

愛知教育大学・静岡大学 博士論文

**The Effects of Teaching Linguistic Motivation
through Image English Grammar**

感覚英文法による言語表現の意味づけ指導の効果

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Abstract

The objective of the study reported here was to observe the effects of teaching *linguistic motivation* through ‘Image English Grammar,’ aiming to allow Japanese learners of English to acquire native speaker intuition, which is often called *Eigo no Kankaku* (a ‘Feeling for English’) in Japanese. Image English Grammar (Imai, 2010) is an English grammar for learning that has been designed, developed, and used in the classroom by the present researcher, drawing on the conceptual tools of Cognitive Linguistics. Linguistic motivation is understood here in terms of the reason why a certain expression means a certain thing, as opposed to *arbitrariness* in language; thus, it reflects the idea that most, although not all, language expressions are more or less motivated, rather than arbitrary, as is also a core conceptual tool of Cognitive Linguistics (*cf.* Langacker 1987, p.12; 2008, p.14).

More specifically, the study reported in this dissertation had the following four aims: a) to verify that university students had not necessarily acquired native speaker intuition, often called *Eigo no Kankaku*; b) to demonstrate the utility of explicit instruction on *Eigo no Kankaku* by employing Image English Grammar; c) to demonstrate that it is possible to activate learners’ analogical reasoning ability, allowing them to relate newly learnt knowledge to existing knowledge; and d) to demonstrate that Image English Grammar allows learning English to be perceived as valuable and interesting by learners. These four aims were addressed on the basis of data gathered by three classroom experiments, described in chapters 4, 5, and 6, respectively.

This dissertation is organized as follows. As the study was conducted within the framework of ‘Subject Development,’ a description of studies on Subject Development is given in 1.2. The way in which the present study is compatible with the academic field of Subject Development is also explained.

Chapter 2 describes how language and communication were construed in the context of the present study, as the researcher believes it essential that researchers and teachers clarify their perspectives on language and communication in discussing language education.

Chapter 3 describes how the researcher has been teaching on linguistic motivation, with the aim of Japanese students acquiring native English speaker intuition (*Eigo no Kankaku*) in his classes over the past 15 years, using the 12 grammatical items employed in the experiments in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4 addresses three of the four above-mentioned aims of the present study, namely a) to verify that university students had not necessarily acquired native speaker intuition, often called *Eigo no Kankaku*; b) to demonstrate the utility of explicit instruction on *Eigo no Kankaku* by employing ‘Image English Grammar’; and c) to demonstrate that Image English Grammar allows learning English to be perceived as valuable and interesting for learners. The researcher provided explicit instruction by Image English Grammar to 59 sophomores four times over a period of four weeks for approximately 25 minutes per time. In the sixth week of the course, all the material was reviewed in 25 minutes. The participants completed a test of Image English Grammar before, immediately after, and eight weeks after instruction was completed. Participants also completed a questionnaire regarding their impressions about the instruction in the 15th week of the course. The results demonstrated the following: a) fewer than 30% of participants answered Image English Grammar questions correctly; b) the effect of explicit instruction by Image English Grammar was statistically significant; and c) 92% of the participants regarded Image English Grammar as valuable, and 76% as enjoyable.

Chapter 5 focuses on the participants’ learning process more specifically than does Chapter 4. The effect of activating students’ analogical reasoning ability in teaching Image English Grammar as a guide for learning English is reported. In order to examine the participants’ learning process more specifically, their frame knowledge about antonyms was activated in an experimental lesson, and the way in which they worked on the tasks was

observed. The underlying assumptions of the experiment reported in Chapter 5 are a) that activating learners' analogical reasoning ability regarding opposing frames of words should enable them to learn new items on their own; b) that getting learners to observe the frame knowledge of words leads them to regard the process of learning English itself as valuable and interesting. The results showed that using frame knowledge to guess something new was effective for 65% to 90% of the participants, depending on the particular item, and that activating their analogical reasoning ability provided good motivation to learn English.

Chapter 6 also focuses on the participants' learning process. Specifically, a classroom experiment was conducted based on concepts of Cognitive Linguistics, namely schematization and instantiation (Yamanashi, 2012, p.154), which the researcher regards as reflecting human analogical abilities. The experiment began with having participants observe a few examples of schematization and instantiation in Japanese, and then going on to deal with two such constructions in English, namely the *I'm between Ns* construction and the *I have a [COLOR] thumb* construction. The participants' ability to make sense of certain expressions presented in the experimental lesson using the knowledge they had learned was determined (e.g., the schema *I'm between Ns* and the expression *I'm between jobs*). A questionnaire was also conducted at the end of the experimental lesson to determine whether it was valuable and interesting by the participants based on Ryan and Deci's (2000) six scales evaluating the level of motivation. The results showed that the participants' understanding of new items in reference to certain hints provided by the researcher varied from item to item, but 50% to 70% of the participants were observed to use their analogical reasoning ability to understand the new items. Regarding the results of the questionnaire, 91% of the participants considered the content of the experimental lesson to be valuable, and 77% found it interesting. Based on these results, it can be suggested that teaching about schematization and instantiation by comparing Japanese and English motivates students to learn English, and they come to consider the process of learning English itself interesting.

Chapter 7 presents a conclusion and discuss directions for future research. Two aspects of Image English Grammar require careful consideration, namely teachability and learnability. While the experiments in this dissertation showed that Image English Grammar is learnable, meaning that it is a learner friendly English grammar, teachability is yet to be verified. This issue awaits further study.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Outline of this Dissertation

The objective of the study reported here was to observe the effects of teaching *linguistic motivation* through ‘Image English Grammar,’ aiming to allow Japanese learners of English to acquire native speaker intuition, which is often called *Eigo no Kankaku* (a ‘Feeling for English’) in Japanese. Image English Grammar (Imai, 2010) is an English grammar for learning that has been designed, developed, and used in the classroom by the present researcher, drawing on the conceptual tools of Cognitive Linguistics. Linguistic motivation is understood here in terms of the reason why a certain expression means a certain thing, as opposed to *arbitrariness* in language; thus, it reflects the idea that most, although not all, language expressions are more or less motivated, rather than arbitrary, as is also a core conceptual tool of Cognitive Linguistics (*cf.* Langacker 1987, p.12; 2008, p.14).

It is generally agreed that native speaker intuition regarding grammar cannot be acquired by learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). However, at the same time, attempts to teach native speaker intuition have been made by some teachers for more than 40 years. A number of books and TV programs focusing on a feeling for English have also been released over the past 15 years. Restricting these to books written for general adult learners of English, the following can be listed: Keene & Matsunami (1969), Tanaka & Kawade (1989), Petersen (1990, 2010, etc.), Ikegami (1991, 2006), Ohnishi & McBay (1995, 2007, 2011, etc.), Abe (1998), Tanaka (2006, 2013), Imai (2010), Nakagawa (2010). A publication by the present researcher appears in this list, namely Imai (2010). The present researcher has explored the ways to explicitly teach intuition through Image English Grammar, and believes that even though Image English Grammar cannot allow Japanese learners

of English to acquire intuition fully, it will at least allow them to find the process of learning a foreign language itself intriguing. The researcher has heard or read comments that most students who attend English classes based on Image English Grammar regard the process of learning English as enjoyable and valuable. As such reports had not been verified empirically, questionnaires were completed after the series of classroom experiments reported in this study to determine whether this was true. The researcher also believes that Image English Grammar provides learners with additional meaning in learning a foreign language, namely to understand humans better as Cognitive Linguistics proposes that the manner in which people construe things and situations is reflected in the language they speak (*cf.* Langacker, 1987, p.12). Of course, the main reason people spend tremendous amounts of time learning English is to acquire the language in order to be able to communicate with people around the world, but as it is taught as a school subject, this researcher assumes that it is also important for learners to experience the process of learning English itself as interesting and valuable.

More specifically, the study reported in this dissertation had the following four aims: a) to verify that university students had not necessarily acquired native speaker intuition, often called *Eigo no Kankaku*; b) to demonstrate the utility of explicit instruction on *Eigo no Kankaku* by employing Image English Grammar; c) to demonstrate that it is possible to activate learners' analogical reasoning ability, allowing them to relate newly learnt knowledge to existing knowledge; and d) to demonstrate that Image English Grammar allows learning English to be perceived as valuable and interesting by learners. These four aims were addressed on the basis of data gathered by three classroom experiments, described in chapters 4, 5, and 6, respectively.

This dissertation is organized as follows. As the study was conducted within the framework of 'Subject Development,' a description of studies on Subject Development is given in 1.2. The way

in which the present study is compatible with the academic field of Subject Development is also explained.

Chapter 2 describes how language and communication were construed in the context of the present study, as the researcher believes it essential that researchers and teachers clarify their perspectives on language and communication in discussing language education. More specifically, the following points are covered in Chapter 2: In 2.1, five principles that the researcher believes should be born in mind by both teachers and students are presented with examples, and the 12 grammatical items employed in the present experiments (in Chapters 3 and 4) are related to these five principles. 2.2 describes the researcher's construal of grammar. In 2.3, the importance of explaining partially motivated aspects of language (linguistic motivation) in English teaching and learning is discussed. 2.4 focuses on the kind of declarative knowledge that is beneficial in explicit instruction within Image English Grammar regarding partially motivated aspects of English. 2.5 discusses the fundamental difference between English grammar for language analysis and English grammar for learning.

Chapter 3 describes how the researcher has been teaching on linguistic motivation, with the aim of Japanese students acquiring native English speaker intuition (*Eigo no Kankaku*) in his classes over the past 15 years, using the 12 grammatical items employed in the experiments in Chapter 4. This chapter is organized as follows: In 3.1, the proportion of university students who acquired native speaker intuition is reported based on a survey conducted among 339 university students in the spring semester of the 2015 academic year. For purposes of the survey, 12 grammatical items considered to reflect learners' acquisition of a Feeling for English were selected from Imai (2010, 2015). The results showed that these 12 items were not generally understood by the majority of the

university students surveyed as was expected on the basis of the researcher's teaching experiences.

3.2 describes how these 12 items are taught in Image English Grammar classes.

Chapter 4 addresses three of the four above-mentioned aims of the present study, namely a) to verify that university students had not necessarily acquired native speaker intuition, often called *Eigo no Kankaku*; b) to demonstrate the utility of explicit instruction on *Eigo no Kankaku* by employing 'Image English Grammar'; and c) to demonstrate that Image English Grammar allows learning English to be perceived as valuable and interesting for learners. The researcher provided explicit instruction by Image English Grammar to 59 sophomores four times over a period of four weeks for approximately 25 minutes per time. In the sixth week of the course, all the material was reviewed in 25 minutes. The participants completed a test of Image English Grammar before, immediately after, and eight weeks after instruction was completed. Participants also completed a questionnaire regarding their impressions about the instruction in the 15th week of the course. The results demonstrated the following: a) fewer than 30% of participants answered Image English Grammar questions correctly; b) the effect of explicit instruction by Image English Grammar was statistically significant; and c) 92% of the participants regarded Image English Grammar as valuable, and 76% as enjoyable.

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getting learners to observe the frame knowledge of words leads them to regard the process of learning English itself as valuable and interesting. The results showed that using frame knowledge to guess something new was effective for 65% to 90% of the participants, depending on the particular item, and that activating their analogical reasoning ability provided good motivation to learn English.

Chapter 6 also focuses on the participants' learning process. Specifically, a classroom experiment was conducted based on concepts of Cognitive Linguistics, namely schematization and instantiation (Yamanashi, 2012, p.154), which the researcher regards as reflecting human analogical abilities. The experiment began with having participants observe a few examples of schematization and instantiation in Japanese, and then going on to deal with two such constructions in English, namely the *I'm between* Ns construction and the *I have a [COLOR] thumb* construction. The participants' ability to make sense of certain expressions presented in the experimental lesson using the knowledge they had learned was determined (e.g., the schema *I'm between* Ns and the expression *I'm between jobs*). A questionnaire was also conducted at the end of the experimental lesson to determine whether it was valuable and interesting by the participants based on Ryan and Deci's (2000) six scales evaluating the level of motivation. The results showed that the participants' understanding of new items in reference to certain hints provided by the researcher varied from item to item, but 50% to 70% of the participants were observed to use their analogical reasoning ability to understand the new items. Regarding the results of the questionnaire, 91% of the participants considered the content of the experimental lesson to be valuable, and 77% found it interesting. Based on these results, it can be suggested that teaching about schematization and instantiation by comparing Japanese and English motivates students to learn English, and they come to consider the process of learning English itself interesting.

Chapter 7 presents a conclusion and discuss directions for future research. Having met a university teacher who uses the researcher's 2010 book as a textbook in her classes, the researcher is considering conducting pre and posttests in her classes, and analyzing her students' comments. These ideas are briefly discussed in Chapter 7.

1.2 Subject Development Studies

This section explains what Subject Development Studies entails and how this paper is compatible with the framework.

Japanese people obligatory study English for at least three years in lower secondary education, and most continue to study it in higher secondary education as it is taught as a foreign language as one of the compulsory subjects. However, most Japanese learners of English seem to regard English as just a school subject or a means to pass an entrance exam to high school or college, rather than as a living language, as is their mother tongue Japanese. In this context, most Japanese learners of English believe that rote-memorization allows them to gain good scores in English as a school subject, and this does serve their purposes in some cases. For this reason, Japanese learners' studying English seldom goes beyond such surface learning and rote-memorization. Learners seem unable to relate the knowledge they gain in English classes to the existing knowledge already stored in their brains. Failure to relate new knowledge to existing knowledge, which includes not only knowledge about English, but also background knowledge and world knowledge, restricts learning to the surface level and rote-memorization. Such learning will also not lead to 'deeper learning and longer retention (Littlemore, 2009, p.148),' neither does meaningful learning occur. This researcher assumes that such rote-memorization based surface learning is one of the main reasons why most Japanese people are unable to use English as a means of communication, regardless of how much

time and effort they expand at school. If the purpose of learning English is just to pass high school or university entrance exams, the current learning style that relies on rote-memorization can be said to be successful. However, if the purpose of learning English is to acquire it as a foreign language or lingua franca, and to be able to use it as a means of communication, the researcher believes that the learning process itself should be deeper and more meaningful. In order to make this happen, teaching methods should be modified for learners to understand English by relating what they learn in classes to their existing knowledge, both metaphorically and analogically. In the present context, the idea of explaining linguistic motivation is metaphorical and analogical, and is therefore regarded as a teaching method that draws on Cognitive Linguistics, because metaphorical and analogical ways of thinking are a crucial cognitive abilities that humans possess.

The work reported in this dissertation began as a first step in order to achieve the goal of ‘deeper understanding and longer retention (Littlemore, 2009, p.148)’ in EFL contexts in Japan. In order to realize this goal, the first thing the researcher considers necessary is to view the topic from the combined perspective of three academic fields, namely Cognitive Linguistics, English language teaching and learning methodology, and learners’ learning environment. This approach is compatible with the concepts of Subject Development Studies, which is why this dissertation was written within the field of Subject Development. As described by Nishimiya, Noji, Ito, Sirahata, Shimbo and Kumakura (2015, p.5), Subject Development should include three academic fields as shown in Figure 1.1, in this case: ‘lectures on a specialized field,’ ‘lectures on how to teach subjects,’ and ‘lectures on general pedagogy.’ The first two fields are combined into one category, namely ‘Subject Studies,’ and the third is ‘Education Environmentology.’ When theories and methods are developed on the basis of these two subcategories, along with putting down walls that separate these three fields, they are defined as studies on Subject Development.

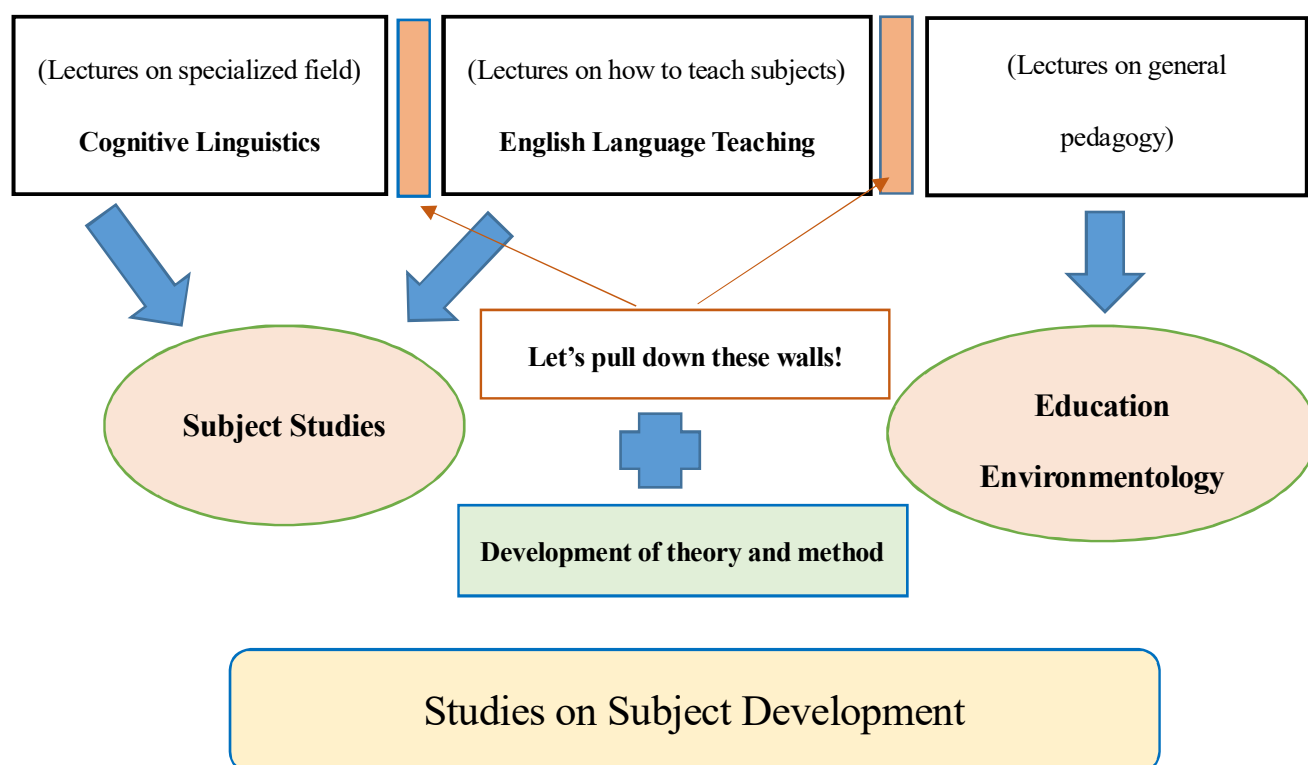


Figure 1.1. *The Definition of Subject Development*¹.

This dissertation discusses how linguistic motivation may be taught with the aim of learners acquiring native speaker intuition or *Eigo no kankaku* within the framework of Subject Development. As shown in Figure 1.1, this study employed concepts of Cognitive linguistics in terms of lectures on specialized fields, and English language teaching and learning methodology in terms of lectures on how to teach subjects. Thus, these two fields are Subject Studies. In addition, the research focuses on learners' learning style and motivation as reflecting Education Environmentology. The way in which these three academic fields are included in this dissertation is described in the four paragraphs below.

¹ This graphic was designed and developed following Nishimiya, Noji, Ito, Sirahata, Shimbo and Kumakura. (2015, p.5).

Firstly, the academic field employed here to reflect lectures on specialized fields is Cognitive Linguistics. The main reason is that the researcher assumes on the basis of his teaching and learning experience that language learning is an embodiment of cognition, as cognition underlies everything that humans do (*cf.* Langacker, 1987, pp.12-13). This is one of the fundamental claims of Cognitive Linguistics. For example, Littlemore (2009, p.1) summarizes this point as follows: ‘a single set of cognitive processes operates across all areas of language, and these processes are involved in other types of knowledge and learning besides language.’ For this reason, the researcher believes that Cognitive Linguistics itself may be regarded as covering both Subject Studies and Education Environmentology. A second important point regarding this key claim of Cognitive Linguistics is that it is compatible with how language is actually used. This reflects the communication theory the present research is based on. Regarding this point, Littlemore (2009, p.2) also states as follows: ‘the fact that words provide only a limited and imperfect means of expression means that in order to understand what our interlocutor is trying to tell us, as well as attending to the actual words that they utter, we need to draw on our general knowledge of the subject under discussion and our expectations about what our interlocutor might have to say about it.’ This perspective may be said to be lacking in English language education in Japan, due to language being construed as a school subject or a means to pass an entrance exam, rather than as a language that is dynamic.

Secondly, the academic field employed as reflecting lectures on how to teach subjects is English teaching/learning methodology. In this academic field, the researcher has observed that more and more of what is currently called ‘evidence-based research’ is being conducted in English classrooms in order to determine whether or not certain teaching methods are effective. However, a major problem regarding research of this kind is related to the teaching and learning content employed. This problem is especially conspicuous in the case of grammar teaching and learning.

Many studies report verifying the effects of grammar teaching, but the content of the grammar they actually employed is often not clearly set out. For example, Cho & Kawase (2011, 2012) state that a Cognitive Linguistic approach in teaching prepositions and count and uncountable English nouns was more effective than a traditional approach, based on their classroom experiments. However, the present researcher believes that there is a problem to be resolved in their research, as they did not explain what Cognitive Linguistic and traditional approaches entailed. When comparing two approaches, it is essential for researchers to show clearly what they actually taught in their classes and how they did so, in a detailed description of their experiments. As there is no concrete entity known as a traditional approach, it cannot be spoken of such. The present researcher believes that even what is generally called a traditional approach can in some ways be explained as compatible with what is called a Cognitive Linguistics approach. For this reason, if a researcher wants to verify one approach is superior to another, the concrete content that the researcher actually employs in class should be presented. In this dissertation, a number of experiments were conducted using new grammar teaching materials, named Image English Grammar (Imai 2010). As mentioned above, this is a grammar for learning developed by the researcher on the basis of his teaching and learning experience and drawing on the key concepts of Cognitive Linguistics. As the content of the grammar itself was developed by the researcher himself, the present research is compatible with the key claims of studies on Subject Development. Indeed, this is how the researcher interpreted the meaning of Subject Development Studies when he first learned about this academic field, as he developed a new English grammar for learning. The actual content employed in the series of classroom experiments reported in this dissertation are demonstrated in Chapter 3.

One further important point that should be mentioned regarding lectures on specialized fields and lectures on how to teach subjects is that the present researcher considers these two areas to have

been studied separately in the fields of linguistics and English language education. However, when we consider improving the quality of teaching English as a foreign or global language, linguistics as the ‘what’ and English teaching methodology as the ‘how’ ought to be combined. For example, in order to improve learners’ communication ability, it is also essential to improve their grammatical ability, and the grammar that is employed in the classroom should be one appropriate for learning, rather than for language analysis. For this reason, the researcher considers it more appropriate for an English grammar for learning to be designed and developed by researchers who major in Subject Development Studies. Researchers in this field may have the necessary perspective to see what kind of grammar is more appropriate for learners of English, both from the ‘what’ and the ‘how’ sides.

Thirdly, in terms of the field of Education Environmentology, the perspectives of Ausubel’s (1969) ‘meaningful reception learning’ and Deci and Ryan’s (1985) self-determination theory (SDT) are employed. As the researcher’s manner of teaching English in his classes may be categorized into meaningful reception learning, Ausubel’s theory is one of the fundamental supports for this teaching. Deci and Ryan’s (1985) SDT is also particularly supportive, in that the researcher assesses his experimental classes based on whether the participants regard them as valuable and interesting. Deci and Ryan (1985) claim that these two key words indicate the two highest levels of motivation.

Chapter 2 Theoretical Backgrounds

2.1 Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter 1, in any language teaching and research context, a teacher or researcher ought to clarify his/her perspective regarding language and communication before writing or talking about language education. This is essential, as the way in which a teacher or researcher construes language and communication is generally reflected in the way they teach or study language, whether consciously or subconsciously. Thus, the present researcher believes it crucial for any researcher engaging in language education to clarify what s/he considers language and communication to be in writing an academic paper, and so the present researcher's stance on language and communication is presented in this chapter, avoiding a shortcoming the researcher has noticed in many papers on English language education, which do not clarify how language and communication are construed.

This chapter focuses on the theoretical backgrounds upon which the design, development, and application of Image English Grammar is based. The content of this chapter is drawn largely from Imai (2008, 2010, 2013, 2014a, 2015). The chapter is organized as follows: In 2.2, the five principles that the researcher believes should be born in mind by both teachers and students are set out with illustrative examples, and this is followed by an analysis of the 12 grammatical items employed in the experiments reported in this dissertation in terms of the five principles. 2.3 explains how the present researcher construes grammar. In 2.4, the importance of explaining partially motivated aspects of language in English teaching and learning is discussed, and 2.5 focuses specifically on the kind of declarative knowledge that is beneficial in explicit instruction of Image

English Grammar regarding partially motivated items in English. Finally, 2.6 discusses the fundamental difference between English grammar for language analysis and English grammar for learning.

2.2 Five Principles in Teaching EFL¹

2.2.1 Five Principles

In learning or teaching English in an EFL context like that in Japan, the researcher believes, based on his teaching and learning experience, that there are five principles that both teachers and students should bear in mind.

Principle 1: English cannot necessarily be translated into Japanese

English cannot necessarily be translated into Japanese, and translation may sometimes even be misleading or make learners feel that English is difficult to learn.

Principle 2: Construal differences between Japanese and English

Native speakers of English and those of Japanese may construe (interpret) particular things or situations in different ways. Such construal differences are embodied in either language.

Principle 3: Symbolic structure of form and meaning

One form has one meaning, and one meaning has one form. (Bolinger, 1977, preface; Langacker, 1987, p.11))

¹ This section is based on Imai (2013).

Principle 4: Language expression as reference point

Language is dynamic. Any language expression is a reference point that requires the listener to try to understand what the speaker means. Inference, context, background knowledge, world knowledge, cultural literacy, etc. are indispensable elements for the listener to understand the speaker's meaning.

Principle 5: Partial motivation in language

Language is partially motivated, although some parts are arbitrary. (Littlemore, 2009, p.148)

In the following five subsections, each of these principles is considered in terms of examples.

2.2.2 Principle 1: English Cannot Necessarily be Translated into Japanese

As for principle 1, the present researcher has noted through his own experience as a learner and anecdotal evidence from university students that English education in Japanese secondary schools relies heavily on translation. The researcher further believes, based on his own learning and teaching experience, that a teaching or learning method heavily reliant on translation can often prohibit learners from acquiring native speaker intuition (*Eigo no Kankaku*). For this reason, it is necessary for teachers to explain what a certain English expression means rather than just giving the Japanese equivalent. What learners of English should do is not memorize Japanese equivalents for English expressions, but understand what English expressions themselves mean². The way in which

² Related to this claim, Fujikake (1980) discusses the difference in the mechanisms of understanding English and translating English into Japanese.

the present researcher provides explicit instruction on Image English Grammar for communication is based on this concept. It is also important that the explanation should be metaphorical and analogical for learners to assimilate what they learn to existing knowledge. Whenever the researcher has his students observe why a certain expression means a certain thing, most of those who learned English only in order to pass an entrance exam mainly by rote memorization are impressed with his explanations and provide positive feedback, reporting that they understand English more deeply and find it more interesting than they did previously³. Consider the example in (1) to understand more specifically.

(1) I'm walking () the direction of the ticket gate.

The construction (1) is a typical example for which most Japanese learners cannot fill in the blank with the appropriate preposition. The cause of this inability may be that most learners memorize the meaning of *direction* as *houkou* in Japanese. If they interpret the meaning of *direction* as *houkou*, they tend to insert the preposition *to* in the blank, because in Japanese they say *kaisattu guchi no houkou he*, and they also regard Japanese *he* as equal to English *to* due to translation. Unfortunately, however, the meaning of English *direction* is not equivalent to Japanese *he*. As the graphic in Figure 2.1 shows, the image of *direction* is an invisible corridor that connects where one is to one's destination (Imai 2010, p.46). Based on this graphic, one is considered to be in the invisible corridor (*direction*), which is why the preposition *in* is appropriate for the blank in (1).

³ Based on students' comments (*cf.* Appendix 4), the researcher developed the questionnaire used in the experiments described in Chapters 4, 5, and 6 of this dissertation.

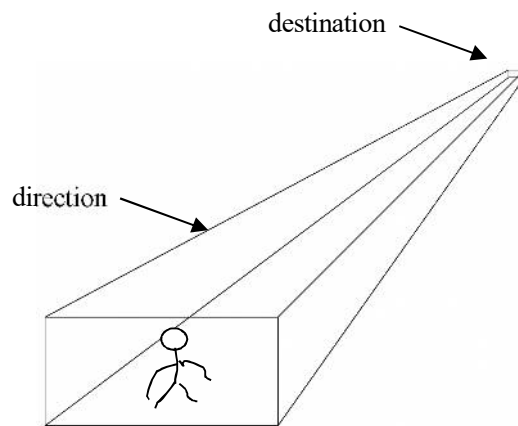


Figure 2.1. *The Image of 'direction'*⁴.

2.2.3 Principle 2: Construal Differences between Japanese and English

Principle 2 should be regarded as a reason for principle 1. To make this principle clearer, consider example (2).

(2) a. *Koko wa doko?* (ここはどこ?)

b. Where am I?

The pair in (2) shows how a situation considered to be objectively the same is construed in different manners by native speakers of Japanese and those of English. As the graphics in Figure 2.2 show, in Japanese (2.2a), the place in which the person is situated is foregrounded, whereas in English (2.2b) the person is foregrounded⁵.

⁴ This graphic is based on Tanaka & Kawade (1989, p.124).

⁵ This idea is based on Yamanashi (2009, p.125).

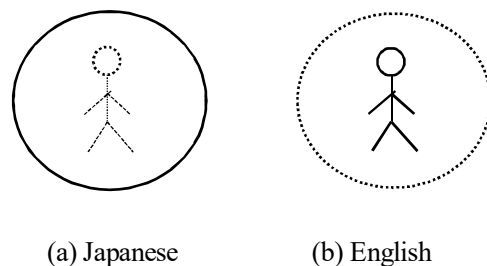


Figure 2.2. *Construal Differences between Japanese and English; koko wa doko / Where am I?*

Which aspect of the same situation is more highlighted and expressed in language is often different from language to language. Further examples are analyzed in Imai (2010, pp.4-8).

2.2.4 Principle 3: Symbolic Structure of Form and Meaning

Principle 3 is a key claim made by Bolinger (1977, preface), and is also compatible with Form-Meaning Symbolic Structure concept of Cognitive Linguistics (Langacker, 1987, p.12). Many university students learned in middle or high school that a certain sentence can be paraphrased into another sentence mechanically. However, it is generally the case that a sentence that seems to mean a similar thing or depict a similar situation actually differs in some way in terms of meaning. If two sentences did mean the same thing, it would be unnecessary for both to exist. Consider the example sentences in (3).

- (3) a. This book is difficult to read.
 b. It is difficult to read this book.

Most university students seem to have learned in high school that (3a) means the same as (3b). However, as principle 3 claims, the meaning of each sentence is actually different. (3a) means that

the speaker has trouble reading the book because the book itself is difficult to read. The difficulty is with an attribute of the book itself. In contrast, in (3b) there is a possibility that the difficulty was caused by other personal problems of the speaker, such as a lack of sleep, a cold, or other physical problems, in addition to the possibility that the book itself is difficult⁶.

2.2.5 Principle 4: Language Expression as Reference Point

Principle 4 concerns the way in which the present researcher construes communication by drawing on the fundamental concepts of Cognitive Linguistics. *Reference point* is a concept in Cognitive Linguistics. Cognitive Linguistics regards humans possess reference point ability and the ability is ‘to invoke the conception of one entity for purposes of establishing mental contact with another’ (Langacker, 1993, p.5). In the present researcher’s view of communication, all language expressions are reference point, namely the meaning of a word is not considered to exist within the word itself, as conduit metaphor highlights, but in the brain of the particular person. In terms of conduit metaphor, our language about language is structured by the following three metaphors:

(4) Conduit metaphor

IDEAS (OR MEANING) ARE OBJECTS.

LINGUISTIC EXPRESSIONS ARE CONTAINERS.

COMMUNICATION IS SENDING.

⁶ This difference is described in Lee (2001, pp.78-82) and the supporting comment was also offered in personal communication with Dr. Harry Wary, who specializes in Japanese-US relations and assisted this research in the 2002 to 2009 academic years at Aichi Mizuho College. The same comments have also been made by native English speakers to the present researcher.

A speaker puts ideas (objects) into words (containers) and sends them (along a conduit) to a hearer, who takes the ideas/objects out of the words/containers (Lakoff, 1980, p.10). As Lakoff further claims, this model omits the important role that inference plays in communication, which is generally stated in term of the ‘inference model of communication’ (Sperber & Wilson, 1986, p.2-3). For this reason, the researcher believes that example sentences provided in his classes should fit into the context or the frame (background) knowledge that his students can easily activate. This principle underlies the experiments reported in Chapters 5 and 6 of this dissertation. Consider the basic examples in (5). (*cf.* Radden & Dirven, 2007, p.10; Taylor, 2003, p.126)

- (5) a. *I wash the **car** twice a month.*
b. *I have to fill up the **car** before going to work.*
c. *I vacuumed the **car** yesterday.*

In all the three sentences in (5), the noun *car* is used, but a different part of the car is activated according to the context. In (5a), the surface of the car is foregrounded. In (5b), the gasoline tank of the car is foregrounded. In (5c), the interior of the car is foregrounded. In order to understand precisely what *car* means in each context, it is necessary for the hearer to have background knowledge about cars. In other words, the language expression *car* in each context is used as a reference point (clue) for hearers to understand the meaning of *car* in each sentence. In order for hearers to make sense of each sentence, they need to activate the knowledge related to cars that is stored in their brains.

2.2.6 Principle 5: Partial Motivation in Language

Some language expressions are arbitrary, while others are motivated. Consider, for example, the words *desks* and *tsukue*. The entities called *tsukue* in Japanese are called *desks* in English. This is an example of arbitrariness in language because the reason for the entities being called *tsukue* in Japanese and *desks* in English cannot be explained. On the other hand, consider the phrases *tsukue no ashi* and *the legs of a desk*. The parts that support the desk are called *legs* or *ashi*, and this is regarded as being motivated, meaning that an explanation is possible for these expressions⁷. *Ashi* (in Japanese) and *legs* (in English) are the parts that support the human body, and the expressions *tsukue no ashi* and *the legs of a desk* are used metaphorically, comparing desks to human bodies. In the case of *tsukue* and *desks*, the same metaphor applies in both Japanese and in English, but this is not always the case. For instance, consider *hari no ana* (which is directly translated into ‘the hole of a needle,’ but does not work in English) / *the eye of a needle*, *kishu* (‘the neck of an airplane’) / *the nose of an airplane*, and so on. In teaching EFL, the present researcher believes that teaching motivated aspects of the language, referred to as *linguistic motivation*, is beneficial.

With regard to principle 5, its application is also emphasized by Littlemore (2009, p.38) as follows:

... Form-focused instruction is nearly always more effective than mere exposure to L2 input (Doughty, 2003) but it is not always clear what aspects of the language we should focus on in these form-focused instructions. ... learners are often primed by their entrenched L1 construal patterns not to notice new L2 construals. **Construal may thus**

⁷ Related to this, Langacker (1987, p.12) says an obvious but self-made observation is that any polymorphic linguistic sign (this includes the vast majority of expressions) is nonarbitrary to the extent that it is analyzable.

be one area of second language learning where learners benefit from explicit instruction. (Emphasized by the researcher.)

Some teachers believe that all English expressions should be explained grammatically, while others believe that grammatical explanations are not necessary in teaching or learning English. The latter appear to believe that grammar should be acquired through enough exposure to the target language. The present researcher believes neither to be the case. Somewhere between the two extremes should be the answer to the question. In a related regard, Littlemore (2009, p.148) states that ‘language is partially motivated, admitting that some parts are arbitrary.’ The researcher believes Littlemore’s statement to be true, and that explaining the motivated aspects of the language is sufficient and helpful for most learners of English. These explanations can serve as a reference point (guide) for learners to understand the target language. This idea is compatible with the claim of Keene & Matsunami (1969, p.10), the gist of which is that grammatical explanation in teaching English should be a useful guide, not a complete description (rule). All grammatical items used for the experiments reported in this dissertation are motivated, rather than arbitrary. Based on the viewpoint that grammar is partially motivated, it is regarded as useful to present partially motivated regularities of the language in the classroom, as such explanations can serve as useful reference points (clues or guides) for learners to understand that a certain English expression means a certain thing. Principle 5 is discussed in more detail in sections 2.3 and 2.4.

2.2.7 Analysis of the Grammar Items in Terms of the Principles.

The way in which the present researcher teaches English in his classes is based on the five principles introduced above. The researcher always aims to help learners to observe how important

these five concepts are in learning English in the EFL environment. He also aims to motivate students to learn English and helps them experience the process of learning English itself as intriguing and fun, by presenting examples underlain by any one or more of these five principles. In English as a second language (ESL) context, the process of acquiring English seems to be more similar to that of native English speakers because learners have more opportunities to use English outside the classroom. In the EFL context, however, as learners lack sufficient opportunity to use English outside the classroom, some kind of explicit instruction as a guide rather than a rule should be beneficial in addition to exposure to the target language. These five principles discussed above are crucial in this regard. The 12 grammatical items that were employed in the present study to verify the effect of explicit instruction of Image English Grammar are each based on one or more of the five principles, as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 shows that all the 12 grammatical items are related to principles 1 and 5. Regarding the remaining principles 2, 3, and 4, all the grammatical items can, broadly speaking, be said to be related to these principles as well. However, Table 2.1 focuses on those principles that are particularly concerned with each item. Furthermore, the application of any of the five principles is related to the type of question each grammatical item occurs. Variation in question type may lead to variation in the applicable principles. Either way, these five principles are believed by the present researcher to be necessary for both teachers and learners of English to bear in mind.

Table 2.1.

The Principles that Underlie Each of the 12 Grammatical Items

		Principle 1 English can't necessarily be translated into Japanese	Principle 2 Native speakers of English and those of Japanese construe (or interpret) things or situations in different ways	Principle 3 One form for one meaning, and one meaning for one form.	Principle 4 Any language expression is a reference point	Principle 5 Language is partially motivated
Items of image English Grammar	Questions that were given in the pretest					
A-1. The image of Yes/No	According to the dialogue, which one of the items below is correct? Jack: You didn't go to the party, did you? Shelly: Yes. a) Shelly went to the party. b) Shelly didn't go to the party. c) Jack went to the party. d) Jack didn't go to the party. e) Jack and Shelly went to the party.	✓	✓			✓
A-2. The image of ever	Which one of these items sounds awkward? a) Do you ever wear perfume? b) Have you ever been to Canada? c) I have ever been to Niagara Falls. d) If you ever come to Japan, be sure to let me know. e) Godiva is the most delicious chocolate I've ever tasted in my life.	✓			✓	✓
A-3. The image of staff	Which one of these items sounds awkward? a) Marina used to be a staff member of this bakery. b) Marina used to be a staff of this bakery. c) Marina used to be a member of the staff of this bakery. d) Marina used to be a staffer of this bakery. e) Marina was a member of the staff of this bakery.	✓	✓			✓
A-4. The image of about	Which one of these items sounds awkward? a) I'm about to call her. b) I'm going to call her. c) I'm about to call her tomorrow. d) I'm going to call her tomorrow. e) I'll call her tomorrow.	✓		✓	✓	✓
A-5. The image of have + past participle	Which one of these items sounds awkward? a) Obama, the president of the United States, has visited Princeton. b) Einstein, the famous scientist, has visited Princeton. c) Obama, the president of the United States, visited Princeton. d) Einstein, the famous scientist, visited Princeton. e) Einstein, the famous scientist, had visited Princeton.	✓	✓		✓	✓
A-6. The image of in in the context of ... rises in the east and ... sets in the west	Fill in blanks (a) and (b) with one of the words given below. The sun rises (a) the east and sets (b) the west. (a) a) at b) from c) in d) on e) up (b) a) at b) in c) on d) to e) down	✓	✓			✓

		Principle 1	Principle 2	Principle 3	Principle 4	Principle 5
Items of image English Grammar	Questions that were given in the pretest	English can't necessarily be translated into Japanese	Native speakers of English and those of Japanese construe (or interpret) things or situations in different ways	One form for one meaning, and one meaning for one form.	Any language expression is a reference point	Language is partially motivated
B-1. The image of be + present participle	Explain the meaning or the situation of this sentence. The train is stopping.	✓	✓			✓
B-2. The difference between Verb + Object and Verb + Preposition + Object	What is the difference in meaning between these two? a. Sara is preparing final exams. b. Sara is preparing for final exams.	✓		✓		✓
B-3. The difference between a and the	What is the difference in meaning between these two? I've decided to break up with her. a. I'll tell you a reason. b. I'll tell you the reason.	✓		✓		✓
B-4. The difference between mass and units	What is the difference in meaning between these two? a. We ate turkey. b. We ate a turkey.	✓		✓		✓
B-5. The difference between simple present form and present progressive form	In what situation is each expression used? a. The road winds through the mountain. b. The road is winding through the mountain.	✓		✓		✓
B-6. The difference between simple present and would + base form	In what situation is each expression used? a. I appreciate your help. b. I'd appreciate your help.	✓		✓		✓

2.3 Definition of Grammar⁸

2.3.1 Grammar in Reference to Cognitive Linguistics

This section elaborates on the researcher's definition of grammar with reference to the concepts of Cognitive Linguistics. The researcher's three basic concepts regarding grammar, based on the ideas and concepts of Cognitive Linguistics, are given in (6) below.

⁸ This section is based on Imai (2013, 2014a).

- (6) a) Grammar entails dynamic language knowledge, which is categorized based on metaphor, metonymy, and synecdoche. It includes expressions of different sizes and different schematic levels, some of which are units and others schemas. There are many pieces of expressions stored in one's brain, and what one does when producing a sentence is to 'cut and paste' such pieces in order to convey one's intended meaning.⁹ (*cf.* Langacker, 2002, p.264; Tomasello, 2002, p.10).
- b) Acquiring a language is a process of categorization.
- c) 'Language is acquired by a strictly 'bottom up' process, **through exposure to usage events**, and knowing a language consists, not in knowing a battery of rules, but in accumulated memories of previously encountered utterances and generalizations which arise from them' (Taylor, 2012, p. 263, emphasis by the researcher.)

2.3.2 Grammar as Categorization Based on Metaphor, Metonymy, and Synecdoche.

As described in (6a) above, grammar entails a categorization based on metaphor, metonymy, and synecdoche. These three figurative uses of language are generally defined as follow¹⁰:

Metaphor: understanding one entity or thing in terms of another, based on certain similarities between the two.

Metonymy: one entity or thing is used to indicate, or provide mental access to, another entity.

Synecdoche: using the specific for the general, or the general for the specific.

⁹ This process is named 'usage-based syntactic operations' by Tomasello.

¹⁰ This definition is based on Momiyama (2002).

This section briefly explains this characteristic of grammar by giving a few examples. The first example is the word *kiwi*, which has three meanings, namely ‘kiwi birds’, ‘kiwi fruit,’ and ‘kiwi person.’ The reason for *kiwi* having these three meanings may be explained in terms of metaphor and metonymy. Regarding the first two meanings, namely ‘kiwi birds’ and ‘kiwi fruit,’ these two things are both called *kiwi* as they look similar. Thus, the cognitive foundation of these two expressions is considered to be metaphorical. The notion of kiwi person, in contrast, is based on a different cognitive foundation. As people in New Zealand live in a place in which kiwi birds and kiwi fruit are common, people living there are also called *kiwis*. This cognitive process is known as metonymy. This figurative use of language is based on a fundamental concept of Cognitive Linguistics, namely *reference point ability* (cf. Langacker, 1993, p.5).

A second example is the word *Kleenex*. This is a brand name of tissue paper, and in American English, the word can refer to tissue paper in general. If you are asked to get a box of Kleenex, you do not necessarily need to buy the Kleenex brand, but can buy any brand of tissue available. Such extension of word meaning is known as synecdoche. The application of synecdoche, using the specific for the general, or the general for the specific, is abundant in daily language. Consider the further example in (7).

(7) *Let's meet for coffee sometime next week.*

In (7), *coffee* refers to drinks in general that are served at a coffee shop. If one does not drink coffee, one can visit the place and order something else, such as tea, juice, or milk. The expression *coffee*, which literally refers to the specific beverage, refers to drinks in general in this context. Thus, this use of *coffee* illustrates synecdoche. This case of *coffee* is also true in Japanese. If you say *raishu*

coffee demo nomi masho, coffee refers to any drinks served at a coffee shop. However, in some cases, whether an expression is used as synecdoche or not differs between Japanese and English. Consider example (8).

- (8) a. *Uchino ojii-san ha karei raisu ni sauce o kakemasu.*
b. ? *My grandfather pours sauce on curry rice.*
c. *My grandfather pours Worcestershire sauce on curry rice.*

In Japanese, if one says (8a), *sauce* refers to Worcestershire sauce, and Japanese people generally refer to Worcestershire sauce as simply *sauce*. For this reason, many Japanese learners of English tend to say (8b), and native English speakers tend to ask *What kind of sauce?* This is because sauce in Japanese can be used in synecdoche to refer to Worcestershire sauce, but this is not the case in English. In English, it is necessary to specify the sauce as in (8c).

As discussed by referring to examples thus far, the reason why a form has several meanings is due to categorization, and the reason why these several meanings are attached to a given expression is that they are related in terms of one of the cognitive abilities humans possess, namely the figurative use of language, in this case metaphor, metonymy, or synecdoche.

2.3.3 Dynamicity, Sizes, and Schematicity in Grammar ¹¹

As stated in (6a), since grammar is dynamic and consists of expressions of different sizes and

¹¹ This section is based on Imai (2013).

schematic levels, it is considered impossible to describe everything explicitly. This point deserves attention, especially in terms of teaching and learning English. Furthermore, as Taylor states in (6c), language is acquired through exposure to usage events.

As mentioned above, the present researcher's definition of the grammar of a language is compatible with the ideas of Cognitive Linguistics. In this regard, note first the ideas regarding grammar of Langacker (2002, p.264) and Tomasello (2002, p.10) below.

The grammar of a language is defined as a structured inventory of conventional linguistic units. Specific expressions are included in this inventory provided that they have the status of units – a reasonable assumption for dogs, trees, etc. Also included in the grammar are schemas extracted to represent the commonality observed in specific expressions (both units and nonunits). The coexistence in the grammar of the schema and instantiations affords the speaker alternate ways of accessing a complex but regular expression with unit status: it can simply be activated directly, or else the speaker can employ the schema to compute it. Moreover, the schema is available for the computation of novel instantiations (e.g. quagmires); if such an expression is frequently employed, it may very well become established as a unit and thus be incorporated per se in the grammar. (Langacker, 2002, p. 264)

... the child does not put together each of her utterances from scratch, morpheme by morpheme, but rather, she puts together her utterances from a motley assortment of different kinds of pre-existing psycholinguistic units. ... the question was how this child was able to “cut and paste” together her previously mastered linguistic constructions in order to create a

novel utterance in a specific usage event. (Tomasello, 2002, p. 10)

To be a little more specific about the present researcher's definition of grammar, consider the idea that grammar includes expressions of different sizes and different schematic levels (*cf.* Langacker, 2008, pp.15-17). Regarding different sizes, when most people hear the expression, 'grammar,' they think of it as a sentence level regularity that makes it possible for language users to produce an infinite number of utterances. Cognitive Linguistics, however, suggests that if a certain form has a certain meaning, the symbolic relationship between the form and its meaning is regarded as grammar. This means that grammar includes expressions of different sizes, such as suffixes/prefixes, words, phrases, and sentences. For example, if one encounters such expressions as *runner*, *swimmer*, *employer*, and *teacher*, one may induce a regularity that the form 'verb + er' generally means 'a person who carries out the action designated by the verb.' In other words, there is a symbolic relationship between the form (verb plus -er) and its meaning (that is, the person who carries out the action designated by the verb).

A second point the researcher would like to be specific about is what schematicity involves. Schematicity in Cognitive Linguistics relates to the degree of abstractness or concreteness of a certain form as an expression. Any given expression is located somewhere between the two extremes: schematic (abstract) and specific (concrete). People generally induce schematic rules of grammar by experiencing a range of different sentences (usage events). Most likely, most people regard only these schematic rules as grammar rules. However, Cognitive Linguistics regards not only the schematic (abstract) rules of grammar, but also the utterances that we hear someone say in context (specific/concrete examples) as grammar knowledge. By way of clarification, consider the examples in (9). Among these three expressions, (9a) is the most specific, while (9d) is the most

schematic. However, regardless of their different levels of schematicity, all are equally included as grammatical knowledge.

(9) a. How many computers do you have?

b. How many Xs do you have?

c. How many Xs do/does/did SV...?

d. Wh-word + do/does/did SV...?

When one produces an utterance, such as *How many cousins do you have?* or *How many countries does the Nile run through?*, one does not necessarily produce it by using only the most schematic rule, such as that in (9d). In producing *How many cousins do you have?*, one is more likely to use the less schematic regularities, as in (9b). Just by changing the expression *computers* into *cousins*, one can produce the sentence. Even when producing *How many countries does the Nile run through?*, one does not necessarily draw only on (9c), but also on (9b). In addition, when one has an exact expression one wants to use among the language expressions stored in one's brain, one can access or produce the exact expression without referring to the more schematic rules. This point is also compatible with Langacker's (2002, p.265) claim that a lower level schema is more important than a super schema when you actually produce an utterance. Furthermore, the researcher believes that memorizing basic expressions or doing pattern practice in the classroom, as has been done in English classes for a long time, is compatible with the concepts of Cognitive Linguistics.

2.4 Partial Motivation in Language¹²

As mentioned above, Langacker (2002, p.265) claims that a lower level schema is more likely to be employed when people produce utterances, while the main function of the high-level schema is categorization. Drawing on this idea, grammar rules that explain not all but some usage events are beneficial for learners of English. This point is also emphasized by Littlemore (2009, p.148), and reflects what was described as principle 5 in 2.2.6. The gist of Littlemore's main points is as follows:

- (10) a) ... **some aspects of language are not arbitrary** and ... there are sometimes reasons why we say things the way we do.
- b) ... **teachers can explain**, in theory, **to their students why it is that certain expressions mean certain things**, instead of simply telling them 'that's just the way it is' and expecting them to learn expressions by heart.
- c) This engages learners in a search for meaning, which is likely to involve deeper cognitive processing which, according to Craik and Lockhart (1982), leads to **deeper learning and longer retention**.
- d) It is important to say at this point that although a great deal of language is thought to be motivated, the ways in which this happens are not entirely predictable, and different languages are motivated in different ways. Thus, much of the analysis of motivated language is necessarily **retrospective rather than predictive**.

(Littlemore, 2009, p.148, emphasis by the researcher)

¹² This section is based on Imai (2013).

Based on this theoretical backgrounds, the present researcher assumes that two things shown in (11) are both indispensable and effective in teaching or learning EFL.

- (11) a) To give learners as many specific language expressions as possible and help them induce regularities (schemas) on their own.
- b) To explain to learners why a certain expression means a certain thing even though the regularity is only partially motivated.

Thus, it is essential to explain motivation (as opposed to arbitrariness) of language, in addition to exposure to language input. To realize these two prerequisite in the classroom, the researcher concluded that helping tertiary level learners, who learned English in middle and high school, to observe construal differences between Japanese and English can best be achieved by means of quizzes. This method is also beneficial for learners in middle or high school whose English achievement level is high. Quizzes can provide learners with actual contexts in which certain grammatical items are employed, explain partially motivated aspects of language, and help learners to consider the language on their own. It is often said that native speakers' knowledge of grammar is largely subconscious. In the EFL context, however, it is helpful to allow learners to consider what native speakers of English seem to rely on when producing utterances. All the questions employed in the experiments reported in this dissertation were extracted from the quizzes the researcher uses in his EFL classes. The quizzes and the associated classroom explanations are described in Chapter 3.

2.5 Declarative Knowledge in Teaching EFL¹³

This section briefly describes the kind of declarative knowledge that is helpful for learners to learn English expressions. Considering that people learn in different ways and have different knowledge, the kind of declarative knowledge that is beneficial also differs from one person to another, according to a learner's learning stage. There is, however, one thing common to optimal explanations. Common characteristics can be observed if we consider how people usually understand new ideas or concepts. If one comes across a new idea or concept, one will probably access certain knowledge already stored in one's brain, i.e., knowledge similar or related to the new idea or concept. In other words, some kind of metaphorical ability is employed when one assimilates new ideas or concepts. This process should be taken into account when declarative knowledge or linguistic motivation is given. Consider a few examples to be more specific on this point.

Consider first the expression *hang up (the telephone)*. This expression is not arbitrary, but motivated. It is a good example by which teachers can explain to learners why *hang up* means 'end the telephone conversation,' as one used to actually hang the receiver back up on the hook of the telephone when a conversation was over. This is why people say *hang up* when they end a telephone conversation. As such an explanation can be understood with reference to knowledge learners already have, it is considered helpful for learners to assimilate such new expressions.

Consider now the expression *telephone*. This expression may initially seem arbitrary (not motivated) when a learner first needs to learn it. The most efficient way to learn this expression is simply to memorize it. Of course, the motivation of the expression can be provided by referring to the knowledge that 'tele' means 'far' and 'phone' means 'sound,' but as most learners lack this

¹³ This section is based on Imai (2014a).

knowledge, it may be a burden for them to understand it. However, if learners' achievement level is more advanced, and they already know such words as *telescope*, *telegram*, *telepathy*, and *television*, the declarative knowledge described above regarding the meaning of 'tele' might be of some help.

Consider another example that is more related to grammar.

(12) If I (win / will win) the lottery, I'll quit my job and travel around the world.

Regarding (12), most learners have been taught in high school that in the time or condition clause, the simple present form is employed rather than the will + base form when the sentence expresses a future occurrence. Thus, in the parenthesis of (12), *win* (simple present) is the appropriate form. If learners memorize this rule, they will answer this question correctly and this mode of surface learning may allow them to pass university entrance exams. However, this researcher thinks that surface learning of this kind does not help learners to gain native speaker intuition, which is generally called *Eigo no Kankaku* 'feeling for English' in Japanese. Moreover, learners will not find the process of learning English interesting if they simply study it by rote. The researcher believes that this grammatical item can be explained more systematically, which would enable deeper learning. Related to (12), Petersen (1990, p.123) states that contrary to what is generally considered in school English grammar, both (13a) and (13b) are grammatically correct, but the meaning of each sentence differs.

(13) a. If I am late, I will call you.

b. If I will be late, I will call you.

He claims that (13a) is used, for example, when you visit your friend's place and stay there until late. Upon leaving the place, you are unsure whether you will make the last train or not. In this situation, you can use (13a) to mean that if you are late for the last train, you will call your friend to come pick you up at the station and drive you home. In contrast, (13b) is used when you have a date tonight with your girlfriend, but you might have to take care of some urgent business in your office. If that happens, it will be difficult to be on time for the appointment. You want to inform your girlfriend of your being late as soon as the urgent business arises. In this scenario, being late for the appointment is simply your prediction at the time you call your girlfriend, so (13b) is appropriate. In contrast, in (13a), being late for the train is an existing fact at the time you call your friend. (12) can be understood similarly. In the case where you quit your job and travel around the world, your having won the lottery should already be factual. This is why *win* is appropriate in the if-clause. If you use *will win* in the if-clause, you may end up quitting your job when you simply predict or think that you will win the lottery. If you do so, there may be consequences.

If learners understand that the simple present form indicates that the event is factual, while *will* + base form indicates that the event is merely a prediction as Petersen explains, this researcher believes that they can understand grammatical point (12) more systematically, together with the examples that follow. Consider (14).

(14) a. Tomorrow is my birthday.

b. I'll be twenty six tomorrow.

Both (14a) and (14b) describe an event that is going to happen tomorrow. However, (14a) employs the simple present form (*is*), while (14b) employs *will* + base form (*will be*). This phenomenon can

also be explained similarly to (12) and (13). My birthday cannot be changed and is a fact shown on the calendar. That is why, in (14a), the simple present form is used, but in (14b), at the time of speaking (in this case today), you have not yet become twenty-six years old. Although you are 100% sure that you will be twenty-six tomorrow, it is still a prediction. It will not become factual until tomorrow arrives, and if, in the meantime, you should have an accident and die, you will not be twenty six. For this reason, will + base form is employed. This explanation can also be applied to explain the difference in meaning between (15a) and (15b).

- (15) a. Serena and Dan have been married for two years.
- b. Serena and Dan will have been married for two years tomorrow.
- c. Serena and Dan would have been married for two years today.

The difference between (15a) and (15b) can be explained similarly to (12), (13), and (14). (15a) shows a fact, while (15b) shows a prediction. However, the speaker is 100% sure that Serena and Dan will have been married for two years tomorrow. In addition to the difference between the simple present form and will + base form, the meaning of would + base form can also be introduced. The basic image of the past form is “distance,” of which there are three different types: Distance from now, distance from reality, and psychological distance from the person to whom you are speaking. In (15c), *would* indicates distance from reality, so the meaning of the sentence is that, in fact, Serena and Dan have broken up, but if they were still married, today would be their two-year anniversary. By systematically understanding the items that have been presented thus far, learners may understand the nuance of (16). In (16), Mana is going to visit the City Library by bike, and wants to know how long it will take her to get there. She asks a woman whom she happens to meet along the

way.

(16) Mana: I was wondering if you know how long it takes from here to the City Library by bike?

Woman: Let me see. It takes about 20 minutes on foot, so it would take 10 minutes by bike.

What this researcher expects the learners to understand in (16) is the difference in meaning between *takes* and *would take* in the woman's utterance. As has been explained above, the simple present form indicates a fact, while *would* + base form shows an imaginary situation. For this reason, it is understood that this woman has been to the City Library on foot, but she has not been there by bike. Thus, she can say how long it takes from here to the city library on foot, but she is not sure how long it will take by bike and can only make a prediction. Providing learners with the meaning of the simple present form, *will* + base form, and *would* + base form helps them to understand several grammatical items more systematically and it is hoped that this will lead to deeper learning and longer retention.

In conclusion, what is most important when providing learners of English with declarative knowledge is to check that the explanation is optimal for the particular learners. Namely, the declarative knowledge should be helpful for learners to understand English expression and lead to deeper learning and longer retention. There is no absolutely best way to teach or learn something new, but the optimal way should be decided according to such factors as each learner's learning style, achievement level, and background knowledge related to the new ideas or concepts that they are about to learn. One of the most important jobs of a teacher is to determine the optimal way to teach in a dynamic and flexible manner according to the TPO (Time, Place, and Occasion) of the

learning situation.

2.6 English Grammar for Learning and English Grammar for Language Analysis¹⁴

This section describes the difference between two kinds of English grammar, namely ‘English Grammar for Learning’ and ‘English Grammar for Language Analysis.’ This researcher believes, based on his teaching and learning experience, that the two are fundamentally different. Most Japanese teachers and learners of English, however, seem to think that to study English Grammar for Language Analysis is to learn English grammar. This is because the English Grammar that has been used in middle and high schools in Japan, as well as in most reference books, is a typical example of English Grammar for Language Analysis. The objective of such grammar books is to offer complete explanations, and such books are indeed necessary, but their main function should be as reference books, rather than textbooks for learners to learn English. Thus, the kind of grammar that is employed in English education in middle and high schools in Japan is not necessarily appropriate as an English Grammar for Learning because the information provided in such books may not help learners to attain fluency in English. If the purpose of a class is to learn about English metaphysically, as in English Linguistics classes in tertiary education, studying English Grammar for Language Analysis may be desirable, but a grammar of this kind is not appropriate when the purpose is to acquire the language itself, as in English classes in middle and high schools. Since the main objective of a Grammar for Language Analysis is to investigate how language works, it is considered most important to describe the characteristics of the language explicitly. In contrast, the objective of an English Grammar for Learning is completely different, and the grammatical items

¹⁴ This section is based on Imai (2014a).

in an English Grammar for Learning should be limited to those that are helpful for learners to acquire or improve their English ability. In other words, an English Grammar for Learning should cover items for which the provision of declarative knowledge is effective in enhancing acquisition of the language. Thus, an English Grammar for Learning would best be developed by researchers who have majored in English Language Teaching. Linguistic theories may be referred to, but they should not be directly applied to English Language Teaching. Based on the discussion thus far, the present researcher developed an example of an English Grammar for Learning, namely Image English Grammar (Imai, 2010). The effect of this grammar on explicit instruction will be discussed in Chapter 4.

A final point should be mentioned regarding the problem of the current English grammar learning employed in high schools. This researcher assumes that the main objective of the current school grammar is to enable learners to translate English into Japanese. If the purpose of studying English is to translate English into Japanese, the current school grammar serves its purpose. Unfortunately, however, as the main objective of learning English in this global era is to communicate with people around the world in English, the English grammar for learning should be more appropriate in terms of improving learners' communication ability.

Chapter 3 How to Teach Image English Grammar for Communication.

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the current situation regarding learners' feeling for English (*Eigo no Kankaku*) and how the present researcher explains *linguistic motivation* in order to help learners acquire native speaker intuition through Image English Grammar using the 12 grammatical items employed in the present survey (reported in 3.2) and experiment (reported in Chapter 4). As mentioned in Chapter 1, *linguistic motivation* is a concept opposed to arbitrariness in language. It entails explaining why a certain expression means a certain thing, which is a core conceptual tool of Cognitive Linguistics.

This chapter is organized as follows: 3.2 reports on a survey conducted to determine how many university students had acquired native speaker intuition. The survey was conducted among 339 university students in the spring semester of the 2015 academic year. The items in the survey were 12 Image English Grammar items selected from Imai (2010). 3.3 describes how the researcher provides linguistic motivation through Image English Grammar regarding these 12 items in his classes.

3.2 The Current Situation Regarding a 'Feeling for English'

3.2.1 Research Assumptions

The research assumption underlying this part of the study was that most university students would not have acquired native speaker intuition for English, or *Eigo no Kankaku*. This researcher's experience suggests many grammatical items university students are considered to have learned in high school have not been understood by such students. When the researcher explains these items in his classes, most students react as if they have learned something new and appear to understand

English more deeply than before. The survey was conducted in order to confirm that this was indeed the case.

3.2.2 Participants

The participants in the survey comprised 339 university students at two public and two large scale private universities in the Aichi Prefecture. According to entrance examination data provided by cram schools, these universities are between the lower intermediate and upper intermediate level. As the intermediate level is the predominant category among university students, they may serve as an indication of the general tendency among Japanese learners acquiring a feeling for English. Some of the survey participants participated in the experiment to be described in Chapter 4, where further information is given about them.

3.2.3 Materials and Procedures

In the first class meeting of the 2015 spring semester, the 339 participants completed a pretest in order to confirm what percentage had acquired each of the 12 items of Image English Grammar that are used by the researcher to explicitly instruct on native speaker intuition. The 12 items are shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1.

Pretest Questions

Items of Image English Grammar	Questions that were given in the pretest
A-1. The image of <i>Yes/No</i>	According to the dialogue, which one of the items below is correct? Jack: You didn't go to the party, did you? Shelly: Yes.

	<p>a) Shelly went to the party. b) Shelly didn't go to the party. c) Jack went to the party. d) Jack didn't go to the party. e) Jack and Shelly went to the party.</p>
A-2. The image of <i>ever</i>	<p>Which one of these items sounds awkward?</p> <p>a) Do you ever wear perfume? b) Have you ever been to Canada? c) I have ever been to Niagara Falls. d) If you ever come to Japan, be sure to let me know. e) Godiva is the most delicious chocolate I've ever tasted in my life.</p>
A-3. The image of <i>staff</i>	<p>Which one of these items sounds awkward?</p> <p>a) Marina used to be a staff member of this bakery. b) Marina used to be a staff of this bakery. c) Marina used to be a member of the staff of this bakery. d) Marina used to be a staffer of this bakery. e) Marina was a member of the staff of this bakery.</p>
A-4. The image of <i>about</i>	<p>Which one of these items sounds awkward?</p> <p>a) I'm about to call her. b) I'm going to call her. c) I'm about to call her tomorrow. d) I'm going to call her tomorrow. e) I'll call her tomorrow.</p>
A-5. The image of <i>have + past participle</i>	<p>Which one of these items sounds awkward?</p> <p>a) Obama, the president of the United States, has visited Princeton. b) Einstein, the famous scientist, has visited Princeton. c) Obama, the president of the United States, visited Princeton. d) Einstein, the famous scientist, visited Princeton. e) Einstein, the famous scientist, had visited Princeton.</p>
A-6. The image of <i>in</i> in the context of ... <i>rises in the east</i> and ... <i>sets in the west</i>	<p>Fill in the blanks (a) and (b) with one of the words given below.</p> <p>The sun rises (a) the east and sets (b) the west.</p> <p>(a) a) at b) from c) in d) on e) up (b) a) at b) in c) on d) to e) down</p>

B-1. The image of <i>be + present participle</i>	Explain the meaning or the situation of this sentence. <i>The train is stopping.</i>
B-2. The difference between <i>Verb + Object</i> and <i>Verb + Preposition + Object</i>	What is the difference in meaning between these two? a. Sara is preparing final exams. / b. Sara is preparing for final exams.
B-3. The difference between <i>a</i> and <i>the</i>	What is the difference in meaning between these two? I've decided to break up with her. a. I'll tell you a reason. / b. I'll tell you the reason.
B-4. The difference between <i>mass</i> and <i>units</i>	What is the difference in meaning between these two? a. We ate turkey. / b. We ate a turkey.
B-5. The difference between <i>simple present form</i> and <i>present progressive form</i>	In what situation is each expression used? a. The road winds through the mountain. b. The road is winding through the mountain.
B-6. The difference between <i>simple present</i> and <i>would + base form</i>	In what situation is each expression used? a. I appreciate your help. b. I'd appreciate your help.

3.2.4 Results

The results of the survey are shown in Table 3.2. For items A1 to A6, the percentage of the participants who chose each option (a, b, c, d, or e) is indicated, with the correct answer highlighted. For items B1 to B6, the percentage of participants who answered each question correctly, incorrectly, or vaguely, is indicated. It is clear that, except for item A4, fewer than 30% of participants gave the correct answers. These results led the researcher to conclude that these 12 items would generally not be understood by most university students, as was expected on the basis of his teaching experience. The researcher further assumed that explicit instruction for these items in university

English classes was necessary and would be effective. The experimental class conducted to test these assumptions is discussed in Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

Table 3.2.

Pretest Results

	A-1	A-2	A-3	A-4	A-5	A-6a	A-6b
N=339	yes & no	ever	staff	about	have + past participle	in the east	in the west
a	23.8	55.0	16.2	11.5	5.0	4.7	2.4
b	66.8	0.9	9.4	2.1	22.1	55.6	21.5
c	2.6	15.6	14.7	72.6	4.1	12.4	14.4
d	3.8	22.9	53.2	5.0	9.1	13.2	37.4
e	1.5	3.8	4.4	6.2	51.8	8.5	17.6
NA	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.4	7.6	5.3	6.5
*NA: No answer is provided.							

	B-1	B-2	B-3	B-4	B-5	B-6
	be + present participle	Verb + Object / Verb + Preposition + Object	a & the	mass & units	simple present & present progressive	simple presnt & would + base form
Correct	21.8	25.0	18.2	29.1	30.0	10.9
Incorrect	75.9	53.2	74.1	60.9	60.9	85.9
Vague	2.1	21.5	7.4	9.7	8.8	2.9

3.3 How the 12 Items are Explained in Image English Grammar

This section describes how the researcher explains linguistic motivation of the 12 items in Table 3.1 through Image English Grammar, in relation to the survey results in Table 3.2. For the six questions in section A, the percentage of participants who chose each option is shown beside each option, with the ✓ indicating the correct answer. For the six questions in section B, the percentage of correct answers is given for each question.

As shown in (1), 23.8% of participants answered this question correctly.

(1) [A-1] **Yes / No:** According to the dialogue, which one of the items below is correct?

Jack: *You didn't go to the party, did you?*

Shelly: *Yes.*

- | | |
|--|----------|
| a) <i>Shelly went to the party.</i> | (✓23.8%) |
| b) <i>Shelly didn't go to the party.</i> | (66.8%) |
| c) <i>Jack went to the party.</i> | (2.6%) |
| d) <i>Jack didn't go to the party.</i> | (3.8%) |
| e) <i>Jack and Shelly went to the party.</i> | (1.5%) |

The main reason for the many incorrect answers is that students are often taught in middle or high school that *yes* means *hai* and *no* means *iie* in Japanese. However, English *yes/no* do not mean the same as Japanese *hai/iie* conceptually. *Yes* is an indicator that what a speaker wants to say could be described in an affirmative sentence. In other words, if a sentence is added after *yes*, it should be an affirmative sentence. In contrast, *no* implies that the speaker's message is expressed in a negative sentence, which means that a sentence following *no* should be a negative sentence. Japanese *hai/iie*

are totally different in this regard. *Hai* means that the speaker agrees with what the conversational partner has just said, while *iie* means the opposite, namely, that the speaker does not agree with what the conversational partner has just said.

Thus, the correct answer to this question is (1a) Shelly went to the party, because *yes* is an indicator of an affirmative sentence. In this case, *yes* means *Yes, I went to the party*. For this case, the researcher usually gives an item like that in Exercise 1 provided in (2) for practice, and then moves on to a more advanced item like that in Exercise 2 in (2).

(2) Exercise 1: Does this train go to Shibuya?

Bob: *This train doesn't go to Shibuya?*

Katie: *No*

Exercise 2: Did Maria sleep last night?

Mr. Miller: *You didn't sleep a wink last night?*

Maria: *Yes. I pulled an all-nighter.*

In Exercise 1, *no* indicates that *No, it doesn't go to Shibuya* because the sentence that follows *no* should be negative. Exercise 2 may be confusing to some students. Since *yes* is a replacement of an affirmative sentence, the meaning of this *yes* should be *yes, I slept last night*. However, the following sentence says *I pulled an all-nighter*, which means 'I stayed up all-night working,' so we can infer from this sentence that Maria did not sleep last night because she was studying for tests the next day. Most students think that this seems contradictory. The researcher then explains that in this case *yes* does not mean *yes, I slept last night*. This *yes* represents something else. After giving these hints, the researcher asks the students whether any of them knows what this *yes* means. Some students then guess correctly and answer that *yes* means *yes, you're right* or *yes, that's right*. At this

point, the researcher also mentions that without the following sentence, *yes* would be understood as *yes, I slept last night*, and that *no* would also fit in the context, indicating that *no, I did not sleep last night*. Together with the following sentence, however, we can understand that the meaning of *yes* in the example is *yes, you're right, I didn't sleep last night*. The important point here is that *yes* is an indicator of an affirmative sentence, and the affirmative sentence *yes* represents is inferred by the context.

In terms of the five principles introduced in 2.2, this question has much to do with Principle 1 (English cannot necessarily be translated into Japanese) and Principle 2 (Construal differences between Japanese and English). It is also related to Principle 5 (Partially motivation in language) because it is possible to explain why *yes/no* operates as described above.

Of the 12 items in the pre-test, question A-2 seemed to be the most difficult for Japanese learners of English. Only 15.6% of the participants chose the correct answer as shown in (3).

(3) [A-2] **Ever:** Which one of these items sounds awkward?

- | | |
|---|----------|
| a) <i>Do you ever wear perfume?</i> | (55.0%) |
| b) <i>Have you ever been to Canada?</i> | (0.9%) |
| c) <i>I have ever been to Niagara Falls.</i> | (✓15.6%) |
| d) <i>If you ever come to Japan, be sure to let me know.</i> | (22.9%) |
| e) <i>Godiva is the most delicious chocolate I've ever tasted in my life.</i> | (3.8%) |

The reason for this difficulty is the Japanese equivalent usually given in middle school when learners are taught *ever* for the first time. The first construction with *ever* that Japanese learners of English generally learn is one like (3b), in which *ever* is used with present perfect tense. The textbooks and teachers offer the Japanese equivalent *imamadeni* (before now), but this translation is misleading. The schematic meaning of *ever* is 'at any point in time,' as most English dictionaries,

such as the *Cambridge Dictionary of American English* (Second Edition), say. In addition, the difference in meaning between *ever* and *sometimes* is analogical to the difference between *any* and *some*, as shown in Table 3.3. As Keene & Matsunami (1969, p.4) claim *some* implies ‘LIMIT,’ while the word *any* implies ‘NO LIMIT.’ The same idea can be metaphorically applied to *sometimes* and *ever*, whereby *sometimes* implies ‘LIMIT’ and *ever* implies ‘NO LIMIT.’ That is why (3c) sounds awkward, because the speaker went to Niagara Falls at a specific time, and the hearer cannot determine the point in time without limitation. In contrast, in the case of (3a), the hearer can answer the question with *yes* regardless of how often the hearer wears perfume, and this case implies no limit. This is how *ever* fits into this context. Compare (3a) to the one in which *often* is used instead of *ever* as in *Do you often wear perfume?* In this case, in order to answer this question with *yes*, you should wear perfume regularly. If you wear perfume only once a year, for example, you cannot answer this question with *yes*. In this regard, the answer to *often* is LIMITED.

Table 3.3.

The Metaphorical Relationship between some/any and often/ever

	LIMIT	NO LIMIT
THINGS	<i>some</i>	<i>any</i>
TIME	<i>always, usually, often, sometimes, seldom, never</i>	<i>ever</i> (= at any point in time)

Thus, when hearers can choose any point of time randomly, they can use *ever* in the context of a sentence. When you talk about something that is already decided, and no possibility of choosing any point in time is open for your listener as in (3c), *ever* cannot be used. In addition, if learners rote-memorize *ever* as *imamadeni*, they cannot use *ever* in contexts such as those below.

- (4) a. *Do you ever wear perfume?*
b. *Did you ever wear perfume?*
c. *Will you ever wear perfume?*
d. *Have you ever worn perfume?*

Learners who believe the meaning of *ever* is *imamadeni* think that only (4d) or (4b) and (4d) are appropriate. The finding that 55.0% of the participants chose (3a) as awkward supports this assumption. However, all the sentences in (4) immediate above are natural because the meaning of *ever* is ‘at any point in time’.

In terms of the five principles, this question has much to do with Principle 1 (English cannot necessarily be translated into Japanese).

To question A-3, 9.4% of the participants answered correctly as shown in (5). This question reflects a common error frequently made by Japanese learners of English.

- (5) [A-3] **Staff**: Which one of these items sounds awkward?
- | | |
|---|---------|
| a) <i>Marina used to be a staff member of this bakery.</i> | (16.2%) |
| b) <i>Marina used to be a staff of this bakery.</i> | (✓9.4%) |
| c) <i>Marina used to be a member of the staff of this bakery.</i> | (14.7%) |
| d) <i>Marina used to be a staffer of this bakery.</i> | (53.2%) |
| e) <i>Marina was a member of the staff of this bakery.</i> | (4.4%) |

Consider the example sentence (6).

- (6)?*Kana is a staff of this café.*

When the researcher explains this grammar item in class, he starts by referring to the Japanese *katakana* expressions *sutaffu* and *sutaffu ichido*. Considering that *-ichido* is an expression used to refer to all the members of a group or an organization, observe that Japanese *sutaffu* is used to refer to each individual member working in an organization, in this case, a café. However, the same construal cannot be applied to English *staff*. English *staff* is an expression that refers to all the people working in an organization, so *sutaffu ichido* in Japanese is the appropriate equivalent. To refer to each individual member working in an organization, the term *staff member* should be used instead. This is why example (6) is awkward, and should be corrected to *Kana is a staff member of this café*. In explaining this item, the researcher usually uses the graphic shown in Figure 3.1 (Imai, 2015, p.240).

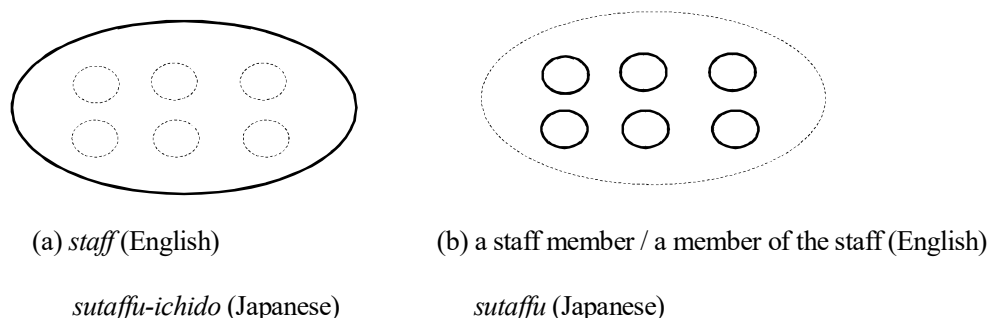


Figure 3.1. Figure and Ground Alternation of *staff*.

Figure and ground segregation/alternation is a cognitive ability often employed in Cognitive Linguistics to explain motivation in language expressions (*cf.* Yamanashi, 2009, p.126). This conceptual tool of Cognitive Linguistics is related to Principle 2 (Construal differences between Japanese and English), that was introduced in 2.2. When explaining the difference between *staff* (in English) and *sutaffu* (in Japanese), this concept is beneficial to allow Japanese learners of English to grasp the image of *staff* in English. Japanese *sutaffu* highlights (technically speaking, ‘foregrounds’) each member of an organization as in Figure (1b), whereas English *staff* foregrounds all the members working in an organization as a group, as shown in Figure (1a). In order to

foreground individual members in English, *a member of the staff* or *a staff member* is used. The same concept is used to understand the usage of such words as *family*, *vocabulary*, and so on. These words are also used to refer to all the members of a group. Consider *vocabulary*, another typical example that many Japanese learners of English use incorrectly. Such learners may write a sentence as in (7a), which should be written as (7b), because *vocabulary* refers to all the words or phrases stored in the brain.

(7) a. ?*Reading is one of the best ways to improve your vocabularies.*

b. *Reading is one of the best ways to improve your vocabulary.*

Now consider *family*. The researcher believes this is an easier example for learners to grasp. If you want to express the idea that *I have a family of four*, (8b) is appropriate. Since *family* refers to all the members of a family, (8a) sounds awkward, unless you have four different families.

(8) a. ?*I have four families.*

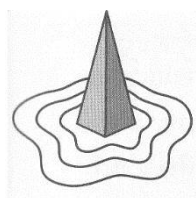
b. *I have four family members.*

To question A-4, 72.6% of participants answered correctly as shown in (9).

(9) [A-4] **About:** Which one of these items sounds awkward?

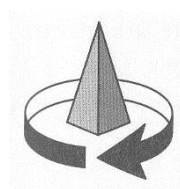
- | | |
|---|-----------|
| a) <i>I'm about to call her.</i> | (11.5%) |
| b) <i>I'm going to call her.</i> | (2.1%) |
| c) <i>I'm about to call her tomorrow.</i> | (✓ 72.6%) |
| d) <i>I'm going to call her tomorrow.</i> | (5.0%) |
| e) <i>I'll call her tomorrow.</i> | (6.2%) |

In high school, most Japanese learners seem to learn that both *be going to* and *be about to* can be used when talking about something you are going to do in the future. However, in terms of Bolinger's (1977) claims of one form for one meaning and one meaning for one form, the meaning of each of the two expressions is different, although they share a future meaning. This point is related to Principle 3 (Symbolic structure of form and meaning), as well as Principle 1 (English cannot necessarily be translated into Japanese). If we focus on the image of *about* in Figure 3.2, this problem is easily solved. Tanaka (2011) provides these core images (schemas) of *about* and *around*, making the difference clear.



about

(Tanaka, 2011, p.65)



around

(Tanaka, 2011, p.63)

Figure 3.2. Core Image of *about* and *around*.

As the figure shows, *about* X shows X and the vicinity of X. When metaphorically applying the image of *about* from space into time, it predictably means 'now' or 'very soon.' If you have this image in mind, you will easily understand that (9c) is awkward because the literal meaning of this sentence is 'I'm going to call her right now or very soon tomorrow.' As tomorrow is too far away to be regarded as soon, it is not compatible with *about*. When this researcher teaches this grammatical concept, he usually refers to the difference in meaning between the two sentences in (10a) and (10b).

(10) a. *Let's talk about this issue.*

b. *Let's talk around this issue.*

In terms of the images of *about* and *around* above, you can guess that (10a) means that this issue and its related topics are going to be talked about, but (10b) means that you should avoid talking about this issue as the expression *around X* does not include X, which is at the center of the graphic. Consider (11) as well to understand the reason more clearly.

- (11) a.* *The earth moves about the sun*
 b. *The earth moves around the sun.*

If you say (11a), the earth may hit the sun. However, in (11b), the earth moves around the sun without making contact. The same image can be metaphorically applied to (10a) and (10b).

For A-5, 22.1% of the participants answered correctly as shown in (12).

- (12) [A-5] **Have + Past Participle:** Which one of these items sounds awkward?
- | | |
|---|-----------|
| a) <i>Obama, the president of the United States, has visited Princeton.</i> | (5.0%) |
| b) <i>Einstein, the famous scientist, has visited Princeton.</i> | (✓ 22.2%) |
| c) <i>Obama, the president of the United States, visited Princeton.</i> | (4.1%) |
| d) <i>Einstein, the famous scientist, visited Princeton.</i> | (9.1%) |
| e) <i>Einstein, the famous scientist, had visited Princeton.</i> | (51.8%) |

The objective of A-5 is to get students to observe that the acceptability of a sentence is not only determined by its structure, but also by extra-linguistic knowledge like context, background knowledge, and cultural literacy (*cf.* Principle 4). *X has visited Princeton* is a perfectly grammatical structure. When X is *Obama*, the sentence sounds natural, but when X is *Einstein*, the sentence sounds awkward. The researcher also mentions that the ‘*has + past participle*’ form is an example

of present tense. Following this, many students guess correctly that since Einstein has passed away, and no longer exists in the world now, it is not compatible with the present tense *has*.

In answer to question A-6, 12.4% and 21.5% of the participants gave the correct answer for (a) and (b), respectively as shown in (13). Their lack of understanding is rooted in the construal difference between Japanese and English. (*cf.* Principle 2) The same situation can be construed in two ways, and both expressions exist in both languages. However, the expression that is preferred in each language is different. Japanese people tend to regard the east as the starting point, and the west as the goal of the movement of the sun and so are more likely to say *taiyo ha higashi kara nobori, nishi he shizumu*. In English, in contrast, the east is construed as a box-like space in which the sun rises, and the west is also regarded as a space in which the sun sets, which is why native English speakers tend to say *The sun rises in the east and sets in the west*.

(13) [A-6] *X rises in the east and sets in the west*:

Fill in the blanks (a) and (b) with one of the words given below.

The sun rises (a) the east and sets (b) the west.

(a) a) <i>at</i>	(4.7%)	(b) a) <i>at</i>	(2.4%)
b) <i>from</i>	(55.6%)	b) <i>in</i>	(✓21.5%)
c) <i>in</i>	(✓12.4%)	c) <i>on</i>	(14.4%)
d) <i>on</i>	(13.2%)	d) <i>to</i>	(37.4%)
e) <i>up</i>	(8.5%)	e) <i>down</i>	(17.6%)

However, in both languages, the other way of expressing the idea exists, but is not the first choice of native speakers. These expressions are given in (14a) and (14b), respectively.

(14a) *taiyou ha higashino sora ni noboru.*

(14b) *The sun goes/travels from the east to the west.*

In (14a), the east is construed as a space in which the sun rises, as it is in English. The particle *ni* in Japanese has a meaning similar to *in* in English. In (14b), as the route of the movement of the sun is emphasized, east is regarded as the starting point and west as the goal, as in Japanese.

In sum, both Japanese and English allow point-construal and box-like space construal, but differ in terms of which type of construal is preferred, as shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4.

Construal Difference between Japanese and English

	Japanese	English
Point construal	<i>taiyo ha higashi kara nobori, nishi he shizumu</i> [More common]	<i>The sun goes/moves/travels from the east to the west.</i> [Less common]
Box-like space construal	<i>taiyou ha higashino sora ni noborri, nishi ni shizumu</i> [Less common]	<i>The sun rises in the east and sets in the west.</i> [More common]

As for question B-1, only 21.8% of the subjects gave a correct answer as shown in (15).

(15) [B-1] **Be + Present Participle** (21.8%)

Explain the meaning or the situation of this sentence.

The train is stopping.

The cause of their lack of understanding is once again rooted in the Japanese translation (*cf.* Principle 1). Most Japanese learners of English learn in middle or high school that the ‘*be* + V-ing-

construction' can be translated as '--- *shite iru*' in Japanese. Unfortunately, this translation is not necessarily equivalent to the English 'be+V-ing-construction.' The schematic meaning of the 'be + V-ing-construction' is that something or someone is in the process of doing or accomplishing something. In other words, the action has not yet been completed. If Japanese learners of English rely too much on the Japanese translation they memorized, the sentence in (15) can be translated as *Basu ga tomat sute iru*, which means 'the bus is now at the bus stop.' In most cases, however, the meaning of this English sentence is that the bus is about to stop, that is, the bus has not stopped yet. After explaining what has been discussed thus far, the researcher goes on to an exercise to allow learners to practice this point more.

(16) **Exercise:** You're talking on the cellphone and the battery is going to die soon. You'd like to explain the situation to your friend, and want to call the person back later. In this situation, what would you say?

In (16), just by letting learners know that the verb *die* is used to express *keitai no juden ga kireru*, most students, including junior high school students¹, have been found to produced *my battery is dying* correctly.

¹ In the 2009 to 2010 academic year, Ms. Masami Kondo, an English teacher at Sanage Junior High School in Toyota City, asked this researcher to give special lectures in her elective English class for 3rd year students who volunteered for the course.

As for B-2, 25.0% of the participants answered correctly as is shown in (17).

(17) [B-2] **Verb + Object versus Verb + Preposition + Object** (25.0%)

What is the difference in meaning between these two?

- a. *Sara is preparing final exams.*
- b. *Sara is preparing for final exams.*

This is an example that the researcher usually provides in order to help learners notice one form for one meaning, one meaning for one form idea (Bolinger, 1977), which is also one of the fundamental concepts of Cognitive Linguistics (*cf.* Principle 3). Regarding this example, in (17a) Sara is a teacher, while in (17b) Sara is a student, because in (17a) she is setting exam questions, while in (17b) she is studying for the exam. Thus, what Sara is preparing in (17b) is not the exam itself; rather, she is preparing herself for getting good scores in the exams by studying. This is just one interpretation, as language is dynamic; in (17b) Sara could also be a teacher, looking for materials to be used for the exam. This example shows that language is not static, but dynamic, and that context counts in understanding any given sentence. This point is also explained according to the English level or the reaction of the students. The researcher then gives similar examples for students to practice this grammatical concept, such as that in (18).

(18) What is the meaning of the underlined part?

Nana: *Do you know Frank Lloyd Wright?*

Jack: *Do I know him? I know of him, but I haven't met him in person.*

Based on the context provided in (18), students try to guess the differences in meaning between *I know him* and *I know of him*. For such an exercise, the researcher always gives the

students some time to talk in pairs or groups of three². While the students are sharing their ideas, he walks around the classroom and listens. Many students guess correctly that *I know of him* means ‘I just know his name or face, but haven’t actually met him in person.’ The researcher then asks the whole class if there are any volunteers who would like to explain, and a volunteer shares his/her idea with the whole class. Then the researcher explains as follows: If you say *I know him*, with *him* following *know* directly, the sentence means ‘I have met him in person before.’ If you say *I know of him*, with *of* between *know* and *him*, the relationship between *know* and *him* becomes indirect, meaning that how I know him is also indirect. Thus, *I know of him* means ‘I know him indirectly,’ for example, by hearing about him from someone else. When students understand the concept introduced in this way, they are able to guess the meaning of examples like those in (19).

(19) a. ? *A drowning man will catch a straw.*

b. *A drowning man will catch at a straw.*

The sentence in (19b) is natural, but (19a) is awkward. It may be difficult for some learners to memorize that the preposition *at* is required in this proverb after the verb *catch*. However, if learners know the difference between *catch X* and *catch at X*, they can understand that (19b) is appropriate because the person who is now drowning does not catch a straw, but is trying to catch one. If learners know the reason why the preposition *at* is necessary in this example, they will be less likely to make a mistake in using the expressions in (19) correctly.

(20) a. *I believe him.*

b. *I believe in him.*

² The reason of providing learners with some time think on their own is that this researcher considers that making learners think is one of the most important things that teachers bear in mind in teaching. It is supported by Ausubel (1969) and this point is to be discussed in Chapter 5, Section 1.

Example (20) is an advanced item, in which (20a) means ‘I think what he said is true’ and (20b) means ‘I trust him.’ The difference in meaning between these two sentences is rooted in the meaning of the preposition *in*. If X have faith *in* Y, the image of X being part of Y or X and Y being related to each other will be triggered. Thus, the connection between *I* and *him* is stronger in (20b) than in (20a). If you understand the difference between (20a) and (20b), you will also realize why *in* is necessary in the sentence *I believe in God*, which means ‘I have faith in God.’

As for B-3, 18.2% of the participants answered correctly as shown in (21).

(21) [B-3] ***A and The***: (18.2%)

What is the difference in meaning between these two?

I've decided to break up with her.

a. *I'll tell you a reason.* b. *I'll tell you the reason.*

Articles are one of the most difficult grammatical concepts for Japanese learners of English, and even advanced level learners sometimes notice something new about them in usage. However, there are certain fundamental concepts that can be presented in the English classroom. B-3 is a good example to allow learners to understand the basic difference between *a* and *the*. In B-3, (21a) means that there is more than one reason the speaker decided to break up with his girlfriend, and he is going to tell the hearer one of the reasons. This is because the meaning of *a* is ‘one of certain items.’ In contrast, (21b) means that there is only one reason that the speaker decided to break up with his girlfriend and he is going to share it with the hearer. No other reasons, other than the one to be mentioned, exist. The same idea can be applied to guess the meanings of (22).

(22) a. *Ms. Olive is on the phone.*

b. *A Ms. Olive is on the phone.*

In (22a), Ms. Olive is a specific person that both the speaker and the hearer can identify. In contrast, in (22b), there is more than one person whose name is Ms. Olive in the speaker's mind, and the speaker cannot identify which Ms. Olive is on the phone, namely (22b) is generally used when the speaker has no knowledge of the person on the phone, irrespective of the person's name.

As for B-4, 29.1% of the participants answered correctly as shown in (23).

(23) [B-4] **Mass Nouns and Count Nouns (Units):** (29.1%)

What is the difference in meaning between these two?

- a. *We ate turkey.*
- b. *We ate a turkey.*

This item involves the difference in meaning between mass and units, reflecting another important grammatical notion regarding nouns and articles. When *a/an* occurs before a noun or plural *-s* is attached to a noun, the entity designated by the noun is construed as a count noun (in Keene's terms, count nouns are 'units'). In contrast, if neither *a* nor *-s* occur with the noun (i.e., if a bare noun is used), the noun is construed as a mass noun. In the case of B-4, *turkey* in (23a) is a general mass of turkey, while *turkey* in (23b) is a single unit. Thus in (23a), the amount of turkey you ate does not matter; the sentence simply means that the speaker ate some turkey. In (23b), the turkey is a unit, so this sentence means that the speaker ate a whole turkey. In order for learners to distinguish the meaning of these two sentences, it is essential to understand the images of mass and units (*cf.* Principle 3).

When this researcher teaches this grammatical notion, he usually starts by asking students to express the idea in (24) in English.

(24) *inu to neko no dotti ga suki desu ka?*

The sentence in (24) asks whether the hearer prefers dogs or cats. However, 50% or more students, in the researcher's teaching experience, give (25).

(25) *Which do you like better, dog or cat?*

In (25), *dog* and *cat* are interpreted as mass nouns, not units, so (25) can be understood to ask which the hearer prefers to eat, dog meat or cat meat. This should be corrected as *Which do you like better, dogs or cats?* because as pets or animals, dogs and cats are treated as units, not mass. This example is very effective to get learners to understand the difference between mass and units.

The question B-5 was answered correctly by 30.0% of the participants as shown in (26).

(26) [B-5] **Simple Present Form and Present Progressive Form (30.0%)**

In what situation is each expression used?

- a. *The road winds through the mountain.*
- b. *The road is winding through the mountain.*

This pair of sentences is a good example to allow learners to understand the difference in meaning between simple present and present progressive forms. The difference between these two sentences can be explained by drawing on one of the conceptual tools of Cognitive Linguistics, namely figure/ground segregation and alternation (*cf.* Principle 2). Consider the sentences in (27)

(27) a. *The road winds through the mountain.*

b. *The road is winding through the mountain.* (*cf.* Lee, 2001, p.150).

When the present simple form is employed, as in (27a), the speaker visualizes the whole scenario of the road winding through the mountain, as shown in Figure (3.3a). Thus, the sentence can be used, for example, when planning a road trip and looking at a map that shows the whole road. In contrast, in (27b), the speaker sees only part of the whole scenario, and reports what they see. Thus, the sentence can mean that the speaker is currently driving on a mountain road and is describing how it is winding at the place in which they are currently situated, as shown in Figure (3.3b).

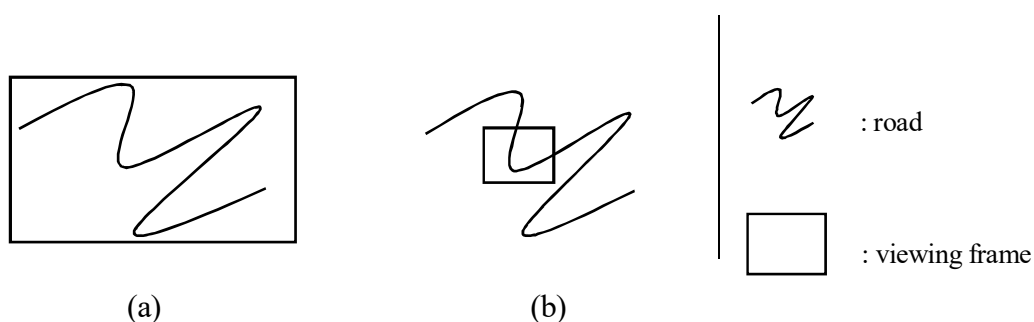


Figure 3.3. Difference of Viewing Frames in Space.

The same concept can be applied to other cases, such as time, as opposed to space. Consider the sentences in (28).

- (28) a. *A statue of Rodin stands in the lobby.*
 b. *A statue of Rodin is standing in the lobby.*

Lee (2001, p.150) describes how (28a) represents a permanent state of affairs (for all practical purposes), whereas (28b) implies that the statue has only recently been placed there and may not be staying. In the researcher's words, if the statue always stands in the lobby and there is no plan to move it, (28a) is appropriate. In contrast, if a Rodin exhibition is currently being held and that is

why the statue is standing in the lobby, (28b) is appropriate. This method of interpretation is related to the viewing frame, which changes from the whole to the part metaphorically. The same concept used in space in example (27) can be metaphorically applied to time in example (28). (The metaphorical extension of an expression from space to time is a general phenomenon.) When the simple present form is used, the speaker sees the situation by viewing the whole. In contrast, when the present progressive form is employed, the speaker sees only a part of the whole situation. Regarding (28a) and (28b), some native speakers comment that these two sentences can be used interchangeably. Some might also argue that for learners of English, the difference does not matter. However, as Keene & Matsunami (1969, p.15) claim, considering such subtle differences can enable learners to access what is actually occurring in a language. Thus, the researcher believes that explicit instruction in Image English Grammar is beneficial in university English classes to allow learners to acquire a feeling for English grammar.

For question B-6, 10.9% of the participants answered correctly as shown in (29).

(29) [B-6] Simple Present and *would* + base form (10.9%)

In what situation is each expression used?

- a. I appreciate your help.
- b. I'd appreciate your help.

This is another example reflecting one form for one meaning, one meaning for one form (*cf.* Principle 2). In (29a) the simple present form is employed, while in (b) *would* + *do* is employed. As the basic image of the simple present form is factual, (29a) is used when someone helped you and you want to thank the person. In other words, the action of appreciating the person's help is factual, and it is a fact that your hearer helped you. In contrast, (29b) relates to an imaginary situation as the past form *would* is employed. This expression is used when you are not sure whether your hearer

or reader will help you, but you are now asking them to do so. The literal meaning of this expression is ‘if you helped me, I would appreciate it,’ and it is used as a polite request for assistance.

With regard to the past tense, this researcher usually refers to an image of the past tense in explaining this item. What is usually explained regarding past tense is as follows: The basic image of past tense is in terms of ‘distance’³ and three kinds of ‘distance’ are possible according to the context, namely a) distance from now; b) distance from the person you are talking to; and c) distance from reality. These three types of distance are not mutually exclusive. It is just a matter of which distance is more salient than the others in a given context (*cf.* Imai, 2010, p.167). Consider the examples in (30).

(30) a. *I **loved** you so much.*

b. ***Could** you do me a favor?*

c. *“We’ll be having a party this coming Friday. Would you like to join us?”*

*“I wish I **could**, but I have other plans. Can I take a rain-check?”*

The past tense form in (30a) reflects distance from the present time, but could also be considered as reflecting distance from reality, as a person saying *I **loved** you so much*, could mean ‘I do not love you now.’ The sentence in (30b) indicates psychological distance from the person you are talking to. By employing *could* rather than *can*, the speaker keeps an appropriate psychological distance from the hearer for purposes of politeness. Finally, (30c) shows both distance from reality and distance from the person you are talking to. In this situation, you could say *I’m sorry, I can’t* instead of *I wish I could*. The former sentence reflects a fact, while the latter one describes an imaginary situation. The reason why the latter sentence is chosen in this dialogue is

³ The idea that past tense shows distance is also supported by Lee (2001, p.56)

that the speaker wants to be politer, using the past tense rather than saying outright that they cannot join the party.

Before wrapping up the explanation of this item, the researcher provides a question like that in (31) in order to check the students' understanding. The researcher usually gives the students some time to think and discuss with their classmates, finding that many students answer the question correctly, although this issue has not been confirmed empirically.

(31) What is the difference in meaning between these three?

- a. *Jack has been seeing Maria for three years.*
- b. *Jack will have been seeing Maria for three years tomorrow.*
- c. *Jack would have been seeing Maria for three years tomorrow.*

The difference in form and meaning symbolic structure in the sentences in (31) involves *has been*, *will have been*, and *would have been*. The sentence in (31a) reflects a fact because the present form *has been* is employed. For example, John and Maria started dating two years ago and today is their second anniversary; they are still dating. In (31b), *will* reflects prediction, so the message conveyed is the prediction by the speaker. However, as the auxiliary verb is *will*, the speaker is 100% sure that Jack and Maria will still be dating tomorrow. In contrast, in (31c), the auxiliary verb *would* reflects the image of past tense in terms of distance as in (30), so this sentence indicates distance from reality. Thus, (31c) conveys an imaginary situation. Jack and Maria broke up, but if they were still dating, it would have been their second anniversary tomorrow.

The effects of explicit instruction on the items that has been explained thus far is discussed in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4 The Effects of Explicit Instruction of Image Grammar for Communication on Tertiary Level English Classes¹

4.1 Introduction

Although considerable attention has been paid to the necessity of cultivating students' *Eigo no Kankaku*, i.e., their linguistic intuition regarding English, for over 40 years, to this day many Japanese English speakers and writers still do not appear to possess this intuition. Most university students were not taught *Eigo no Kankaku* in high school. When people learn their first language, they can subconsciously assimilate native speaker intuition, feeling, or sense regarding the grammar of English (to be referred to as 'feeling for English' in this paper), through repeated experience of typical expressions in typical situations. Those who have a feeling for English can distinguish between the meanings of two similar sentences and whether a sentence is natural or awkward, but they cannot necessarily explain the reason unless they have had special training in the grammar of their first language (*cf.* Keene & Matsunami, 1969).

Many believe that acquiring native speaker intuition cannot be expected in an EFL learning environment such as Japan because the amount of time that learners can spend learning the target language is limited. However, this researcher has been teaching Image English Grammar for over 15 years and feels that explicit instruction in acquiring a feeling for the grammar of English is effective for university students in the EFL learning environment. It is of course true that exposure to sufficient English input is required to learn English as a foreign language, but exposure to English input alone

¹ This whole chapter is from Imai (2016a). The effects of explicit instruction of "Image English Grammar for Communication" on tertiary English classes. *Journal of Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan*, 27, 137-152.

is not sufficient. In order to compensate for the time constraints that can be spent on learning the target language, explicit instruction in a feeling for English, in other words, explaining why an expression has a certain meaning², which the researcher has named Image English Grammar for Communication, should be helpful for university students who learn English in an EFL environment.

There are three reasons for this assumption regarding teaching Image English Grammar. One is that this researcher teaches Image English Grammar explicitly in his class and most students provide positive feedback, reporting that the class is beneficial and interesting, that they understand English better than before, and that English is easier than they thought. The second reason is that most students were not taught a feeling for English in high school. The final reason is that students' analytic ability and English proficiency are sufficient to understand the teacher's explanation (Kondo & Shirahata, 2015).

One of the main causes that hinders most Japanese learners of English from acquiring a feeling for the grammar of English may be that they have learned to rely too heavily on Japanese translation when they learn the meanings of English expressions. This method of translation-based teaching or learning English does not necessarily work because the way to construe the same things or situations differs between native speakers of English and those of Japanese. Moreover, a fundamental concept of Cognitive Linguistics is that construal differences are embodied in each language (Langacker, 2008; Lee, 2001, etc.). It can be very helpful for students' language ability if teachers of English as a foreign language help learners to observe the construal difference between the two languages (Imai, 2013).

² Littlemore (2009, p.148) also claims that teachers can explain, in theory, to their students why it is that certain expressions have certain meanings, instead of simply telling them 'that's just the way it is' and expecting them to learn expressions by heart. This engages learners in a search for meaning, which is likely to involve deeper cognitive processing that leads to deeper learning and longer retention.

This paper is organized as follows. Following the Introduction, the method of teaching Image English Grammar for Communication is explained in Section 2. Section 3 describes the body of the present experiment and questionnaire. The Results and Discussion are presented in Section 4, and Section 5 provides the Conclusion.

4.2 How to Teach Image English Grammar for Communication

Attempts to teach native speaker intuition, feeling, or sense regarding English grammar, which is often called *Eigo no Kankaku* in Japanese (Feeling for English), have been practiced by some teachers for more than 40 years. As far as this researcher knows, the oldest book that deals with feeling for English is Keene and Matsunami (1969). Some books and TV programs focusing on feeling for English have also been released over the past 15 years³. Although not all the authors and lecturers claim to draw on the ideas of Cognitive Linguistics, the researcher feels that the methods of explaining English expressions in these books are mostly compatible with the concepts of Cognitive Linguistics (Langacker, 2008, Yamanashi, 2009, etc.). The researcher defines the main characteristics of explaining English expressions in a ‘cognitive way’ as follows⁴: Explanations are provided metaphorically by activating daily knowledge or experiences that learners are familiar with. In contrast, most Japanese teachers of English tend to provide explanations within the framework of

³ The following books can be listed as examples even if restricted to the books written for general adult learners of English: Keene & Matsunami (1969), Tanaka & Kawade (1989), Petersen (1990, 2010, etc.), Ikegami (1991, 2006), Ohnishi & McBay (1995, 2007, 2011, etc.), Abe (1998), Tanaka (2006, 2013), Imai (2010), Nakagawa (2010).

⁴ The researcher defines Image Grammar for Communication in words for the first time in this paper based on what he has been practicing and researching so far.

technical terms of English grammar and Japanese translation. The explanation employed in this study is fundamentally based on Imai (2010, 2013). Consider the examples provided below.

Example sentence (1) is a common error that is frequently made by Japanese learners of English.

(1)? *Kana is a staff of this café.*⁵

When the researcher explains this grammar item in class, he starts by referring to the Japanese *katakana* expressions, *sutaffu* and *sutaffu ichido*. Considering that *-ichido* is an expression that is used to refer to all the members of a group or an organization, you will observe that Japanese *sutaffu* is used to indicate each member working in an organization, in this case, a café. However, the same construal cannot be applied to English *staff*. English *staff* is an expression that refers to all the people working in an organization, so *sutaffu ichido* in Japanese is the appropriate equivalent. To refer to each member working in an organization, the term *staff member* should be used instead. That is why example (1) is awkward, and should be corrected as: *Kana is a staff member of this café*. In explaining this item, the researcher usually uses the graphic that is shown in Figure 4.1 (Imai, 2015, p.240).

Figure and ground segregation / alternation is a cognitive ability that is often employed in Cognitive Linguistics to explain the motivatedness⁶ in language expressions (cf. Yamanashi, 2009, p.126). When explaining the difference between *staff* (in English) and *sutaffu* (in Japanese), this concept is beneficial to allow Japanese learners of English to grasp the image of *staff* in English.

⁵ The reason why a question mark (?) is given in this sentence is that Cognitive Linguistics' consideration as to whether a given sentence is natural or awkward is a matter of convention rather than the grammatical / ungrammatical dichotomy that is generally employed.

⁶ 'Motivatedness' is a concept in Cognitive Linguistics that means the opposite of 'arbitrariness.' When some expression is motivated, Cognitive Linguistics (cf. Langacker, 2008, p.5) considers it possible to explain why the expression has a certain meaning.

Japanese *sutaffu* highlights (technically speaking, foregrounds) each member of an organization as in Figure (4.1b), but English *staff* foregrounds all the members working in an organization as a group as shown in Figure (4.1a). In order to foreground individual members as shown in Figure (4.1b) in English, it is necessary to say *a member of the staff* or *a staff member*, instead.

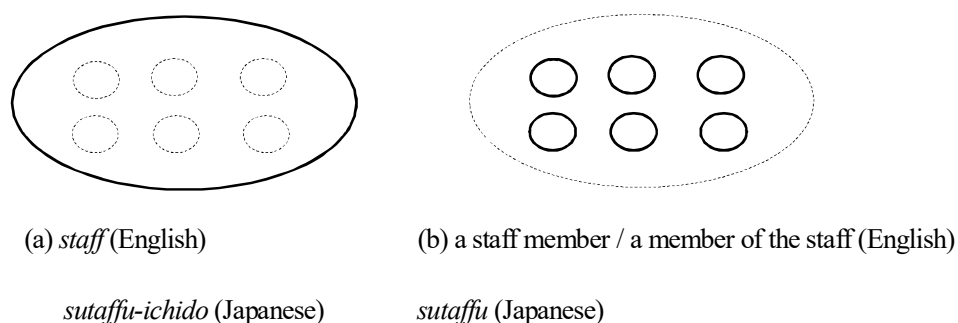


Figure 4.1. Figure and Ground Alternation of *staff*.

The same concept is used to understand the usage of such words as *family*, *vocabulary*, and so on. These words are also used to refer to all the members of a group. Consider *vocabulary*, for example. This is also a typical example that many Japanese learners of English cannot use correctly. These learners write a sentence as (2a), but it should be correctly written as (2b) because *vocabulary* refers to all the words or phrases stored in the brain.

- (2) a. ? *Reading is one of the best ways to improve your vocabularies.*
 b. *Reading is one of the best ways to improve your vocabulary.*

Consider another example, (3). This pair of sentences is a good example to allow learners to understand the difference in meaning between *simple present* and *present progressive* forms. The

researcher considers it another good example to grasp the image of explanation that draws on Cognitive Linguistics.

(3) a. *The road winds through the mountain.*

b. *The road is winding through the mountain.* (cf. Lee, 2001, p.150).

When the present simple form is employed as in (3a), the speaker visualizes the whole situation of the road winding through the mountain, as shown in Figure (4.2a). Thus, the sentence can be used, for instance, when planning a road trip and looking at a map, on which can be seen the whole road. In contrast, in (3b), the speaker sees only part of the whole situation, and reports what they see in the scene. Thus, the sentence can mean that the speaker is now driving on the mountain road and is describing how the road is winding at the place in which they are currently situated, as shown in Figure (4.2b).

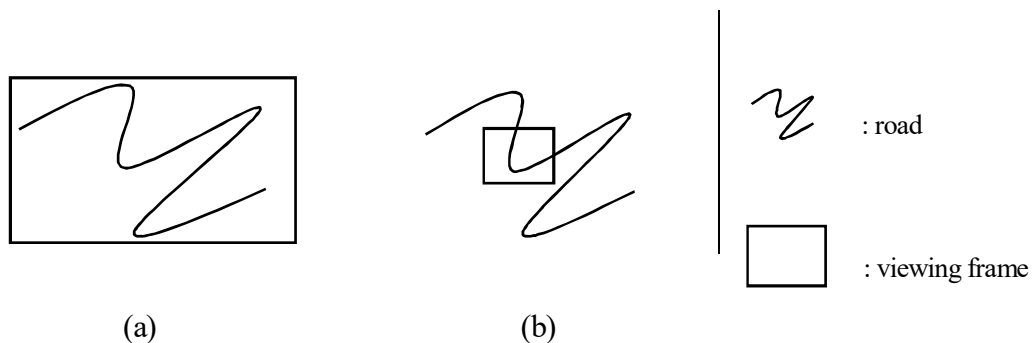


Figure 4.2. Difference of Viewing Frames in Space.

The same concept can be applied to other cases, for example, time. Consider (4) for example.

(4) a. *A statue of Rodin stands in the lobby.*

b. *A statue of Rodin is standing in the lobby.*

Lee describes how (4a) represents a state of affairs that is permanent (for all practical purposes), whereas (4b) implies that the statue has only recently been placed there and may not be staying (Lee, 2001, p.150). In the researcher's words, if the statue always stands in the lobby and there is no plan to move it, (4a) is appropriate. In contrast, if a Rodin exhibition is currently being held and that is why the statue is standing in the lobby, (4b) is appropriate. This method of interpretation is related to the viewing frame changes from the whole to the part metaphorically. The same concept that is used in "space" in example (3) is metaphorically applied to "time" in example (4). (The metaphorical extension of some expression from "space" to "time" is a general phenomenon.) When the *simple present form* is used, the speaker sees the situation by viewing the whole situation. In contrast, when the *present progressive form* is employed, the speaker sees only a part of the whole situation. Regarding (4a) and (4b), some native speakers comment that these two sentences can be used interchangeably. Some people might also argue that for learners of English, they do not matter. However, as Keene and Matsunami (1969, p.15) claim, considering about these subtle differences can enable learners to access what is really occurring in the language. Thus, the researcher assumes that explicit instruction on Image English Grammar is beneficial in university English classes to allow learners to acquire a feeling for English grammar.

4.3 Experiments

4.3.1 Research Assumptions

As has already been mentioned, the research assumptions of this paper comprise the following three points. First, most university students have not acquired a feeling for the grammar of English, which is often called *Eigo no Kankaku* in Japanese. Second, explicit instruction on Image English Grammar for Communication should be effective and university students can improve their feeling for the grammar of English. Third, explicit instruction on Image English Grammar makes learners feel that the process of learning English itself is valuable and interesting.

4.3.2 Participants

The participants in the present study comprised 74 sophomores at a national university in Japan. Their general English proficiency level varied from elementary to intermediate according to their TOEIC scores (mean score: 460 out of 990, range 305 to 680). These students belong to three different classes, two of which were employed as the experimental group (E) that was taught by the researcher in the spring semester of 2015. The other class was employed as the control group (C) that was taught by another teacher. The number of students in each group was 59 and 27, respectively. All students attended the ‘English Communication II’ course, which met once a week for 16 weeks in the spring semester of 2015.

4.3.3 Materials and Procedures

4.3.3.1 Pretest, Immediate Posttest, and Delayed Posttest

This experiment draws on the experimental method and procedure employed by Kondo and Shirahata (2015). Twelve items, which the researcher assumes most learners have not acquired, were chosen from the items of Image English Grammar for Communication (Imai, 2010) for this experiment as shown in Table 4.1. Firstly, the researcher gave all the participants in both the experimental and control groups a pre-test. Then from the second class meeting, explicit instruction was given to the experimental group four times over the period of four weeks for approximately 25 minutes each time. The number of items that were explained each week was three. Then in the sixth week class meeting, all 12 items that had previously been taught once were briefly reviewed in 25 minutes. The 12 items of Image English Grammar and the actual questions that were given in the pretest are shown in Table 4.1. In type-A questions, the participants were asked to choose one of the five options as the answer to each question. In contrast, in type-B questions, the participants were asked to write the answer to each question by providing a brief explanation in Japanese. In the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest, the same 12 points were tested, but the sentential contexts and order of questions differed. Depending on the characteristics of each item, as the researcher feels a more appropriate way to test the items differs, two types of question were employed.

Table 4.1.

Items of Image English Grammar and Pretest Questions

Items of image English Grammar	Questions that were given in the pretest
A-1. The image of <i>Yes/No</i>	<p>According to the dialogue, which one of the items below is correct?</p> <p>Jack: You didn't go to the party, did you? Shelly: Yes.</p> <p>a) Shelly went to the party. b) Shelly didn't go to the party. c) Jack went to the party. d) Jack didn't go to the party. e) Jack and Shelly went to the party.</p>
A-2. The image of <i>ever</i>	<p>Which one of these items sounds awkward?</p> <p>a) Do you ever wear perfume? b) Have you ever been to Canada? c) I have ever been to Niagara Falls. d) If you ever come to Japan, be sure to let me know. e) Godiva is the most delicious chocolate I've ever tasted in my life.</p>
A-3. The image of <i>staff</i>	<p>Which one of these items sounds awkward?</p> <p>a) Marina used to be a staff member of this bakery. b) Marina used to be a staff of this bakery. c) Marina used to be a member of the staff of this bakery. d) Marina used to be a staffer of this bakery. e) Marina was a member of the staff of this bakery.</p>
A-4. The image of <i>about</i>	<p>Which one of these items sounds awkward?</p> <p>a) I'm about to call her. b) I'm going to call her. c) I'm about to call her tomorrow. d) I'm going to call her tomorrow. e) I'll call her tomorrow.</p>
A-5. The image of <i>have + past participle</i>	<p>Which one of these items sounds awkward?</p> <p>a) Obama, the president of the United States, has visited Princeton.</p> <p>b) Einstein, the famous scientist, has visited Princeton.</p>

	<p>c) Obama, the president of the United States, visited Princeton.</p> <p>d) Einstein, the famous scientist, visited Princeton.</p> <p>e) Einstein, the famous scientist, had visited Princeton.</p>
<p>A-6. The image of <i>in</i> in the context of ... <i>rises in the east</i> and ... <i>sets in the west</i></p>	<p>Fill in blanks (a) and (b) with one of the words given below.</p> <p>The sun rises (a) the east and sets (b) the west.</p> <p>(a) a) at b) from c) in d) on e) up</p> <p>(b) a) at b) in c) on d) to e) down</p>
<p>B-1. The image of <i>be + present participle</i></p>	<p>Explain the meaning or the situation of this sentence.</p> <p><i>The train is stopping.</i></p>
<p>B-2. The difference between <i>Verb + Object</i> and <i>Verb + Preposition + Object</i></p>	<p>What is the difference in meaning between these two?</p> <p>a. Sara is preparing final exams. b. Sara is preparing for final exams.</p>
<p>B-3. The difference between <i>a</i> and <i>the</i></p>	<p>What is the difference in meaning between these two?</p> <p>I've decided to break up with her.</p> <p>a. I'll tell you a reason. b. I'll tell you the reason.</p>
<p>B-4. The difference between <i>mass</i> and <i>units</i></p>	<p>What is the difference in meaning between these two?</p> <p>a. We ate turkey. b. We ate a turkey.</p>
<p>B-5. The difference between <i>simple present form</i> and <i>present progressive form</i></p>	<p>In what situation is each expression used?</p> <p>a. The road winds through the mountain.</p> <p>b. The road is winding through the mountain.</p>

B-6. The difference <i>between simple present and would + base form</i>	In what situation is each expression used? a. I appreciate your help. b. I'd appreciate your help.
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The researcher explained feeling for the grammar of English to the experimental group participants by drawing on the Image English Grammar for Communication (Imai, 2010, 2013) that he has been developing and practicing in his classes for the past 15 years. Consider question A-2 in Table 1, for example. In middle or high school, most learners learn the meaning of *ever* as '*ima made ni*' (before now) in Japanese. If learners understand that the meaning of *ever* equals '*ima made ni*' in Japanese, however, they cannot answer this question correctly. This is because English cannot necessarily be translated into Japanese and the translation can even lead to misunderstandings (Imai, 2010, p.1). The image of *ever* is 'at any point in time' as most English dictionaries, such as the *Cambridge Dictionary of American English (Second Edition)*, say. In addition, the difference in meaning between *ever* and *sometimes*⁷ is analogical to the difference between *any* and *some*. As Keene and Matsunami (1969, p.4) claim, the word *some* implies 'LIMIT,' while the word *any* implies 'NO LIMIT.' The same idea can be metaphorically applied to *sometimes* and *ever*. The word *sometimes* implies 'LIMIT.' The word *ever* implies 'NO LIMIT.' That is why *I have ever been to Niagara Falls* sounds awkward because the speaker went to Niagara Falls at some specific time, and the hearer cannot choose any point in time without limitation. In contrast, in the case of *Do you ever wear perfume?*, as the hearer can answer the question *yes* regardless of how often the hearer wears perfume, this case implies no limit. Thus, *ever* fits in this context.

⁷ In addition to *sometimes*, other adverbials of frequency, such as *always*, *usually*, *often*, and *rarely* also imply LIMIT.

It should also be noted that when the researcher explains Image English Grammar to the learners, he tries to give them the opportunity to think on their own. Rather than explaining Image English Grammar in a one-way lecture format, the researcher starts by giving a quiz related to each point for learners to consider on their own, and then ask them discuss it with their classmates. In retrospect, the researcher's method of presenting the material satisfies the three psychological needs (competence, autonomy, and relatedness) that Ryan and Deci (2000, p.74) claim are necessary in order for people to be more self-determined. For more specific information regarding the content of the instruction that the researcher provided in the classrooms and the theoretical background, see Imai (2010, 2013, 2014a, 2014b, 2014c, 2014d, 2015).

The participants in the experimental group (E) completed a test of Image English Grammar, before (pretest), immediately after (immediate posttest), and eight weeks after the series of instructions (delayed posttest) in order to examine whether the explicit instruction on Image English Grammar provided were effective for these university students. On the other hand, the control group (C) took the test of Image English Grammar just twice (pretest and delayed posttest) and did not receive any explicit instructions during the experimental period.

4.3.3.2 Questionnaire

In order to check what percentage of participants feel the explicit instruction of Image English Grammar to be valuable and interesting, a questionnaire was conducted after the delayed posttest in the 15th-week class meeting of the experimental group (E). The questionnaire consists of the six items as shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2.

Questionnaire for Image English Grammar

In this semester, you have been learning Image English Grammar in this class. Regarding each of the six questions, choose one of the options from a) to e).

a) Strongly disagree. b) Disagree. c) Neither agree nor disagree. d) Agree. e) Strongly agree.

1. You have learned feeling for English for the first time in this class.
2. You learned feeling for English when you were in high school.
3. You have learned feeling for English in another class at the university.
- 4 You found the content valuable to learn.
5. You enjoyed learning feeling for English.
6. You have a deeper understanding of the content than previously.

(※ The original questions were provided in Japanese)

The aim of providing each question is as follows: Questions 1, 2, and 3 were asked to check what percentage of participants has been explicitly instructed in Image English Grammar in high school or in other classes in college. Questions 4 and 5 were asked to check what percentage of participants considers this experimental class valuable and enjoyable. The reason that these questions were asked is based on Konno's claim that an English classroom experience in which learners perceive that they are learning English because it is enjoyable and valuable provides an appropriate condition for developing the ideal L2 self (Konno 2014, p.195) after considering Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determinant theory (SDT) and Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self system. It should also be noted that in SDT, the concept 'valuable' is related to the most self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, and 'interesting' is related to intrinsic motivation, so it could be said that learners

who feel the process of learning English to be valuable or interesting should be highly motivated. Question 6 was asked to check what percentage of participants has a more in-depth understanding of the content than previously. This question is based on Littlemore's (2009, p.148) claim that explaining to learners of English why some expression has a certain meaning leads to deeper learning and longer retention.

4.4 Results & Discussion

4.4.1 Pretest, Immediate Posttest, and Delayed Posttest

Table 4.3 shows the percentage of participants in the experimental group (E) and control group (C) who answered each question of Image English Grammar correctly in the pretest (pre), immediate posttest (I.post), and delayed posttest (D.post), respectively.

Regarding the results of the pretest, except for questions A-4 (78.8%) and B-5 (44.7%), the percentage of participants who chose the correct answer was less than 30%. These results lead the researcher to confirm that even students who are enrolled in a national university have not necessarily acquired feeling for the grammar of English, and it should therefore be meaningful and beneficial to teach Image English Grammar to these students.

Table 4.3.

Percentage of Participants who Answered Correctly in the Image English Grammar Test.

(a) Experimental group (E)					(b) Control group (C)				
		pretest	immediate posttest	delayed posttest			pretest		delayed posttest
	n=	58	56	51		n=	27		30
A-1	yes & no	25.9	73.2	72.5	A-1	yes & no	14.8		3.3
A-2	ever	8.6	62.5	49.0	A-2	ever	11.1		3.3
A-3	staff	8.6	71.4	72.5	A-3	staff	7.4		10.0
A-4	about	74.1	83.9	82.4	A-4	about	88.9		70.0
A-5	have + past participle	22.4	69.6	54.9	A-5	have + past participle	37.0		3.3
A-6a	in the east	10.3	66.1	76.5	A-6a	in the east	18.5		10.0
A-6b	in the west	15.5	73.2	80.4	A-6b	in the west	18.5		26.7
B-1	be + present participle	31.0	62.5	78.4	B-1	be + present participle	18.5		23.3
B-2	Verb + Object / Verb + Preposition + Object	20.7	33.9	5.9	B-2	Verb + Object / Verb + Preposition + Object	33.3		0.0
B-3	a & the	17.2	76.8	60.8	B-3	a & the	14.8		20.0
B-4	mass & units	20.7	76.8	62.7	B-4	mass & units	33.3		53.3
B-5	simple present & present progressive	50.5	58.9	82.4	B-5	simple present & present progressive	33.3		23.3
B-6	simple presnt & would + base form	6.9	42.9	37.3	B-6	simple presnt & would + base form	11.1		0.0

Table 4.4.

Results of Multiple Comparison Based on ANOVA and Holm for Pre, I.post, and D.post

		pre-I.post	pre-D.post	I.post-D.post
A-1	yes & no	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p=.766(n.s.)
A-2	ever	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p=.073(n.s.)
A-3	staff	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p=1.00(n.s.)
A-4	about	p=.200(n.s.)	p=.200(n.s.)	p=1.00(n.s.)
A-5	have + past participle	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p<.011(*)
A-6a	in the east	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p=.371(n.s.)
A-6b	in the west	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p=.371(n.s.)
B-1	be + present participle	p<.001(**)	p<.000(**)	p<.010(**)
B-2	Verb + Object / Verb + Preposition + Object	p=.349(n.s.)	p=.163(n.s.)	p=.040(n.s.)
B-3	a & the	p<.000(**)	p<.000(*)	p=.128(n.s.)
B-4	mass & units	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p<.059(*)
B-5	simple present & present progressive	p=.351(n.s.)	p<.003(**.)	p<.034(*)
B-6	simple presnt & would + base form	p<.000(**)	p<.000(*)	p=.622(n.s.)

Let us now compare the percentage of participants who answered each question correctly in the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest in the experimental group. An ANOVA and multiple comparison based on the Holm method⁸ were conducted on the results. The results reveal that statistical significance in relation to questions A-4 (about) and B-2 (Verb + Object & Verb + Preposition + Object) was not observed between the pretest and immediate posttest or delayed posttest with regard to the percentage of participants who answered these questions correctly. However, for all other questions, the difference was statistically significant. These results demonstrate that explicit instruction on Image English Grammar is generally effective for university students. The specific data of the multiple comparison based on ANOVA and Holm is shown in Table 4.4. The sign (**) indicates statistical significance, while (n.s.) indicates not statistically significant.

Let us now examine the results in more detail. The items of Image English Grammar can be roughly categorized into four types according to how the participants improved as shown in Table 4.5. In type A, the percentage of participants who responded correctly increased in the immediate posttest (statistical significance is observed between the pre and I.post) and the improvement was retained in the delayed posttest (statistical significance is not observed between the I.post and D.post). However, in the items that marked A-, the participants who answered correctly in the immediate or delayed posttest was less than 70%. A-2 (*ever*) and B-6 (*simple present & would + base form*) are of this type, and they seem to be difficult to acquire. The cause is likely to be that the concept itself of these items is difficult to digest. B-1 (*be + present participle*), which is marked A+, behaves differently. The percentage of correct answers increased between the I.post and D.post. It may be that the participants had the opportunity to gain deeper understanding by encountering sentences that include this structure

⁸ The statistical analysis was conducted using HAD (<http://norimune.net/had>).

in their daily English use or study. In type B, the percentage increased in the immediate posttest, but decreased in the delayed posttest. Two items, A-5 (have + past participle) and B-4 (mass & units), are categorized in this type, as shown in Table 5. As both items are core grammatical points, it is speculated that they should be focused on in class repeatedly. In type C, no improvement was observed statistically. A-4 (about) and B-2 (Verb + Object & Verb + Preposition + Object) are of this type. Regarding A-4, as the percentage of correct answers was more than 70% in the pretest, it may be difficult to expect further improvement. As for B-2, the difference in meaning between (5a) and (5b) was asked in the delayed posttest.

(5) a. *I know New York.*

b. *I know of New York.*

The correct interpretation of these two sentences as follows: (5a) means that I have been to New York, and I know the place well, while (5b) means that I just know the name of the place. Most participants, however, gave the opposite answers. The cause could lie in the Japanese translation. If participants remember that the meaning of *of* is *–ni tsuite* in Japanese, it is predicted that they are more likely to understand that in (5b) I know more about New York than in (5a).

Now consider the data from a different analytical viewpoint, that is, the average scores of the experimental and control groups in the pretest and delayed posttest. The researcher used a two-way ANOVA to analyze the data, and the effect of interaction was significant ($F=96.839$, $df=1/72$, $p<.0001$). Thus, the sub-effect test was conducted, and revealed no statistical significance in the control group, but for the experimental group, the average score of the delayed posttest was much higher than that of the pretest ($t=14.058$, $df=72$, $p<.0001$). The results indicate that the average score

in the pretest and delayed posttest showed relative improvement in the group to whom explicit instruction was provided.

Table 4.5.

Categorization of the Items of Image English Grammar According to how Participants Improved.

Type			pre-I.post	pre-D.post	I.post-D.post	pretest	immediate posttest	delayed posttest
A	A-1	yes & no	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p=.766(n.s.)	25.9	73.2	72.5
A	A-3	staff	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p=1.00(n.s.)	8.6	71.4	72.5
A	A-6a	in the east	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p=.371(n.s.)	10.3	66.1	76.5
A	A-6b	in the west	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p=.371(n.s.)	15.5	73.2	80.4
A-	A-2	ever	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p=.073(n.s.)	8.6	62.5	49.0
A-	B-3	a & the	p<.000(**)	p<.000(*)	p=.128(n.s.)	17.2	76.8	60.8
A-	B-6	simple presnt & would + base form	p<.000(**)	p<.000(*)	p=.622(n.s.)	6.9	42.9	37.3
A+	B-1	be + present participle	p<.001(**)	p<.000(**)	p<.010(**)	31	62.5	78.4
B	A-5	have + past participle	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p<.011(*)	22.4	69.6	54.9
B	B-4	mass & units	p<.000(**)	p<.000(**)	p<.059(*)	20.7	76.8	62.7
C	B-2	Verb + Object / Verb + Preposition + Object	p=.349(n.s.)	p=.163(n.s.)	p=.040(n.s.)	20.7	33.9	5.9
C	A-4	about	p=.200(n.s.)	p=.200(n.s.)	p=1.00(n.s.)	74.1	83.9	82.4
D	B-5	simple present & present progressive	p=.351(n.s.)	p<.003(**.)	p<.034(*)	50.5	58.9	82.4

4.4.2 Questionnaire

Table 4.6 demonstrates the results of the questionnaire that was provided in the 15th week class meeting in the experimental group (E).

Table 4.6.

Questionnaire Results in Percentage

N=51	1. learned for the first time in this class	2. have learned in high school	3. have learned in another class in the university	4. valuable	5.enjoyable	6. understood deeper than before
a) Strongly Disagree	2.0	2.0	25.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
b) Disagree	3.9	15.7	35.3	2.0	5.9	0.0
c) Neither agree nor disagree	11.8	39.2	19.6	3.9	15.7	7.8
d) Agree	41.2	31.4	15.7	43.1	47.1	39.2
e) Strongly Agree	33.3	3.9	2.0	49.0	29.4	45.1
No Answers Given	7.8	7.8	2.0	2.0	2.0	7.8
d) + e)	74.5	35.3	17.6	92.2	76.5	84.3

Let us consider the percentage of participants who chose ‘Agree’ or ‘Strongly agree’ in each question, which are highlighted in Table 5. Firstly, questions 1, 2, and 3 indicate that more than 70% of the participants have not been taught Image English Grammar, which is explicitly instructed in this class. From this result, the researcher can confirm that teaching Image English Grammar to university students is meaningful because more than 70% have not learned it at high school or in their university English classes. Secondly, question 4 indicates that 92.2% of the participants consider learning Image English Grammar explicitly to be valuable. Question 5 demonstrates that 76.5% of the participants find learning Image English Grammar interesting. From these two results, it can be said that teaching Image English Grammar motivates students to learn English, and they come to consider the process of learning English itself interesting (*cf.* 3.3.2.). Lastly, question 6 reveals that 84.3% of the participants understood the content better than they used to. From this result, the researcher can

confirm that teaching learners why some expression has a certain meaning leads to deeper learning, as noted by Littlemore (2009, p.149).

The researcher also compared the result of the questionnaire to the difference in scores between the pretest and delayed posttest. The result demonstrates that the partial regression coefficient was significant in question 4 (valuable) ($t=2.054$, $df=45$, $p<.046$). The result can indicate that participants who consider learning *feeling for English* valuable tend to improve.

4.5 Conclusion

The present study attempted to reveal three assumptions that have been mentioned previously. The first point was to confirm what percentage of participants could answer the questions on Image English Grammar, and the result demonstrated that for 11 out of the 13 items of Image English Grammar, the percentage of participants who answered correctly was less than 30%. This result is in accordance with the researcher's prediction based on his teaching experiences in the classroom. The second point that the researcher wanted to investigate was whether explicit instruction of Image English Grammar is effective for tertiary level learners of English: the results of the experiment demonstrate that it is effective. The third point that the researcher attempted to verify was whether explicit instruction of Image English Grammar would help participants to find the English class valuable and interesting, and also feel that they have gained a deeper understanding of the content than previously. The results of the questionnaire that was conducted after the delayed posttest clarify this point.

On the other hand, as the categorization in Table 5 demonstrates, the effect of explicit instruction differed from item to item. The researcher speculates that there are several possible reasons

for this: The researcher's method of explanation was complex; the L1 transfer, mainly the effect of Japanese translation, was strong; the concept of the item itself is complicated; or the participants' analytic ability, English proficiency, or attitudes toward the instruction were inadequate. However, as these are currently merely speculative, further research is required to verify these statements.

Another possibility for future study is to investigate what type of learners will be rewarded by the explicit instruction on Image English Grammar. As is often said, people learn differently. The researcher believes that no method is best for every learner. Through his more than 15 years of teaching experience, the researcher feels that Image English Grammar is appropriate for learners who already have general cognitive ability, and are enrolled in national, public, or private universities that are generally regarded as intermediate or advanced level. This is one of the reasons that the researcher chose students at a national university as participants of this study. The researcher also suspects that even if learners have low English proficiency, if they have developed general cognitive ability, Image English Grammar will be effective for their English learning. This point awaits further study.

Chapter 5 Activating Students' Frame Knowledge about Antonyms¹

5.1 Introduction

The results of the experiments discussed in Chapter 4 revealed that the effect of explicit instruction on Image English Grammar was statistically significant. This chapter follows up these findings by focusing more specifically on the learning process, reporting on the effect of activating students' analogical reasoning ability in teaching Image English Grammar. In order to examine the learning process more specifically, the researcher designed and developed a method of activating frame knowledge about antonyms, applying the method in the classroom as practice.

It is often thought that reception learning, in which 'the entire content of what is to be learned is presented to the learner in its final form' (Ausubel 1969, p.43), is equal to rote learning, while discovery learning, in which 'the principal content of what is to be learned is not given in its final form but must be discovered by the learner' (Ausubel, 1969, p.44), is equivalent to meaningful learning. However, Ausubel (1969, p.45) claims on a series of the experiments that this general conception is not necessarily the case. He states that the reception/discovery and meaningful/rote dimensions do not describe dichotomies, but instead are more in the nature of continua (Ausubel, 1969, p.44), and further that the most important point to be aware of is that meaningful learning will result if learners attempt to retain an idea by relating it to what they already know. On the other hand, if learners merely attempt to memorize the idea, without relating it to their existing knowledge, rote learning takes place (Ausubel, 1969, p.44). Based on this idea, Ausubel claims that meaningful reception learning will occur when a teacher presents a generalization in its final form, and learners

¹ The content of this chapter was displayed in the poster presentation at the annual convention of JCLA, 2016, and is also scheduled to be published as a paper titled 'Gakushusha no motsu frame chishiki wo katsuyo shita communication no tame no kankaku eibunpou: hanigo o ishiki suru koto de ruiji shita futatsu no hyogen no imi o kangaeru' [Image English grammar for communication by activating students' analogical abilities regarding the frame knowledge about antonyms] in *Papers from the 16th National Conference of the Japanese Cognitive Linguistics Association*.

relate this to their existing ideas in a sensible manner. This is exactly what the researcher has been doing in his classes for more than 20 years, without having had exposure to Ausubel's work, and it is also compatible with one of the conceptual tools of Cognitive Linguistics (Lee, 2001, pp.8-12), namely the use of frame knowledge in understanding new ideas and concepts.

This chapter describes specific classroom practice as a case study of meaningful reception learning, focusing particularly on the efficacy of activating learners' frame knowledge (in other words, activating existing ideas in their brains) in teaching them something new.

5.2 Experiment

5.2.1 Research Assumptions

Two basic research assumptions underlie this case study. First, activating learners' analogical reasoning ability regarding the opposing frames of words should enable them to learn new items on their own. Second, getting learners to observe frame knowledge of words should enable them to regard the process of learning English itself as valuable and interesting, motivating them to continue.

Some teachers teach in a way that would be categorized as Ausubel's reception learning, some apply discovery learning, and others fall somewhere in between. As mentioned above, the researcher has been practicing what Ausubel calls 'meaningful reception learning' without knowing of Ausubel's theory. The researcher's teaching experience had led him to assume that providing teaching content in its final form, as well as giving students time to try to find answers by themselves in the classroom, is effective in allowing them to relate what they newly learn to the knowledge already stored in their brains. By activating learners' analogical reasoning ability in this manner, they may find answers to a question considered for the first time by activating existing knowledge. In the classroom experiment reported here, the researcher showed that activating learners' analogical reasoning ability enabled them to find answers by themselves.

5.2.2 Participants

The participants in the present study comprised 45 sophomores at a national university in Japan. Their general English proficiency level varied from elementary to intermediate according to their TOEIC scores (mean scores: 455 out of 990, range: 305 to 680). These students belonged to two different classes that were taught by the researcher in the spring semester of 2015. All students attended the ‘English Communication II’ course, which met once a week for 16 weeks.

5.2.3 Materials and Procedures

The study reported here was conducted in 60 minutes of a 90-minute class in July, 2015, and included a pre-test, a class based on a worksheet, and a questionnaire completed after the class. These three procedures are described in more detail below.

5.2.3.1 Pre-test

At the beginning of the class, a pre-test was completed in order to determine what percentage of the participants knew each of the eight items to be taught in the class. The content of the pre-test is shown in (1). The instructions were given in Japanese in the actual pre-test.

(1) Pre-test

Question: Which one is appropriate in each blank?

1. The apple fell to the (ground / land).
2. (On the ship) We’ll soon be (grounding / landing).

Question: Where do the travelers travel in each expression below?

3. a journey from coast to coast

4. a journey from shore to shore

Question: Fill in the blank with a preposition.

5. Maria is blowing the dust _____ the table.

Question: Fill in the blank with a preposition.

6. Can you help me _____?

Question: What is the difference in meaning between (a) and (b)?

7. Get away.

8. Get off of me.

5.2.3.2 Experimental class

After the pre-test, a worksheet was distributed to the participants and the experimental class was conducted according to the items on the worksheet. Five example items were used to activate the participants' analogical reasoning ability. These five practice items from the worksheet are shown in (2) to (6) below. The participants were requested to answer the question items in the order in which they were presented on the worksheet, following the instruction by the researcher. For each item, several questions considered to be helpful hints to activate the participants' analogical reasoning ability were provided, as the objective of the experimental class was to observe the efficacy of activating the participants' analogical reasoning ability. Consider the five worksheet items presented one by one.

The questions in item 1 shown in (2) are those of Fillmore (1982, p.121²) regarding frame

² Fillmore (1982, p.121) states that the difference between these two words appears to be best expressed by saying that LAND designates the dry surface of the earth as distinct from the SEA, whereas GROUND designates the dry surface of the earth as distinct from the AIR above it.

knowledge in Cognitive Linguistics.

(2) Item 1:

1. Can you come up with a word that means the opposite of *land*?
2. What is the opposite of *ground*?

Which word is appropriate in each blank in 3, 4, and 5, respectively?

3. The apple fell to the (land / ground).
4. (On a ship) We'll soon be (landing / grounding).
5. (On a plane) We'll soon be (landing / grounding).

Both *land* and *ground* refer to the same place, but the frame that each word evokes is different. In terms of Fillmore's idea, when native speakers of English hear *land*, they tend to activate *sea* as frame knowledge that can specifically be described as an opposing frame. In the case of *ground*, on the other hand, they are more likely to activate *air or sky* as an opposing frame. The objective of questions 1 and 2 in item 1 is to have the participants observe the difference between *land* and *ground* by activating the opposing frames of *land* and *ground*. After the participants answered questions 1 and 2, the researcher explained these two questions. He explained that since the antonym of *land* is *sea*, while the antonym of *ground* is *air or sky*, when native speakers of English hear *land* and *ground*, they tend to come up with *sea* and *air/sky*, respectively. After this explanation, the participants were required to answer questions 3 and 4 to check whether the opposing frame knowledge that the participants had learned via the explanation was helpful or not. In question 3, *the apple fell to the (land/ground)*, the researcher expected the participants to think that *ground* was appropriate in the blank because the apple falls from high in the *air* (from a branch of a tree). In other words, vertical movement is related to the apple falling from the air to the ground. In contrast, in question 4, (On a ship) *We'll soon be (landing/ grounding)*, the researcher expected the

participants to speculate that as the ship travels on the *sea*, *landing* is appropriate in the blank. Question 5, (On a plane) *We'll soon be (landing/grounding)*, is an advanced question. Even if the participants could activate the frame knowledge described thus far, it was speculated that they would be unable to answer this question correctly because more knowledge is needed to answer it with understanding. However, if they had heard the expression on a plane and remembered it either consciously or subconsciously, they may have been able to answer the question correctly. In order to answer this question with understanding, the researcher believes that understanding a historical fact regarding the usage of the two expressions is necessary. The fact is that ships precede planes as a common means of transportation. In other words, planes came to replace ships in most of the functions ships used to serve, which is why many expressions that were used for ships came to be used for planes. *We'll soon be landing* is an example of this, as planes could be said to be *grounding* rather than *landing* as they travel in the *air*. Knowledge of this kind is needed to answer question 5 with understanding. It should also be noted that knowledge of this kind can be applied to other examples metaphorically, although the researcher did not examine this point further in the present study. Some examples include *hang up the telephone* and *the car pulled up*. As mentioned in Chapter 3, people used to physically hung up a telephone when they finished their telephone conversation, but nowadays do not. The original language expression is still used when people finish a conversation on the telephone. The same way of thinking applies to the expression *the car pulled up*. Before cars became a common means of transportation, horses were commonly used, and people actually pulled up the reins when they wanted to stop a horse.

Item 2 shown in (3) is concerned with the difference in the frame knowledge that is activated between *coast* and *shore*, and is also taken from Fillmore (1982).

(3) Item 2: Where do travelers travel in each expression below?

1. a journey from coast to coast

2. a journey from shore to shore

He explains that these two words are not differently translatable in many languages, and seem to differ from each other in that while the SHORE is the boundary between land and water from the water's point of view, the COAST is the boundary between land and water from the land's point of view. A trip that took four hours *from shore to shore* is a trip across a body of water; a trip that took four hours *from coast to coast* is a trip across a land mass. *We will soon reach the coast* is a natural way to say something about a journey on land; *we will soon reach the shore* is a natural way to say something about a sea journey (Fillmore, 1982, p.121). In the pre-test, the participants were asked to explain the difference between *a journey from coast to coast* and *a journey from shore to shore* without being provided with any hints. When they were working on the worksheet in class, however, the researcher mentioned that both *coast* and *shore* refer to the boundary between land and water, but the location from which the speaker views the boundary differs. He also told the participants to recall expressions they knew in which *land* or *coast* was used, such as *Disneyland* and *west coast*. The researcher speculated that if the participants recalled *Disney Sea* together with *Disneyland*, they would observe that *land* and *sea* are related. This would also be the case with *west coast* and *east coast*; if the participants recalled these two expressions together, they would guess that *coast* is a word that is used from the land's point of view.

Consider item 3 shown in (4).

(4) Item3:

1. Where did Maria notice the dust was?

Maria noticed the dust was ____ the table.

2. What is the preposition that means the opposite to the one you used in the blank of 1?

3. Fill in each blank with a preposition by using 1 and 2 as hints.

As Maria noticed the dust was _____ the table, she is blowing the dust _____ the table.

In this item, the researcher expected the participants to guess that the preposition *off* was appropriate in the blank in *She is blowing the dust _____ the table*. In order to encourage this guess, the researcher started by providing the opposing frame, in this case having the participants activate the frame in which *on* is the opposite of *off*. As the researcher assumed that the concept of *on* may have been more familiar to the participants than the concept of *off*, he started by activating the way in which *on* is used by presenting question 1, *Where did Maria notice the dust was? Maria noticed the dust was _____ the table*. Then he had the participants recognize or reconfirm that *on* and *off* are paired words in an opposing frame. If the participants thought of the dust first being on the desk, and Maria made the dust leave the desk by blowing, they would be able to fill in the blank of question 5, *As Maria noticed the dust was _____ the table, she is blowing the dust _____ the table*, with *on* and *off*, respectively.

Item 4 concerns the expression, *Can you help me out?*

(5) Item 4:

1. In what situation do you think a person who asks for help is?
2. How do you express the situation in 1 in English?
I'm _____.
3. If you were the person described in 1 and 2, what would you like someone to do for you?
4. What preposition do you think is appropriate in the blank?
Can you help me _____?

Some participants may have known the expression from hearing or seeing it several times, but even those learners would not know the reason why *out* is used in this expression. If they did know the reason why *out* is used, the researcher believes this will lead to ‘deeper learning and longer retention’ (Littlemore 2009, p.148), and that they would then be able to tell the difference between *Can you help me?* and *Can you help me out?* Question 1, *In what situation do you think a person who asks for help is?*, was provided in order to have the participants notice that a person who asks for help is in trouble or in a particular situation. Next, in question 2, *how can you express the situation in 1 in English? I’m ____*, the participants were required to recall and produce the expression, *I’m in trouble*, by using question 1 as a hint. Next, in question 3, *If you were the person described in 1 and 2, what would you like someone to do for you?*, the researcher expected the participants to think that a person who is in trouble wants someone else to help them out of the trouble they are in. The graphic that is shown in Figure 5.1 represents what the researcher wanted the participants to imagine. If the participants could call up the image shown in Figure 5.1, they would probably notice that *out* is appropriate for the blank in question 4, *What preposition do you think is appropriate in the blank? Can you help me ____?*

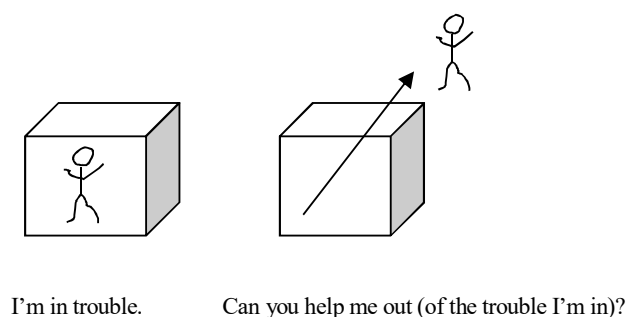


Figure 5.1. *The Image of helping someone out.* (cf. Imai 2010, p.172)

Item 5 shown in (6) is an example from Tanaka (2006, *off & away*).

(6) Item 5:

1. When a person is told to “Get away,” what situation do you think the person is in?
(Where is the person? What is the person doing?)
2. When a person is told to “Get off of me,” what situation do you think the person is in?
(Where is the person? What is the person doing?)
3. By using (a) and (b) as hints, explain the difference in meaning between (a) and (b) below.

(a) Get away.

(b) Get off of me.

Tanaka states that the difference between *get away* and *get off of me* is that the former means ‘go away’ or ‘get out,’ while the latter means ‘don’t touch me.’ Based on this explanation, the present researcher had the participants consider the concept as follows: By means of questions 1 and 2, the researcher had the participants observe that if a person is told to *get away*, the person is *near* you or *close* to you because the antonym of *away* is *near* or *close*. In contrast, if a person is told to *get off of me*, the people are in contact with each other, as the antonym of *off* is *on*. Getting the participants to activate the opposing frames of *away* and *off* was thought to be effective in leading them to understanding the difference in meaning between *get away* and *get off of me*.

5.2.3.3 Questionnaire

In order to check what percentage of participants felt the experimental class described above was valuable and interesting, a questionnaire was conducted at the end of the class. The questionnaire consisted of the four items shown in Table 5.1 (the original questions were provided in Japanese).

The rationale for each question is as follows: Questions 1 aimed to determine the percentage of participants who know what is dealt with in this experimental class. Questions 2 and 3 were asked to determine what percentage of participants considered the experimental class valuable and enjoyable. The rationale for these questions was Konno's claim that an English classroom experience that learners perceive as enjoyable and valuable provides an appropriate condition for developing the ideal L2 self (Konno 2014, p.195). This idea is based on Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDT and Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self system. It should also be noted that within SDT, the concept 'valuable' is related to the most self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, and 'interesting' is related to intrinsic motivation, so it could be said that learners who feel the process of learning English to be valuable and/or interesting should be highly motivated. Question 4 was asked to determine what percentage of participants gained a more in-depth understanding of the content than they had previously had. This question was based on Littlemore's (2009, p.148) claim that explaining to learners of English why a certain expression has a certain meaning leads to deeper learning and longer retention.

Table 5.1.

Questionnaire for Image English Grammar

In this semester, you have been learning Image English Grammar in this class. Regarding each of the six questions, choose one of the options from a) to e).

a) Strongly disagree. b) Disagree. c) Neither agree nor disagree. d) Agree. e) Strongly agree.

1. You have learned feeling for English for the first time in this class.
2. You found the content valuable to learn.
3. You enjoyed learning feeling for English.
4. You have a deeper understanding of the content than previously.

5.3 Results & Discussion

5.3.1 Pre-test Results

The results of the pre-test is shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2.

The Results of the Pre-test. (N=45)

Questions on the pre-test.	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)
Item 1: Which one is appropriate in each blank?		
1. The apple fell to the (ground/land).	86.7	13.3
2. (On a ship) We'll soon be (grounding/landing)	91.1	8.9
Item 2: In each expression below, where does the traveler travel?		
3. a journey from coast to coast	4.4	95.6
4. a journey from shore to shore	6.7	93.3
Item 3: Fill in the blank with a preposition.		
5. Maria is blowing the dust _____ the table.	31.1	68.9
Item 4: Fill in the blank with a preposition.		
6. Can you help me _____?	8.9	91.1
Item 5: What is the difference in meaning between (a) and (b)?		
7. Get away.	51.1	48.9
8. Get off of me.	11.1	88.9

According to these results, the percentage of participants who answered correctly was high for questions 1, 2, and 7. The reason may be that the participants had learned these expressions in middle or high school, although they probably did not know the reason for the meaning of each

expression; in other words, they did not necessarily understand the linguistic motivation of these expressions. As for the other five questions, the percentages of correct answers were low. Unfortunately, the effect of activating the participants' analogical reasoning ability on understanding what they learned for the first time cannot be determined for questions 1, 2, and 7, as the percentage of correct answers were too high, indicating that they already knew these items. They may have come to understand the expressions and their usage more deeply than previously, but this cannot be determined by comparing the results of the pre-test and the in-class worksheet. This is a limitations of this type of questions, which remains commonly used in such classroom experiments.

5.3.2 Classroom Worksheet Results

Table 5.3 compares the results of the pre-test already provide in Table 5.2 and classroom worksheet results.

Regarding item 1, the percentage of participants who answered questions 1 and 2 correctly did not increase much because more than 85% answered correctly in the pre-test. However, from the reaction of the participants in the class and the results of the questionnaire (discussed in 3.3), it is speculated that most participants came to understand the linguistic motivation for the difference in meaning between *land* and *ground*. As this cannot be statistically verified, the issue awaits further study. There is one thing that should be pointed out here. Regarding the result that the percentage of participants who answered question 5 is only 20% can be interpreted in another way. As is described in 5.2.3.2, in order to answer this question correctly, some historical knowledge about the language change is necessary. The reason why 80% of the participants could not answer correctly can be interpreted that they used the knowledge of the difference in meaning between *land* and *ground* correctly.

In item 2, the percentage of participants who answered correctly increased dramatically as Table 3 shows. For this item, providing the participants with the frame knowledge of *coast* and *shore* seems to have been helpful for them to understand the meanings of the expressions in item 2.

The percentage of participants who answered item 3 correctly increased from 31.1% to 88.9%. For this item, getting the participants to notice that the antonym of *on* is *off* seems to have been beneficial. By using the knowledge that *on* and *off* are a pair of prepositions each designating an opposite meaning, the participants may have speculated that the dust originally *on* the desk was moved to being *off* the desk by Maria's act of blowing.

For item 4, the percentage of participants who answered correctly increased dramatically from 8.9% to 66.7%. The frame knowledge regarding the paired prepositions *in* and *out* seems to have been helpful for the participants to understand the linguistic motivation of the expression, namely that if you are *in* trouble, you ask someone to help you *out* of the trouble you are *in*. When learners have this frame knowledge or such a scenario in their minds, it will be easier for them to understand why *out* is employed in the expression, *can you help me out?*

Regarding item 5, the percentage of participants that answered correctly increased from 51.1% to 77.8% for (3a) (*Get away*) and more sharply from 11.1% to 71.1% for (3b) (*Get off of me*). It appears that few participants knew the meaning of (3b), and that the answers to both questions were assisted by getting the participants to observe that the antonym of *away* is *near/close*, and that of *off* is *on*.

Table 5.3.

Results of Pre-test and Experimental Class (N=45)

Item1							
Pre-test				Worksheet			
	Questions	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)		Questions	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)
				1	the antonym of land	68.9	31.1
				2	the antonym of ground	71.1	28.9
1	The apple fell to the ground	86.7	13.3	3	The apple fell to the ground	93.3	6.7
2	We'll soon be landing.(ship)	91.1	8.9	4	We'll soon be landing.(ship)	91.1	8.9
				5	We'll soon be landing.(airplane)	20.0	80.0

Item 2							
Pre-test				Worksheet			
	Questions	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)		Questions	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)
3	a journey from coast to coast	4.4	95.6	1	a journey from coast to coast	66.7	33.3
4	a journey from shore to shore	6.7	93.3	2	a journey from shore to shore	68.9	31.1

Item 3							
Pre-test				Worksheet			
	Questions	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)		Questions	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)
				1	Maria noticed that the dust was <u>on</u> the table.	93.3	6.7
				2	the antonym of on	37.8	62.2
5	Maria is blowing the dust off the table.	31.1	68.9	3	As Maria noticed the dust was <u>on</u> the table, she is blowing the dust <u>off</u> the table.	88.9	11.1

Item 4						
Pre-test			Worksheet			
Questions	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)		Questions	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)
			1	In what situation do you think a person who asks for help?	68.9	31.1
			2	How do you express the situation in (1) in English	44.4	55.6
			3	If you were the person described in (1) and (2), what would you like someone to do for you?	71.1	28.9
6 Can you help me out?	8.9	91.1	4	Can you help me <u>out</u> ?	66.7	33.3

Item 5						
Pre-test			Worksheet			
Questions	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)		Questions	Correct (%)	Incorrect (%)
			1	When a person is told to "Get away," what situation do you think the person is in?	37.8	62.2
			2	When a person is told to "Get off of me," what situation do you think the person is in?	26.7	73.3
7 Get away.	51.1	48.9	3(a)	Get away.	77.8	22.2
8 Get off of me.	11.1	88.9	3(b)	Get off of me.	71.1	28.9
			3(a)	reason	48.9	51.1
			3(b)	reason	48.9	51.1

5.3.3 Questionnaire Results

Table 5.4 presents the results of the questionnaire that was completed at the end of the experimental class. Consider first the percentages of participants who chose 'Agree' or 'Strongly agree' in response to each item, which are highlighted in Table 5.4. Firstly, responses to item 1 indicate that 84.4% of the participants had not previously been taught the content that was dealt with in the experimental class. This finding suggests that teaching this content was meaningful because 84.4% of the participants had not learned it at high school or in their university English classes. Secondly, the results for item 2 show that 91.1% of the participants considered the content of the experimental class to be valuable, and those for item 3 that 64.4% found the content interesting. This latter figure was lower than the researcher's expectation. Possible reasons for this finding may

be that the content was somewhat difficult for the participants, or the researcher's presentation was somewhat not interesting as he was concerned about the class as an experiment. The finding that more participants regarded the class as valuable than they did interesting could be construed as a more positive result, because within SDT, the notion 'valuable' is related to the most self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, while 'interesting' is related to intrinsic motivation. It is possible that one would stop learning English once one lost interest in engaging in the activity if one was purely intrinsically motivated. In contrast, with the highest level of extrinsic motivation, one is more likely to continue learning English despite losing interest as long as you regard learning English as valuable for your life (i.e., you are extrinsically motivated). A further possible interpretation of the findings that the participants considered what they learned in the experimental class as valuable may be that the explanation itself was valuable in understanding English more deeply said the findings suggest that teaching the contents of the experimental class motivated students to learn English, and they came to consider the process of learning English itself valuable and interesting. Lastly, the results for item 4 reveal that 84.4% of the participants understood the content better than had previously. This finding suggests that teaching learners why a certain expression has a certain meaning leads to deeper learning, as noted by Littlemore (2009, p.148).

Table 5.4.

Questionnaire Results in Percentage (N=45)

N=45	1. learned for the first time in this class	2. valuable	3.enjoyable	4. understood deeper than before
a) Strongly Disagree	4.4	2.2	2.2	2.2
b) Disagree	4.4	0.0	11.1	2.2
c) Neither agree nor disagree	4.4	4.4	20.0	6.7
d) Agree	42.2	46.7	37.8	44.4
e) Strongly Agree	42.2	44.4	26.7	40.0
No Answers Given	2.2	2.2	2.2	4.4
d) + e)	84.4	91.1	64.4	84.4

5.4 Conclusion

The study reported in this chapter aimed to evaluate two assumptions that have been discussed above. The first was to confirm whether activating learners' analogical reasoning ability regarding the opposing frames of words enables them to learn new items on their own. The present findings suggest that using frame knowledge to guess something new was effective for 65% to 90% of the participants, with some variation among particular items. It could be said that having learners make use of their analogical reasoning ability is effective, but at the same time the technique requires a high level of cognitive ability. This issue awaits further study. The second assumption the researcher aimed to verify was whether or not getting learners to observe their frame knowledge of words would lead them to experience the English class as valuable and interesting, and also to feel that they had gained a deeper understanding of the content than they previously had. The questionnaire results indicated that activating learners' analogical reasoning ability provide good motivation for them to learn English.

Chapter 6 A Case Study on the Process of Schematization and Instantiation¹

6.1 Objective of this Study

The objective of the case study reported in this chapter was to observe how Japanese university students used their analogical reasoning abilities in learning new items in EFL classes. The classroom experiment was conducted as a case study focusing on activating learners' schematization and instantiation ability, which Cognitive Linguistics regards as one of the central cognitive abilities. Two constructions assumed by the researcher to be unknown to most learners were employed in this case study, because if the participants knew the expressions, it would be impossible to determine whether or not they could use their analogical reasoning ability to understand them. The first was the *I'm between* Ns-construction, of which a common idiomatic expression is *I'm between jobs*. The other construction was the *I have a* [COLOR] *thumb*-construction, of which an idiomatic expression is *I have a green thumb*. The aim was to determine the participants' ability to use analogical reasoning to make sense of expressions they had not seen previously by reference to a given schema and familiar example as a unit.

Specifically, this classroom experiment was based on a core concept of Cognitive Linguistics, namely schematization and instantiation (Yamanashi, 2012, p.154), which the researcher regards as one of the analogical reasoning abilities that humans possess. Drawing on Yamanashi (2012, p.154), the researcher designed in Imai (2014d) a language class that aimed to get learners to observe the dynamicity and variety within language. The present case study entailed a classroom practice based on Imai (2014d). The researcher started by getting the participants to observe a few examples of schematization and instantiation in the Japanese language, and then went on to deal with *I'm between*-Ns and *I have a* [COLOR] *thumb*-constructions. The researcher determined the extent to

¹ The content of this chapter was presented at the symposium of JACET international conference held at Kagoshima University on August 30, and was also published in Imai (2016b) that is written in Japanese.

which the participants could make sense of further expressions presented in the experimental class using the knowledge they had learned, namely the schema (I'm between Ns.) and a unit (*I'm between jobs.*).

At the end of the experimental class, a questionnaire was completed in order to determine whether the instruction was considered valuable and interesting by the participants, based on Ryan and Deci's (2000) six scales of evaluating level of motivation.

6.2 Participants

The participants in the present study comprised 55 sophomores at a national university in Japan. They also were participants of the study reported in Chapter 5. The reason for which the number of this participants is larger than that in Chapter 4 was more students were absent when the experimental class for Chapter 4 was conducted. Their general English proficiency level varied from elementary to intermediate according to their TOEIC scores (mean score: 455 out of 990, range: 305 to 680). The participants were enrolled in two different classes taught by the researcher in the spring semester of 2015. All attended the 'English Communication II' course, which met once a week for 16 weeks in the spring semester of 2015. Although their TOEIC scores varied, the researcher thought these participants would have the general ability to understand the explanations provided in class, as they had passed the entrance exam to enroll at a national university

6.3 Experimental Class

6.3.1 Procedure

This section describes the materials used and procedures followed in this experimental class, referring to their shared theoretical background as the two are difficult to separate. First, the reason for starting an English class by referring to a few Japanese examples deserves explanation. The

reason was that the researcher expected the participants to apply their analogical reasoning ability they use when understanding and producing Japanese, their native language, when learning English. Indeed, one of the characteristics of Image English Grammar is that the explanation should be metaphorical, meaning that explanations should be the kind that learners can relate to the knowledge they already have in their brains. This manner of explanation differs from that generally provided by Japanese teachers of English, as they tend to provide explanations framed with technical terms of English grammar and Japanese translations. Such explanation may make it difficult, although not necessarily impossible, for learners to relate what they are to learn to their existing knowledge.

Second, consider the examples that the researcher provided in the experimental class. Example (1) is a conversation between two neighbors upon meeting for the first time in a while.

(1) A: *Saikin aimasen ne. Ogenki deshita ka?*

(We haven't seen each other for a while. How have you been?)

B: *Ee, mago-mori de isogashikute ...*

(Well, I've been busy taking care of my grandchild.)

Most participants had not previously heard the expression *mago-mori* in B's utterance, which refers to taking care of one's grandchildren, but 94.5% of the participants correctly guessed the meaning. The reason why people can understand such unfamiliar expressions as *mago-mori* can be explained in terms of one of the conceptual tools of Cognitive Linguistics, namely the process of schematization and instantiation. The explanation of the way in which *mago-mori* was understood by the Japanese native speaking participants by means of a process of schematization and instantiation begins with a review of Yamashi's (2012, p.154) proposal.

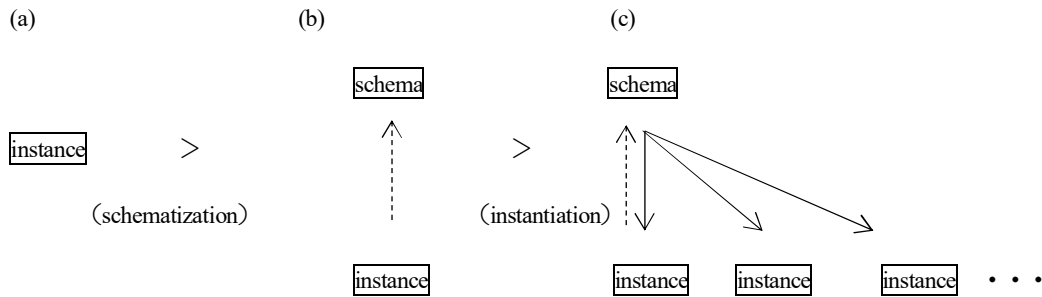


Figure 6.1. *Schematization and Instantiation (based on Yamanashi (2012, p.154, figure12).*

When people come across an unfamiliar expression, they tend to abstract a schema from the specific expression, which is technically called a ‘unit’ in Cognitive Linguistics. Schemas can either be abstracted from a single example (a unit) or several examples (units). Once a schema is extracted from the unit or units, new expressions can be understood and produced based on the schema and units (i.e., the actual examples the speaker already knows). Humans’ inferencing ability is considered to underlie this process of schematization and instantiation. It is generally said that humans’ inferencing ability comprises two subcategories, namely inductive and deductive abilities. Inductive ability enables people to extract rules based on examples, while deductive ability enables them to produce or understand examples by applying the rules to specific examples. It can be said that the process of schematization is related to the process of induction, and the process of instantiation to the process of deduction (*cf.* Imai, 2014d).

Let us now apply the process of schematization and instantiation to the expression *mago-mori*, used in the Japanese dialogue in (1) above.

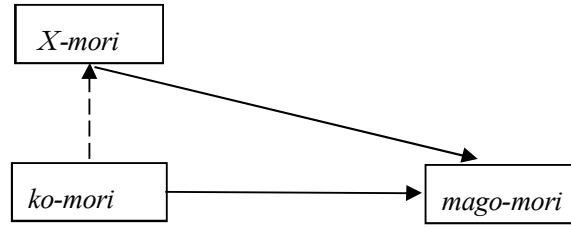


Figure 6.2. *The Process of Schematization and Instantiation of Mago-mori.*

Firstly, the generally used expression, *ko-mori* is schematized, leading the speaker to the construction *X-mori*, as shown in Figure 6.2. It is speculated that from the speaker's side, the new expression (*mago-mori*) was produced based on the schema (*X-mori*) and the specific example (*ko-mori*). When a hearer hears the unfamiliar expression (*mago-mori*), they access their existing knowledge of *ko-mori* and schematize it to obtain *X-mori* as a schema; they can then make sense of *mago-mori* by using their analogical reasoning ability, by which they compare *ko-mori* and *mago-mori* as in (2).

(2) *ko-mori* : taking care of your children = *mago-mori* : X

Based on this analogical formula, the hearer can conclude that X in this case entails 'taking care of grandchildren,' and can understand what speaker B in dialogue (1) wished to convey, i.e., that B was busy taking care of her grandchild.

Consider another example explained by drawing on the same conceptual tool of Cognitive Linguistics. This example, also demonstrated in the experimental class, involves the *X-katsu* construction, as instantiated in *shu-katsu*, *kon-katsu*, and *bu-katsu*. As shown in Figure 6.3, consider *bu-katsu* as the starting point.

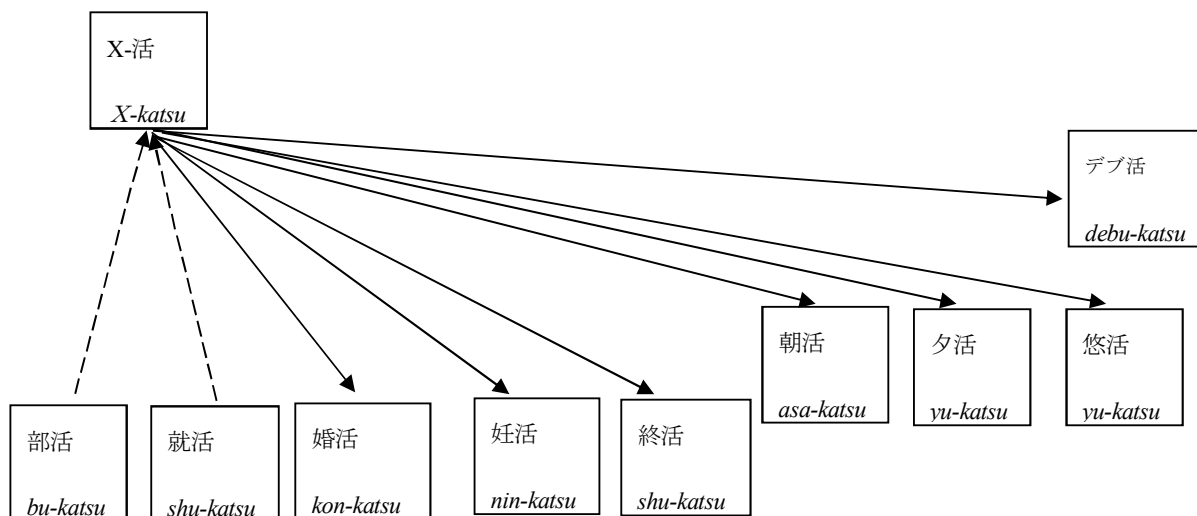


Figure 6.3. *The Process of Schematization and Instantiation of X-katsu.*

When people hear a number of expressions, such as *bu-katsu* and *shu-katsu*, they abstract the schema *X-katsu* based on the shared structure, namely *-katsu*. As stated previously, schemas can be extracted based on one or a few examples. The expression *kon-katsu*, came into common use several years ago, and is considered to be produced based on *shu-katsu* (unit) and *X-katsu* (schema), in terms of the model of schematization and instantiation. These two expressions not only share a similar phonetic structure, but also a similar schematic structure. In the case of *shu-katsu*, which is a shortened form of *shushoku katsudo*, the meaning is that you are trying hard to get a job, because *shu* (shushoku) means ‘landing a job,’ and *katsu* (katsudo) means ‘doing some activity.’ If this meaning is schematized, *X-katsu* should denote doing some activity (i.e., trying hard) to obtain X. Thus, the meaning of *kon-katsu* is understood as ‘doing some activity to get married,’ for example, asking your friends to introduce you to potential marriage partners amongst their friends. As shown in this example, not only the phonetic structure, but also the semantic structure (i.e., meaning) is schematized. This is one of the fundamental ideas of Cognitive Linguistics, namely that any language expression has both form and meaning in its symbolic structure, and this form and

meaning pairing is called ‘construction’ (Langacker, 1987, p.12). Drawing on this idea of Cognitive Linguistics, the phonetic structure *X-katsu* is considered to have the schematic meaning of ‘doing some activity (or trying hard) to get X.’ This schematic meaning fits certain prototypical examples, but the meaning may expand, or not fit precisely, in terms of more peripheral examples, as is also stated in Cognitive Linguistics.

Let us return to consider the other examples in Figure 6.3. Based on such fairly conventionally used expressions as *shu-katsu* and *kon-katsu*, and on their schema *X-katsu*, more and more new expressions are currently coming into common use. *Nin-katsu*, *shu-katsu* (終活), *asa-katsu*, *yu-katsu* (夕活), *yu-katsu* (悠活), and *debu-katsu* are some examples from the present researcher and his students. *Nin-katsu* is used when a couple has trouble having a baby and they go to the doctor for treatment. *Shu-katsu* (終活) shares the same phonetic structure with the more commonly used *shu-katsu* (就活), but the former expression is used by people in their twilight years who think they should prepare for their end of lives. As the schematic meaning of ‘trying hard to get X’ is breeched in *shu-katsu* (終活), this expression is considered a peripheral example of *X-katsu* in terms of Cognitive Linguistics. The same can apply to such peripheral examples as *asa-katsu* and *yu-katsu* (夕活). These two expressions mean ‘doing some actively in X time.’ Thus, the meaning of *asa-katsu* is ‘doing something early in the morning,’ especially before one’s job starts, and *yu-katsu* (夕活) refers to engaging in some activity after work. For example, learning English conversation by attending a class before going to work is an example of *asa-katsu*. These two expressions seem to be similar to one of the more conventionally used expressions, *bu-katsu*, which is the shortened form of *bu-katsudo*. In this example, *bu*, which occurs as *X* in the *X-katsu* construction, simply designates the social place in which you engage in a club activity. Further peripheral examples heard by this researcher are *yu-katsu* (悠活) and *debu-katsu*. *Yu-katsu* (悠活) shares the same sound with *yu-katsu* (夕活), but the former expression implies that if you retired from your job and have enough time and money, you can spend your time leisurely doing something that you want to do. *Debu-katsu* is an

even more peripheral example, from which the meaning of ‘trying hard to get X’ has completely disappeared. Some students reported to the researcher that the expression is used when someone who is on a diet cannot resist eating a lot; such a person might say, ‘I did *debu-katsu* again,’ in a self-tormenting manner, meaning that ‘although I have been on a diet, I ate more than I should eat, again.’

As explained thus far, in the case of *shu-katsu* (就活) and *kon-katsu*, X in the schematic structure (*X-katsu*) is the thing that the person engaging in the activity wishes to obtain. In contrast, in *asa-katsu* and *yu-katsu* (夕活), X is not what the person wishes to obtain, but shows the time at which they conduct the activity. In the case of *debu-katsu*, X is something that the person does not wish to gain. Thus, these expressions are regarded as peripheral examples of the *X-katsu*-construction.

Investigating the meaning network of the expressions used under the schema *X-katsu* is an interesting research topic in terms of Cognitive Linguistics. However, as this researcher employed these expressions to activate learners’ analogical reasoning ability, he decided not to further investigate these aspects of *X-katsu*-construction in this dissertation. One of the reasons is the researcher believes that only concepts useful for learning the target language are beneficial in applying linguistic theory to foreign language learning and teaching. Keene & Matsunami (1969, p.10) also claim that explicit instruction in foreign language classes, often called ‘grammar’ should be a guide rather than a rule. The present researcher agrees with this viewpoint. After getting the participants to notice what they do subconsciously in their native language by providing the examples described in this section, the researcher went on to have the participants engage in an activity in which English expressions were used as examples. One expression was the *I’m between* Ns-construction and the other expression was the *I have a* [COLOR] *thumb*-construction. The theoretical background of these two expressions is described in Imai (2014d). In the next two sections, the procedures followed in the experimental class are described.

6.3.2 The *I'm between* Ns-Construction

This section describes how the participants were led to understand the English construction *I'm between* Ns by means of analogical reasoning in the experimental class. The researcher started by asking the question in (3) in order to confirm that the participants did not know and could not guess the meaning of the expression.

- (3) What is the meaning of this expression?

I'm between jobs.

As was expected, the percentage of the 55 participants who knew the meaning of this expression was 10.9%. Following this, the researcher gave the hint provided in (4) to enable the participants to guess the meaning.

- (4) As shown by the graphic in Figure 6.4, in the image of *I'm between jobs*, there are two jobs, one that you used to do (J1), and the other that you will do in the future (J2), and you are currently between these two jobs.

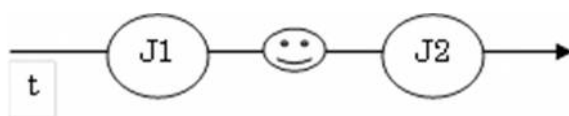


Figure 6.4. *The Graphic Image of I'm between jobs.*

When this hint was given to the participants, 67.3% gave the correct meaning of the expression. The researcher then explained that *I'm between jobs* means that you quit the job you used to do and are now looking for a new job, meaning that you do not currently have a

job. In addition, he explained that *I'm between jobs* is a euphemistic expression for *I'm unemployed*. In addition, the schema of *I'm between jobs* in (5) was provided.

- (5) *I'm between jobs* is a fairly conventionally used expression, and you can generate other creative or spontaneous expressions playfully by using other nouns in the place of *jobs*. The schematic image of the *I'm between Ns*-construction is shown as Figure 6.5. In this graphic, you are between the two events, designated by the N.

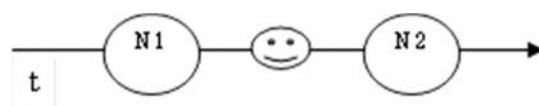


Figure 6.5. *The Schematic Image of I'm between-Ns.*

At this stage, the participants are aware of both the unit (a specific expression) *I'm between jobs* and its schema *I'm between-Ns*. Next, the researcher determined whether the participants could guess the meanings of unfamiliar expressions in reference to the schema and unit already known. The four expressions presented in (6) were provided in the class; the percentage of participants who gave the correct meaning for each expression is shown in parenthesis.

- (6) Extended expressions of the *I'm between Ns*-construction.

What is the meaning of each expression below?

- a. *I'm between marriages.* (74.5%)
- b. *I'm between haircuts.* (76.4%)
- c. *I'm between loves.* (80.0%)
- d. *I'm between apartments.* (47.3%)

More than 70% of the participants correctly determined the meaning of the expressions in (6a) to (6c) using the schema *I'm between*-Ns and the unit *I'm between jobs*. As for (6d), only 47.3% of the participants answered correctly. The low percentage of correct answers for (6d) may be that the expression *apartments* was difficult for the participants to evoke the image of a place to live within their frame knowledge; *houses* may have been easier in this case. These results suggest that learners can learn new things without being taught if they are able to use their analogical reasoning abilities of schematization and instantiation

Finally, the meaning of each expression in (6) was provided in the class. Specifically, (6a) *I'm between marriages* is used if you were previously married, are now divorced, and are currently looking for a new spouse. Thus, this is a playful way of saying *I'm divorced*. *I'm between haircuts* in (6b) is used when you got a haircut some time ago, your hair is now growing out, and you think you need to have another cut shortly. *I'm between loves* in (6c) is used if you previously had a boyfriend or girlfriend, but have broken up, and are currently looking for a new one. A number of other expressions, such as *girlfriends*, *boyfriends*, and *romances* can be used instead of *loves* in this expression. Finally, (6d) is used when you lived in an apartment, currently have no place to live, and are looking for a new apartment. In other words, this expression is a euphemistic way of saying *I'm homeless*. The researcher also told the participants what should be born in mind regarding these expressions: Whereas *I'm between jobs* is a fairly conventionally used idiomatic expression, which people easily understand, the remaining expressions represent a play on words. Thus, people's understanding may depend on the context. If the expression fits the context, people will be able to make sense of it, as described above.

6.3.3 The *I have a [COLOR] thumb*-Construction

The second item this researcher employed in the experimental class was *I have a green thumb* and its extended expression, *I have a black thumb*, which was spontaneously uttered by a native

English speaker in conversation with the researcher. The main reason for the selection of this expression was that it was expected to be unknown to the participants. As expected, the pre-class survey showed that no participant knew the expression. After this survey, the dialogue in (7) was provided to the class and the participants were told to consider the meaning of *I have a black thumb* in context. As the meaning of *I have a green thumb* is explained in this dialogue, some participants may have understood the meaning of the expression. However, for those who did not understand the meaning by reading the dialogue, the researcher then explained that having a green thumb literally means that the thumb is green in color, but the idiomatic meaning of this expression is that you are good at growing plants. This meaning becomes clear if you consider that you use your thumb (or hands) in growing plants, and plants generally have green leaves. After this explanation, the participants were asked to give their answers on the class worksheets. The results showed that 52% of the participants guessed the meaning of *I have a black thumb* correctly at this stage.

(7) Read the dialogue below and consider the meaning of *I have a black thumb*.

Jack: *My mother has a green thumb.*

Momoko: *Your mother has a green thumb? Is she okay? What happened to her thumb?*

Jack: *That's not what I meant. It's an expression. I meant she's very good at growing fruit and vegetables.*

Momoko: *Oh, I'm relieved. But you scared me. I thought her thumb turned green for some reason. By the way, do you have a green thumb?*

Jack: *Me, well ... **I have a black thumb.** Hahaha ...*

Consider how the meaning of *I have a black thumb* may be understood by drawing on the concept of schematization and instantiation. Consider Figure 6.6.

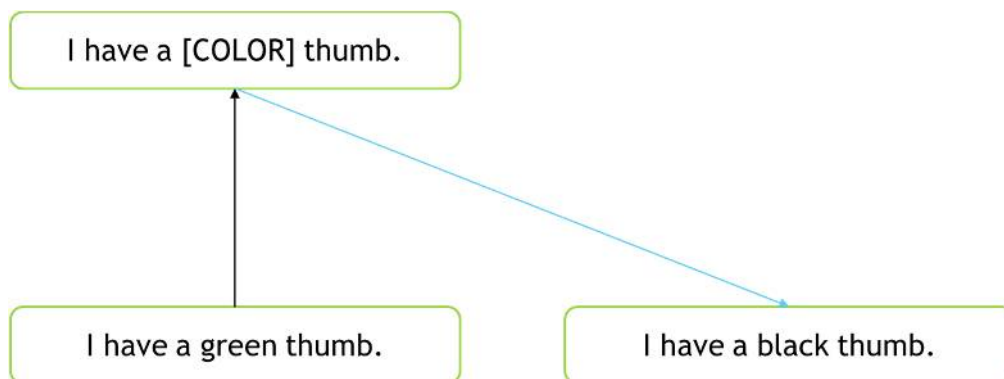


Figure 6.6. *The Schematization and Instantiation of 'I have a green thumb.'*

In order for the participants to understand the meaning of *I have a black thumb* analogically, they first need to schematize *I have a green thumb* and get the schema *I have a [COLOR] thumb*, as shown in the graphic in Figure 6.6. Secondly, by using the schema and the specific expression *I have a green thumb* as a unit, the meaning of *I have a black thumb* can be inferred by analogical reasoning, using the analogical formula shown in (8).

(8) green thumb : being good at growing fruit and vegetables = black thumb : X

By using the formula in (8), you can guess that X entails being poor at growing fruit and vegetables because green is a reflection of freshness, while black is a reflection of rotting vegetables. This manner of analogical thinking may account only for certain facts about fruit and vegetables, but as Lakoff & Johnson (1980, p.12-13²) claim, metaphorical understanding is only partial, rather than total.

² Lakoff & Johnson (1980, p.12-13) state that it is important to note that the metaphorical structuring involved here is partial, not total. If it were total, one concept would actually be the other, not merely be understood in terms of the other. They also state that when we say a concept is structured by a metaphor, we mean that it is partially structured and that it can be extended in some ways but not others.

6.3.4 Worksheets and Results

The content of the experimental class and its results were described and discussed in 6.3.3. This section provides the actual worksheet that was used in the class and the results of the experimental class.

Worksheet that was used in the experimental class

(Directions were provided in Japanese in the actual worksheet.)

A. According to the dialogue (1), what do you think the meaning of *mago-mori* is?

(1) A: *Saikin aimasen ne. Ogenki deshita ka?*

(We haven't seen each other for a while. How have you been?)

B: *Ee, mago-mori de isogashikute ...*

(Well, I've been busy taking care of my grandchild.)

B. Answer the questions below regarding *I'm between jobs*.

(2) Have you ever seen or heard this expression before? (Yes / No)

(3) What do you think this expression mean?

(4) Why do you think so?

(5) After listening to the lecture, reconsider the meaning of *I'm between jobs*?

C. Consider the meaning of the following expressions.

(6) *I'm between marriages.*

(7) *I'm between haircuts.*

(8) *I'm between loves.*

(9) *I'm between apartments.*

D. Answer the questions below regarding *I have a green thumb*.

(10) Have you ever seen or heard this expression before? (Yes / No)

(11) What do you think this expression mean?

(12) Why do you think so?

E. Read the dialogue displayed on the PowerPoint slide and consider the meaning of this expression. (The dialogue in the box below was presented on the PowerPoint slide.

(13) *I have a black thumb.*

Dialogue Displayed on the Power Point.

Read the dialogue below and consider the meaning of *I have a black thumb*.

Jack: *My mother has a green thumb.*

Momoko: *Your mother has a green thumb? Is she okay? What happened to her thumb?*

Jack: *That's not what I meant. It's an expression. I meant she's very good at growing fruit and vegetables.*

Table 6.1.

Worksheet Results (N=55)

N=55	A	B				C				D			E
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	mago-mori	I'm between jobs.	Meaning?	Reason?	Answers given after the explanation	I'm between marriages.	I'm between haircuts.	I'm between loves.	I'm between apartments	I have a green thumb.	Meaning?	Reason?	I have a black thumb.
Correct	94.5	10.9	21.8	29.1	67.3	74.5	76.4	80.0	47.3	0.0	3.6	7.3	52.7
Incorrect	5.5	87.3	72.7	65.5	30.9	20.0	21.8	18.2	52.7	100.0	94.5	90.9	45.5
Ambiguous	0.0	1.8	3.6	5.5	1.8	5.5	1.8	1.8	0.0	0.0	1.8	1.8	0.0
No answer	0.0	0.0	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.8

6.3.5 Questionnaire

In order to determine what percentage of participants felt this experimental class on schematization and instantiation was valuable and interesting, a questionnaire was completed at the end of the class. The questionnaire contained the six items shown in Table 6.2.

In terms of the rationale for the various questions, questions 1, 2, and 3 were asked to determine what percentage of participants had already learned the content covered in this experimental class in high school or other classes. Questions 4 and 5 were asked to determine what percentage of participants considered this experimental class valuable and enjoyable. The reason for these questions was Konno's (2014, p.195) claim that a classroom experience in which the learners regard learning English as enjoyable and valuable provides appropriate conditions for developing the ideal L2 self, this relating to Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDT and Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self system. It should also be noted that within SDT, the concept 'valuable' is related to the most self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, and 'interesting' to intrinsic motivation, and it may be that learners who regard the process of learning English as valuable or interesting should be highly motivated. Question 6 was asked to determine what percentage of the participants developed a more in-depth understanding of the content than they had previously had. This question was based on Littlemore's (2009, p.148) claim that explaining to learners of English why certain expressions have certain meanings leads to deeper learning and longer retention.

Table 6.2.

Questionnaire

In this semester, you have been learning Image English Grammar in this class. Regarding each of the six questions, choose one of the options from a) to e).

a) Strongly disagree. b) Disagree. c) Neither agree nor disagree. d) Agree. e) Strongly agree.

1. You have learned feeling for English for the first time in this class.
2. You learned feeling for English when you were in high school.
3. You have learned feeling for English in another class at the university.
- 4 You found the content valuable to learn.
5. You enjoyed learning feeling for English.
6. You have a deeper understanding of the content than previously.

Table 6.3 presents the results of the questionnaire. Consider first the percentages of participants who chose ‘Agree’ or ‘Strongly agree’ in response to each question, which are highlighted in Table 6.3. Firstly, the responses to questions 1, 2, and 3 indicate that more than 70% of the participants had not previously been taught the content dealt with in this experimental class. Secondly, the results for question 4 indicate that 90.9% of the participants considered the content of the class to be valuable. The results for question 5 show that 76.4% of the participants found the content interesting. These results suggest that teaching Japanese EFL learners about schematization and instantiation by comparing Japanese and English motivates them to learn English, and they may thereby come to consider the process of learning English itself interesting. Finally, the results for question 6 reveal that 76.4% of the participants understood the content better than they had before.

This suggests that teaching learners why a certain expression has a certain meaning leads to deeper learning, as noted by Littlemore (2009, p.149).

Table 6.3.

Questionnaire Results in Percentage (N=55)

N=55	1. learned for the first time in this class	2. have learned in high school	3. have learned in another class in the university	4. valuable	5. enjoyable	6. understood deeper than before
a) Strongly Disagree	3.6	36.4	34.5	5.5	0.0	0.0
b) Disagree	0.0	45.5	25.5	0.0	1.8	3.6
c) Neither agree nor disagree	7.3	14.5	10.9	3.6	9.1	16.4
d) Agree	30.9	3.6	16.4	63.6	49.1	45.5
e) Strongly Agree	58.2	0.0	12.7	27.3	40.0	30.9
No Answers Given	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6
d) + e)	89.1	3.6	29.1	90.9	89.1	76.4

6.4 Discussion and Conclusion

In the study reported here, the researcher investigated whether the process of schematization and instantiation, an analogical reasoning ability regarded by Cognitive Linguistics (e.g., Yamanshi, 2012, p.154) as central in human cognition, is effective for EFL learners to gain new knowledge without being taught directly. The percentage of participants who came to understand the new items in reference to hints provided by the teacher varied from one item to another, but 50% to 70% of the participants were observed to use their analogical ability to understand new items. Considering that understanding metaphorical expressions in actual communication does not necessarily work in all cases, and that misunderstandings lead people in conversation to repeat inferences and try to understand the intended message, making use of learners' analogical reasoning ability in class without presenting the final form of a generalization should be regarded as necessary and should be beneficial. Cognitive Linguistics generally assumes that in the process of acquiring a language,

humans use their metaphorical and analogical reasoning abilities. Thus, this researcher assumes that activating the analogical reasoning ability of learners and getting them to use it consciously in learning a foreign language is beneficial. One of the main reasons to do so is that most Japanese learners of English study English as a school subject or a means to pass an entrance examination, and so tend to study English as they study content subjects like history and biology. By getting learners to recognize that English is not just a school subject, but a language, like Japanese, it is hoped that some may start to learn English as a language rather than a school subject. In making this happen, this researcher believes that activating their analogical reasoning ability is beneficial. It should also be noted that the experimental class reported here employed expressions the participants had not learned previously in order to clearly observe whether they could make use of their analogical ability, particularly for schematization and instantiation. However, the same process is applicable to more fundamental expressions. The process of schematization and instantiation is compatible with what Tomasello (2002, p.10-12³) calls ‘usage-based syntactic operations.’

Also note that the experimental class reported here was conducted by means of asking questions, having participants consider the answers by themselves, and having them talk about the answers with their classmates. This process aligns with the three psychological needs (for autonomy, competence, and relatedness) that Ryan and Deci (2000) claim are central in improving motivation. This is perhaps the main reason why approximately 90% of the participants regarded the class as

³ What Tomasello (2002, p.11-12) states regarding usage based syntactic operations is as follows:

... the child does not put together each of her utterances from scratch, morpheme by morpheme, but rather, she puts together her utterances from a motley assortment of different kinds of pre-existing psycholinguistic units. ... the question was how this child was able to “cut and paste” together her previously mastered linguistic constructions in order to create a novel utterance in a specific usage event. (Tomasello: 2002: 10)

... When young children have something they want to say, they sometimes have a set expression readily available and so they simply retrieve that expression from their stored linguistic experience. When they have no set expression readily available, they retrieve linguistic schemas and items that they have previously mastered (either in their own production or in their comprehension of other speakers) and then ‘cut and paste’ them together as necessary for the communicative situation at hand – what I have called ‘usage-based syntactic operations.’

valuable and interesting (see Table 6.3), as these two notions are at top of six aspects related to motivation.

Chapter 7 Conclusion and Future Directions

As set out in Chapter 1, this dissertation had the following four aims: a) to verify that university students have not necessarily acquired native speaker intuition, often called *Eigo no Kankaku* (a feeling for English); b) to demonstrate the utility of explicit instruction on *Eigo no Kankaku* by employing ‘Image English Grammar’; c) to demonstrate the possibility of activating learners’ analogical reasoning ability to allow them to relate what they newly learn to their existing knowledge; and d) to demonstrate that learners regard learning English through Image English Grammar valuable and interesting. These four aims were addressed in terms of data from survey and three classroom experiments, as described in Chapters 3, 4, 5, and 6, respectively.

With regard to the first aim, the survey discussed in Chapter 3 was used to verify that university students have not necessarily acquired native speaker intuition. The present researcher’s experience suggests that some university English teachers believe that the 12 items in the survey are not generally acquired by Japanese students, while others believe such students should know these items, as most were taught in high school. However, this researcher assumed that these items were not known to university students, and verified this assumption by means of the survey reported in Chapter 3, the results of which showed that 30% of the 339 participants or fewer answered 11 of the 12 items correctly, confirming that these 12 items are not generally understood by most university students. This matched the researcher’s expectations based on his teaching experience. As the researcher also assumed that explicit instruction on these grammatical items in university English classes would be effective for students’ learning, he designed experimental classes and verified their efficacy, thereby addressing the second aim mentioned above.

Chapter 4 addressed the second aim, demonstrating the utility of explicit instruction on *Eigo no Kankaku* by employing Image English Grammar among tertiary level learners of English. Specifically, the researcher gave 59 of the above survey participants explicit instruction on Image English Grammar, comparing pre- and post-instruction performance to show its efficacy. However, as people are known to learn differently, the researcher believes that no particular method is necessarily best for every learner, and his teaching experience suggests that Image English Grammar may be most appropriate for learners who have generally good cognitive abilities and are enrolled in national, public, or private universities generally regarded as being at the intermediate or advanced level, as it may improve their English ability and allow them to find the process of learning English valuable and interesting. The researcher also suspects that learners with low English proficiency but well developed general cognitive abilities would find Image English Grammar effective for English learning. It is further assumed that learners who are neither proficient nor interested in English may find Image English Grammar interesting, although their English ability may not improve. These points await further study.

The third aim of the present work, to demonstrate that it is possible to activate learners' analogical reasoning ability and allow them to relate what they newly learn to existing knowledge, was addressed by the experiments reported in Chapters 5 and 6. Following the results in Chapter 4, which showed that explicit instruction on Image English Grammar was effective, the experiments reported in Chapters 5 and 6 focused more specifically on the learning process. The first experiment confirmed that activating the 45 participants' analogical reasoning ability regarding opposing frames of words enabled them to learn new items on their own, with 65% to 90% of participants using such frame knowledge to correctly guess something new, the results varying from one item to another. Whereas having learners make use of their analogical reasoning ability may be effective,

the technique requires higher level cognitive abilities, and this issue awaits further study. The second experiment addressing the third aim, reported in Chapter 6, showed that the process of schematization and instantiation was effective for the 55 participants to gain new knowledge not directly taught by the teacher. The percentage of participants who came to understand new items in reference to hints provided by the teacher varied from item to item, but between 50% and 70% successfully used their analogical reasoning ability to understand new items.

The fourth aim was to demonstrate that Image English Grammar makes learning English seem valuable and interesting to learners, as was verified by the results of the questionnaires completed after each experiment reported in Chapters 4, 5, and 6. The survey results showed that most of the participants regarded explicit instruction on Image English Grammar and the classes activating their analogical reasoning and cognitive abilities as valuable and interesting. As the notions ‘valuable’ and ‘interesting’ are regarded as the top two of six aspects reflecting people’s motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000), it could be said that learners are motivated to learn English by learning linguistic motivation through Image English Grammar.

As discussed above, the series of experiments conducted in this research verified that teaching native speaker intuition explicitly by employing Image English Grammar was effective, and the participants found the process valuable and interesting. A question requiring further study is to ascertain whether the same results can be obtained regardless of the teacher who teaches Image English Grammar. As another teacher has been found to use Imai (2010) in her classes, having her students read the book as an assignment, this teacher may be asked to conduct pre- and post-tests to confirm the efficacy of students studying Image English Grammar on their own. Another issue that awaits further study concerns the ability of English teachers to teach Image English Grammar. If it is used in English classes in junior high or high schools, two aspects of Image English Grammar

require careful consideration, namely teachability and learnability. While the experiments in this dissertation showed that Image English Grammar is learnable, meaning that it is a learner friendly English grammar, teachability is yet to be verified. This issue awaits further study.

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Appendixes

イメージ文法プレテスト（実施時間 15 分）

2015/04/07 ver.

学科 _____ 学籍番号 _____ 名前 _____

A. 次の問 1～7 の解答を、①～⑤よりそれぞれ 1 つを選び、その番号を解答用紙にマークしなさい。

1. 次の対話の内容と合っているものは①～⑤のどれか？

Jack: You didn't go to the party, did you?
Shelly: Yes.

- ① Shelly went to the party.
- ② Shelly didn't go to the party.
- ③ Jack went to the party.
- ④ Jack didn't go to the party.
- ⑤ Jack and Shelly went to the party.

2. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか？

- ① Do you ever wear perfume?
- ② Have you ever been to Canada?
- ③ I have ever been to Niagara Falls.
- ④ If you ever come to Japan, be sure to let me know.
- ⑤ Godiva is the most delicious chocolate I've ever tasted in my life.

3. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか？

- ① Marina used to be a staff member of this bakery.
- ② Marina used to be a staff of this bakery.
- ③ Marina used to be a member of the staff of this bakery.
- ④ Marina used to be a staffer of this bakery.
- ⑤ Marina was a member of the staff of this bakery.

4. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか？

- ① I'm about to call her.
- ② I'm going to call her.
- ③ I'm about to call her tomorrow.
- ④ I'm going to call her tomorrow.
- ⑤ I'll call her tomorrow.

5. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか？

- ① Obama, the president of the United States, has visited Princeton.
- ② Einstein, the famous scientist, has visited Princeton.
- ③ Obama, the president of the United States, visited Princeton.
- ④ Einstein, the famous scientist, visited Princeton.
- ⑤ Einstein, the famous scientist, had visited Princeton.

6. 次の空欄に(a)と(b)に入る語をそれぞれ①～④から1つ選び、(a)は解答欄7に、(b)は解答欄8に、答えの番号をマークしなさい。

The sun rises (a) the east and sets (b) the west.

- | | | | | |
|----------|--------|------|------|--------|
| (a) ① at | ② from | ③ in | ④ on | ⑤ up |
| (b) ① at | ② in | ③ on | ④ to | ⑤ down |

B. 次の問1～5に答えなさい。

1. 次の英文が表す意味(状況)を答えなさい。

The train is stopping.

2. 次の2つの文の意味(状況)の違いは？

- a. Sara is preparing final exams.
- b. Sara is preparing for final exams.

3. 次の2つの文の意味(状況)の違いは？

I've decided to break up with her.

- a. I'll tell you a reason.
- b. I'll tell you the reason.

4. 次の2つの文の意味(状況)の違いは？

- a. We ate turkey.
- b. We ate a turkey.

5. 次の2つの文は、それぞれどのような状況で発話されるか？

- a. The road winds through the mountain.
- b. The road is winding through the mountain.

*wind「曲がりくねる、曲がる」

6. 次の2つの文は、それぞれどのような状況で発話されるか？

- (a) I appreciate your help.
- (b) I'd appreciate your help.

学科_____学籍番号_____名前_____

イメージ文法 **immediate post-test** (実施時間 15 分)

2015/05/18 ver.

学科_____学籍番号_____名前_____

A. 次の問 1～7 の解答を、①～⑤よりそれぞれ 1 つを選び、その番号を解答用紙にマークしなさい。

1. 次の空欄に (a) と (b) に入る語をそれぞれ①～⑤から 1 つ選べ。

The moon rises (a) the east and sets (b) the west.

- | | | | | |
|----------|--------|------|------|--------|
| (a) ① at | ② from | ③ in | ④ on | ⑤ up |
| (b) ① at | ② in | ③ on | ④ to | ⑤ down |

2. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか？

- ① I'm about to leave.
- ② I'm going to leave.
- ③ I'm about to leave tomorrow.
- ④ I'm going to leave tomorrow.
- ⑤ I'll leave tomorrow.

3. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか？

- ① Do you ever go to *karaoke*?
- ② Have you ever skied?
- ③ I have ever played drums.
- ④ If you ever go to Tokyo, be sure to stop by my bakery.
- ⑤ Maria is the most efficient waitress I've ever met in my life.

4. 次の対話の内容と合っているものは①～⑤のどれか？

Jack: You didn't attend the meeting last Sunday.
Shelly: Yes.

- ① Shelly attended the meeting.
- ② Shelly didn't attend the meeting.
- ③ Jack attended the meeting.
- ④ Jack didn't attend the meeting.
- ⑤ Jack and Shelly attended the meeting.

5. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか？

- ① Kana is a staff member of this hair salon.
- ② Kana is a staff of this hair salon.
- ③ Kana is a member of the staff of this hair salon.
- ④ Kana is a staffer of this hair salon.
- ⑤ Kana used to be a staff member of this hair salon.

6. Which one of the expressions below is not correct? _____

- ① Dr. Amano, who won the novel prize recently, has visited Princeton.
- ② Lincoln, a former president of the United States, has visited Princeton.
- ③ Dr. Amano, who won the novel prize recently, visited Princeton.
- ④ Lincoln, a former president of the United States, visited Princeton.
- ⑤ Lincoln, a former president of the United States, had visited Princeton.

B. 次の問 1～5 に答えなさい。

1. 次の 2 つの文の意味（状況）の違いは？

- a. Love is a reason to get married.
- b. Love is the reason to get married.

2. 次の 2 つの文の意味（状況）の違いは？

- a. We ate a chicken.
- b. We ate chicken.

3. 次の英文が表す意味（状況）を答えなさい。

The bus is stopping.

4. 次の 2 つの文の意味（状況）の違いは？

- a. John shot the bird.
- b. John shot at the bird

5. 次の 2 つの文は、それぞれどのような状況で発話されるか？

- (a) I appreciate your feedback.
- (b) I'd appreciate your feedback.

6. 次の 2 つの文は、それぞれどのような状況で発話されるか？

- a. The river winds through the town.
- b. The river is winding through the town.

学科_____学籍番号_____名前_____

イメージ文法 **Delayed Post-test** (実施時間 15 分)

2015/07/09 ver.

学科_____ 学籍番号_____ 名前_____

A. 次の問 1～7 の解答を、①～⑤よりそれぞれ 1 つを選び、その番号を回答欄の指定の番号(【 】内に示される欄)にマークしてください。

1. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか? 【1】

- ① I'm about to mail her.
- ② I'm going to mail her.
- ③ I'm about to mail her tomorrow.
- ④ I'm going to mail her tomorrow.
- ⑤ I'll mail her tomorrow.

2. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか? 【2】

- ① Mr. Abe, the prime minister in Japan, has visited Africa.
- ② Richard Nixon, a former president of the United States, has visited Japan.
- ③ Mr. Abe, the prime minister in Japan, visited Africa.
- ④ Richard Nixon, a former president of the United States, visited Japan.
- ⑤ Richard Nixon, a former president of the United States, had visited Japan.

3. 次の対話の内容と合っているものは①～⑤のどれか? 【3】

Jack: You didn't go to the concert last Sunday.
Shelly: Yes.

- ① Shelly went to the concert.
- ② Shelly didn't go to the concert.
- ③ Jack went to the concert.
- ④ Jack didn't go to the concert.
- ⑤ Jack and Shelly went to the concert.

4. 次のうち最もやわらかい(ソフトな)表現は①～⑤のうちどれか? 【4】

- ① You should apologize to her.
- ② You must apologize to her.
- ③ You had better apologize to her.
- ④ You have to apologize to her.
- ⑤ You need to apologize to her.

5. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか? 【5】

- ① Do you ever go to Canada?
- ② Have you ever played the drums?
- ③ I have ever climbed a tree.
- ④ If you ever come to Nagoya, be sure to let me know.
- ⑤ Anna is the kindest person I've ever met in my life.

6. 次のうち間違っている文は①～⑤のうちどれか？【6】

- ① I'm a staff member of this restaurant.
- ② I'm a staff of this restaurant.
- ③ I'm a member of the staff of this restaurant.
- ④ I'm a staffer of this restaurant.
- ⑤ Marina was a member of the staff of this restaurant.

7. 次の空欄に(a)と(b)に入る語をそれぞれ①～⑤から 1 つ選びましょう。 (a)は【7】 (b)は【8】

The stars rise (a) the east and set (b) the west.

- | | | | | |
|----------|--------|------|------|--------|
| (a) ① at | ② from | ③ in | ④ on | ⑤ up |
| (b) ① at | ② in | ③ on | ④ to | ⑤ down |

★ 次に、問題 B に回答してください。

★ その後、下記のアンケートに回答してください。

アンケート：「日本人英語学習者が間違えやすい 13 項目」の学習に関するアンケート

今学期には、今回の調査で実施した「日本人英語学習者が間違えやすい 13 項目」に関して、授業の中で説明してきました。次の 1～6 のそれぞれについて、①～⑤の 5 段階で評価し、回答欄の指定の番号（【 】内に示される欄）にマークしてください。

- ① 全く当てはまらない
- ② 当てはまらない
- ③ どちらとも言えない
- ④ 当てはまる
- ⑤ 大変当てはまる

- 1. 新たに知った内容であった。【33】
- 2. 高校までに知っている内容であった。【34】
- 3. 大学に入ってから他の授業で学んだ内容であった。【35】
- 4. 学ぶ価値のある内容であった。【31】
- 5. 学んでいて楽しかった。【32】
- 6. これまでよりも納得できた。【36】

- 7. 「日本人英語学習者が間違えやすい 13 項目」を中心に、今回の授業で扱った説明を受けての感想を書いてください。

受講クラス（ ）曜日（ ）時限

学科_____学籍番号_____名前_____

B. 次の問 1～5 に答えましょう。

1. 次の 2 つの文は、それぞれどのような状況で発話されるか？

- a. The statue of Rodin stands in the entrance hall.
- b. The statue of Rodin is standing in the entrance hall.

2. 次の 2 つの文は、それぞれどのような状況で発話されるか？

- (a) I appreciate your advice.
- (b) I'd appreciate your advice.

3. 次の英文が表す意味（状況）を答えなさい。

The car is stopping.

4. 次の 2 つの文の意味（状況）の違いは？

- a. I ate a pizza.
- b. I ate pizza.

5. 次の 2 つの文の意味（状況）の違いは？

- a. I know New York.
- b. I know of New York.

6. 次の 2 つの文の意味（状況）の違いは？

- a. You are a person for the job.
- b. You are the person for the job.

受講クラス（ ）曜日（ ）時限
学科 _____ 学籍番号 _____ 名前 _____

コミュニケーションのための感覚英文法 (1)
---Introduction 1 (導入講義): 英語学習の心がけ
英語は日本語には訳せない・訳すからわからなくなる

2016/09/30 ver.

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O. 英語学習の心掛け

-
- ① English cannot necessarily be translated into Japanese.
 - ② Grammar is language knowledge.
 - ③ *One form for one meaning, and one meaning for one form.* (Bolinger 1977: preface)
 - ④ Language is culture --- Native speakers of English and Natives Speakers of Japanese construe the same situation in different manners.
 - ⑤ Language economy --- What is guessed from the context does not need to be stated.
 - ⑥ Language is dynamic.
 - ⑦ Memorize as many set phrases as possible with linguistic motivation.
-

- ① 英語は日本語には訳せない、訳すからわからなくなる。
- ② 文法＝言語知識
- ③ 形と意味の対応関係 (ある形はある意味を持つ)
- ④ 日本語と英語の認知様式の違いを意識する。
- ⑤ 言語の経済性: 言わなくてもわかることは言わない
- ⑥ 言語はダイナミックである。
- ⑦ 意味づけとともにセットフレーズを覚えよう。

I. 英語は訳すからわからなくなる・・・←ものに対する認知の仕方が異なる!

<訳すとわからなくなる例>

(1) be + V-ing 形と「～している」

The bus is stopping. バスは動いている or 止まっている?¹

-
- a I'm eating an apple.
 - b The baby is sleeping.
 - c John is hiccupping.
 - d The bike is stopping.
-

(2) Yes/No と「はい/いいえ」

(a) Jack: You don't like figs.
Shelly: Yes, ().

According to the dialogue, which one of the four statements below is correct?

- ① Jack likes figs.
- ② Jack doesn't like figs.
- ③ Shelly likes figs.
- ④ Shelly doesn't like figs.

¹ e.g.) I saw a car accident on my way here. **The car was stopping**, but the driver couldn't avoid the cyclist.

(b) Bob: Doesn't this train go to Berkeley?

Katie: No, ().

Q. Does this train go to Berkeley?

(c) Mr. Miller: You didn't sleep a wink last night?

Maria: Yes, (). I pulled an all-nighter, preparing for finals.

Q. Did Maria sleep last night?

Quiz : If someone asks you, "Haven't we met before?" and you think this is the first time, how would you answer the question?

(3) 「太陽は東から昇り、西へ沈む」を表す絵を描いてみよう。



英語で表わすと？

The sun rises _____ the east and sets _____ the west.

Exercise

A: Fill in the blanks.

- a. "Are you () line?" "Yes, the line ends over there."
- b. I'm running () the ticket gate.
- c. Hi, it's me. Sorry I'm late. I'm walking () the direction of the ticket gate.
- d. Do you often () perfume?
Mr. Bear () a mustache.
Shelly () her hair in a bun.
- e. The sun () from the east to the west.

B: 友達を携帯で話していて、充電が切れそうになりました。次の英文を完成させましょう。

My battery _____. Can I call you back?

C: 次の対話で、Shelly は Henry と Sara が付き合っていることを知っていましたか？

Chihiro: Dan and Serena are going out together. You didn't know that?

Shelly: No.

D: You are asked to see Bob at the airport, and you want to ask 眼鏡かけてる？ In this situation, what would you say?

Ⅱ. 形と意味（イメージ）の対応関係

Warm Up: What do you see in each picture? (Figure-ground segregation/alternation)



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3

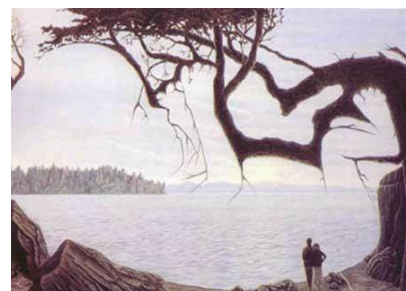


Figure 4

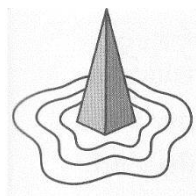
- Look **about** you.
- He is **about** 70 kilos.
- This book is **about** dogs.
- There is something weird **about** him.
- I am **about** to leave.
- You'll be up and **about** very soon.

Quiz 1: Which one of the following expressions sounds awkward?

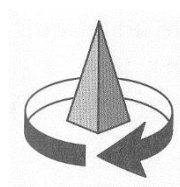
- I'm **about to** leave.
- I'm **going to** leave.
- I'm **about to** leave tomorrow.
- I'm **going to** leave tomorrow.

Quiz 2 (Plus- α): What is the difference between these two?

- Let's talk **about** the topic.
- Let's talk **around** the topic.



about
(Tanaka, 2011, p.65)



around
(Tanaka, 2011, p.63)

Figure 5. Core Image of *about* and *around*.

Exercise: 前置詞 over についても考えてみよう。

- a) The dog jumped **over** the fence.
- b) There are some clouds **over** the mountains.
- c) You've been seeing her **over** the years, haven't you?
- d) The spring semester is **over**.
- e) Let's talk about it **over** a cup of coffee.
- f) Jack's house is just **over** the hill.

Useful Expression.

Are you seeing Maria?

Quiz 3: 次はある高校生からの質問です。高校生の疑問に答えてみましょう。

「学校が終わった」を英語で、School is over.と習ったけど、終わったことなのに、なぜ School was over.と言わないのですか？

Ⅲ. 英語は日本語に訳せない、訳すからわからなくなる例

(1) _____に入る形容詞は？

- (a) My room is _____. 「私の部屋は広い」
- (b) This corridor is _____. 「この廊下は広い」
- (c) Mao Zedong's forehead is _____. (毛沢東の額は広い)



Quiz: Explain the difference in meaning between these two by drawing pictures.

- (a) The windows of the house are tall.
- (b) The windows of the house are high.

(2) international = 「国際的」？

Jack is an international student.はどんな意味？

(3) *I went swimming in the river, but I couldn't because of the rain という文が間違いである理由は？

正しくは、どう言えば良いか？

コミュニケーションのための感覚英文法 (2)
---Introduction (導入講義)
英語は日本語には訳せない・訳すからわからなくなる

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2015/09/25 ver.

7. 英語の staff と日本語のスタッフ

Quiz 1: Which one of the following expressions sounds awkward?

- ① Marina used to be a staff member of this bakery.
- ② Marina used to be a staff of this bakery.
- ③ Marina used to be a member of the staff of this bakery.
- ④ Marina used to be a staffer of this bakery.
- ⑤ Marina was a member of the staff of this bakery.

★ 日本語では、「スタッフ」、「スタッフ一同」という表現がある。



Figure 1: staff, スタッフ、スタッフ一同のイメージ

Quiz 2: What is wrong with each sentence below?

- (1) I have four families.
- (2) Reading is one of the best ways to improve your vocabularies.

8. hit O と hit at O の違いは？

Which one can be filled in the blank?

(), but he missed it.

- a. John hit the ball
- b. John hit at the ball

Quiz 1: What is the difference in meaning between these three?

- a. I know Zambia.
- b. I know about Zambia.
- c. I know of Zambia.

Quiz 2: What is the meaning of the sentence below?

“Do you know Frank Lloyd Wright?” “I know of him, but I don’t know him.”

Quiz 3: In each of the expressions below, what does Maria do?

- a. Maria has to prepare the test.
- b. Maria has to prepare for the test.

Quiz 4: What is the meaning of the sentence below?

- a. I believe you.
- b. I believe in you.

Quiz 5: Which one is appropriate in this context?

- (a) Someone is (knocking / knocking on) the door. Can you answer it?
- (b) A drowning man will (catch / catch at) a straw.

9. some と any

Quiz 1: What is the difference in meaning between these two?

- (a) Do you have any books on Japanese history?
- (b) Do you have some books on Japanese history?

Quiz 2: What is the difference in meaning between these two?

- (a) Someone can do it.
- (b) Anyone can do it.

Quiz 3: When can we say this?

Some teacher said it.

Quiz 4: Do you know why someone is used in this context rather than the name of the person?

You're calling an ambulance.
Someone is having a heart attack.

10. ever の意味は? _____

★ some : any = _____ : ever

Quiz 1: Which one of the following expressions sounds awkward? _____

- ① Do you **ever** wear perfume?
- ② Have you **ever** been to Canada?
- ③ I have **ever** been to Niagara Falls.
- ④ If you **ever** come to Japan, be sure to let me know.
- ⑤ Godiva is the most delicious chocolate I've **ever** tasted in my life.

Quiz 2: Will you ever marry me? はどんな意味?

11. have + done のイメージ

Quiz: Which one of the following expressions sounds awkward? _____

- ① Obama, the president of the United States, has visited Princeton.
- ② Einstein, the famous scientist, has visited Princeton.
- ③ Obama, the president of the United States, visited Princeton.
- ④ Einstein, the famous scientist, visited Princeton.
- ⑤ Einstein, the famous scientist, had visited Princeton.

12. had better のイメージ

Quiz: 次のうち最もやわらかい（ソフトな）表現は①～⑤のうちどれか？ _____

- ① You should talk to her.
- ② You must talk to her.
- ③ You had better talk to her.
- ④ You have to talk to her.
- ⑤ You talk to her.

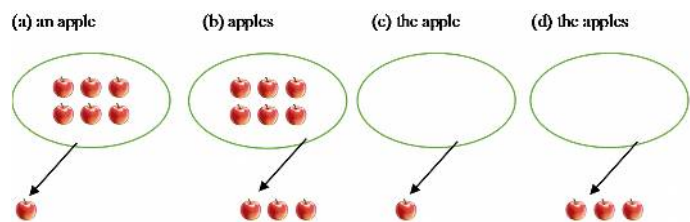


Figure 2: an apple, apples, the apple, the apples のイメージ

13. a と the

Quiz 1: What is the difference in meaning between these two?

- a. Love is a reason to get married.
- b. Love is the reason to get married.

Quiz 2: What is the difference in meaning between these two?

- a. You're a person for the job.
- b. You're the person for the job.

14. mass と units

Quiz 1: 「いぬと猫でどっちが好きですか？」を英語で言うと？

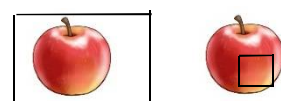
Which do you like better, _____ ?

Quiz 2: What is the difference in meaning between these two?

- a. We ate pizza.
- b. We ate a pizza.

Quiz 3: What is the difference in meaning between these two?

- a. This is an apple.
- b. This is apple.



(a)全体() (b)部分()

Figure 3: an apple と apple のイメージ

15. simple present と present progressive

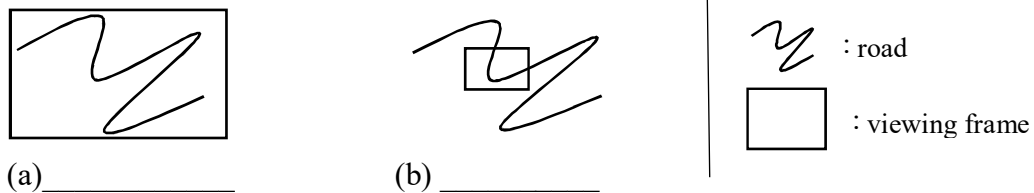
Quiz 1: 「John は眼鏡かけてる？」を英語で言うと？

Quiz 2: 次の2つの文は、それぞれどのような状況で発話されるか？

- a. The road winds through the mountain.
 - b. The road is winding through the mountain.
- *wind 「曲がりくねる、曲がる」

Quiz 3: 次の2つの文は、それぞれどのような状況で発話されるか？

- a. A statue of Rodin stands in the lobby.
- b. A statue of Rodin is standing in the lobby.



16. simple present / will + do / would + do

Quiz 1: Which one is appropriate in the parenthesis?

If I (win / will win) the lottery, I'll quit the job and travel around the world.

Quiz 2: What is the difference between these two?

- a. If I'm late, I'll call you.
- b. If I will be late, I'll call you.

Quiz 3: どちらも明日のことなのに、a では is、b では will be が用いられているのはなぜか？

- a. Tomorrow **is** my birthday.
- b. I'll **be** twenty tomorrow..

Quiz 4: What is the difference between these two?

- a. I appreciate your help.
- b. I'd appreciate your help.

Quiz 5: What is the difference between these three?

- a. Serena **has** been seeing Dan for one year.
- b. Serena **will** have been seeing Dan for one year tomorrow.
- c. Serena **would** have been seeing Dan for one year tomorrow.

Useful Expression

Are you seeing Maris?

Quiz 6: 次の対話で、takes / would take のニュアンスの違いは？

Emi: Excuse me. I was wondering if you know how long it takes from here to Venice Beach by bike.
 Woman: Let me see. It **takes** about 30 minutes on foot, so it **would take** 15 minutes by bike.

Appendix 2.1. Chapter 5, Experiment (Pre-test)

Analogy を活用した英語学習 Pre-Test (Opposing Analogy)

専攻 _____ 学籍番号 _____ 名前 _____

Quiz 1: () にはどちらが適当ですか？適当な方に○をつけてください。どちらも可能な場合は、両方に○をつけてください。

1. The apple fell to the (ground / land).
2. (状況：船のアナウンスで) We'll soon be (grounding / landing).

Quiz 2: 次の2つの文では、それぞれどこを旅すると言っていますか？

3. a journey from coast to coast () の旅
4. a journey from shore to shore () の旅

Quiz 3: 次の英文の _____ に入る前置詞は何だと思いますか？

5. Maria is blowing the dust _____ the table.

Quiz 4: 次の英文の _____ に入る前置詞は何だと思いますか？

6. Can you help me _____ ?

Quiz 5: 次の(a)(b)の文の意味の違いは何でしょうか？

7. Get away. _____
8. Get off of me. _____

Analogy を活用した英語学習ワークシート (Opposing Analogy)

Quiz 1:

11. land の反対の意味を表す語は何でしょうか? _____

12. ground の反対の意味を表す語は何でしょうか? _____

次の 3, 4, 5 の空欄には、どちらが適当ですか? また、なぜそのように思いますか?

13. The apple fell to the (land / ground).

理由 ()

14. (状況: 船のアナウンスで) We'll soon be (landing / grounding).

理由 ()

15. (状況: 飛行機のアナウンスで) We'll soon be (landing / grounding).

理由 ()

Quiz 2: 次の 2 つの文では、それぞれどこを旅すると言っていますか?

16. a journey from coast to coast () の旅

17. a journey from shore to shore () の旅

Quiz 3:

【Hints】

① マリアさんは、ほこりが…にあることに気づきました。[18]

Maria noticed the dust was _____ the table.

② ①の_____に入れた前置詞の反対の意味を表す前置詞は何だと思いますか? [19]

③ ①②をヒントに、次の英文の_____に入る前置詞を考えてみましょう。[20]

As Maria notice the dust was _____ the table, she is blowing the dust _____ the table.

Quiz 4:

① 助けを求めるは、どのような状況にあると思いますか? [21]

② ①の状況を英語で表すとどうなりますか? [22]

I'm _____.

③ 自分が①②の状況にあれば、どうして欲しいと思いますか? [23]

④ では、次の英文の_____に入る前置詞は何だと思いますか? [24]

Can you help me _____?

Quiz 5:

【Hints】

- ① (a) Get away. という表現では、この文を言われる人は、どういう状態ですか（どこにいますか。何をしていますか）？ [25]
- ② (b) Get off of me. という表現では、この文を言われる人は、どういう状態ですか（どこにいますか。何をしていますか）？ [26]
- ③ ①②をヒントに、次の文の意味の違いを説明してみましょう。

(a) Get away. _____ [27]

(b) Get off of me. _____ [28]

なぜ、そのように考えましたか？ [29 / 30]

(a)

(b)

○ このワークシートの授業について、次の 1～6 のそれぞれについて、①～⑤の 5 段階で評価し、回答欄の指定の番号にマークしてください。

- ① 全く当てはまらない
- ② 当てはまらない
- ③ どちらとも言えない
- ④ 当てはまる
- ⑤ 大変当てはまる

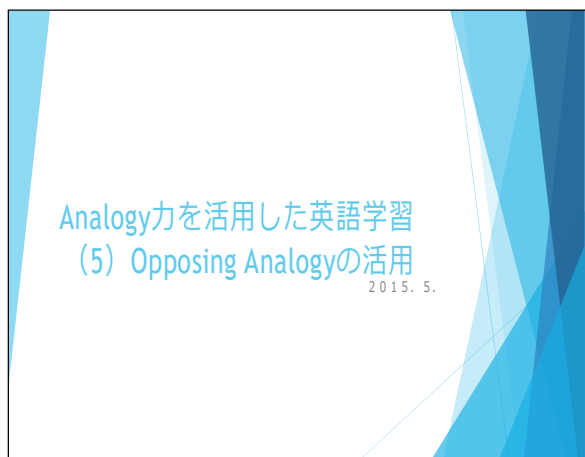
- 1. 価値のある内容であった。(31)
- 2. 楽しかった。(32)
- 3. 新たに知った内容であった。(33)
- 4. 高校までに知っている内容であったが、今回深く学べた。(34)
- 5. 高校までに学んだことであるが、関連性が見いだせ、全体がつながった。(35)
- 6. これまでよりよく理解できた。(36)

7. 今回の授業を受けての感想を記入してください。

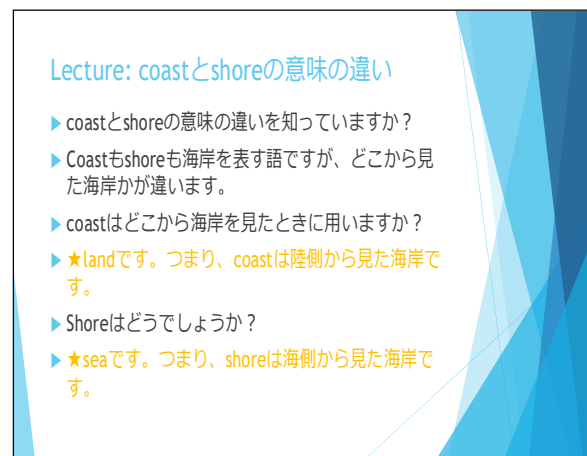
専攻 _____ 学籍番号 _____ 名前 _____

Appendix 2.3 (1). Chapter 5, Experiment (Power Point Slides Used in the Experimental Class)

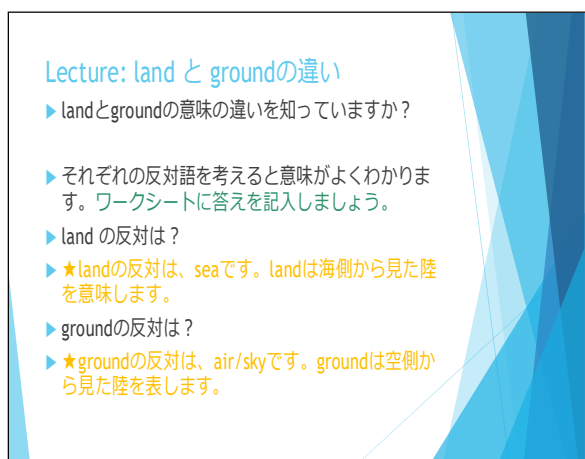
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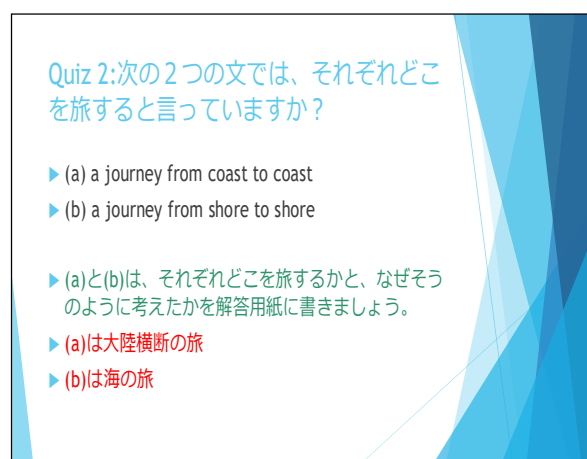
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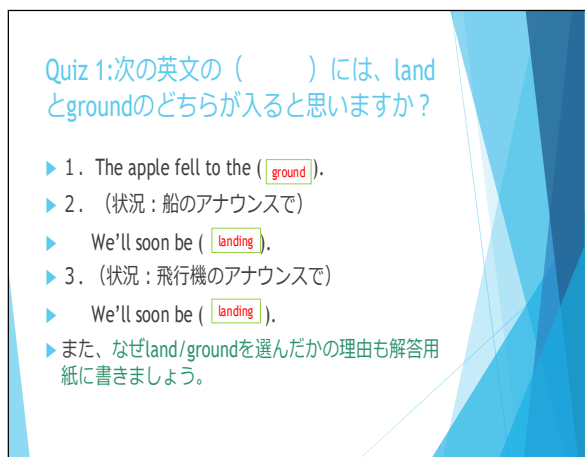
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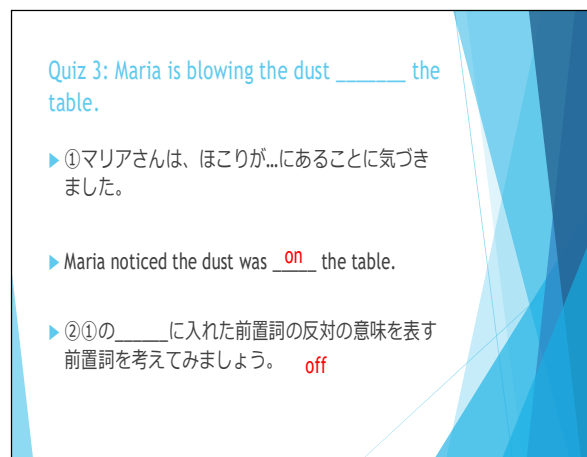
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3



6



7

③①②をヒントに、次の英文の _____ に入る前置詞を考えてみましょう。

- ▶ As Maria notice the dust was on the table,
she is blowing the dust off the table.

10

Quiz 5: Get away. / Get off of me.

- ▶ ① Get away. という表現を言われる人は、どうい
う状態（どこにいますか？何をしていますか？）
▶ ⇒この文を言う人の近くにいます。
▶ なぜなら、awayの反対はnear

8

Quiz 4: Can you help me _____?

- ▶ ①助けを求める人は、どのような状況にあると思
いますか？
▶ ⇒困っている。
▶ ② ①の状況を英語で表すとどうなりますか？
▶ ⇒I'm in trouble. / I'm in a situation.
▶ ③ 自分が①②の状況にあれば、どうして欲しいと
思いますか？
▶ ⇒助け出してほしい。

11

Quiz 5: Get away. / Get off of me.

- ▶ ② Get off of me. という表現を言われる人は、ど
ういう状態（どこにいますか？何をしています
か？）
▶ ⇒この文を言う人を触っている。
▶ なぜなら、offの反対はonだから。

9

Quiz 4: Can you help me _____?

- ▶ ④ では、次の英文の _____ に入る前置詞は何だと
思いますか？
▶ Can you help me out ?
▶ I'm in trouble. Can you help me out (of the
trouble I'm in)?

12

Quiz 5: Get away. / Get off of me.

- ▶ Get away. と Get off of me. の意味の違いは？
▶ Get away.
▶ あっち行って！
▶ Get off of me.
▶ 触らないで！

Analogy を活用した英語学習ワークシート（スキーマ化と事例化）

専攻 _____ 学籍番号 _____ 名前 _____

I. 次の会話から、「孫守」はどんな意味だと思いますか？【1】

久しぶりに会った、マンションの隣人との会話：

A: 最近、会いませんね。お元気でしたか？

B: ええ、孫守で忙しくて、、、

II. 次の表現について、下の問いに回答してください。

I'm between jobs.

(a) この表現を今までに見たことがありますか？（①ある／②ない）【2】

(b) この表現は、どのような意味を表すと思いますか？【3】

(c) また、そのように考えた理由も書いてください。【4】

(d) スライドの lecture を聞いて、もう一度、I'm between jobs.の意味を考えてみましょう。どんな意味だと思いますか？【5】

III. 次の表現の意味を考えてみましょう。

a. I'm between marriages. 【6】

b. I'm between haircuts. 【7】

c. I'm between loves. 【8】

d. I'm between apartments. 【9】

Ⅳ. I have a green thumb.

(a) この表現を今までに見たことがありますか？（①ある／②ない）【10】

(b) この表現は、どのような意味を表すと思いますか？【11】

--

(c) また、そのように考えた理由も書いてください。【12】

--

対話文を読んで、次の文の意味を考えてみましょう。

(d) I have a black thumb. 【13】

①この表現の意味は？

②なぜ、そのような意味になると考えましたか？

--

○ このワークシートの授業について、次の1～6のそれぞれについて、①～⑤の5段階で評価し、回答欄の指定の番号にマークしてください。

- ① 全く当てはまらない
- ② 当てはまらない
- ③ どちらとも言えない
- ④ 当てはまる
- ⑤ 大変当てはまる

- 1. 新たに知った内容であった。【14】
- 2. 高校までに知っている内容であった。【15】
- 3. 大学に入ってから他の授業で学んだ内容であった。【16】
- 4. 学ぶ価値のある内容であった。【17】
- 5. 学んでいて楽しかった。【18】
- 6. これまでよりも納得できた。【19】

7. 今回の授業を受けての感想を記入してください。

--

1



4



2

スキーマ化（一般化）と事例化
【例1】孫守って何？

▶ 久しぶりに会った、マンションの隣人との会話：

▶ A：最近、会いませんね。お元気でしたか？

▶ B：ええ、孫守で忙しくて、、、

▶ 孫守ってどんな意味でしょう？

▶ ① 子守がスキーマ化され「X守」に

▶ ② 「X守」が事例化されて、「孫守」に

X守

子守 孫守

5

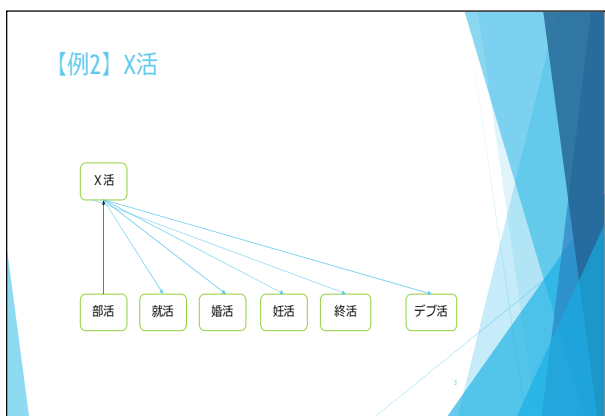
英語でも同様に、スキーマ化と事例化

▶ Quiz 1) 次の表現の意味は何でしょうか？

▶ I'm between jobs.

▶ 答えを解答用紙に書いてみましょう。

3



6

Lecture:


▶ I'm between jobs.というのは、次の図で表されるように、時間軸上で、2つの仕事（前にやっていた仕事とこれからやるであろう仕事）がありその間（between）に自分がいる感覚です。

t J1 J2

7

Lecture:

- ▶ よって、前の仕事を辞めて、次の仕事を探している状態。つまり、今は仕事はしていないという意味を表します。



10

Quiz 6: I have a green thumb.


- ▶ 次の対話を読み、I have a black thumb.の意味を答えてみましょう。答えを解答用紙に書いてみましょう。

Jack: My mother has a *green thumb*.
 Momoko: Your mother has a green thumb? Is she okay? What happened to her thumb?
 Jack: That's not what I meant. It's an expression. I meant she's very good at growing fruit and vegetables.
 Momoko: Oh, I'm relieved. But you scared me. I thought her thumb turned green for some reason. BTW, do you have a green thumb?
 Jack: Me, well, ... *I have a black thumb*. Hahaha ...

8

Lecture:

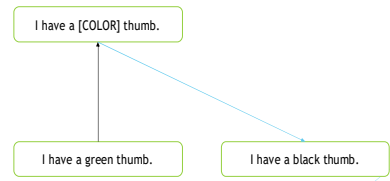
- ▶ I'm between jobs.という表現のjobsの部分の名詞を他の名詞に代えても、ことは遊び的に意味が理解される表現を作ることができます。
- ▶ イメージを一般化すると次のようになります。
- ▶ 2つの名詞で表される事態の間に自分がある感覚です。



11

Lecture: Quiz6 調査後の解説用

- ▶ green thumb ⇒ 緑の野菜を作る親指 ⇒ 野菜作りが上手
- ▶ black thumb ⇒ 黒い野菜を作る親指 ⇒ 野菜作りが下手



9

Quiz: I'm between Ns.

- ▶ では、次の文はどんな意味を表すと思いますか？ 答えを解答用紙に書いてみましょう。

- ▶ A. I'm between marriages.
- ▶ b. I'm between haircuts.
- ▶ c. I'm between loves.
- ▶ d. I'm between apartments.

Appendix 4(1). Students' Comments Regarding Image Grammar

※2014 年度（前期）火曜日 2 時限：2-4 選択：教養英語科目で実施

Chapter 4, 5, 6 での客観調査を作成する基礎資料（教科開発学セミナーⅡの抄録で提示）

	コメント	enjoyable	valuable	motivated	others	SUM
1	be stoppingのところも違えてたし、Quizのところは知らない表現が多かったの で <u>楽しかった</u> 。慣用句表現はイメージでわかることもあるので興味深い。 TOEICや試験のための勉強だけでなく <u>実際に使えるものも学べる</u> のが嬉しい。	1	1			2
2	The bus is stoppingの文がびっくりでした。解説をきいて <u>なるほど!!と思いました</u> <u>た</u> 。日本語の場合とは異なる所が英語にはあるので難しいと思います。 <u>いろ</u> <u>んな表現を教えてもらえるので、どんどん覚えて活用していきたい</u> と思いま す。	1	1			2
3	お堅い英語の授業とは違って自分の認識の間違いなどしっかりわかったし、 とてもわかりやすい授業で <u>楽しかった</u> です。これからはちゃんと授業を受けて 英語をしっかり学びたいと <u>モチベーションがあがりました</u> ！	1			1	2
4	とてもわかりやすく、 <u>「そうやって考えればいいんだ!!」</u> と思えてよかった です。自分で勉強しているときに答えがこう書いてあるけどなんで？と思うこ とが多々あったので、 <u>先生の説明をもっと聞きたいと思いました</u> 。	1		1		2
5	ずっとネイティブの使う英語を話せるようになりたくて、シラバスを読んでこの 講義は楽しそうと思い、受講させていただきました。上のQuizの3みたいな英 語の使い方が学べて <u>楽しかった</u> です。まだ、1回目ですが、受けてよかったと 思います。 <u>これから楽しく頑張ります</u> 。ありがとうございました。	1		1		2
6	先生の話を聞いていると、なるほど～と思って <u>興味が湧いてきました</u> 。			1		1
7	これから <u>楽しく英語が学べそう</u> だと思った。	1				1
8	ストレートに資格対策ではなく、 <u>使える英語</u> が学べそうで <u>楽しみ</u> です。	1	1			2
9	最初から授業を受けることができなかったのですが、資料などを目て、 <u>おもしろ</u> <u>そうなる(興味を持てる)</u> 授業なのだろうと思いました。	1				1
10	すごく分かりやすく、 <u>楽しく</u> 英語を勉強することができました。	1				1
11	とても <u>楽しくて</u> 、わかりやすい授業でした。… <u>今まで知らなかった表現を知ること</u> <u>ができてとても興味深い授業</u> でした。	1	1			2
12	授業はとても理解しやすく、 <u>とても良い</u> と思います。		1			1
13	私は、英語の文法があまり得意でなく、1回目の授業を受けてみて、表現がよく わからない文があったりしましたが、この半年、または、1年で <u>確実に力をつ</u> <u>けていきたいと思いました</u> 。			1		1
14	どうしてそうなるかなど、 <u>疑問に思うことを説明していて、分かりやすかった</u> で す。また、いろいろな話を織り交ぜて講義をしていてとても <u>おもしろかった</u> で す。	1	1			2
15	今日のようなスタイルの授業は、今後のためにとても <u>役立つ</u> と思いました。		1			1
16	このスタイルの授業ははじめてで、すごく <u>楽しそう</u> だと思った。	1				1
17	今までの英語学習とちがって訳さないってゆう概念が新鮮で <u>楽しかった</u> 。	1				1
18	普段使わないフレーズを聞いたり、考えたことのない表現を考えておもしろ かったし、 <u>楽しかった</u> 。	1				1
19	英語独特の表現を <u>もっと覚えていきたい</u> です。			1		1

Appendix 4(2). Students' Comments Regarding Image Grammar

20	授業はわかりやすかったと思う。否定と肯定の新しい <u>知識を得られた</u> 。		1		1
21	メディア英語の授業を受けて、 <u>授業内容がとても興味深くおもしろかった</u> ので今回も履修しました。	1			1
22	授業も <u>おもしろそう</u> なので、次回から楽しみです。	1			1
23	きちんとどうしてその表現になるのかを <u>知ることでよかったです</u> 。		1		1
24	この授業はむずかしそうです。しかし、 <u>知らないことを知れてよかった</u> です。引き続き受けさせてもらおうのでお願いします。		1		1
25	英語の表現は、なんでそうなるの？と疑問に思うことが多いので、一つ一つ例を挙げながら説明を聞いたり考えたりするのは <u>楽しかったし、知ることでよかったです</u> 。	1	1		2
26	<u>自分の学びたいと思っていた内容に近かった</u> ので、履修が通って良かったと思った。			1	1
27	この授業では、会話で使える表現を教えてもらえるので <u>がんばろうと思いました</u> 。			1	1
28	<u>楽しくもあり</u> 、英語力が下がっていることがわかり、 <u>これからがんばっていかないといけない</u> と思いました。	1		1	2
29	説明が分かりやすくて、 <u>楽しい</u> と感じました。 <u>初めて知ることもあり、大変興味深かったです</u> 。	1	1		2
30	自分の知らなかった用法や考え方を <u>知ることができて興味深かった</u> 。…英語での捉え方と日本語での捉え方が大きく違うので <u>英語での意味の捉え方に慣れていきたいと感じた</u> 。	1		1	2
31	英語と日本語で異なる表現に <u>驚いていて、他にもどんなものがあるのか気になった</u> 。			1	1
32	この授業のように感覚で英語のイメージをつかむ授業は <u>私にぴったりだと思いました</u> 。				1
33	英語が <u>楽しく学べて</u> とても楽しかったです。	1			1
34	今日のような講義は好きなので、この講義で勉強の仕方を学んで、 <u>今後の自分の勉強に生かせるようになればと考えています</u> 。		1		1
35	なんか <u>楽しかった</u> 。 <u>頑張ります！</u>	1		1	2

Appendix 4(3). Students' Comments Regarding Image Grammar

36	自分のあやふやな部分の授業だったので、 <u>楽しく感じました</u> 。	1				1
37	2年生から英語の講義を選んで取ることができるためこの授業を楽しみにしていました。実際に受けてみて、英語に <u>さらに興味を持つことができ、楽しめました</u> 。がんばります！！	1				1
38	今日解いた3つの問題の解答・解説にとっても驚き、納得しました。そして、先生の授業の仕方が、すごく私の好きな、求めているものだったので、 <u>すごくうれしかった</u> です。高校生の時は、本当にEnglish for examinationで勉強していて、授業も「こんな文法、単語、覚えてください」とただ暗記して問題を解くみたいな感じで、楽しかったけど形式的であまり面白くなかったのですが、今回、この授業を取れて本当によかったと思いました。これからいろいろな英語に関することを知っていきたいです。	1				1
39	英語に関する雑談も踏まえながら <u>気楽に受講できる</u> あたりがよかったです。	1				1
40	昨年の秋学期に先生のメディア英語を受けて、 <u>また、先生の英語を学びたいと思って受講しました</u> 。			1		1
		26	13	13	1	53