

Vocabulary Education & Research Bulletin

Volume 3 Issue 2 • Fall 2014

Hello everyone,

It's fall. That means VERB! We have a full menu for this issue, and hope that you are hungry. Brad Perks sets the ball rolling looking at the impact of corrective feedback on inflectional morpheme acquisition. In addition to Brad, we have a great collection of poster synopses from the recent SIGposium. In this issue you will learn about posters from Phil Bennett & Tim Stoeckel; Alex Cameron; David Faulhaber; Masaya Kaneko; Mutsumi Kawakami; John P. Racine, George Higginbotham & Ian Munby; and finally Andrew Thompson. Exciting stuff awaits...

Finally, and on a different note, it has been just about three years since the inaugural issue of VERB was published. We the editors felt it was our duty to establish a sustainable environment for VERB as it grew from a single word into a full sentence. Now, we feel that sentence is ready to blossom into a paragraph. As such we will be stepping down as co-editors over the next two issues so that new thinkers can give VERB the nutrients it needs at this stage of its life. It has been an honor working with all of you, and we will see you where the words are.

The VERB Editors,
Tomoko Ishii & TJ Boutorwick

Table of Contents

Short Paper

Brad Perks	2
Investigating the impact of corrective feedback on inflectional morphemes acquisition	

Poster Synopses

Phil Bennett & Tim Stoeckel	4
Word frequency and frequency of loanwords as predictors of word difficulty	
Alex Cameron	6
Cross-Prime: A smartphone App for psycholinguistic testing	
David Faulhaber	8
Implicit vocabulary substitution through multimodal corrective feedback for L2 writing	
Masaya Kaneko	10
Should we separate written and spoken texts when estimating coverage figures for English proficiency tests?	

Mutsumi Kawakami	12
Exploring the effects of focus on form through Dictogloss on the novice learner's vocabulary acquisition	
John P. Racine, George Higginbotham & Ian Munby	13
Exploring non-native norms: A new direction in word association research	
Andrew Thompson	15
Measuring university student interest in vocabulary	

SIG News	17
• JALT National	
• VLI submission information	
• 2015 SIG symposium	
• KSU job openings	
• VERB submission information	
• Special thanks to VERB reviewers	
• Call for VERB editors	

Short Papers

Investigating the impact of corrective feedback on inflectional morphemes acquisition

Brad Perks
perks.brad@gmail.com

Background

Corrective feedback is a crucial element in the process of second language acquisition. Long (1988) states it supplies comprehensible samples of target language necessary for second language vocabulary acquisition. Teachers most commonly use oral forms of corrective feedback and most of the research is in that area, so this study will focus on oral forms of corrective feedback.

Corrective feedback (CF) has both explicit and implicit modes. Explicit feedback overtly identifies the error and provides a meta-language explanation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). If the learner omits the plural -s marker by saying 'there are only 3 orange', a meta-language explanation is 'because there is more than one orange a plural form is needed', for example 'there are only 3 oranges'. On the other hand, implicit feedback does not overtly identify the error, rather implicitly suggesting an error has been committed. The most popular form of implicit feedback is a 'recast', which is a reformulation of the incorrect utterance in the correct target structure. For example if the learner says 'there are only 3 orange' and the practitioner corrects it by saying 'there are only 3 oranges'. Finally, prompts are somewhere in between implicit and explicit feedback, they were operationalized as requests for clarification in this study. The aims of prompts are to push learners to produce the correct target structure, thus assisting in learner autonomy (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). If the learner says 'There are only 3 orange' an example of a prompt would be 'How many are there?'. This study compares the effectiveness of these CF modes in an experimental study design.

Aims - Implicit vs. Explicit CF

The goal of the study was to gather empirical data on the most effective form of CF for learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Japan and the results are intended to increase the efficacy of corrective feedback to EFL learners. Another aim was to enable Japanese EFL learners to develop their plural -s and progressive -ing English verb grammatical morphemes. Plural -s is known to be problematic for Japanese learners' due to the grammatical absence of plural forms in Japanese. Whereas continuous -ing is deemed less problematic amongst the participant group and acted as a comparison.

Methods

Acquisition of these target structures were measured firstly by a timed oral imitation test (designed to measure implicit knowledge) where participants orally repeat sentences and indicated if they are grammatically correct or incorrect. Secondly acquisition was measured by an untimed written grammaticality judgment test (designed to measure explicit knowledge) where participants read sentences and indicated if they are grammatically correct or incorrect. The

tests were administered prior to the instruction, immediately after the final treatment session, one week after the treatment session, and again three weeks later to measure the varying longevity of CF types.

This scientific research employed an experimental design with three treatment groups, plus a control group for comparison. Thirty three (N=33) low-intermediate and intermediate EFL learners completed communicative tasks over two 45-minute sessions over two consecutive days. They received recasts (N=9), prompts (9) or metalinguistic explanation (N=9), in response to any utterance that deviated from the target structure. The control group (N=6) participated in the treatment sessions, but received no instructional feedback after committing an error. Furthermore the participants in the four groups were matched along a range of variables, including SL proficiency (beginner and lower intermediate), age and target structure knowledge. Avoiding variables and including a control group in the study meant it fulfilled the criteria of scientific research.

Results

The overall results indicated a strong effect for metalinguistic explanation. The metalinguistic group produced a higher gain in accuracy across both target structures, whilst the recast group gained only a marginal increase in the continuous -ing structure, and a 15% decrease in accuracy in the plural -s structure (see Table 1). The lengthy meta-language explanations allowed participants to notice the corrective intent of the CF and make cognitive comparison between their error and the target form.

More specifically the plural -s target structure was more difficult to acquire, the accuracy rates were lower for plural -s than continuous -ing (see Table 1). Acquiring plural -s was more suited to explicit metalinguistic instruction, a possible explanation is that difficult linguistic structures favour more explicit instruction where learners can notice the corrective intent of the feedback. Whereas acquiring the progressive -ing structure was more suited to implicit feedback, perhaps the corrective nature of recasts and prompts meant the participants could repeat the corrected sentences more regularly than opposed to a lengthy metal language explanation.

The longevity of CF effects for different linguistic structures varies according to Table 1. The continuous -ing structure accuracy rates generally increased from the one week delayed post-tests to the three week delayed post-tests (see Table 1). Whereas, plural -s accuracy generally decreased in accuracy from the one week delayed post-tests to the three week delayed post-tests. A plausible explanation is that more difficult structures require longer-term treatments than easier structures, and after three weeks without instruction, acquisition levels may drop.

Table 1
Target structure comparison

Groups	Continuous -ing		Plural -s	
	M	SD	M	SD
Recast (N=9)				
Pre-test	0.617	0.5	0.708	1.063
Immediate post-test	0.575	0.894	0.5415	0.921
1 week delayed post-test	0.666	0.781	0.587	0.063
3 week delayed post-test	0.646	0.781	0.558	0.894
Prompts (N=9)				
Pre-test	0.598	0.863	0.76	0.670
Immediate post-test	0.62	0.254	0.683	0.353
1 week delayed post-test	0.677	0.264	0.744	0.223
3 week delayed post-test	0.76	0.141	0.699	0.223
Metalinguistic (N=9)				
Pre-test	0.75	0.063	0.55	0.806
Immediate post-test	0.608	0.920	0.8	0.720
1 week delayed post-test	0.737	0.627	0.85	0.627
3 week delayed post-test	0.908	0.562	0.667	0.802
Control (N=6)				
Pre-test	0.62	0.806	0.591	0.404
Immediate post-test	0.615	0.752	0.736	0.161
1 week delayed post-test	0.597	0.542	0.662	0.293
3 week delayed post-test	0.702	0.351	0.658	0.304

Conclusions

Future research should include a larger sample size which could produce more valid results and a more definitive answer to the research question. The lack of participants meant only six to nine candidates per group, which is insufficient to run certain statistical calculations.

The findings suggest explicit feedback is more noticeable than implicit feedback. These findings are consistent with Carroll’s (2001, cited in Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006) research, where the metalinguistic group outperformed the other groups in the accuracy of both target structures. A prominent argument in the field of SLA is that implicit feedback goes unnoticed by students and explicit feedback is more effective in SLA due to its saliency. Central to the cognitive comparison concept is that the learner notices the difference between their error and the target form. As demonstrated in this research, it is crucial to notice the correctional intent of corrective feedback. This finding adds to the impetus of the importance of noticing corrective feedback.

References

Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), 339-368. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263106060141>

Long, M. (Ed.). (1988). *Instructed interlanguage development*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House. doi: 10.1093/elt/cci067

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19(1), 37-66. doi:10.1017/S0272263197001034

Lyster, R., Saito, K. & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 46, 1-40. doi: 10.1017/S0621444812000365

**Poster Synopses from the Third SIG Symposium
@ Kyushu Sangyo University, June 14th 2014**

Word frequency and frequency of loanwords as predictors of word difficulty

Phil Bennett & Tim Stoeckel
tstoecke@sky.miyazaki-mic.ac.jp

Background

Frequency as a general predictor of L2 word difficulty is well established in the literature. Researchers have found a relationship between the frequency band in which a word occurs and its difficulty (e.g., Aizawa, 2006; Brown, 2012; Milton, 2009). Other research has demonstrated a relationship between frequency-based word ranks and word difficulty (Stubbe, 2010). Though the use of word bands and frequency rankings offers insight into the link between frequency and word facility, there is a loss of statistical power when using ordinal-level data for a phenomenon that is inherently ratio-level.

Loanword status has also been found to affect word difficulty. Words that exist as loaned forms in examinees' L1 are generally easier than non-loanwords of similar frequency (Elgort, 2013; Karami, 2012; Schmitt, Schmitt & Clapham, 2001; Stubbe, 2010). While each of these studies classified loanwords in a yes/no, binary fashion, another point to consider is frequency. Just as L2 word frequency impacts vocabulary acquisition, the rate at which loanwords occur *in the L1* might also be expected to influence L2 word knowledge. Studies which lend support to this hypothesis have found loanword frequency in the L1 to be a possible cause of differential item functioning in L2 vocabulary tests (Bennett & Stoeckel, 2014; Stoeckel & Bennett, 2013).

Aims

The purpose of the present study was to extend previous research by using actual frequency data (instead of yes/no designations, word bands, or frequency rankings) to assess the relationship between word difficulty and two aspects of word frequency: frequency in English and that of loaned forms in Japanese.

Methods

Word difficulty

To estimate word difficulty, a dataset (described in Bennett & Stoeckel, 2013) consisting of responses from 334 Japanese college students was used. Each respondent answered 90 test items, and shared items across four test forms were used as anchors in a Rasch calibration of a 240-item bank. The test assessed knowledge of words from the General Service List (available at http://www.lex tutor.ca/freq/lists_download/) and the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000).

Word frequencies

Frequency was defined as the total number of occurrences of all members of a word family per million words of running text. Frequencies in English were obtained from the Corpus of Contemporary American English ([\[corpus.byu.edu/coca/\]\(http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/\)\), and frequencies of loanwords in Japanese were obtained from the Sketch Engine *jpTenTen11* corpus \(<https://the.sketchengine.co.uk/>; Jakubíček, Kilgarriff, Kovář, Rychlý & Suchomel, 2013\).](http://</p>
</div>
<div data-bbox=)

In some cases, the Japanese frequency could not accurately be estimated because multiple English words had the same orthographic form in Japanese (e.g., *sheet* and *seat* both occur as シート). In other cases, Japanese frequency may have been skewed because of the web-crawled nature of the corpus. For example, the high count for *link* (リンク) was likely due to its use as a reference to Internet links. In total, 31 such cases were identified and removed.

Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to explore the relationship between word difficulty and the two measures of frequency. Initial linear regression was unsuccessful because of heteroscedasticity which could not be removed through data transformation. One outlier was removed because the wording of the test item may have made it unduly easy. Other outliers were retained as interesting cases representative of the construct domain.

Regression of non-loanwords

To better understand the nature of the relationship between frequency and word difficulty, loanwords were temporarily removed so that only one frequency-related variable remained (English frequency). An inspection of a scatterplot of this variable versus word difficulty suggested a logarithmic model, which was confirmed with nonlinear regression, ($R^2 = .247$, $p < .01$, $k = 53$). Based on these preliminary findings, a logarithmic relationship with unknown parameters was hypothesized for the full model.

Main analysis

A nonlinear regression analysis was performed between the outcome variable (word difficulty) and the predictor variables (English frequency, loanword frequency in Japanese). Assumptions were tested by examining a plot of the observed versus predicted values and a normal probability plot of residuals. No violations of the model were detected.

Results

Regression analysis revealed that the model significantly predicted word difficulty, $F(2, 205) = 37.28$, $p < .001$. R^2 for the model was .267, and adjusted R^2 was .260. Table 1 displays the constant and unstandardized (B) and standardized (β) regression coefficients for each variable.

English frequency ($t = 5.02$, $p < .001$) and loanword frequency in Japanese ($t = 5.65$, $p < .001$) each significantly predicted word difficulty. Two separate, additional regression analyses revealed that English frequency uniquely contributed 15.3%, and loanword frequency 17.7%, in variability of word difficulty.

Thirteen outliers to the model were identified (Table 2) and are discussed below.

Table 1.
Regression Results

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	B	Std. error	β		
Constant	8.846	.488		18.15	<.001
English frequency	-.549	.109	.309	5.02	<.001
Loanword frequency in Japanese	-.451	.08	.348	5.65	<.001

Table 2.
Outliers

	Non-loanwords	Loanwords (wpm in Japanese)	
Easier than predicted	<i>abroad</i> <i>sad</i>	<i>pet</i> (41.3) <i>face</i> (19.6) <i>coin</i> (12.2) <i>hammer</i> (5.2)	<i>cry</i> (1.9) <i>castle</i> (1.5) <i>teach</i> (0.8) <i>umbrella</i> (0.7)
More difficult than predicted		<i>tense</i> (32.4) <i>edit</i> (8.8)	<i>virtual</i> (4.7)

Conclusion

In predicting word difficulty, the R² value for English word frequency was .153. Considering the importance sometimes given to frequency (e.g., Nation, 2001), this figure may seem low. However, previous studies have observed substantial variability in word difficulty within frequency bands (Beglar, 2009; McLean, Hogg, & Kramer, 2014). In addition, outliers, which are routinely removed if considered construct-irrelevant, were retained in this study because they were representative of the construct under investigation. Both of these could suppress the predictive power of word frequency.

Loanword frequency in Japanese was a better predictor of word difficulty, with an R² value of .177. Our finding is generally consistent with Stubbe (2010), who found yes/no loanword status to be a better predictor of word difficulty than frequency ranking in English. Taken together, these findings certainly highlight the importance of loanwords for Japanese learners of English.

Other factors impacting word difficulty can be hypothesized by examining the outliers. Concrete (e.g., *pet*, *coin*) and simple concepts (e.g., *teach*, *cry*) were often easier than predicted by frequency alone. Abstract concepts (e.g., *virtual*, *edit*) were more difficult. Intralexical factors such as word length and phonological differences between the L1 and L2 forms (see Laufer, 1990) may have also played a role.

The study is limited by the nature of the Japanese corpus. Because it was web-crawled, it may have lacked representativeness. Thus, a direction for future research might be to replicate our study with more balanced Japanese corpora as they become available. Another angle could be to include words of a greater range of frequency. Since the tested items in this study were sampled from relatively frequent word bands, the facilitative role of loanwords for low-frequency English words is unclear.

References

Aizawa, K. (2006). Rethinking frequency markers for English-Japanese dictionaries. In M. Murata, K. Minamide, Y. Tono, and S. Ishikawa, (Eds.), *English Lexicography in Japan* (pp. 108-119). Tokyo: Taishukan-shoten.

Beglar, D. (2009). A Rasch-based validation of the Vocabulary Size Test. *Language Testing*, 27(1), 101-118. doi:10.1177/0265532209340194

Bennett, P., & Stoeckel, T. (2013). Developing equivalent forms of a test of general and academic vocabulary. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*.

Bennett, P., & Stoeckel, T. (2014, May). *Does loanword frequency predict DIF in L2 vocabulary tests?* Poster presented at the Japan Association for Language Teaching annual PanSIG Conference, Miyazaki.

Brown, D. (2012). The frequency model of vocabulary learning and Japanese learners. *Vocabulary Learning and Instruction*, 1(1), 20-28. doi: 10.7820/vli.v01.1.brown

Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(2), 213-238. doi: 10.2307/3587951

Elgort, I. (2013). Effects of L1 definitions and cognate status of test items on the Vocabulary Size Test. *Language Testing*, 30(2), 253-272. doi: 10.1177/0265532212459028

Jakubiček, M., Kilgarriff, A., Kovář, V., Rychlý, P., & Suchomel, V. (2013). The TenTen Corpus family. In A. Hardie & R. Love (Eds.), *7th International Corpus Linguistics Conference CL 2013*, (pp. 125-127). Abstract retrieved from <http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/cl2013/doc/CL2013-ABSTRACT-BOOK.pdf>

Karami, H. (2012). The development and validation of a bilingual version of the Vocabulary Size Test. *RELC Journal*, 43(1), 53-67. doi: 10.1177/0033688212439359

Laufer, B. (1990). Why are some words more difficult than others? Some intralexical factors that affect the learning of words. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 28(4), 293-308. doi: 10.1515/iral.1990.28.4.293

McLean, S., Hogg, N., & Kramer, B. (forthcoming). Estimations of Japanese university learners' English vocabulary sizes using the Vocabulary Size Test. *Vocabulary Learning and Instruction*.

Milton, J. (2009). *Measuring second language vocabulary acquisition*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schmitt, N., Schmitt, D., & Clapham, C. (2001). Developing and exploring the behaviour of two new versions of the Vocabulary Levels Test. *Language Testing*, 18(1), 55-88. doi:10.1191/026553201668475857

Stoeckel, T. & Bennett, P. (2013). Sources of differential item functioning between Korean and Japanese examinees on a second-language vocabulary test. *Vocabulary Learning and Instruction*, 2(1), 47-54. doi: 10.7820/vli.v02.1.stoeckel.bennett

Stubbe, R. (2010). Exploring the lexical challenge of the TOEIC® Bridge test. In A. M. Stoke (Ed.), *JALT2009 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

Cross-Prime: A smartphone App for psycholinguistic testing

Alex Cameron
cameron@ip.kyusan-u.ac.jp

Background

The increasing ubiquity of smartphones could potentially revolutionize data collection methods in SLA and applied linguistics. According to eMarketer (2014) “The global smartphone audience surpassed the 1 billion mark in 2012 and will total 1.75 billion in 2014.” This novel technology offers high-speed processing, millisecond timing and global-standardized product designs. Research experiments can be constructed in the form of ‘apps’ and made available for download by participants. These experiments can be undertaken offline, after which the data is sent back to researchers via a server. One of the most striking advantages of this platform is that it offers a far larger potential sample population than is constrained by the typical computer lab experiment. Dufau et al. (2011) tested the viability of smartphones with 4157 participants, using a lexical decision task (LDT) app called ScienceXL. They achieved results reliably similar to those derived from a computer lab setting.

To date there is no smartphone version of a masked priming experiment - a variation on the LDT. The typical masked prime paradigm involves a list of target words that are each preceded by a rapidly flashed ‘prime’ word that can facilitate or inhibit the participant’s recognition speed of the target word, depending on the relationship between the prime and target. Such studies provide insights into the cognitive architecture of the bilingual mind by revealing specific processes of visual word recognition, lexical memory and access to the mental lexicon/s. In a study of Japanese-English bilinguals (TOEIC 700+), Nakayama et al (2012) found compelling evidence that both semantic (cognate) and phonological representations are integrated, rather than separated into two distinct lexicons (Japanese / English). This implies that visual features of one language will nonselectively activate lexical representations of the other. They also speculated that with less proficient bilinguals the phonological priming effect might be significantly larger compared with higher proficiency bilinguals. As a partial conceptual replication of Nakayama et al’s study, I have reproduced their experimental design in an app called Cross-Prime to explore the effects on bilinguals under Toeic 500.

Instrument: Cross-Prime

Designed with the user-friendly programming software, Gamesalad, Cross-Prime presents words in two scripts - a Japanese Katakana word as the prime and an English (Roman / ‘Romaji’ script) word as the target. The Japanese prime is flashed briefly (50ms) before presentation of the target word. The target remains on screen until the participant has responded or after a 3000ms period in which a ‘time up’ alert appears, whichever comes first. Cross-Prime is not yet publically available for download (i.e., via iTunes store), as beta-testing is still under way in local offline conditions.

Aims

To beta-test the Cross-Prime app on touchscreen devices with lower proficiency Japanese-English bilinguals (under TOEIC 500). To see if there is a cognate and phonological priming effect as a result of prime-target type. To see if the

priming effect is larger in lower proficiency bilinguals than observed in Nakayama et al’s study (TOEIC 700+).

Methods

Participants were tested on one of three masked-priming lexical decision tasks via ipads (ipads were in greater availability than smartphones during the data collection period but the technology is the same). The test was administered under supervision, in a controlled environment typical of computer-based test conditions, to minimize variables such as possible outside distractions. Instructions were given in Japanese. The English target list remained the same across all three tasks - sixty high frequency words (HF) and sixty nonwords, presented randomly. However, the Japanese primes varied. For example, the word SUPPORT was preceded by one of three Japanese katakana prime types: Cognate translation (サポ-ト/supporto); Phonologically similar but conceptually unrelated (リポ-ト/reporto); Phonologically and conceptually unrelated (オープン/open). Participants were asked to answer one question only upon presentation of all items - Is this a word? They were instructed to answer as quickly and accurately as possible. Two ‘buttons’ appeared on the screen, a green one that said Yes and a red one that said No. The purpose of the nonwords (correct answer = No) was to ensure that participants were accurately identifying target words and not randomly guessing. As in Nakayama et al’s study, participants with error rates above 20% were removed as a standardized safeguard for reliable responses.

Sample

Fifty-two Japanese students of English in a compulsory university setting, with TOEIC scores ranging from 350 to 400, participated voluntarily.

Preliminary results

The data from four participants were removed due to nonword error rates above 20%, leaving forty-eight participants (three groups - seventeen, fifteen, sixteen). Mean nonword errors across groups averaged 8.3%. Mean word errors across groups averaged 3.4%. ANOVA and t-tests were performed, showing that cognate primes, as expected, facilitated the fastest response time of the three groups. They were faster than unrelated primes by a mean time of 169ms (p-value .0001) (See Table 1). Phonological primes produced the second fastest responses with a mean of 95ms (p-value .0075) faster than unrelated word primes. The mean time difference between the phonological and cognate prime results was 74ms (p-value .03). This placed the phonological prime group roughly half way between the cognate and unrelated prime groups in terms of mean RT, and demonstrated a priming pattern similar to Nakayama et al’s results but with larger overall mean RT differences. While Nakayama et al’s study found a significant difference between cognate and unrelated prime results, the relationship between the phonological group and both the cognate and unrelated groups was not significantly different. However, in the present study all three groups were significantly different. This is most likely due to the former study involving participants of higher proficiency (Toeic 700+) who were therefore subject to a smaller priming effect. This confirms Nakayama et al’s prediction that lower proficiency bilinguals might experience a significant phonological priming effect.

Table 1.
Mean response times and priming effects in milliseconds for HF English target words preceded by different Japanese Katakana prime types

	Prime Type			Priming Effect	
	Translation (T)	Phonological (P)	Unrelated (UR)	Translation (UR-T)	Phonological (UR-P)
HF Target Mean RTs	651	725	820	169	95

Conclusions

The Cross-Prime app demonstrated a cross-script priming effect between Japanese primes and English targets comparable to Nakayama et al’s (2012) results. Therefore, the beta-test of this app was successful. Both cognate and phonological primes were found to significantly influence visual word recognition times. This shows that regardless of the orthographic differences between Japanese Katakana and English Roman script, reading one will activate representations of the other. This observation of nonselective activation provides strong evidence that the mental lexicons are not separated but integrated. Furthermore, the prediction that a more significant phonological priming effect would be observed in less proficient Japanese-English bilinguals (under TOEIC 500) than more proficient bilinguals was correct.

Future directions

Cross-Prime was efficacious under controlled lab-style conditions. The next step will be to beta-test the app remotely - that is to upload it to the iTunes app store and invite participants to download it for free and sit the test in their own time. This will provide a much larger sample size and make testing and data collection quicker and easier. If the results are comparable to those achieved in the present

study, this will suggest that touchscreen apps are indeed a viable research tool for SLA and applied linguistics. Cross-Prime could possibly be one of many ‘next generation’ tools to come.

References

Agustin, M., Treiman, D., Tran, T., Seaver, J. (2007). Gamesalad (Version 11, 2014) [computer software]. Austin, Texas and Los Angeles, California. Available from <http://gamesalad.com/>

Cameron, A., & Gibson, A. (2013). Visual Word Recognition in Japanese Learners of English: Evidence from Response Time Tests. *Kyushu Sangyo University Language Education and Research Center Journal*, 8.

Cedrus Corporation. (2014). Superlab (Version 5.0) [computer software]. San Pedro: Cedrus. Available from <http://www.superlab.com/>

Dufau S, Duñabeitia JA, Moret-Tatay C, McGonigal A, Peeters D, et al. (2011). Smart Phone, Smart Science: How the Use of Smartphones Can Revolutionize Research in Cognitive Science. *PLoS ONE* 6(9): e24974. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0024974

eMarketer (Jan 16, 2014) Smartphone Users Worldwide Will Total 1.75 Billion in 2014. Retrieved from <http://www.emarketer.com/Article/Smartphone-Users-Worldwide-Will-Total-175-Billion-2014/1010536#sthash.afQjZ8PF.dpuf>

Nakayama, M., Sears, C. R., Hino, Y., Lupker, S. J. (2012). Cross-script phonological priming for Japanese-English bilinguals: Evidence for integrated phonological representations, *Language and Cognitive Processes*, 27(10), 1563-1583. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01690965.2011.606669>

Schmitt, N. (2010). *Researching vocabulary: A vocabulary research manual*. Houndmills, Basingstoke, Hampshire; New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Segalowitz, N., & Hulstijn, J. (2005). Automaticity in bilingualism and second language learning. In J. F. Kroll & A. M. B. de Groot (Eds.), *Handbook of bilingualism: Psycholinguistic approaches* (pp. 371-388). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

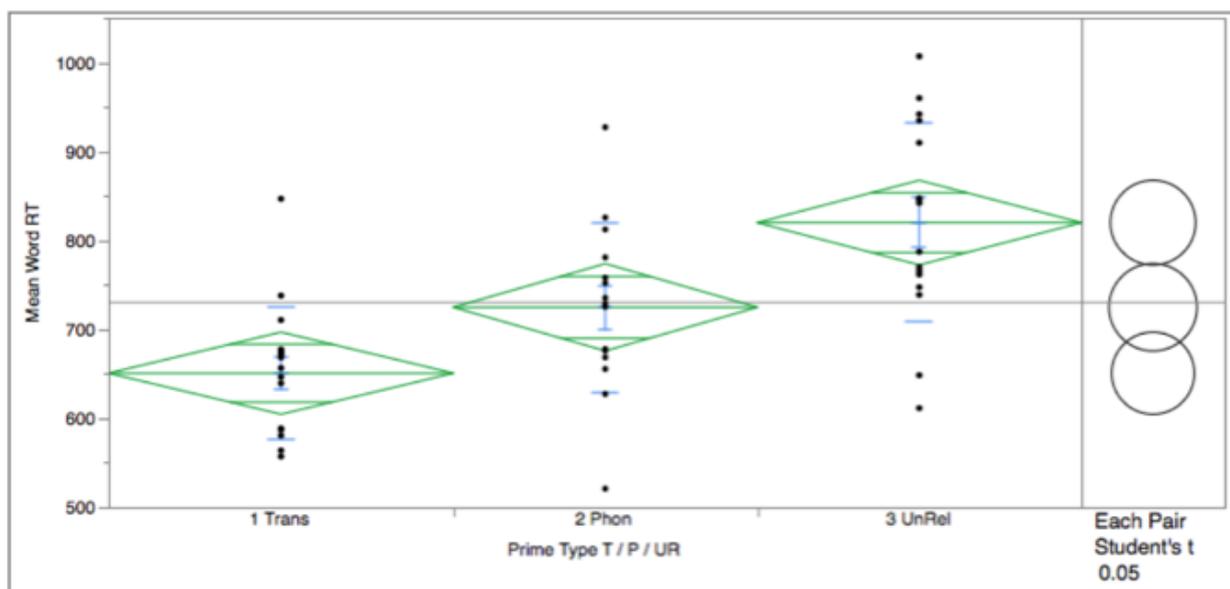


Figure 1 Mean response times per group

Implicit vocabulary substitution through multimodal corrective feedback for L2 writing

David Faulhaber
faulhaber-d@kanda.kuis.ac.jp

Background

Receiving feedback on vocabulary usage is key if learners are to become adept L2 writers. While there are numerous approaches to delivering corrective feedback on unacceptable or awkwardly deployed lexical items, what remains a given is that learners must first notice word substitutions provided by the instructor (see Schmidt, 1990, for a further explication of noticing). One important consideration of recent interest is the role that mode plays in this process—in particular the aural stream. Several studies have found that reading while simultaneously listening to a recording of the same text is preferred by learners, compared to listening only (Brown, Waring, & Donkaewbua, 2008), and that this approach can positively contribute to vocabulary learning (Webb & Chang, 2012; Webb, Newton, & Chang, 2013). But what of the potential for taking a similar multimodal tack with respect to corrective feedback directed squarely at vocabulary? This study attempts just that, employing a method termed reformulative audio feedback (RAF) which addresses vocabulary in need of revision through implicit substitution provided by the instructor.

Aims

Through implementation of RAF in one stage of the (author's) revision cycle, this study seeks to understand how learners notice (as evidenced through repair—or lack thereof—in subsequent drafts) vocabulary substitutions embedded in the audio feedback itself.

Methods

Eight students in a second-year writing course at a Japanese university were given RAF on the second draft of four assignments spanning two semesters (29 papers in all). After first having been revised for content and organization, papers were then read aloud (and recorded) by the instructor as lexical items requiring attention were implicitly substituted on-the-fly. Example:

Student text: “Laugh is the source of health.”
RAF: “Laughter is the source of health.”

Students then listened to the RAF recording and simultaneously read along with their previously-submitted draft (which, incidentally, was free of error code symbols or other writing); any discrepancies noticed between the RAF and original text served as a prompt for learners to think about the nature of the mismatch and whether revision was warranted. It is worth noting that three of Nation's (2013) criteria for assisting the promotion of vocabulary learning by listening to stories (interest, comprehension, and repeated retrieval) are met though this process of having students listen to their own writing being read back to them (p. 167).

Sample

During analysis of the transcribed RAF recordings by the instructor, incidences of vocabulary substitution were divided among four categories (see Table 1).

Preliminary results

As shown in Figure 1 below, learners made repairs—by an overwhelming margin—using words implicitly substituted in the RAF (and in several cases came up with new, acceptable text not found in the original draft or audio feedback).

Aside from either rejecting or not noticing a significantly lower percentage of word substitutions made available in the RAF, two other means of revising deemed unacceptable included attempting novel repair (“of” was reformulated in the feedback to “among”, then revised as “amount”) and partially revising (“my personal tradition” is presented as “a personal tradition” in the RAF, but is revised as “a my personal tradition”). Table 2 provides a more fine-grained breakdown of the numbers across categories.

Preliminary conclusions

Learners do a fair job appropriately attending to the majority of ruptures in the RAF stream when comparing it against their original writing. Times when they do not, however, may be attributable to such factors as low saliency (as with those post-RAF items left unchanged) or mishearings influenced by L1 combined with an unfamiliarity with target language prosody (Rost, 2011, p. 258). There is also evidence suggesting that students delete words as one strategy of dealing with words unknown (and indecipherable) to them, as was the case with “earn” and “enthusiastically”.

Future directions

RAF appears to warrant further investigation as a method for drawing learner attention to contextualized error correction of vocabulary usage. While this study focuses on lexical noticing as opposed to learning, future longitudinal research could track appropriate use of words first encountered in RAF as they appear in subsequent, original writings. Structured interviews with learners might also support the postulations being formulated in this initial look into the potential of implicit vocabulary substitution through multimodal corrective feedback.

References

- Brown, R., Waring, R., & Donkaewbua, S. (2008). Incidental vocabulary acquisition from reading, reading-while-listening, and listening to stories. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 20*(2), 136-163.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2013). *Learning vocabulary in another language* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Rost, M. (2011). *Teaching and researching: Listening*. Pearson Education.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*(2), 129-158.
- Webb, S., & Chang, A. C-S. (2012). Vocabulary learning through assisted and unassisted repeated reading. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 68*(3), 1-24. doi: 10.3138/cmlr.1204.1
- Webb, S., Newton, J., & Chang, A. C-S. (2013). Incidental learning of collocation. *Language Learning, 63*(1), 91-120. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00729.x

Table 1.
Four coding categories with examples

	pre-RAF text	RAF
1. Treatable There is a single, straightforward repair.	...they can <i>advice</i> how to...	...they can <i>advise</i> how to...
2. Untreatable (critical) Repair is necessary to convey meaning accurately, but possible through multiple options.	...improve <i>own</i> language skills... ...I heard <i>something</i> unusual sound.	...improve <i>your</i> language skills... ...I heard <i>an</i> unusual sound...
3. Untreatable (non-critical) Meaning is understood, but repair would make usage more natural, academic, or stylistically pleasing.	... <i>take</i> plastic surgery... ...blog <i>users</i> <i>undergo</i> plastic surgery... ...blog <i>readers</i> ...
4. Unnecessary A word is (unintentionally) substituted for one that is perfectly acceptable.	...for the same <i>amount</i> ... <i>Secondly</i> ,...	...for the same <i>price</i> ... <i>Second</i> ,...

Table 2.
RAF vocabulary substitutions attended to by coding category

	Unnecessary substitutions	Untreatable (non-critical) errors	Untreatable (critical) errors	Treatable errors
revised (per RAF)	44 (80%)	128 (89.5%)	67 (85.9%)	39 (78%)
new revision (acceptable)	--	5 (3.5%)	1 (1.3%)	--
unchanged	8 (14.5%)	7 (4.9%)	7 (9%)	9 (18%)
partial change (unacceptable)	--	2 (1.4%)	1 (1.3%)	1 (2%)
new revision (unacceptable)	3 (5.5%)	1 (.7%)	2 (2.5%)	1 (2%)
Total lexical substitutions:	55 (100%)	143 (100%)	78 (100%)	50 (100%)

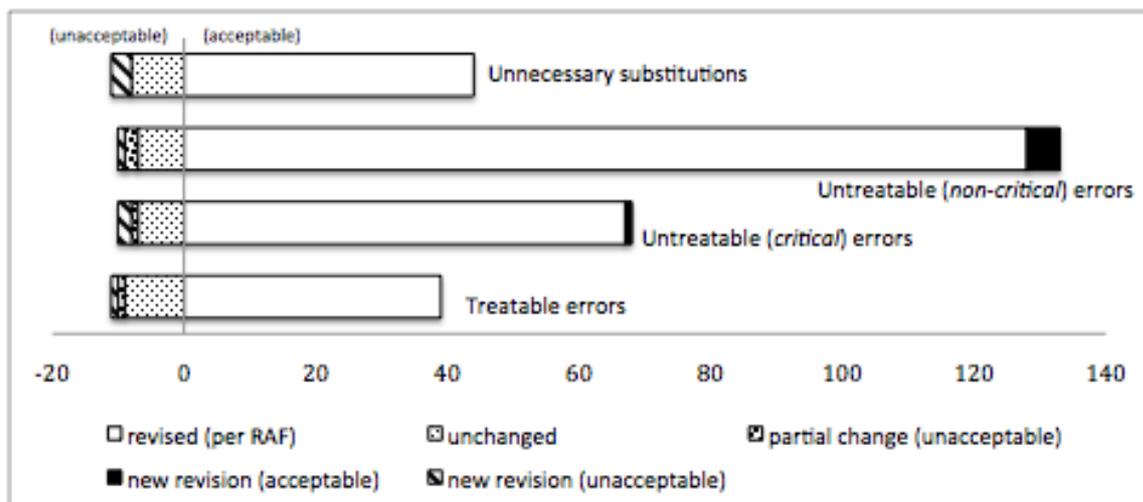


Figure 1. Comparison of how learners dealt with suggested vocabulary substitutions in the RAF in terms of acceptability

Should we separate written and spoken texts when estimating coverage figures for English proficiency tests?

Masaya Kaneko
m-kaneko@mail.dendai.ac.jp

Background

Research has demonstrated that the percentage of familiar words in a text, or text coverage, is a key factor in determining L2 reading comprehension (Hu & Nation, 2000; Laufer, 1989; Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010; Schmitt, Jiang, & Grabe, 2011). Research has also indicated that text coverage affects listening comprehension in L1 (Van Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013) and in L2 (Bonk, 2000; Stahr, 2009; Van Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013). The methodology of text-coverage research is straightforward: A text is examined using a lexical frequency profiling tool such as RANGE (Heatley, Nation, & Coxhead, 2002) and Vocabulary Profiler (Cobb, n.d.). It is a widely-accepted part of the procedure to separate written and spoken texts. For instance, Nation (2006) estimated how large a vocabulary is necessary to account for 98% of written and spoken texts, analyzing each corpus separately. It was found that the most frequent 6,000-7,000 word families on his word-family lists derived from the British National Corpus yielded 98% coverage for the spoken texts he examined, and 8,000-9,000 word families for the written texts.

However, when estimating coverage figures for English proficiency tests such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), which contain both written and spoken texts, the methodology may vary. For instance, when estimating vocabulary size targets for the TOEFL test, some researchers combined the vocabulary appearing in each section of the TOEFL into one corpus and then calculated text coverage figures for the mixed text (e.g., Chujo, 2004; Chujo & Oghigian, 2009; Ishida, 2004; Mizumoto, 2006). Chujo and Oghigian (2009) examined one official practice test for the TOEFL Internet-based Test (iBT), the current version of the TOEFL. The written and spoken texts from the practice test were combined into one corpus and the lexical size target for the mixed text was calculated with the use of Nation's (2006) word-family lists. It was found that it took the first 4,000 word families to reach 95% coverage of the running words in the mixed text.

This mixing, however, calls into question the accuracy of coverage figures because research suggests that written text employs greater use of low-frequency vocabulary than spoken text (McCarthy & Carter, 1997; Nation, 2006). Therefore, results obtained from mixed written and spoken texts may yield underestimated coverage figures. Additionally, the methodology is not in line with the one used in the original text-coverage study by Laufer (1989) and other text-coverage research mentioned earlier. These two issues make it difficult to draw any strong conclusions about the vocabulary size target for the TOEFL test derived from combined texts.

Aim

The main aim of the present study is to investigate whether there is a difference in coverage counts if we combine written and spoken texts when examining English proficiency tests.

Methods

The present study examined the vocabulary appearing in the reading and listening passages from five past TOEFL iBTs (Educational Testing Service, 2013). The lexical frequency levels were determined with the use of Nation's (2006) word-family lists, which is in line with Chujo and Oghigian's (2009) methodology. Each test contains three reading passages and six listening passages. The total of 15 reading passages was combined into one large reading text. The listening text followed the same procedure. To answer the research question, three steps were taken. First, the mixed reading/listening corpus was created. Then, the vocabulary appearing in the mixed written/spoken text was examined to estimate how large a vocabulary is required to account for 95% of the running words. The rationale for assuming 95% coverage as a target was to ensure a meaningful comparison between findings of Chujo and Oghigian's (2009) study and those of the present study. Second, two lexical size targets necessary to yield 95% coverage for the reading text and for the listening text were separately calculated. Finally, the three vocabulary size targets were compared to see if there is a difference.

Preliminary results

Table 1 depicts cumulative coverage figures for the mixed text and for the separate texts. To reach 95% coverage of the combined text, the most frequent 4,000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words were required. This estimate is the same as the one made by Chujo and Oghigian (2009) although the samples examined are different. For the separated corpora, in contrast, it took the most frequent 6,000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words to yield 95% coverage for the reading text, and 3,000-4,000 word families for the listening text.

Preliminary conclusions and discussion

The results of the present study suggest that combining written and spoken texts when estimating coverage figures for English proficiency tests may provide inaccurate results. It was found that there was a difference of 2,000 word families between the vocabulary size target derived from the mixed text and the lexical size requirement for the reading section alone. This difference in vocabulary size may cause trouble to both teachers and learners. First, from the perspective of test takers, vocabulary size targets derived from mixed texts may not provide sufficient coverage for written texts. If a learner assumes 4,000 word families, which provided 95% coverage for the mixed text, are sufficient for the reading section of the TOEFL iBT, then he or she would be able to gain only 91.58% coverage of the running words in the reading section. Research suggests that this amount of coverage would not allow adequate reading comprehension (Laufer, 1989; Hu & Nation, 2000; Schmitt et al., 2011). Second, the difference between teaching 4,000 word families and 6,000 word families is significant and may cause teachers to re-evaluate their syllabi because teaching additional 2,000 word families would require a different investment of classroom time.

Limitations and future directions

Since the present study exclusively focused on reading and listening passages from past TOEFL tests, future studies involving more varied sets of English proficiency tests such as the Eiken test and the TOEIC test should be conducted to confirm the results of the present study.

Table 1.
Cumulative coverage figures for the reading and listening passages from 5 past TOEFL Internet-based tests with reading and listening passages combined and with texts separated

Frequency band	Written and spoken texts combined	Written and spoken texts separated	
	Combined text (%)	Reading passages*(%)	Listening passages**(%)
Proper nouns	0.85	1.66	0.43
Defined words	1.1	2.38	N/A
Marginal words	1.67	2.38	1.29
1,000	82.05	73.47	86.38
2,000	90.06	84.23	93
3,000	92.81	88.54	94.95
4,000	95.01	91.58	96.73
5,000	96.23	93.82	97.44
6,000	97.1	95.11	98.1
7,000	97.58	96.05	98.35
8,000	98.05	96.92	98.62
9,000	98.32	97.35	98.8
10,000	98.62	97.81	99.02
11,000	98.74	98	99.11
12,000	98.97	98.27	99.32
13,000	99.16	98.61	99.44
14,000	99.31	98.93	99.5
Not in the lists	99.99***	100	100
Tokens	31572	10624	20948

Note. Adapted from "Is the Vocabulary Level of the Reading Section of the TOEFL Internet-Based Test Beyond the Lexical Level of Japanese Senior High School Students?" by M. Kaneko, 2014, *Vocabulary Learning and Instruction*, Advance online publication. Adapted from "Vocabulary Size Required for the TOEFL iBT Listening Section," by M. Kaneko, in press, *The Language Teacher*. The total percentage is not 100 because of rounding.

References

Bonk, W. (2000). Second language lexical knowledge and listening comprehension. *International Journal of Listening*, 14(1), 14-31. doi: 10.1080/10904018.2000.10499033

Chujo, K. (2004). Measuring vocabulary levels of English textbooks and tests using a BNC lemmatised high frequency word list. In J. Nakamura, N. Inoue, & T. Tabata (Eds.), *English corpora under Japanese eyes* (pp. 231-249). Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Chujo, K., & Oghigian, K. (2009). How many words do you need to know to understand TOEIC, TOEFL and Eiken? An examination of text coverage and high frequency vocabulary. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 6(2), 121-148.

Cobb, T. (n.d.). Vocabprofilers. Retrieved from <http://www.lex tutor.ca/vp/>

Educational Testing Service. (2013). *Official TOEFL iBT tests with audio* (Vol. 1). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Heatley, A., Nation, I. S. P., & Coxhead, A. (2002). RANGE and FREQUENCY programs. Retrieved from <http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/about/staff/paul-nation>

Hu, M., & Nation, I. S. P. (2000). Unknown vocabulary density and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 13(1), 403-430.

Ishida, M. (2004, Summer). 英語教員が備えておくべき英語力—英検準1級、TOEFL 550点、TOEIC 730点の目標値を中心に[Recommended English proficiency levels for English teachers: with the focus on Eiken Grade Pre-1, TOEFL550 point, and TOEIC730 point]. *英語展望*, 111, 10-17.

Kaneko, M. (2014). Is the vocabulary level of the reading section of the TOEFL internet-based test beyond the lexical level of Japanese senior high school students? *Vocabulary Learning and Instruction*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.7820/vli.v03.1.kaneko

Kaneko, M. (in press). Vocabulary size required for the TOEFL iBT listening section. *The Language Teacher*.

Laufer, B. (1989). What percentage of text-lexis is essential for comprehension? In C. Lauren & M. Nordman (Eds.), *Special language: From humans thinking to thinking machines* (pp. 316-323). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Laufer, B., & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, G. C. (2010). Lexical threshold revisited: Lexical text coverage, learners' vocabulary size and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 22(1), 15-30.

McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (1997). Written and spoken vocabulary. In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy* (pp.20-39). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Mizumoto, A. (2006). TOEFL語彙の語彙レベル、真正性、特徴の検証[Word levels, authenticity, and characteristics verification of the TOEFL vocabulary]. *言語文化学会論集*, 27, 3-15.

Nation, I. S. P. (2006). How large a vocabulary is needed for reading and listening? *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63(1), 59-82. doi: 10.3138/cmlr.63.1.59

Schmitt, N., Jiang, X., & Grabe, W. (2011). The percentage of words known in a text and reading comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95, 26-43. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01146.x

Stahr, L. S. (2009). Vocabulary knowledge and advanced listening comprehension in English as a foreign language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 31, 577-607. doi: 10.1017/S0272263109990039

Van Zeeland, H., & Schmitt, N. (2013). Lexical coverage in L1 and L2 listening comprehension: The same or different from reading comprehension? *Applied Linguistics*, 34(4), 457-479. doi: 10.1093/applin/ams074

Exploring the effects of focus on form through Dictogloss on the novice learner's vocabulary acquisition

Mutsumi Kawakami
mutsumik@mail.dendai.ac.jp

Theoretical Framework

In the theory of second language acquisition, there is a growing consensus on the importance of teaching form in the context of communicative activities, ranging from explicit teaching language rules to noticing and consciousness-raising techniques (Brown, 2001). Such form-focused instruction can be distinguished by two kinds: Focus on Form (FonF) and Focus on Forms (FonFs). FonF (Long, 1991; Long and Robinson, 1998) allows learners to make an occasional shift of attention to particular linguistic features during meaning focused activities (i.e., learners draw their attention to grammar rules which are needed to perform a communicative task). Conversely, FonFs is defined as the presentation and practice of discrete language items (i.e., learners are taught grammar rules before practice in controlled exercises and provided opportunities to produce them freely). A number of studies have compared both types of instruction and prove that both facilitate second language acquisition (Ellis, 2008). FonF instruction draws on the theories that claim the importance of the cognitive process of noticing and the role of interaction for L2 acquisition. Interaction during the communication provides opportunities to negotiate meaning and form, which serve to draw learner's attention to form while they are communicating. Although the research cited above mainly regarded grammar instruction, these approaches can be applied to vocabulary instruction (Laufer, 2006).

In order to best create opportunities for vocabulary learning, Laufer & Nation (2012) maintain the importance of taking a balanced approach that comprises four strands: comprehensible meaning-focused input, form-focused instruction, meaning-focused output and fluency development. Many English classes in higher educational institutions in Japan lack the systematic vocabulary teaching, owing to the limited class time. Students tend to use a few memorization strategies for tests but hardly use activation strategies such as using newly learned words in writing and speaking. Specifically, novice learners who have difficulty memorizing words seem to lack the opportunities to learn and use effective vocabulary learning strategies. Hence, teachers should create opportunities for their students to use newly learned words in a communicative task.

Dictogloss (Wajnryb, 1990) is a teaching technique that creates opportunity to focus on form. Learners are asked to listen to a passage and work together in small groups to reconstruct the original passage. The method helps induce the cognitive process of noticing specific language features through input and pushed output through which learners hypothesize how the target language works and test the hypothesis (Swain & Lapkin, 1995).

Aim

The author hypothesizes that the dictogloss may help vocabulary learning in form-meaning relationship because it draws on cognitive processing in L2 acquisition and the role of interaction as described before. The research question addressed in the present study is: Does Focus on Form task

have an affect on novice learners' vocabulary learning and retention?

Sample population

First year university students received two different types of instructions in two intact classes composed of 26 participants in the FonF group as an experimental group and 28 in the FonFs group as a comparison group. Both groups performed the task for 30 minutes in a 90-minutes class session for reading and writing. A textbook used to this course focuses on reading skills and vocabulary exercises. Each unit introduces ten new words. Their vocabulary size was examined based on Japanese translation version of Vocabulary Size Test (Nation & Beglar, 2007), of which the participants answered first ten 1K in which questions contain 100 words out of 140 words (FonF group: $M=51.2$, $SD=10.1$, $\alpha=.85$; FonFs group: $M=48.3$, $SD=8.5$, $\alpha=.77$).

Procedure

In the first stage of the lesson, both groups read a text and answered comprehension questions after target vocabulary was introduced. In the second stage, the FonF group performed a dictogloss task. In the first part of the dictogloss, they listened to a summary of the text twice at normal speed, taking notes on its content for the second listening. After that, they worked in groups of three or four to reconstruct the passage. Upon task completion, they were asked to check their version with the original passage. The participants in the experimental group practiced the dictogloss task several times in the previous lessons. The FonFs group performed a language practice task consisting of three activities: two meaning recognition exercises (a multiple choice exercise and a filling in the blank exercise), and a cross-word exercise. The students checked their answers in class and write a few sentences with the target words.

Both groups were given two tailor-made tests based on the method implemented in CATTs (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004): a pretest and an unexpected delayed-posttest three weeks after the treatment. The tests were to match sixty-three L2 words chosen from the new words listed in the textbook with their L1 meaning (passive recognition). Ten target words were selected from the 63 new words for this study. They were considered relatively less familiar to the participants.

Preliminary results

With regard to within-group comparisons, Cohen's d index was used and effects were considered as small ($d=.20$), medium ($d=.50$), or large ($d=.80$) as suggested by Cohen (1992). There was a significant time effect for the both groups as seen in Table 1. T-test shows that the participants in both groups significantly increased their scores from the pretest to the delayed-posttest with large effects (FonF: $t(25)=-3.63$, $p=.001$, $d=.96$; FonFs: $t(27)=-2.12$, $p=.000$, $d=1.43$). There was no significant difference in between-group comparisons on both the pretest and the delayed-posttest. These results indicate that the participants remembered 91% of target words receptively even three weeks after the treatment.

Table 1
Means and standard deviations for two tests (max=10)

	Pretest		Delayed-posttest	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
FonF	7.9	1.3	9.1	1.2
FonFs	7.6	0.9	9.1	1.1

Preliminary conclusion

The present study exhibits that the FonF instruction enhanced vocabulary retention but the results of the delayed-posttest did not support the hypothesis that there was superior effect of the FonF group to the FonFs group on the increase and retention of passive recognition knowledge.

Future directions

Further development of the task procedure is needed as the novice learners of English tended to focus on each sound of words, not the meaning. Consequently, they failed to notice the target words when listening. Furthermore, the testing instrument and design should be more carefully chosen to examine various aspects of vocabulary knowledge. Lastly, there is need for further studies to examine the difference in the effect of two types of instruction on learner's productive vocabulary knowledge with large number of participants and a control group.

References

- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. New York, NY: Pearson Education.
- Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112, 155-159. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.112.1.155
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford, England :Oxford University Press.
- Laufer, B. (2006). Comparing focus on form and focus on forms. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63, 149-166. doi:10.3138/cmlr.63.1.149
- Laufer, B., & Goldstein, Z. (2004). Testing vocabulary knowledge: size, strength, computer adaptiveness. *Language Learning*, 54, 399-436. doi: 10.1111/j.0023-8333.2004.00260.x
- Laufer, B., & Nation, I. S. P. (2012). Vocabulary. In M. S. Gass & A. Mackey (Eds.), *The routledge handbook of second language acquisition* (pp.163-176). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Long, M. H. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective* (pp.39-52). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Long, M. H., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: theory, research, and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp.15-41). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I. S. P., & Beglar, D. (2007). A vocabulary size test. *The Language Teacher*, 31(7), 9-13.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive process they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 16, 371-391. doi: 10.1093/applin/16.3.371

Wajnryb, R. (1990). *Grammar dictation*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Exploring non-native norms: A new direction in word association research

John P. Racine, George Higginbotham & Ian Munby
gaijira@gmail.com

Word association (WA) tests have the potential to reveal rich information about a learner's mental lexicon. As Meara (1996) has argued, the benefit of word association data is that it allows us to efficiently explore two "global characteristics" of the mental lexicon - size and organization. Over the years, a number of researchers have compiled databases of native-speaker WA responses, often in the form of norms lists (e.g., Kent & Rosanoff, 1910; Kiss, Armstrong, Milroy, & Piper, 1973; Moss & Older, 1996; Nelson, McEvoy, & Schreiber, 1998; Postman & Keppel, 1970). These lists have been utilized by linguists for a variety of purposes, most notably as a comparative measure for examining second language proficiency against a native standard (e.g., Kruse, Pankhurst, & Sharwood Smith, 1987; Schmitt, 1998). Researchers also employ norms lists as a means of selecting productive stimuli for further WA tests. To measure lexical organisation in this way it is essential to avoid stimuli with strong primary responses. *Black*, for example, usually elicits *white* to the exclusion of almost all other responses. These strong primary responses mask individual respondents' typical response patterns and prevent researchers from uncovering the characteristics that make up subjects' individual response profiles (see Fitzpatrick, 2009; Higginbotham, 2010). Despite the perceived utility of native speakers' response data for L2 research, there are a number of arguments against this that need to be considered. These criticisms come from within the fields of language testing, applied linguistics, and from broader linguistic and sociolinguistic spheres.

First of all, recent WA studies involving native English respondents have found that native responses are not homogeneous and vary over time (Fitzpatrick, 2007). Bachman (as cited in Meara, 2009, p. 51) summarizes the argument: "The language use of native speakers has frequently been suggested as a criterion of absolute language ability, but this is inadequate because native speakers show considerable variation in ability". Indeed, in a test of productive vocabulary, Meara (2009, Chapter 4) found that 18 of 48 NNS were able to outperform NS participants. Furthermore, only six of 48 NS subjects were able to outperform the highest-scoring NNS respondent. McNamara (1996) also found wide-ranging scores for native-speaking respondents on a standardized test of English (IELTS) with many performing more poorly than NNS test-takers. This heterogeneity in native speakers' abilities and WA response patterns calls into question the validity and generalizability of studies where L2 proficiency was measured in terms of native-likeness (e.g., Kruse et al., 1987; Schmitt, 1998). Indeed, this may account for the inconsistencies revealed by Fitzpatrick (2007) in the findings of prior WA research.

The second argument against the use of native speakers' WA responses, often made by researchers in Japan and other EFL contexts in particular, is that normative response data has been compiled from English-L1 populations that differ too greatly from their NNS subjects. These differences may

be demographic ones (e.g., age differences across groups) or geo-cultural (e.g., knowledge of expressions and slang drawn from popular songs, films, etc. available in one population's community, but not in the other). This argument is particularly important for researchers attempting to utilize normative data as a means of identifying productive cues for further research. As above, stimuli that elicit strong primary responses may not be useful in uncovering the response profiles of individual subjects. However, basing selection of WA stimuli in second language research on NS norms may also be misguided. While *black* may elicit *white* from a majority of NS respondents this may not be the case with NNS respondents as word pairs may be learned and utilized via different processes across populations. Norms derived from the same communities as the learners in question would increase accuracy in identifying and filtering out such unproductive stimuli. This issue is both a cultural/linguistic one and a temporal one. The norms lists cited above were all compiled in either the UK or the US, and even the most recent ones were constructed while current university-level cohorts were small children. Both of these factors - geographical and generational - make the employment of prior norms data less than ideal when dealing with WA responses by second language learners.

Further arguments against the continued use of native WA norms stem from both applied linguistics and sociolinguistics perspectives. From the applied linguistics side, Fitzpatrick (2009) found that as proficiency increased, L2 response patterns of learners of Welsh became more similar to their own L1 (English) response profiles, *not more similar to those of native speakers*. This finding was also replicated by Racine using Japanese learners of English (see Fitzpatrick & Racine, 2013), providing more support for the notion that perhaps the comparison of L2 learners' responses to those of natives is a priori misguided.

A fourth, sociolinguistic, argument against the use of native norms in WA research also follows from these findings: It may simply be inappropriate to use "native-like proficiency" as the ultimate goal of second language learning. The conventional comparison of learner data to native norms, it has been argued, may lead to the characterization of learners as "deficient communicators" (Mauranen, 2011, p. 159) and to the labelling of non-native usage as "failure to become native speakers" (Cook, 1999, p. 195). The potentially debilitating effects of the adoption of this kind of deficit model of language learning should be clear to all second-language teacher-researchers.

Finally, even if it were appropriate to compare learner responses to those of natives, there are obvious differences in word frequencies, collocations, spelling, usage, and the meanings of words among the many varieties of English employed throughout the world. Mexican learners of English are routinely compared to native users of American English while data from English learners in France are compared to the norms of the UK. In such cases, where it is clear which variety of English an L2 group is aiming to acquire, there may be some justification in using a particular norms list. For many L2 groups however, such as Japanese learners, it is not obvious which norms list would be most suitable. Once again, this points to the use of data derived from comparable populations, better matched to the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the learners.

Taking these arguments into account, we propose the creation of a database of high-ability *learner* WA norms.

Respondents are to be Japanese learners of English. This would yield data appropriate for use by researchers in Japan who conduct WA research involving samples of Japanese NNS subjects. We fully acknowledge that some of the pitfalls concerning native norms lists outlined above may also adversely affect NNS normative data. Foremost among these is the issue of within-group variability. Just as native-speaker data may exhibit a wide range of proficiency levels on a given language task (see above; McNamara, 1996; Meara, 2009), so too may NNS data. For this reason, it will be necessary to collect second-language proficiency data (as well as other demographic data) and to categorize respondents as "high-ability" utilizing a rather restricted set of criteria. This may take the form of a narrow range of scores on a standardized proficiency test (e.g., TOEIC scores of only 900 to 990).

While the details of this project are yet to be formalized, it is likely that stimuli will initially be selected from the New General Service List (Browne, 2013) and the New Academic Vocabulary List (Gardner & Davies, 2014). Later, stimuli may also be selected from frequently elicited responses to previous cues, thus yielding a richer picture of individual respondents' associative networks. Although the survey may be administered on paper, it is expected that the majority of data collection will be conducted via a dedicated website. Subsequently, the results would be made available via a searchable online site, allowing interested researchers to access and download the data.

If you are a Japanese learner of English, or teach a group of high-ability Japanese learners, and wish to participate in this project, please contact the authors via the email address above.

References:

- Browne, C. (2013). The New General Service List: Celebrating 60 years of vocabulary learning. *The Language Teacher*, 37(4), 13-16.
- Cook, V. (1999). Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(2), 185-209.
- Fitzpatrick, T. (2007). Word association patterns: Unpacking the assumptions. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 17, 319-331. doi: 10.1111/j.1473-4192.2007.00172.x
- Fitzpatrick, T. (2009). Word association profiles in a first and second language: Puzzles and problems. In T. Fitzpatrick & A. Barfield (Eds.), *Lexical processing in second language learners* (pp. 38-52). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Fitzpatrick, T., & Racine, J. P. (2013). *Using L1 performance profiles as an alternative to native speaker norms*. Paper presented at the British Association of Applied Linguistics, Herriot-Watt University, UK.
- Gardner, D., & Davies, M. (2014). A New Academic Vocabulary List. *Applied Linguistics*, 35(3), 305-327. doi: 10.1093/applin/amt015
- Higginbotham, G. (2010). Individual learner profiles from word association tests: The effect of word frequency. *System*, 38, 379-390.
- Kent, G. H., & Rosanoff, A. J. (1910). A study of association in insanity. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 67, 37-96.
- Kiss, G. R., Armstrong, C., Milroy, R., & Piper, J. (1973). An associative thesaurus of English and its computer analysis. In J. Aitken, R. W. Bailey & N. Hamilton Smith (Eds.), *The Computer and Literary Studies*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Kruse, H., Pankhurst, M., & Sharwood Smith, M. (1987). A multiple word association probe in second language acquisition research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 9, 141-154.

Mauranen, A. (2011). Learners and users: Who do we want corpus data from? In F. Meunier, S. De Cock, G. Gilquin & M. Paquot (Eds.), *A taste for corpora* (pp. 155-171). Amsterdam: Benjamins.

McNamara, T. F. (1996). *Measuring second language performance*. London: Longman.

Meara, P. (1996). The dimensions of lexical competence. In G. Brown, K. Malmkjær & J. Williams (Eds.), *Performance and competence in second language acquisition* (pp. 35-53). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Meara, P. (2009). *Connected words: word associations and second language vocabulary acquisition*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Moss, H., & Older, L. (1996). *Birkbeck word association norms*. East Sussex, UK: Psychology Press.

Nelson, D. L., McEvoy, C. L., & Schreiber, T. A. (1998). The University of South Florida word association, rhyme, and word fragment norms. <http://www.usf.edu/FreeAssociation>

Postman, L., & Keppel, G. (Eds.). (1970). *Norms of word association*. New York: Academic Press.

Schmitt, N. (1998). Quantifying word association responses: What is native-like? *System*, 26, 389-401.

Measuring university student interest in vocabulary

Andrew Thompson
thompson@ip.kyusan-u.ac.jp

Background

Interest is a psychological state that is characterized by an affective area of positive emotion and the cognitive area of active concentration (Hidi & Renninger, 2006). Research into student interest has shown the positive benefits interest may have on learner outcomes. Firstly, interest holds a central position in both the intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation (Deci, 1992) of students. Secondly, interest affects how students engage with course content and to what extent course content is actively and cognitively processed (Hidi, 1990; Schiefele, 1999). Finally, interest has been found to play a part in what students choose to learn (Garner, 1992; Alexander, 1996) and may positively influence students’ persistence and attentiveness in classroom activities (Ainley, Hidi, Berndorff, 2002).

Given the importance that interest plays as a powerful educational construct it is surprising that limited research has been conducted on interest relating to learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Japan. Learning a language generally requires students to study numerous aspects of a language, most importantly grammar and vocabulary (Folse, 2004). With compulsory English courses in Japan focusing on students learning high frequency vocabulary lists it is essential that greater research be done on student interest in relation to classroom vocabulary activities in order to identify, develop and implement classroom activities that truly interest students.

Aims

This pilot study has two main aims:

(1) to create and validate items measuring students personal and situational interest in English, and (2) to determine whether a student’s level of interest in a vocabulary activity is related to their language proficiency.

The use of valid survey items at various levels of language proficiency, may provide useful insights in better customizing both vocabulary activities, with the ultimate aim of increasing student vocabulary gains in a compulsory English program.

Method

Participants

Data was collected in June 2014 from 408 students (212 first-year students and 196 second-year students) at a private coed Japanese university. These participants were from various majors enrolled in a compulsory English program, with TOEIC Bridge scores ranging from 60 to 180.

The central goal of this two-year English program is for students on completion to achieve a TOEIC Bridge score of over 140. In order to assist students reach this central goal, the 1,600 most frequent spoken and written English words selected from the Longman Eiwa Jiten are presented to students over 15 weeks each term. Teachers require students to complete a vocabulary notebook each week followed by a weekly vocabulary quiz.

Table 1.
Student Groupings Based on TOEIC Bridge Scores

Group	Student year	TOEIC Bridge score
1	First-year	60-90
2	First-year	90-110
3	Second-year	90-110
4	Second-year	110-140
5	Second-year	140-180

Instrument

A self-report survey was administered in the 7th week of the first semester. The survey contained 12 items focused on measuring student interest in a specific vocabulary activity. Students were asked to rate each interest statement on a 6-point Likert scale from *Not true at all* to *Very true for me*.

Vocabulary activity

The vocabulary activity was presented to students in a timed PowerPoint presentation (2-5 seconds per slide immediately followed by the correct answer) to maintain consistency across classes and limit teacher effect. The activity consisted of three parts covering 30 vocabulary items (taken randomly from 5, 40-word vocabulary lists the students had previously been exposed to in class) requiring students to recall both Japanese and English meaning. In part one students were shown 10 slides with each slide containing one English word and three Japanese multiple choice options. In part two students were shown 10 slides with an English sentence with one target word missing with three English multiple-choice options. In part three students were shown 10 slides with an English word missing the first letter and some following letters of the word and two Japanese meanings. Students then had to identify the

missing first letter. This vocabulary activity was conducted the week before students had their mid-semester vocabulary test containing 50 questions.

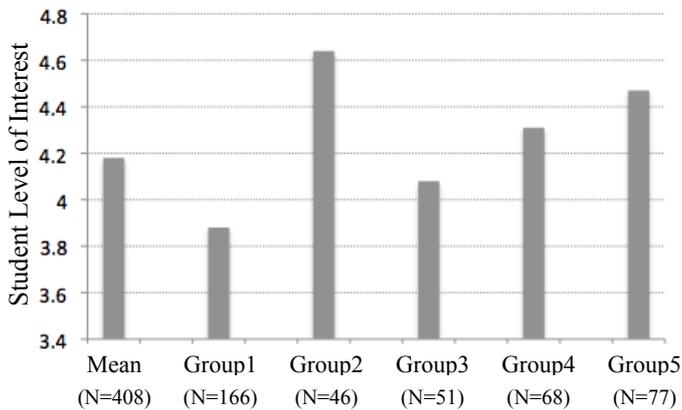


Figure 1. Student Level of Interest in Vocabulary Mean Results

Survey items

1. I was fully focused reviewing vocabulary in this activity.
2. Reviewing vocabulary in this activity was interesting.
3. The vocabulary in this activity is useful for me to know.
4. The vocabulary in this activity is personally meaningful.
5. I enjoyed completing this vocabulary activity.
6. I learnt vocabulary while completing this activity.
7. I liked completing this vocabulary activity.
8. I had fun reviewing vocabulary in this activity.
9. Completing this vocabulary activity was interesting.
10. I was fully focused while completing this vocabulary activity.
11. This kind of vocabulary activity is useful for me.
12. I enjoyed reviewing vocabulary in this activity.

Preliminary results

An Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFA) was conducted using Mplus version 7. The EFA clearly identified a single-factor that was in alignment with the hypothesized interest on the following 6 items.

Student interest survey items

4. The vocabulary in this activity is personally meaningful.
5. I enjoyed completing this vocabulary activity.
6. I learnt vocabulary while completing this activity.
7. I liked completing this vocabulary activity.
9. Completing this vocabulary activity was interesting.
12. I enjoyed reviewing vocabulary in this activity.

Figure 1 shows the difference in the level of interest across groups. Although it seems as though there is a general tendency that the interest level is higher among higher proficiency students, the intermediate students (Group 2) show the highest levels of interest among the five groups. This may be due to intermediate students (Group 2) finding the vocabulary activity more inline with their level of English and therefore more interesting than both low students (Group 1) and high students (Group 5). It could also be the case that high students (Group 5) found the activity too easy resulting in lower levels of interest than intermediate students (Group 2) and low students (Group 1)

found the activity too difficult resulting in levels below the samples mean. The most thought-provoking discrepancy illustrated in Figure 1 is the fact that both groups of intermediate students (Group 2 and Group 3) show a clear difference in levels of interest at the same proficiency level. This may relate to variables including: university year, class size, student motivation, and teacher effect. The impact of such variables will need to be considered in greater detail in future studies.

Preliminary conclusions

Based on the simple data analysis in Figure 1 it is evident that student interest in the vocabulary activity between the lowest proficiency group (Group 1) and highest proficiency group (Group 5) did vary as anticipated. However, as stated in the previous paragraph across all five groups there was not a consistent increase in student interest inline with the levels of English proficiency at a group level. Further research will need to be conducted over the coming semester in order to further investigate the possible link between language proficiency and student interest in a Japanese university context.

Future directions

The results presented above suggest that student interest in a specific vocabulary activity and their English language proficiency may be related. However, it is necessary to continue to develop the measure to include value and knowledge components in order to gain a broader understanding of students personal and situational interest and the impact together they play on student interest at a domain, course and vocabulary activity level. Finally, this study was solely quantitative in nature, so in future studies a qualitative element will be introduced in the form of open questions to greater understand student interest in relation to the vocabulary activities.

References

Ainley, M., Hidi, S., & Berndorff, D. (2002). Interest, learning, and the psychological processes that mediate their relationship. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94*(3), 545-561. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.94.3.545

Deci, E. L. (1992). The relation of interest to the motivation of behavior: a self-determination theory perspective. In K. A. Renninger, S. Hidi, & A. Krapp (Eds.), *The role of interest in learning and development* (pp. 43-70). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Folse, K. S. (2004). *Vocabulary myths*. The University of Michigan Press.

Hidi, S. (1990). Interest and its contribution as a mental resource for learning. *Review of Educational Research, 60*(4), 549-571. doi: 10.3102/00346543060004549

Hidi, S., & Renninger, K. A. (2006). The four-phase model of interest development. *Educational Psychologist, 41*(2), 111-127. doi: 10.1207/s15326985ep4102_4

Schiefele, U. (1999). Interest and learning from text. *Scientific Studies Reading 3*, 257-280. doi: 10.1207/s1532799xssr0303_4



SIG News

JALT National

The Vocabulary SIG will hold two events at JALT National in Tsukuba this year: (1) Our SIG Forum and (2) the Annual General Meeting (AGM). At the SIG Forum you can see the poster presentations from our members on many different aspects of vocabulary learning and teaching, as well as talk with people interested in all things vocabulary. At the AGM we will discuss what has been happening with the SIG over the last year and confirm our officers for the upcoming year. Also, you can find out more about the annual SIG symposium and other events, and various ways for you to participate in the SIG. If you have any questions please email jaltvocab@gmail.com. Here are the details of the two events:

Title: Vocabulary SIG Forum Poster Session

Day: Sunday, November 23rd

Time: 12:25 PM - 1:55 PM

Room: 1st Floor Atrium

Presenters: Vocabulary SIG members

Title: Vocabulary SIG Annual General Meeting

Day: Sunday, November 23rd

Time: 11:30 AM - 12:15 PM

Room: Rm 102

Presenters: Vocabulary SIG officers

Call for Participation

If you are a SIG member and have a poster presentation that you would like to display (on the topic of vocabulary) at the Vocabulary SIG Forum at JALT National please contact us. Email your name, poster title and a short description of your poster to jaltvocab@gmail.com.

See you there!

**VLI Submission
Deadline**

CALL FOR PAPERS FOR VOCABULARY LEARNING & INSTRUCTION

The Vocabulary SIG's *Vocabulary Learning and Instruction* (VLI) journal is calling for submissions for an upcoming issue. Submissions will be published online upon acceptance, and printed in 2015.

VLI accepts long-form research papers (2000-7000 words) and brief reports, summaries and commentaries (2000-3000 words) related to vocabulary acquisition, pedagogy, assessment and lexical networks.

As an open journal, content is indexed on Google Scholar and made freely available on the internet without paywalls. Authors are free to also make their work available on sites such as academia.edu and researchgate.

The deadline for submissions for this print issue is Wednesday, December 31, 2014 (at 23:59:59 JST).

All submissions are subject to a 2-step peer-review process:

A) Editors review manuscripts to ensure basic requirements are met, and that the work is of sufficient quality to merit external review. This process typically takes 1-2 weeks, at which point authors are informed of the outcome.

B) Submissions which meet these requirements are sent out for blind peer review by 2-3 experts in the field. This process takes approximately 1-2 months. Following external review, authors are sent copies of external reviewers' comments and notified of decisions (*accept, accept pending changes, revise and resubmit, or reject*).

Please see <http://vli-journal.org/submissions.html> for details.



2015 JALT VOCABULARY SIG SYMPOSIUM

Proposed date: Saturday June 20, 2015

Place: Kyushu Sangyo University

Featured Discussants: Dr. Stuart Webb & Dr. Rie Koizumi

Symposium 1: Vocabulary Learning

Lunch and Poster Sessions

Symposium 2: Vocabulary Assessment

Call for Posters:

In order to ensure a strong audience, no sessions will run concurrent to poster presentations. Proposals for poster presentations will be accepted under two general categories:

1. Ongoing vocabulary related research
2. Vocabulary teaching and learning in practice

Submission:

Please e-mail 1) your name, 2) presentation title, and 3) a brief outline of your proposed topic (not exceeding 300 words), to <jaltvocab[at]gmail.com>

Structured formats for poster presentation proposals:

Ongoing research format:

- Background
- Aims
- Methods
- Sample
- Preliminary results
- Preliminary conclusions
- Future directions

Teaching and learning in practice:

- Theoretical framework
- Sample population
- Procedure
- Preliminary results
- Preliminary conclusions
- Future directions

Deadline: March 30th, 2015

~~~~~

Accepted poster presenters will be invited to submit written synopses of their presentation for publication in VERB 4(2), which is scheduled to be published in Fall 2015. A call for papers will be sent upon poster acceptance notification. No publication is guaranteed.

## Job Openings at KSU

Kyushu Sangyo University's Language Education and Research Center (LERC) is currently accepting applications for full-time staff in Fukuoka City.

As vocabulary plays a key component in the center's curricula, vocabulary researchers in particular are welcome to apply. The LERC welcomes both full-time and adjunct faculty to conduct educational research and pursue PhDs during their term of employment. Several contract faculty members have based doctoral thesis investigations on issues related to the center's teaching and learning context and published in national and international journals on issues related to L2 vocabulary research.

The initial term is 4 years, with renewals up to 10 years possible. Competitive salary and benefits offered. For general inquiries and application materials:

Web: <http://lerc.kyusan-u.ac.jp/more/jobs/>

Contact: Jeff Stewart <[jeffjrstewart@gmail.com](mailto:jeffjrstewart@gmail.com)>

## VERB SUBMISSION INFORMATION

### Short Papers

- Contributions to Short papers and Word of Mouth sections must not exceed 1000 words, excluding references and titles. They are expected to adhere to APA 6th edition formatting guidelines. All submissions will undergo peer review, and may require rewriting and resubmission for acceptance.

- Submission deadline: **January 10th**

### Event Info

- If you know of a vocabulary-related event, or if you are planning to organize an event, let us know so we can get the word out for you!

Please send submissions to:  
[jaltvocabsig.verb@gmail.com](mailto:jaltvocabsig.verb@gmail.com)

For more information: <http://jaltvocab.weebly.com>

### Special Thanks to VERB Reviewers

Since its inauguration, VERB has greatly benefited from the following reviewers for ensuring the quality of its papers. Here we would like to send our gratitude to the reviewers who were involved in Volumes 1, 2, and 3.

Phil Bennett  
David Coulson  
Aaron Gibson

Masaya Kaneko  
Emile Masson  
Tatsuya Nakata

John Racine  
Rachael Ruegg  
Jeff Stewart

Tim Stoeckel  
Raymond Stubbe

### Call for VERB Editors

We are putting out a call for two VERB editors. The main responsibilities of a VERB editor include:

1. Sending out calls for papers
2. Managing the review process
3. Formatting and editing material for publication.

We are planning for the new editors to start in December, and co-edit Vol. 4(1) with one of the current editors (Tomoko Ishii). The new editors will take over from the subsequent issue, Vol. 4(2) in fall of 2015.

If you are interested, please send us an e-mail at [jaltvocabsig.verb\[at\]gmail.com](mailto:jaltvocabsig.verb[at]gmail.com) no later than October 31st, 2014.