, rhetorical questions). Many studies have looked at different linguistic devices and persuasive strategies in different kinds of written ads (Bruthiaux, 1994, 2000; Gramberg, 1998; Marley, 2002; Oh, 2001; Schaffer, 1998). For example, Marley (2002) analyzed the use of questions and modality in written dating advertisements. Text-initial, text-final, and wh- questions were three major types of questions used in dating ads and were primarily used to "enact and project speech-like interactional roles" for advertisers and readers (2002, p. 75). The use of modality, on the other hand, was to "engage potential partners and negotiate mutual suitability" (2002, p.75). Oh (2001) examined the function and use of demonstratives or deictic terms in product-selling advertisements appearing in popular magazines such as *TIME, People, Elle, Sports Illustrated*, and so on. The results are in line with the common beliefs that the degree of focus determines one's demonstrative choices. The demonstratives, *this, that,* and *it,* signaling high, mid, and low focus, share a major function of directing readers' attention to the product. For example, *this* usually imposes main focus on the advertised product, "associating its inherent meanings of newness and importance with" it. (2001, p. 143). Oh concludes that the use of demonstratives reflects "the genre-specific characteristics of written advertisements" because the usage is usually adapted to suit the primary purpose of advertising discourse, that is, "persuasion or selling" (Oh, 2001, p. 144).

Bruthiaux (1994) investigated functional variation in the language of four different types of classified ads (i.e., job, auto, housing, and personal ads) by looking at the use and frequency of function words, including definite and indefinite articles, pronouns, copulas, and prepositions. The frequency of the function words was used as a measure of syntactic elaboration. His findings indicates a "significant variation in degrees of syntactic elaboration across ad categories" (1994, p. 21). Personal and job

ads, in general, showed a greater lexical variety and higher frequency of function words than auto and housing ads. For example, compared to auto and housing ads, more indefinite articles were found in job and personal ads, which featured "great involvement in participant roles" (1994, p. 31). Also, job and personal ad writers tended to "make explicit less predictable referential links between entities in their texts or between their texts and the outside world" (Bruthiaux, 1994. p. 35). Bruthiaux thus concludes that the need for greater explicitness in certain ads (e.g., job and personal ads) significantly contributes to functional variation in ad genre.

Although several studies have examined the linguistic features of different kinds of advertisements, few studies focused on intertextuality and examined the relationship between visuals and written texts in the health product ads that target different groups of consumers. This study examines intertextuality in the advertising language in written ads for drugs and dietary supplements. The linguistic devices such as the use of rhetorical questions and imperatives will be analyzed. The use of visuals will also be looked at to better understand how it might help create a contextual implicature embedded in the ads.

METHODOLOGY

The data for this study were drawn from four different monthly magazines on health-related topics: *Vegetarian Times* (Sep. 2004 issue), *Life Extension* (Sep. 2004), *Prevention* (Jul., Aug., Sep., and Oct. 2004), and *Health* (Sep., and Oct. 2004). While *Vegetarian Times* and *Life Extension* tend to target a specific audience (i.e., vegetarians, the elderly, and people who are concerned about aging), *Prevention* and *Health* are geared toward anyone who is concerned about health related issues. Only two kinds of ads were chosen for analysis: 1) ads for dietary supplements and 2) ads for drugs that treat common health problems (e.g., allergy, heartburn, migraine, and arthritis). Because there were many kinds of dietary supplements in the chosen magazines, only ads for more commonly known dietary supplements such as vitamins, enzymes, weight controls, and those that promote healthy bones or joints (e.g., calcium and glucosamine) were included for analysis. No drugs ads were found in *Life Extension* and *Vegetarian*; therefore, all the drug ads in this study were collected from *Prevention* and *Health*. Due to the sporadic appearance of drug ads, more than one issue of the two magazines was searched for the ads. A total of 41 ads were collected for analysis. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the number of ads collected from each magazine. It is interesting that no drugs ads were found in *Life Extension* (LE)

and *Vegetarian Times* (VT). The reason might be that the readership of both magazines is more narrowly-defined and specific than that of *Health* and *Prevention*, which are geared toward the general public that care about health in general.

Table 1 *Dietary Supplement Ads*

	Life Extension	Vegetarian Times	Prevention	Health
Vitamins	2	5	5	2
Calcium/Glucosamine	2	0	4	0
Weight Control	1	2	3	0
Enzyme	1	1	0	0
Sub-total	6	8	12	2

The total number of ads for dietary supplements: 28

Table 2 *Drug Ads*

	Life Extension	Vegetarian Times	Prevention	Health
Allergy	0	0	3	2
Arthritis	0	0	2	1
Heartburn	0	0	2	1
Migraine	0	0	1	1
Sub-total	0	0	8	5

The total number of drug ads: 13

RESULTS

This section describes the analysis of visuals and shared discourse features of written texts in the data collected. The analysis shows that visuals were mainly used to increase relevance between products and potential customers even though the use of images and frequency of appearance varied to some extent across the two ad categories. The use of a headline or lead and "written-to-be-spoken" language were commonly found in both drug and dietary supplement ads. The "written-to-be-spoken" language demonstrates three intertextual features: discourse representation or speech reportage, mixing discourse types, and recycling. The following analysis begins with an examination of visuals.

Visuals as a Strategy of Maximizing Relevance

Although both ads for dietary supplements and drugs all resorted to similar linguistic devices (e.g., the use of rhetorical questions or imperatives) to create a

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buying incentive, one major difference between the ads was the use of visuals. Before I turn to the analysis of linguistic devices, I will focus on the differences between the use of visuals here. The results of analysis show that drug ads depended more on visuals to "reconstruct" a context that the consumers could relate to than the ads of dietary supplements. To better understand the context created in the ads, I specifically examined the appearance of human and non-human characters in the ads. The gender and role of human figures were also compared.

It was found that while human images/characters appeared in 86 percent of the total drug ads, only 42 percent of the ads for dietary supplements included human images. Interestingly, the ads for drugs treating allergy or migraine tended to include young female characters and non-human characters (e.g., an embodiment of germs or a monster attacking the female character's head with a hammer). The three ads for arthritis medicine all included images of middle-aged or old males or females. Non-human objects such as pizza often appeared in the ad of a drug treating heartburn. Overall, the visuals in the drug ads were highly relevant to the nature of the products and the target consumers.

It was found that human and non-human images/characters were included in the drug ads to create a situation or context in which the human character was either suffering from or alleviating from a health problem such as arthritis or allergy. By using the visuals, ad copywriters were able to create/enhance the "contextual effects" on the viewers, which included "contextual implication, strengthening of existing assumptions, [and] contradiction of existing assumptions" (Bryne, 1992, p. 34; Sperber and Wilson, 1995). These contextual effects thus maximized the relevance. For example, Figure 1, retrieved from an ad on *Allegra-D,* a medication for allergy, includes two contrasting pictures of the same female character in two different situations--suffering from or getting rid of allergy symptoms. The use of the contrasting images (one with watery eyes and the other holding flowers with a big smile) can strengthen the contextual implication that taking the drug makes one experience "allergy-free" life the way the female character does.

Figure 1. Allegra-D.

Source: *Health,* September 2004

In addition, the visuals that include human images/characters tend to reflect celebrity endorsement. Most often the image of a famous figure in sports or entertainment industry was used with direct quotes from him or her to create contextual implications. Figure 2 shows an example of how the ad copywriter of *OSCAL,* a calcium supplement, used an image showing a former Olympic Gold Medalist, Peggy Fleming in her late 50s, playing with her little grandson by carrying him on her back. The image, involving a famous figure, not only conveys a contextual implication that taking OsCal makes one feel as energetic and active as Peggy Fleming does, but it may also contradict most viewers' existing assumption that a person at Fleming's age is less able to play with children like Peggy Fleming does. The image thus enhances the product's relevance with potential customers, especially those in Fleming's age group.
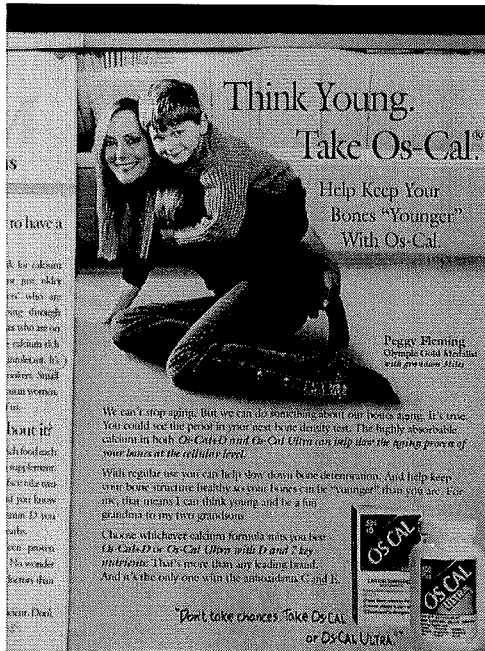
Figure 2. OsCal.

Source: *Prevention,* September, 2004

The ads for dietary supplements included fewer human images than drug ads. In the ads that included human images, female characters appeared more often than male characters. Among the few drug ads that showed human images, while 83 percent included female characters (aged between 20s and 50s), only 41 percent showed male characters. Most often male characters appeared together with a female character or in an image that portrays family life. This shows that ads for dietary supplements seem to target female consumers, although further research with a larger sample size might be needed to confirm this finding. Interestingly, despite the fact that the ads for dietary supplements included fewer human images/characters, 88 percent of the ads for dietary supplements contained the images of actual products, in addition to brand names and logos. This was different from drug ads since only 36 percent of the drug ads included an image of actual products.

The differences in the use of visuals between drug ads and ads for dietary supplements might depend on the purposes of the products themselves and their target consumers. While drug ads promote products that can treat or alleviate certain illnesses or health problems, dietary supplement ads seem to promote an idea of disease prevention. Since it is more difficult to visualize the idea or the advantages that come along with disease prevention (except for showing a female/male with a

perfect body figure or an old couple smiling together), the images of actual products tend to be used to enhance viewers' background knowledge about the products. In addition to product images, images of fruits were often shown in dietary supplement ads. The image thus creates a feeling that the products are equal to fruits that are rich in vitamins. In sum, visuals were used differently in the ads to create different contextual meanings based on the nature of products and target consumers with a purpose of maximizing relevance.

Shared Features of Written Texts in Ads

The use of a headline or a lead is common in all the ads collected for this study. The grammatical construction of headlines in the data falls into one of the five categories: noun phrases/prepositional phrases, statements, imperatives, statements followed by imperatives, and rhetorical questions followed by imperatives. Table 3 illustrates some examples of each category.

Table 3 *Grammatical Categories of Headlines*

	Examples
Phrases (NP; PP)	1. New Ester-E. The Next Generation of Vitamin E. 2. The pill that limits carbohydrate absorption. 3. Innovative Formulas. 30 years of experience. Rigorous Testing. 4. For John's head. For John's shoulders. For John's heartburn.
Statements	1. Initially you might feel guilty having so many nutrients all to yourself. 2. We've charted a masterpiece. 3. You need something strong to keep you at your best. Double espressos don't count.
Imperatives	1. Challenge the American Epidemic! 2. Get whistles from construction workers. And nutritionists. 3. Feel great while you lose weight!
Statements + Imperatives	1. Life's tough. Fight back. 2. Ordinary multivitamins are a waste of vital nutrients, and money. FIGHT BACK.
Rhetorical questions + Imperatives	1. Focused on carbs? Intercepts them. 2. To bend or not to bend? Don't let arthritis joint pain decide for you. 3. Can't take the congestions? Take Allegra-D.

(NP: noun phrases; PP: prepositional phrases)

It should be noted that some of the leads or headlines were constructed by using texts that involved two different linguistic categories as in "Life's tough. Fight back." Although the above mentioned linguistic categories could be found in both drug and dietary supplement ads, the use of imperatives indicates differences. In the drug ads, imperatives were seldom used alone and usually appeared after a rhetorical question. Examples include "Think your over-the-counter pain relievers for arthritis or joint pain are totally safe? Think again." and "Can't take the congestions? Take Allegra-D." Interestingly, the imperative sounds more like a direct suggestion from the advertiser than a construction whose "primary role is giving orders" due to the existence of the preceding rhetorical question (Matthews, 1997). The imperatives in the ads for dietary supplements, on the contrary, were mostly used alone or appeared after a statement. For example, the headline of an ad for a multivitamin product reads, "Ordinary multivitamins are a waste of vital nutrients, and money. FIGHT BACK." Here the headline involves a presupposition that the viewer is taking one of those ordinary multivitamins. Also, the statement seems to serve as a reason why one needs to "fight back."

Both the rhetorical questions and statements before the imperatives included information that could increase the relevance of the products to potential consumers. The rhetorical questions in drug ads, for instance, were usually about the symptoms that consumers might suffer from. In "Can't take the congestions?", the ad copywriter seems to presuppose that consumers are experiencing allergy that causes congestion. This presupposition creates a contextual implication that one does not have to suffer from congestion and that one can get relief by taking the medication. Presupposition, according to Fairclough (1992), is intertextual, and most often manipulative. In media discourse, "presuppositions are effective ways to manipulate people, because they are often difficult to challenge" (p. 283). Presupposition is often taken for granted by the text producer and "can be interpreted in terms of intertextual relations with previous texts of the text producer" (Fairclough, 1992, p. 283).

Another shared feature of the data is the use of "written-to-be-spoken" language featuring informal vocabulary and fragmented syntax (Byrne, 1992). Such "written-to-be-spoken" texts are usually composed of parts of other texts or discourse types to attract readers' attention and to maximize the relevance. Discourse representation, mixing discourse types, and recycling are the three linguistic/discourse features that reflect intertextuality in the data collected (Fairclough, 1992; Hermeren, 1999; Johnstone, 2002).

Discourse representation. Discourse representation or speech reportage, commonly used in news reports, "is a form of intertextuality in which parts of specific

other texts are incorporated into a text" and is usually marked "with devices such as quotation marks and reporting clauses (e.g., *she said* or *Mary claimed*)" (Fairclough, 1992, p. 273). In the data, discourse representation is reflected in the use of direct speech with quotation marks.

The direct speech within quotation marks informed readers of other people's experience in using the product. Most often the direct speech was addressed by a character in the ad. Example 1 was taken from an ad for an arthritis formula, Chondro-Pro, right below a picture of Pat Boone, a popular rock-and-roll singer in his 60s. The direct speech creates a feeling that Pat Boone is directly talking to the viewer.

Example 1

"I used to have pain in my knees. Now, with Chondro-Pro, I can play two hours of tennis a day…and win!"

Example 2

"I won't let arthritis pain keep me from teaching."

Example 3
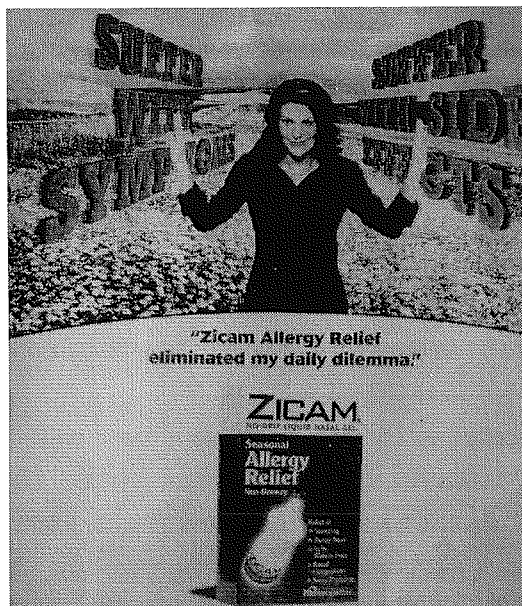
"Every morning, I had to make a tough decision: take my allergy medicine and put up with unpleasant side effects. Or skip the medicine and suffer the allergy symptoms. Either way, I suffered! Then I found Zicam Allergy Relief. It reduced my allergy symptoms without making me feel drowsy or jittery. Now I use Zicam every day and I feel great."

Example 2 was retrieved from an ad for Vioxx, a drug for arthritis pain. The direct speech within quotation marks was used as headline and appeared right next to a full-page picture, showing a female African American teacher working with kids with full energy in a classroom. Here, the use of the image and direct speech within quotation marks creates an implicature that taking Vioxx offers one an "arthritis pain free" life. In example 3, the direct speech was put below an image of a female character. The leads and the personal narrative were put in quotes to illustrate positive experience of taking the medication. This creates a contextual implication that "since Zicam has worked for me, it will work for you too."

Mixing discourse types. It was found that ad writers tended to use the form or format of different discourse types and adapted them to make the product look more appealing. The analysis of data showed that the form/format of newspaper articles and research reports is sometimes adopted to inform viewers of the superiority of products. Figure 3 showed how the ad copywriter used a mock news report to tout the product. Similarly, ads for dietary supplements, especially those in *Life Extension* magazine, tended to take the form of a research report which contained dense information and usually included references to scientific studies to show the effectiveness of the product. Example 4 shows an opening paragraph taken from an ad for a weight control supplement called Super CLA in *Life Extension.* In this example, the ad writer compared the results of different research on conjugated linoleic acid (CLA) to set up a case of why one should take the product. Here the way the text was composed is similar to that of an academic research report in which the author usually draws on scientific research to support his/her points. The copywriter of dietary supplement ads tends to make use of this rhetorical technique either to get viewers' attention or to show potency of the products.
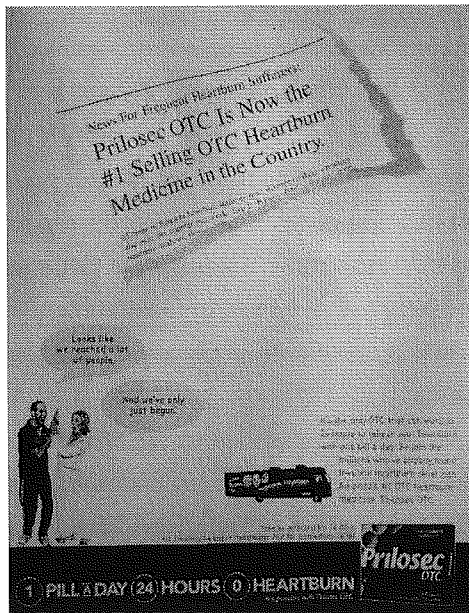
Figure 3. Prilosec.

Source: *Health*, September, 2004.

Example 4

Since its introduction in 1996, **conjugated linoleic acid** (CLA) has become an enormously popular supplement to help **control excess body fat.** A review of previously published scientific studies shows that CLA reduces **body fat** while increasing lean muscle mass **when used in conjunction with reduced calorie intake and an increase in physical activity.** These studies, however, were all relatively short term. The results of a new one-year CLA study were released at the 94th Annual Meeting of the American Oil and Chemical Society (May 4-7, 2003). The new study, titled **"Efficacy and Safety of One-Year Supplementation with Conjugated Linoleic Acid in Moderate Overweight,"** found that compared to placebo, CLA-supplemented subjects reduced body fat by 9% and increased lean muscle by 2%. This study confirmed **a reduction in total body weight** in addition to body fat percentage. Analyses of blood tests showed **no side effects** over this one-year period.

In addition to drawing on the style of research report genre, the ad copywriter usually highlighted certain information in written texts by making it in bold. In example 4, the highlighted portion summarizes the main purpose and effect of the product—"conjugated linoleic acid (CLA) control[s] excess body fat...when used in conjunction with reduced calorie intake and an increase in physical activity...reduced

body fat by 9%...reduction in total body weight...no side effects." This highlighting enables viewers to get the gist of the entire text without reading all the details.

Some ads also included paraphrasing of cited sources and footnotes with complete references to the sources. Example 5, retrieved from an ad for a dietary supplement called WellBetX PGX, illustrates one of such references included in one ad. Interestingly, the use of the research report genre and footnotes is a feature that was not found in any of the drug ads collected. This might have to do with the difference between dietary supplements and drugs. Unlike drugs, dietary supplements are not usually viewed as a necessity, especially for those who are not concerned about health issues. Therefore, the ads for dietary supplements tend to draw on clinical scientific research to show that there is a need for one to use the products. The use of clinical research creates a feeling that the information presented in the ads is not ungrounded and deserves one's attention.

Example 5.
The patent-pending PGX formula is the result of hundreds of tests designed to create a highly viscous fiber that "soaks up" some carbohydrates in the grastroniestinal tract before they are assimilated into the bloodstream.[2]
[text deleted]

2.Marlett JA, McBurney MI, Slavin JL, American Dietetic Association. Position of the American Dietetic Association: health implications of dietary fiber. J Am Diet Assoc. 2002 Jul; 102(7): 993-1000.

Recycling. Another feature that involves intertextuality is the use of proverbs, sayings, aphorisms, maxims, catchphrases, clichés, allusions and similar expressions (Hermeren, 1999). Most often such usage was altered a bit (e.g., word substitution, spelling changes, alteration in phonetic or phonological features) to fit the content and the context reconstructed in the ads. The headline of an ad for Bextra arthritis medicine, "To bend or not to bend", in Figure 4 is an alteration of a famous line in Shakespeare's play, *Hamlet*—"To be or not to be: that is the question". The headline was then followed by a half-page image of an elderly man picking up a morning newspaper. By changing some words in a famous line that portrays Hamlet's dilemma, the copywriter was able to "reconstruct" a difficult situation which arthritis patients would find themselves in when picking up morning newspapers. Although the word "be" was replaced with "bend" and thus undergoing phonetic alteration (i.e., /bi/ → /bɛnd/), the grammatical structure and the first-part spelling "be" in "bend" might still reinforce one's memory about Shakespeare's famous line and the dilemma presented through the rhetorical question. Such alteration makes the rhetorical question more

relevant to the potential consumers' situation. The use of the headline and the image thus creates a contextual implication that taking the product would prevent one from such as a dilemma.

Figure 4. Bextra.

Source: *Health,* October, 2004

Example 6

> Get whistles from
> Construction workers.
> And nutritionists.

Anther type of recycling is the use of context-dependent utterances, as shown in example 6, retrieved from an ad for O'LAY multivitamins. The product is usually geared toward female consumers in the 30s-50s age groups who care about their skin. The leads were placed right next to the image of a smiling female character with radiant skin tones. The imperative, "get whistles from construction workers", implies that using the product makes one look so gorgeous that she can get whistles from them. Interestingly, the copywriter seems to presuppose that women like getting whistles, although in reality, some do not like it and might even feel offended if someone does that to them.

Recycling of certain words or part of words in terms of spelling and phonological features is also common in the data and usually reflects in the product names, as shown in example 7. The intertextuality in this case is at lexical level, as in the name of an allergy medicine, "allegra". "Allegra" is the combination of partial spelling of two words—"**aller**gy" and "Via**gra**." The combination of the two morphs—one implying the health problem and the other, the name of a popular drug for men—can remind consumers of not only the purpose of the drug but also the product name itself due to the high publicity of Viagra. "Allegra-D ", a different type of allergy medicine from the same company, is another example. Because the product is for congestion relief, the "D" in the name seems to be used on purpose to echo the /di/ in the word, "decongestion," and thus reminds viewers of the purpose of the drug. In addition, the use of second person possessive pronoun "your" and the superlative adjective, "most frustrating" in the lead maximize the relevance because of a presupposition that viewers suffer from congestion and consider it as the most frustrating symptom.

Example 7

ALLEGRA-D RELIEVES YOUR MOST

FRUSTRATING ALLERGY SYMPTOM:

CONGESTION.

[body text deleted]

allegra-**D**

FINALLY, D-CONGESTED.

Other examples include "Aller-7", a dietary supplement containing seven herbal extracts to enhance respiratory health, and "Ester-E", a vitamin E supplement. The "Ester-" in the name is borrowed from "Ester-C", which was first introduced in the *Journal of Research Communications in Chemical Pathology* to describe a patented vitamin C complex, whose absorption rate is twice faster than the regular vitamin C supplements (Murray, 1993).

CONCLUSION

Drawing on relevance theory and the concept of intertextuality, I have analyzed

drug and dietary supplement ads that are geared towards different groups of consumers. The results indicated that compared to ads for dietary supplements, the drug ads tended to rely more on visuals to increase relevance between products and potential consumers who might be also afflicted with health problems portrayed in the images. Most often the visuals in the drug ads were designed to illustrate a certain context involving human or non-human characters to reinforce a contextual implicature that the advertisers would like to pass to the viewers. The visuals in the dietary supplement ads, on the other hand, were mostly the images of actual products. Some ads for dietary supplements include a photo of products and a female character with perfect body figure to create a contextual implicature that if one took the products, she would be more likely to have a perfect body figure too.

In addition to the visuals, I have examined intertextuality in the written components of the ads. Discourse representation, mixing discourse types, and recycling are three intertextual strategies observed in the data. Discourse representation involves direct speech from a human or non-human character within quotation marks. The written text in the ads for dietary supplements tends to take the form of a research report genre to inform viewers of the advantages of using the products. Finally, intertextuality also funnels through the recycling of previous texts in both sentential and lexical levels (e.g., using a famous line in literature, other drug names, or the medical terms of certain health problems). These intertextual elements not only serve as a means of getting viewers' attention, but they can also enhance viewers' memories about the products due to the catchy feeling of the borrowed words, linguistic texts, or forms.

This study primarily focused on examining the use of visuals and discourse features of drug and dietary supplement ads in four monthly magazines. However, it is not without limitations. Because of the small data size, there was an imbalance between the two kinds of ads collected. Fewer drug ads were found in the four different monthly magazines. Further research with a larger and balanced data set is needed before the results of this study can be generalized to all the drug and dietary supplement ads in general. In addition, this study only examined drug and dietary supplement ads in English magazines targeting mainly Western English-speaking population. For future research, one can analyze ads in magazines published in languages other than English to explore the ad genre from a cross-cultural perspective. Another direction for future research is to look at ads of various products in different print or audio-visual media (e.g., newspapers, TV, radio, or commercial websites, etc.) to compare and contrast the intertextual elements and strategies of maximizing relevance.

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藥品與保健食品廣告的相關性及互文性分析

摘要

本研究藉由檢視藥品與保健食品廣告中的圖像運用和文體特色，來探究此兩種廣告的互文性 (Intertextuality)。研究語料取自在美國發行，以健康保健為主題之四種英文雜誌所刊登的醫藥廣告。根據 Sperber 與 Wilson 所提出的關連理論 (Relevance Theory)為架構，以言談分析法，比較所蒐集的廣告樣品中，語言及視覺要素的形式和結構。研究結果顯示藥品廣告比保健食品廣告採用更多的圖像來重建語境及增強產品與潛在消費者的相關性。本研究也發現三種顯示互文性的語篇特色:包含不同語篇表徵的引用或改寫、跨文本的互涉(言談類型的混合)以及特定語言單位(例如：詞素、語素或音素)的重複使用。總結發現，醫藥廣告撰寫者常運用不同層次的圖像及語言要素來增強情境上的蘊含(contextual Implicature)藉以吸引潛在消費者的注意。

關鍵詞： 言談/論述分析　藥品廣告　保健食品廣告　互文性
　　　　　視覺圖像分析

《北市大語文學報》稿約

內容範圍

　　本學報每年出版兩期（六月及十二月），園地公開。所收學術論文分為「中國語文領域」與「外國語文領域」兩部份，刊載以下稿件，歡迎海內外學界人士投稿：

一、「中國語文領域」登載有關中國文學、語言學、文字學、中國語文教育、華語文教育等學術論文。本領域之學術論文於每年於十二月發行，來稿之審查統一於每期截稿（九月底）後處理。

二、「外國語文領域」刊載英美文學、語言學、外語教學（含文學教學）與文化研究等學術論文或國內外相關書籍與教材之評論。本領域之學術論文於每年六月發行，來稿之審查統一於每期截稿（三月底）後處理。

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範例：

　　1 位作者→Porter (2001)…或…(Porter, 2001)/
　　　　　　　　吳清山（2001）…或…（吳清山，2001）

　　2 位作者→作者為兩人時，兩人的姓氏（名）全列
　　　　　　　　Wassertein and Rosen (1994)…或…（Wassertein & Rosen, 1994）/
　　　　　　　　吳清山與林天祐（2001）…或…（吳清山、林天祐，2001）

　　3-5 位作者→作者為三至五人時，第一次所有作者均列出，第二次以後僅寫出第一位作者
　　　　　　　　並加 et al.（等人）

　　［第一次出現］ Warstein, Zappula, Rosen, Gerstman, and Rock (1994) found…或
　　　　　　　　(Wasserstein, Zappula, Rosen, Gerstman, & Rock, 1994)…

　　［第二次出現］ Wasserstein et al. (1994)…或… (Warstein et al.,1994)

　　6 位作者以上→作者為六人以上時，每次僅列第一位作者並加 et al.（等人），但在參考
　　　　　　　　文獻中要列出所有作者姓名。(Rubin et al., 1989)

➤ 作者為組織、團體、或單位時，易生混淆之單位，每次均用全名。簡單且廣為人知的單位，第一次加註其縮寫方式，第二次以後可用縮寫，但在參考文獻中一律要寫出全名。

　　［第一次出現］ National Institute of Mental Health[NIMH] (1999) 或(National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 1999)。

　　［第二次以後］ NIMH (1999)…或 (NIMH, 1999)…。

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　　外文期刊：Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (1999). Title of article. *Title of Periodical, xx*(xx), xxx-xxx.

　　　　例如：沈姍姍（1996）。教育選擇與控制理念的另類思考。**教育資料與研究，4**，14-15。
　　　　　　Powers, J. M., & Cookson, P. W. Jr. (1999). The politics of school choice research. *Educational Policy, 13*(1), 104-122.

　　中文雜誌：作者(年月日)。文章名稱。**雜誌名稱，期別**，頁別。

　　外文雜誌：Author, A. A., & Author, B. B. (2000, November 10). Article title. *Magazine Title, xxx*, xx-xx.

　　中文報紙：記者或作者(年月日)。文章名稱。**報紙名稱**，版別。
　　　　　　推動知識經濟發展須腳踏實地【社論】（2000 年 9 月 5 日）。**中國時報**，第 2 版。

　　英文報紙：Author, A. A. (1993, September 30). Article title. *Newspaper Title*, pp. xx- xx.

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作者（主編）（年代）。書名（第#版，第#冊）。出版地點：出版商。

外文書籍：Author, A. A. (1993). *Book title*(2nd ed.). Location: Publisher.

Author, A. A. (Ed.). (1991). *Book title*. Location: Publisher.

Author, A. A., & Author, B. B. (Eds.). (1991). *Book title*. Location: Publisher.

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英文翻譯：Author, A. A. (1951). *Book title* (B. Author, Trans.). Location: Publisher. (Original work published ####)

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外文文集：Author, A. A. (1993). Article title. In B. B. Author (Ed.), *Book title* (pp.xx-xx). Location: Publisher.

（三）ERIC 報告格式

Author, A. A. (1995). *Report title* (Report No. xxxx-xxxxxxxxx). Location: Research Center. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED xxxxxx)

（四）會議專刊或專題研討會論文：

作者（年月）。論文名稱。研討會主持人（主持人），**研討會主題**。研討會名稱，舉行地點。

Author, A. A. (1995, April). *Paper title*. Paper presented at the Meeting of Title, Place.

（五）學位論文：

作者（年代）。論文名稱。○○大學○○研究所碩士或博士論文，未出版，大學地點。

Author, A. A. (1986). Dissertation *title*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University Name, Place.

（六）網路等電子化資料引用及參考文獻的寫法

Email 的引用：在文章中如以 Email 當作參考資料，比照個人通訊(personal communications 格式，僅在文中註明不列入參考文獻中。

例如：（L. A. Chafez, personal communication, March, 1997）/ 吳清山（個人通訊 2001 年 2 月 19 日）

網頁的引用：

1. 如不直接引用網路資料，但建議讀者直接上網查詢相關資料，此時，可以直接寫出網頁名稱，並註明網址，此種引用方式也僅在文中註明不列入參考文獻中。

例如：從柴爾德的黑皮窩網頁中，可以獲得幼兒教育的重要訊息

（http://www.tmue.edu.tw/~kidcen）。

Please refer to APA Web site(http://www/apa.org/journals/webref.html).

2. 在文章中引用到網路資料時，其寫作方式與一般參考資料的寫法一致，一般引用時寫出作者及年代，全文引用時須加註頁碼。網路資料參考文獻的寫法大致與一般格式相同，必須指出作者、時間、文章名稱或書名、雜誌名稱等基本資料，另以 Retrieved from 取代[On-line]以及 Available 等字，如無日期可查括弧內的時間英文文獻需註明（n.d.）中文文獻需註明（無日期）。但網頁的內容會常不斷的修正，有的網址甚至會變動，因此必須特別寫出上網的日期，以利參考。

例如：林天祐（無日期）。日本公立中小學不適任教師的處理構想。2001 年 2 月 20 日取自：http://www.tmue.edu.tw/~primary

3. 電子資料庫參考文獻的寫法：電子資料庫參考文獻的寫法，主要的改變包括以 Retrieved from 取代 Available、註明搜尋的日期以及文字敘述方式，格式包括 CD-ROM 資料庫、網路資料庫、線上資料庫三類。

(1)CD-ROM 資料庫：

Federal Bureau of Investigation. (1998, March). *Encryption: Impact on law enforcement.* Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from SIRS database (SIRS Government Reporter, CD-ROM, Fall 1998 release)

(2)網路資料庫：

Schneiderman, R. A. (1997). Librarians can make sense of the Net. *San Antonio Business Journal, 11*(31), pp. 58+. Retrieved January 27, 1999, from database (Masterfile) on the World Wide Web: http://www.ebsco.com

(3)線上資料庫:

Davis, T. (1992). Examining educational malpractice jurisprudence : Should a cause of action be created for student-athletes? Denver *University Law Journal, 69,* 57+. Retrieved January 27, 1999, from WESTLAW on-line database (69 DENULR 57)

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