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TE PUĀWAITANGA O TE PUAWĀNANGA

EDITORIAL

I haere mai koutou i whea?
I haere mai koutou i te whakaotinuku, i te whakaotirangi.
Ko ngō koutou manawa e!
Ko ngō mātou manawa e!
Tāne ka irihia –
Whano! Whano!
Haere mai te toki!
Haumi e!
Hui e!
Taiki e!

E kīa ana te kōrero ko Te Arikini te Pouaru o tēnei mea o Mate. Kei runga kei ōna pakihwi aua tapu katoa, otirā ko tōna pāpā a Tūmate nō mua tata noa ake nei i tukuna ai ki roto ki ngā kōiwi o ōna mātua Kāhui Ariki, o ōna tūpuna Rārangi Kīngi – nō reira e te Pou Ariki o te Kīngitanga, te rūrūhau o ngā hapū huhua, te hoa o te iti, o te rahi – moe mai i te murau o te tini, te wenerau o te mano, ki runga ki te maunga whakahī ki Taupiri, ki te taha o te wai kaukau, wai ora o ngā mātua tūpuna, Waikato, ki te aroaro o te Kaihanga, haere – e kore e ea ngā mihi ki ēnei whārangi ruarua kau, heoi anō moe mai i roto i te aroha, i te rangimarie.

Ki a tātou te hunga ora – tēnā huihui tātou katoa.

With the recent passing of the Māori Queen's elderly uncle Tūmate Mahuta, we farewell an era, the 'Stone Age'. But with that farewell, we take from that passing, that past, those fertile pastures of yesteryear, patterns and models that inform our today, and if we learn our lessons well, bright futures tomorrow. Colonised indigenous peoples in their resilience, in maintaining their indigeneity, holding fast to their histories and knowledges, have become accustomed to change, and have proven themselves expert in adaptation - an even greater challenge in the globalisation scenarios of the late 20th and this, the early 21st century. Partnerships, some equal, some not; of peoples, of places, of times, Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow, the Human Condition, examined, ruminated upon, some aspects digested, some expunged.

The leading article exemplifies this. Frederick Rohorua provides a fascinating Solomon Islander's perspective on the process of national development policy and planning in Solomon Islands from independence from Great Britain in 1978 through to the end of the twentieth century.

The next two articles are by researchers based in Aotearoa/New Zealand. In the first of these, a group of researchers from a range of different educational backgrounds, Ted Glynn, Mere Berryman, Hiro Grace and Vin Glynn, describe the positive outcomes of a home and school literacy partnership involving a mainstream primary school in Aotearoa/New Zealand where the majority of students, teachers and whānau (family and extended family members) belong to a single Māori hapū (sub-tribe). In

the second, Lorene Earnshaw, Stewart Fleming, Victoria Weatherall and Alistair Knott from Otago University report on a study of lexical and grammatical errors made by a specific group of learners of Māori, providing an interesting and potentially extremely useful approach to the analysis and categorization of these errors.

Finally, we have an article in which Wu, Hsiao-li from Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages in Taiwan, reports on an experiment designed to test the hypothesis that direct grammar instruction has a positive impact on the test performance of learners of English as a foreign language. Comparison of the results of a pilot study and of the experimental study itself leads Hsiao-li to raise issues about research on teaching and learning second and foreign languages that is based on single experiments (as is so often the case). She cautions against accepting too uncritically the reported results of such experiments, noting that teachers of languages (international, community and indigenous) need to be sure that experimentally-based research is both robust and of direct relevance to the particular contexts in which they work, something that is often of particular importance for Pacific and Pacific-rim countries where the teaching and learning of languages can have implications not only for economic success, but, in the case of indigenous languages, for the very survival of these languages.

Thank you to all our contributors with their fascinating perspectives. More grist for the mill. More for you, the reader, and yours to reflect upon in the 'Ao Hurihuri' – the ever-changing world -

Tihei mauri ora!

Tom Roa
Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao

Between rhetoric and reality: A retrospective look at national development policy and planning in Solomon Islands in the 1980s and 90s.

Frederick Isom Rohorua

Doctoral Student

Te Aka Whanaketanga (*Development Studies*)

Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao (*The School of Māori and Pacific Development*)

Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato (*University of Waikato*)

Private Bag 3105, Hamilton, New Zealand

[fir3@waikato.ac.nz]

Abstract

When Solomon Islands gained political independence from Great Britain in 1978, the majority of Solomon Islanders believed that this provided an opportunity to work towards the creation of a prosperous society. They also believed that central government and national leaders could, and should, take primary responsibility for social and economic development. At the same time, it was clear to the new government from the beginning that participation of indigenous Solomon Islanders in the private sector was critical for social and economic development. This paper examines the process of national development policy and planning in the 1980s and 90s in the Solomon Islands, showing how the initial optimism, fuelled by political rhetoric, became tempered over time as awareness of the realities of the Solomon Islands context increased and as this awareness began to be reflected in more realistic planning and planning forecasts.

Introduction

When Solomon Islands gained political independence in 1978, one of the expectations of all Solomon Islanders was that a prosperous Solomon Islands society would be created. As a result of British colonisation, Solomon Islands had become grafted onto the global market system and capitalist economy. Political independence was an unprecedented opportunity because, for the first time in the modern history of Solomon Islands, Solomon Islanders themselves were given responsibility for deciding their own future, especially regarding social and economic development. In this newly formed nation, responsibility for helping to bring about development was left essentially in the hands of national leaders and central government. This overwhelming responsibility was to occupy the minds of the leaders of the young nation throughout its first two-decades of political independence.

Solomon Islands: A brief overview

Solomon Islands territory is located between 5 and 13 degrees s.l., and 155.5 and 170.5 degrees e.l. (SI CDC, 1990, p. 2). It is one of the major island groups of Melanesia and was the largest of Britain's tropical dependences in Oceania (Boutilier, 1981, p. 264). The group is an island archipelago which consists of six large mountainous continental islands or island clusters of volcanic origin – Choiseul, Santa Isabel, Guadalcanal, Malaita, and San Cristobal (or Makira) (Boutilier, 1981, p. 264). Extending over 60,000 sq. km of sea, the scattered archipelago is oriented from the northwest to the southeast, and extends over 1,400 km from one extremity to the other with a total land area of 29,785 sq. km (Douglas & Douglas, 1994, pp. 582-283). Of the six major islands, Guadalcanal is the largest and is also where the nation's national

capitol, Honiara, is located. Solomon Islands is the second largest country in the South Pacific region in terms of land mass (after Papua New Guinea) and is third overall in terms of population, with approximately 400,000 people, PNG having approximately 4.5 million and Fiji approximately 800,000 (Lal & Fortune, 2000; Crocombe, 2001).

National development in Solomon Islands: From optimism to concern

Solomon Islands gained political independence from Britain on 7th July 1978. Leading up to that auspicious moment, the architects of the pre-independence *Solomon Islands National Development Plan 1975-1979* (SI NDP, 1975-79) noted that:

Most of the developed private sector is owned and controlled by non-Solomon Islanders; ... A sustained breakthrough into the developed sector by local enterprise depends on supplies of commercial know-how and financial capital which so far have been hard to obtain in combination (S.I. NDP, 1975 Vol.1, Ch. 6, p. 48).

The Solomon Islands had been a British Protectorate since 1893. The establishment of colonial administration in 1896 through the arrival of an acting Resident Commissioner and, more particularly, its development before and after World War II, primarily through plantation agriculture by large foreign companies, had contributed to the exclusion of indigenous Solomon Islanders from the developed sector (Bennett, 1987). Non-Solomon Islanders controlled the economy at independence. Although they included a few European traders who had remained after the war, the majority were Chinese general merchants from Hong Kong, many of whom were descendants of Chinese migrants who came to Solomon Islands after the war and initially worked as cooks, carpenters and mechanics. These people had helped to rebuild the devastated economy (Bennett, 1987). By the time of political independence from Britain in 1978, the descendants of these Chinese migrants, together with Chinese migrants who arrived later, had already established themselves in the wholesale and retail sectors. They had played, and would continue to play, a significant role in the market economy of independent Solomon Islands. As the country stood at the threshold of political independence, it was this situation that motivated the architects of the *Solomon Islands National Development Plan 1975 – 1979* to call for a substantial breakthrough of indigenous Solomon Islanders into the developed sector. Only then would independence be economically as well as politically meaningful to indigenous people. There was, however, a further issue that was of very considerable significance, particularly in view of the fact that the majority of Solomon Islanders lived – and continue to live – in rural areas. As noted in the *Solomon Islands National Development Plan 1975 – 1979*:

No commercial activity has been deliberately located away from Honiara so far, except for those which could not be located in Honiara anyway. . . . There is a widespread assumption that all manufacturing and processing activities will take place in Honiara; continuance of this trend would run against the government's overall objectives (S.I. NDP, 1975, Vol.1, Ch. 3, p. 19).

Thus in 1975, at a time when Solomon Islands had, in preparation for full independence, a Governing Council headed by a Chief Minister, the government of the day recognized that only by encouraging indigenous Solomon Islanders to engage

in private sector activities would it be possible to disperse economic development to the rural areas and thus enhance the socio-economic development of the majority of Solomon Islanders. Clearly, government recognized the need for:

a deliberate slanting of economic development into operations which can be owned, wholly or partly, by Solomon Islanders as individuals or groups; special credit arrangements to assist local companies and co-operatives to develop and expand; [improvement of] commercial law so that local firms can comply with it; and the closure of some forms of activity to non-Solomon Islanders (S.I. NDP, 1975, Vol.2, Part 1, Section 2, p. 2).

On the whole, government was optimistic about the future and committed to ensuring that the indigenous population took advantage of opportunities to reap maximum benefit from the nation's resources. As indigenous leaders stood at the threshold of the assumption of leadership from the British colonial administrators, all of this seemed possible. In an overly optimistic tone, government, through the development planners, stated that one of its major objectives was "to build a national economic structure which extends local ownership and control to all key areas of the economy" (S.I. NDP, 1975, Vol.2, Part 2, Section 2, p. 7). It seems unlikely that those involved at the time were fully aware of the enormous undertaking such a commitment involved. In hindsight, the *Solomon Islands National Development Plan 1975 – 1979* was accurate in diagnosing the problems that needed to be addressed but, so far as actual planning for change was concerned, overly optimistic about the possibilities. Overall, the document expresses, through the rhetoric of political independence, the excitement and enthusiasm of a youthful nation.

Even so, there *were* attempts to determine what measures were necessary for bringing about the desired changes. One of these was to be 'affirmative action' in the form of direct assistance by way of incentive schemes for Solomon Islanders (S.I. NDP, 1975, Vol.2, Part 2, Section 2, p. 7). It is, for example, noted in the National Development Plan (Section 14: Business and Credit) that one of the government's aims was to expand business activity by (indigenous) Solomon Islanders, whether as a group or as individuals (S.I. NDP, 1975, Vol.2, Part 2, Section 14, p. 28). Some of the principle methods of achieving this intended expansion were:

- Licensing of businesses in selected sectors so as to remove imbalances and ensure openings for local enterprise.
- Reservation for local enterprise of service industry openings in any major new commercial development e.g. mining.
- Commercial activity by local councils where services or production are needed but local individual or group enterprise is not forthcoming.
- Introduction of tax incentives for localization of jobs and ownership, decentralization, pricing policies and use of locally produced inputs (S.I. NDP, 1975, Vol.2, Part 2, Section 14, p. 28).

This was an impressive undertaking. In retrospect, however, it is evident that one major problem was that government stability – as is also the case in the neighboring Melanesian countries of Vanuatu and Papua New Guinea – could not be assured. Furthermore, the National Development Plan left government and development planners open to the charge of advocating discriminatory practices. Even so, for any

country in the embryonic stages of nation building, policies of the kind to which reference has been made may be necessary and, hence, justifiable. The economic prescriptions in the NDP would, it was hoped, lay the foundations of, and, presumably, create the ideal catalyst for social and economic development in the 'birth' and 'growth' of a new nation. The intention was that by 1978 (the year of political independence), a substantial part of the private sector would be owned and operated by indigenous Solomon Islanders (S.I. NDP, 1975, Vol.2, Part 2, Section 14, p. 28). Whether government and the development planners really believed that their prescriptions could be implemented within this timeframe is open to question. In the event, as we now know, the timeframe proved to be unrealistic and the strategies themselves now appear to be ill adapted to the political and social circumstances of the time.

Disappointment

In June 1977, when a review of the National Development Plan (1975-79) was carried out, it was noted that:

Most of the developed commercial sector is owned and controlled by non-Solomon Islanders. The [non-commercial] sector is owned by nationals, but is subject to considerable influence by the developed sector (June Review, 1977, p. 2).

Even so, it was decided then that no major alterations would be made to the NDP. In the *Foreword* of the NDP review, the then Chief Minister, Peter Kenilorea - now Sir Peter Kenilorea - who took over after the first Chief Minister, Solomon Mamaloni, resigned, wrote: "The Plan covers a five year period and it is not the intention of this Government to replace it with a totally new one before that period expires. To do so would not only be costly but also most unrealistic" (June Review, 1977, Foreword). As signalled in the review, in the Area of Business and Credit at least, efforts to assist indigenous people to venture into business would continue over the next three years:

The Business Advisory division will continue to encourage indigenous business ventures where the experience and expertise promises a reasonable chance of success. However, much of its efforts will be in continuing to help raising the level of management and accounting skills of existing businesses, particularly the larger ones that make the most significant contribution to the indigenous business sector (June Review, 1977, p. 21).

The tone is less optimistic than that of the NDP itself. Nevertheless, some optimism remained. If deficiencies in the areas of management and accounting skills were identified and addressed, all might still be well. Although the report notes the absence of indigenous business enterprise, it does not identify the underlying causes. Instead, the Chief Minister noted that there had been "[insufficient] time to assess and realize the effects of programs implemented at the beginning of the period" (Foreword, June Review, 1977).

Renewed optimism

By 1980, when the next National Development Plan was produced, the first Solomon Islands Prime Minister, Peter Kenilorea, was in office. He had this to say in his Foreword to the new National Development Plan:

Since we became a fully independent nation on 7 July 1978 this is the first opportunity we have had to shape the overall direction of our own development. This is our greatest challenge and all of us, from politicians in the national legislature and civil servants in the government to the rural gardener and fisherman, must try to make the fullest use of this opportunity. From a national planning point of view, this is the very first time that we, in our own right, have made the decisions about the activities we intend to do for our overall benefit both as a people and as a nation. This plan, therefore, is our First National Development Plan (NDP 1980-84, 1980, Vol.1, Foreword).

In similar vein, he went on to stress that:

The previous plan – NDP 1975-79 was drawn up during a transitional period and it has certain programs and projects which will continue into this new plan period. But, apart from this, if we are to connect our new plan to the previous one by adopting substantially the same philosophy and aims, we will have done so little in our need for effective and positive decolonization: which is to free ourselves from those aspects of our colonial past that hinder our progress and development as an independent and forward-going people (NDP 1980-84, 1980, Vol.1, Foreword).

Those aspects of the “colonial past that hinder . . . progress and development” were not made explicit. However, it was evident from the context that reference was being made to the economic dominance of non-indigenous people and that the intention was to encourage indigenous Solomon Islanders to play a more active role in both the private and public sectors.

The Prime Minister’s remarks signalled that political independence was to be the beginning of a process of political, social and economic development for Solomon Islanders. However, although the previous NDP (1975-79) had specific provisions relating to the engagement of indigenous Solomon Islanders in the private sector, the 1980-84 NDP did not. This was, at least in part, because there was “little detailed statistical information available on the nature and scale of Solomon Islander industrial and commercial activity (NDP 1980-84, 1980, Vol.1, Ch. 5, p. 102). Also, the emphasis was now on rural development, as indicated in the Foreword by the Prime Minister:

In this plan we intend to do much more for our people. We intend to bring development to areas of the greatest need and where development will be acceptable to the people. . . . The basic [objective] (sic) of this plan is to promote effective rural development which will provide the opportunity for as many of our people as is possible to share in the benefits of our country’s development (NDP 1980-84, 1980 Vol.1, Foreword).

What this meant in practice was that Government would play a much greater role in the political, social and economic development of the new nation Solomon Islands.

This National Development strategy was to have been given coded expression in the country's National Development Plan 1985-89 which stipulated, under the heading of Social and Economic Progress, that "Government will continue to actively participate in strategic areas of the economy" (NDP 1985-89, 1985, Part 1, Ch. 3, p.18).

The 1985-89 National Development Plan (NDP) placed greater emphasis than did the earlier ones on indigenous business entrepreneurship:

The development of indigenous entrepreneurship will be encouraged and fostered whilst genuine foreign investment with significant local participation and employment in production activities will be encouraged and supported (NDP 1985-89, 1985, Part 1, Ch. 3, p. 18).

In summarizing the existing situation (in 1985), the planners noted that:

19.4 The Government initiated its support of business development in the mid 1970s with emphasis on trade stores which were the predominant type of business. In recent years the scope of the assistance has expanded to include petrol depots, transport business and other types of ventures ... [including] agricultural, fisheries and forestry ... (NDP 1985-89, 1985, Part 2, Ch. 19, p. 140).

Immediately after that summary, however, a number of constraints are identified:

19.5 A major constraint on both co-operative and general business development is the poor road system and inter-island shipping services, which restrict inward and outward the distribution of goods.

19.6 Inexperience in running business, including, limited management and financial skill, is also a key restraint.

19.7 The limited size of local markets and the cost and difficulties in exporting tend to increase the difficulties of developing new business (NDP 1985-89 1985, Part 2, Ch. 19, p. 140).

These acknowledged constraints related directly to Government's policy on commerce in general and indigenous business entrepreneurship in particular and were, therefore, extremely significant. There was, however, no reference to constraints of another type – constraints relating to the traditional social structures, norms and values that inevitably influence indigenous entrepreneurs and their business activities. After all, capitalist activity in general, and business entrepreneurship in particular, are relatively new to Solomon Islands, and Solomon Islanders' reaction to them will inevitably be influenced by their cultural expectations. Thus, the following strategies for promoting indigenous business enterprises and cooperatives, comprehensive though they appear to be, might not prove adequate unless there is a significant culture shift:

19.8 The primary strategy will be to promote indigenous business enterprises and co-operatives by providing potential investors with the requisite financial resources, knowledge and skills, and by actively seeking Solomon Island participation in foreign investment ventures.

19.9 A complementary strategy of the Government will be to provide an effective advisory and accounting extension service for those Solomon Islanders owned businesses and co-operative societies which cannot afford the services of private chartered accountants. ...

19.10 The Government will also organize and provide training courses and seminars, and disseminate information on business and management practice through all forms of media, including specialized publications such as booklets. Greater use will also be made of the radio as a means of keeping people informed of commercial affairs (NDP 1985-89, 1985, Part 2, Ch. 19, p. 141).

As with all things that relate to society and people generally, a National Development Plan has to be understood within a certain socio-historical and cultural context. In other words, a National Development Plan is not value-neutral. It is inevitably underpinned by a particular philosophical position. In Solomon Islands, the underlying rationale is that economic prosperity depends on economic growth and economic growth depend on entrepreneurial activity within a capitalist economic structure. This paper does not examine this assumption. Nor does it attempt to analyse in any detail the effectiveness of Solomon Islands National Development Plans (including the National Development Plan for 1990-94) although both of these are very much to the fore in the research in which I am currently engaged.

Shift in Policy

In the immediate change-over of Government from Billy Hilly to Solomon Mamaloni in late 1994, a Solomon Star editorial (23 November) had this to say in connection with the National Development Plan for 1990-94:

Running a business is a serious business. Now the Mamaloni government intends to expand the area in which indigenous Solomon Islanders can participate in business. Under its policies, strategies and program of action, it is the government's policy to "encourage more indigenous people to participate in various investments". It will reserve certain business to be taken only by indigenous Solomon Islanders. And it is the time for Solomon Islanders to work at it. But before we can dive into the unknown seas, there are certain questions we must ask ourselves. How many Solomon Islanders are prepared to try, take the risk and do something better for themselves and their families? How many Solomon Islanders will say that there is no capital to start the business? . . . Opportunities are always around, but many Solomon Islanders do not want to take the challenge . . . (Solomon Star, Wednesday 23 November 1994, p. 4).

The implication is that indigenous people are neither sufficiently enterprising, nor sufficiently willing to commit themselves to hard work, to take up the government's challenge. This is simply a reiteration of the commonly held misconception that

indigenous people are lazy and averse to risk-taking (Alatas, 1977). In this regard, Paul Gardner (1989) noted that in Melanesia generally “entrepreneurs arose in surprisingly large numbers, [but] capable Melanesian managers have been notably lacking” (p. 119). A more plausible explanation though for the under-representation of indigenous Solomon Islanders in business is that they lack, for perfectly understandable cultural and historical reasons, a clear understanding of what business actually involves. For indigenous Solomon Islanders, going into business is like diving into an unknown sea. Herein lies the dilemma facing indigenous Solomon Islanders in relation to social and economic development in general and private business enterprise in particular although some indigenous Solomon Islanders have successfully engaged in business enterprise. One example, noted by Fairburn (1988, p. 5), is Warren Paia, from the Western Province “who controls real estate, stationery, and computer businesses”. People such as Warren Paia are, however, the exception. As Fairbairn (1988) says of the handful of leading indigenous business entrepreneurs in the Pacific Islands region; they are “stars in a dull firmament” (p. 5). For many others, the temptations and the risks are simply too great. As a Solomon Star editorial observes:

Some who claim to have the skills and the know-how were successful in securing large sums of money from banks but because of their reckless spendings, they ended up in bankruptcy. Many did not want to seek sound advice. They wanted to start big (Solomon Star, Wednesday 23 November 1994, p. 4).

The consequences of this sort of business failure resonate throughout Solomon Islands. Where indigenous Solomon Islanders fail in business, the blame is placed squarely upon their own shoulders. Where they do not rise to the challenge of establishing new business enterprises, they are accused of not being sufficiently entrepreneurial. Little wonder, then, that Mamaloni’s government, which was in power at the time, noted in the Solomon Islands Trade Directory 1995 that “[specific] areas of economic activity are no longer reserved exclusively for Solomon Islanders, although foreign investors will generally have to justify their investment . . .” (SI Trade Directory, 1995, p. 65).

This apparent change of policy did not augur well for the future chances of indigenous Solomon Islanders who are brave enough to attempt to plunge into the unknown sea of business entrepreneurship. Although foreign investors were, apparently, expected to ‘justify their investment’, there was no indication of what type of justification would be considered acceptable. This was of particular concern in view of the fact that it was widely known – though rarely acknowledged – that some politicians and their cronies are involved, with the support of unscrupulous foreign investors, in a range of illicit business activities. The much publicized forestry issue and public officers’ scandal in 1996 proved to be just the tip of the iceberg although even now much of that iceberg appears to have remained submerged.¹ In retrospect, it appears that the continued dominance of the private sector by foreign investors was even more problematic than it appeared at the time when the first Solomon Islands National Development plan was penned. What we have not seen to date is any real evidence of the ‘positive decolonization’ process envisaged by the pioneering political leaders of the modern nation Solomon Islands.

Conclusion

In hindsight, it is now clear that the magnitude of the task that successive Solomon Islands leaders would have to tackle in attempting to encourage the economic development of indigenous Solomon Islanders was not fully appreciated at the time of independence. The early optimism was initially replaced by caution, and that caution has, in turn, been replaced by cynicism as it has become increasingly evident that development planning can be hijacked by those in power in order to serve their own interests and those of their collaborators (indigenous and non-indigenous). The economic and development process in the Solomon Islands in the 1980s and 1990s was eventually punctuated by the outbreak of ethnic conflict in December 1998. To what extent that conflict was actually attributable to the perceived failure of the development process itself is something that is worthy of serious consideration.

Endnotes

1. In an investigation in May 1996, it was revealed through an internal investigation in the Ministry of Finance initiated by the Honourable Prime Minister as care-taker Minister of Finance (the Honourable Minister of Finance was sick and hospitalised in Brisbane, Australia) that public servants had siphoned off \$10 million from the public purse. Consequently, 35 public officers were suspended although some were later re-instated. Sources: Solomon Star Wednesday 17 April 1996, p. 6; Solomon Star Wednesday 8 May 1996, pp. 1 & 4; Solomon Star Friday 24 May 1996, pp. 2, 6 & 8; Solomon Star Wednesday 29 May 1996, pp. 1-2, 4 & 6; Solomon Star Friday 31 May 1996, p. 4; Solomon Star Friday 7 June 1996, pp. 1 & 4; Solomon Star Tuesday 11 June 1996, p. 6; Solomon Star Thursday 13 June 1996, pp. 2 & 4; Solomon Star Friday 21 June 1996, p. 6; Solomon Star Wednesday 26 June 1996, p. 6; Solomon Star Friday 28 June 1996, pp. 1-2; Solomon Star Wednesday 18 September 1996, pp. 2 & 6; Solomon Star Friday 18 October 1996, p. 6; Solomon Star Wednesday 30 October 1996, pp. 6 & 8.

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Activating whānau (extended family) processes within a community and school literacy partnership

Ted Glynn

Te Kura Toi Tangata (The School of Education)
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato (University of Waikato)
Private Bag 3105, Hamilton, New Zealand
[glynn@waikato.ac.nz]

Mere Berryman

Ministry of Education Poutama Pounamu Education Research Centre
Welcome Bay Primary School, Tauranga.
[mere.berryman@minedu.govt.nz]

Hiro Grace

Rotorua Primary School
P.O. Box 673, Rotorua
[hgrace@xtra.co.nz]

Vin Glynn

41 Point St
Raglan, New Zealand
[vinandted@paradise.net.nz]

Abstract

The paper describes the positive outcomes of a home and school literacy partnership in one mainstream primary school where the principal and the large majority of students, teachers, and *whānau* belong to one Māori *hapū* (sub-tribe), Ngāti Whakaue. Participating students were identified by teachers as experiencing difficulties with reading and writing. They were assigned randomly to one of two conditions: (1) participating in their school's regular reading programme (school group) or (2) participating *also* in the home tutored reading and writing programme (home and school group).

Students in the home and school group improved their reading and writing outcomes over and above the outcomes achieved by students participating only in the regular school programme. There were two key reasons for the success of this partnership. The first was parents and *whānau* members successful implementation of both a Māori language reading tutoring programme, *Tatari, Tautoko Tauawhi*, and the two components of the writing programme, *Tuhi Atu Tui Mai* and *Whakaputa Whakaaro*. The second was the professional educational and cultural expertise of the home and school liaison worker, Hiro. Because of her language and cultural expertise and her *mana* (acknowledged authority and standing), Hiro was able to engage Māori parents and *whānau* actively in the home and school project. The co-constructed narrative between Hiro and Mere (the second author) provided a salient context for understanding the power of culturally preferred pedagogy in establishing effective home and school partnerships.

Introduction

While children are learning at school, they are participating in at least two major socialisation settings, home and school. McNaughton and Glynn (1998) consider that a variety of different theoretical positions can be used to talk about the nature of the relationships between home and school. These include a behaviour analysis perspective (Wheldall & Glynn, 1989), a family resource and cultural capital

approach (Nash, 1993), a developmental systems model (Tangaere, 1997), a socio-historical perspective (McNaughton, 1995), and a *kaupapa* Māori position (Smith, 1995). Socio-cultural theories of human development (Bruner, 1966; Bronfenbrenner, 1979; McNaughton, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978) also highlight the importance of the relationships between home and school for improving children's learning. Socio-cultural theories stem from the central idea that children's intellectual development and social development are tightly interwoven. Hence, students' learning and behaviour at school can be understood as an outcome of the 'interplay' between the values, beliefs and preferred behaviours they have learned at home and in their cultural communities, and the values beliefs and behaviours learned from their interactions with teachers and peers at school. Learning and behaviour at home and at school can therefore be mutually inclusive and supporting for some students or mutually exclusive and conflicting for others. There is strong general agreement across these various positions that family and school relationships are vital to children's literacy achievement at school (Glynn, Berryman & Glynn, 2000; McNaughton, 2002).

McNaughton & Glynn (1998) contend that collaboration, in the context of a home and school partnership, should ideally involve the sharing of expertise between educators and student caregivers. Further, this expertise requires shared understandings of the goals and processes that result in shared actions, which lead to reciprocal understandings and mutual benefits. Collaborative sharing of expertise between home and schools offers an effective means of addressing the issue of imbalance of power that can arise when teachers from a powerful majority language and culture impose their beliefs and understandings and their world view on students and families from a less powerful language and culture (Bishop & Glynn, 1999).

Within such collaborative home and school partnerships, Māori students should benefit from teachers employing in their classrooms a culturally linked pedagogy that promotes the inclusion and engagement not only of students and peers but also of *whānau* and community members. Writers such as Ladson-Billings, (1995) and Scheurich and Young, (1997) contend that schools need to adopt pedagogies that are congruent with the pedagogical practices of minority cultures if they are to enhance the achievement of students from those cultures. In New Zealand, collaboration between school and community is being encouraged also by the reforms recommended by the Literacy Experts Group (1999) and the recent changes to the National Education Guidelines and the National Administration Guidelines (Ministry of Education, 1999).

In the context of literacy learning in particular, Smith, (1989) cited in Quintero and Huerta-Maeras, (1990), affirms the need to re-think the significance of the social context in which literacy is best learned and the methods of instruction used. He writes that "individuals become literate not from the formal instruction they receive, but from what they read and write about and who they read and write with" (p. 353). Quintero and Huerta-Maeras were able to successfully enhance the development of literacy and biliteracy skills of a group of parents and children. Parents were empowered to utilise and connect the specific newly acquired literacy activities to their own lives in order to improve their children's literacy development.

This paper examines the effectiveness of a collaborative home and school partnership in providing a responsive, social tutoring context (Glynn, 1985) in which students

could improve their literacy skills. Māori parents and *whānau* learned to implement reading and writing tutoring programmes. The reading-tutoring programme was *Tatari Tautoko Tauawhi* (Harawira, Glynn & Durning, 1993; Glynn et al., 1996). *Tatari Tautoko Tauawhi* is an interactive tutoring programme for older readers experiencing difficulties in learning to read in Māori. It was developed in collaboration with Māori elders and Māori teachers from Ngāti Ranginui and Ngāi Te Rangi *iwi* from the English language reading-tutoring programme known as Pause Prompt Praise (Glynn, McNaughton, Robinson, & Quinn, 1979; Glynn, 1995; Glynn & McNaughton, 1985; 2002). Pause Prompt Praise tutoring involves first *pausing* when a reader makes an error (to allow opportunity for reader self-correction without tutor help). Where the error is not self-corrected, tutors offer different types of *prompt* to assist the reader with the meaning of the work or with the letter or sounds in the word *when* the error indicates the reader has already understood the meaning of the word. Tutors also employ specific *praise* to reinforce readers' use of independent strategies such as self corrections and corrections following tutor prompts.

The writing-tutoring programme comprised two separate procedures, *Tuhi-atu Tuhi-mai* (responsive written feedback) (Glynn, Jerram & Tuck, 1986; Jerram, Glynn, & Tuck, 1988), and *Whakaputa Whakaaro* (structured brainstorming) (Glynn, Berryman, O'Brien & Bishop, 2000). The *Tuhi-atu Tuhi-mai* procedure provides emergent writers with written responses to their writing from an interested audience rather than from a corrective evaluator. These written responses let the writers know that their writing has had a real impact on a reader, by arousing the reader's interest and attention. Components of responsive, written feedback are personalisation, identification with the story characters, identification with the theme, anticipation of the development of the theme, sharing of an experience, empathy with the writer, "conversing" with the writer and expressing enjoyment of the writer's content. The *Whakaputa Whakaaro* (structured brainstorming) procedure employed a structured brainstorm procedure based on writing "think sheets" developed by Whitehead (1993). Regular and focused brainstorms of interesting words were an important fortnightly component of the writing programme.

Method

Background

The researchers met with community groups, local *iwi* (tribal) representatives, school principals, members from Boards of Trustees and other school representatives. A general discussion about reading at school and at home identified that parents in the community were an under-valued and under-used resource in the schools' endeavour to improve students' literacy. The researchers spoke about possible home and school partnerships that could provide worthwhile solutions, and the community groups present indicated a willingness to provide support and resources. This information was taken to a meeting of the local School Principals' Association where the chairperson encouraged schools to participate. At a third meeting, Principals, community people and researchers set the final parameters of the project. One of the important contributions made by schools was the selection of their home-school liaison worker, although salary was funded by the research project. While the project involved nine schools, all serving communities of similar low socio-economic status and having a similar student ethnic mix, as the project developed it became clear that one school had a particularly high visibility of Māori cultural values and practices and Māori language use. Data from this school are reported in the present paper.

The Principal of this school regularly sought advice and guidance from his *kaumatua* (elders), both in the community and on the school Board of Trustees. He did not see it as his role to require them to respond to his requests and directives. This school also ran its home and school parent tutor training through a series of *hui* (meetings conducted according to Māori protocol rather than according to European meeting procedures). Researchers noted that parents and *whānau* members in this school operated in a far more collaborative and interconnected manner than their counterparts in other schools. They shared a high level of understanding and experience of Māori preferred ways of communicating and working.

Hiro, the home-school liaison teacher appointed to this school, was a *kuiā* (woman of very high standing). Although she is a member of a different tribe from that of the Principal and most of the staff and parents, she had spent 33 years raising her own family and working in Rotorua, where she is widely respected for her extensive experience in both English and Māori medium education. The research team established a close working relationship with Hiro, based on mutual trust and respect.

Research design

Students were assigned randomly to one of two conditions: (1) participating in their school's regular reading programme (school group) or (2) participating also in the home tutored reading and writing programme (home and school group). In the home and school group, parents implemented the procedures in either English or Māori, according to whether their children were attending English or Māori medium classes at school. Multiple outcome measures of both reading and writing were taken across both groups of students, pre-programme and post-programme. In addition, a collaborative narrative was constructed between Hiro and the second author (Mere) in order to identify key cultural concepts, actions and understandings that help contextualise the positive results achieved, as well as the increasingly collaborative partnership and ownership of the programme that developed between community and school.

Participants

Participants were five students aged between seven and nine years in Māori medium classes at Rotorua primary school who were experiencing reading and writing difficulties. Parents or *whānau* members agreed to allow them to participate. Two of these students were randomly assigned to the school's regular reading programme (school only group) while the other three were randomly assigned to the group which participated also in the home tutoring programme (home and school group).

Parents were invited to join in the project in their own right. They attended two two-hour training and practice sessions before they implemented the procedures with their children. One session trained parents in the reading tutoring procedures. The second session trained parents in the two writing support procedures. During the first fortnight of programme implementation, parents supplied a taped reading tutoring session to the researchers. Analysis of the reader-tutor interactions enabled the home-school liaison worker to provide specific and individual feedback to tutors on their use of the procedures. The analysis also provided treatment integrity data.

Training

Each of the training sessions allowed parents and *whānau* members to see the reading and writing procedures modelled by the research team and then to practise these

through role-plays. Training also explained briefly how the procedures related to the objectives in the New Zealand language curriculum documents.

(a) *Reading programme*: Fuller details of implementing the *Tatari Tautoko Tauawhi* and Pause Prompt Praise procedures are provided elsewhere (Berryman, Bidois, Furlong, Atvars, & Glynn, 1995; Glynn, 1995; Glynn & McNaughton, 2002; Harawira et al., 1993). Briefly, however, parent tutors were trained first to preview and review with their child the story being read. They were also trained to *tatari* (delay) when a child made a reading error, to allow space for the child to have a chance to realise they had made an error, and perhaps, to correct themselves. Tutors were then trained use three different types of reading prompt in cases where their child did not self-correct the error. The use of each type of prompt is dependent upon the type of error made. The first prompt, 'pānuī tonu / whakahokia' (read on/ read again), is used when readers come to a word that they do not know and cannot read meaningfully without assistance. This requires the tutor to prompt the reader to search for meaning within the text. Tutors ask readers to read on to complete the sentence, or if the word is near the end of the sentence to go back and start again. The second prompt, 'kia marama ai' (to understand the meaning), is used when the word read is a substitute word that does not make sense in the context of the sentence or story. This requires the tutor to prompt the reader to think about what is happening in the text and to think of a more meaningful word. The third prompt, 'kia ata titiro ai' (look carefully at the word), is utilised when the word read makes sense but is not the actual word used in the story (meaningful word substitute). This requires the tutor to prompt the reader to use any letter-sound information *provided by the word*.

(b) *Writing programme*: The research team trained parents and liaison workers in the two different writing procedures:

(1) *Tuhi Atu Tuhi Mai* (responsive written feedback). The first procedure, responsive written feedback encouraged parents to write regular brief and personalised responses to their child's writing. The strategy was to respond in writing to the messages conveyed within the piece of writing and not to focus upon structure, error correction or evaluative comments. Parents were shown how to respond to what they were able to understand of the message in their child's story rather than simply responding to errors.

(2) *Whakaputa Whakaaro* (structured brainstorming). In structured brainstorming parents talked with their child about a particular experience that connected with a writing topic set at school. They used a "brainstorming sheet", to help their children generate a list of words related to the topic, and then to group these words into sub-topics or themes, and supply a label or heading for each (Berryman et al, 2001). Parents returned the completed brainstorm record sheets to school where each labelled group of words served as scaffolding around which the beginning writer in Māori could construct a sentence, or a more advanced writer, a paragraph, when writing their stories in the classroom.

Measures of reading behaviour

Baseline and intervention data on students' reading were gathered from the audio taped three-minute oral reading samples. Oral cloze and recall questions were also

used to assess students' oral comprehension of the stories they had read. A native Māori speaker independently analysed a sample of the three-minute audiotapes of reading tutoring sessions to check on inter-scorer agreement.

Specific reading measures taken were:

Book level. This was the highest level of text in the *Ngā Kete Kōrero* framework (Berryman, Rau & Glynn, 2001) a child could achieve to criterion accuracy (90%) and comprehension (40%).

Comprehension. This was the percentage of oral cloze items (requiring the reader to predict the exact word or an acceptable substitute word when a word was left out of a sentence) plus oral recall items answered correctly. It was important to attempt some measure of comprehension in this study because of a growing concern among Māori-medium teachers that since Māori is a language that is highly regular phonetically, students may easily obtain oral reading accuracy scores that are well in advance of their level of comprehension. This is particularly the case for the many Māori children who are second language learners and who lack access to a strong Māori oral language base to assist their comprehension of written texts.

Reading rate There were two measures of reading rate: *correct rate* (the number of words read correctly per minute), and *incorrect rate* (the number of incorrect words per minute), while *reading accuracy* was measured as the percentage of words read correctly.

Measures of writing behaviour

Writing assessments were taken from independent samples of writing produced without the support of responsive written feedback and structured brainstorming. While students were free to write on any topic they wished, researchers provided six A3 size photographs and ten prompt words per photograph to help motivate students to write. The images in each photograph were representative of the lives of these students.

Up to ten minutes were allowed for students to choose their topic and for a brief informal discussion. However, this did not involve any form of written planning. Next, students were instructed to begin their ten minutes of writing, using pencil. At the end of ten minutes pencils were collected and exchanged for pens. A further five minutes was allowed for proof reading. During the writing and proof reading times students were free to use resources from around the room to assist them with their writing, but asking other students for words was discouraged. These independent writing samples were assessed by raters who were uninformed of the writers' names and group status (home and school, or school only). Writing was assessed in terms of rate, accuracy and quality, the specific writing measures being:

- *writing rate:* the number of words written in ten minutes;
- *writing accuracy:* the percentage of words written that were spelled correctly;
- *writing quality (adventurous words):* the number of words produced that were beyond the current spelling levels the writer was currently working at;
- *writing quality (audience impact):* a holistic rating (on a 1-7 scale) of the extent to which raters, acting as a "responsive audience", enjoyed the story.

Collaborative narrative with the home-school liaison worker

Narrative enquiry is a methodology that recognises that people and their communities are essential participants in the research process (Bishop, 1996). Their lived experience and their own ways of knowing and sharing knowledge bring validity to the research process (Te Hennepe, 1993; Cole, 1998). Narrative inquiry maintains and respects the integrity of storytellers and the knowledge and culture they represent. It allows researcher and researched to co-construct narratives of the research process. Hence it offers an approach that demonstrates how the research process and outcomes may be understood through the agency of key research participants, rather than through the agency of the researchers alone. In this study, the researcher (second author) and the home-school liaison worker co-constructed narrative of their experience of the home and school project in this school. They utilised a series of semi-structured interviews, which were recorded and transcribed. The transcripts then served as the basis for further inquiry through reflective discussion and collaborative validation (Bishop, 1996).

Results

Reading Gains

Table 1 presents pre-programme and post-programme data on the four reading measures for the home and school and the school only groups. These measures were taken during pre and post-programme assessments that were independent of the continuous reading measures taken from the audiotapes throughout the tutoring programme.

Table 1 shows that students in the home and school group increased their mean level of books read to criterion by four reading levels (from level 6 to level 10) over the 12 weeks from pre-programme to post-programme. Even though at post-programme they were reading Māori texts of far greater difficulty and complexity, they were able to answer 50% of the comprehension questions correctly (compared with 68% of questions on their less demanding pre-programme level 6 text). In contrast, students in the school only group increased their mean book level read to criterion by only two levels (from level 6 to level 8) while their comprehension score remained unchanged (at 35%) on the level 8 texts.

Table 1 also shows that pre-programme both groups had low incorrect reading rates, and that both groups decreased these from pre-programme to post-programme (from 6 to 3 words per minute for the home and school group, and from 4 to 2 words per minute for the school only group). However, there was a marked difference between the two groups in terms of changes in correct reading rate. Students in the home and school group decreased their correct reading rate from 41 to 33 words per minute, while in contrast, students in the school only group increased their correct reading rate from 36 to 63 words per minute.

Table 1: Reading Data

	Pre-Programme	Post-Programme
Book Level		
Home and school	6	10
School only	6	8
Comprehension (%)		
Home and school	68	50
School only	35	35
Correct Rate		
Home and School	41	33
School only	36	63
Incorrect Rate		
Home and school	6	3
School only	4	2

Writing Gains

Table 2 presents pre-programme and post-programme data on the four writing measures for the home and school and the school only groups. These measures were taken during pre- and post-programme assessments that were made from writing samples that were independent of the writing completed by students at home and at school as part of the tutoring programme.

Table 2 shows that students in both groups had similar writing rates at the pre-programme stage, 46 and 43 words attempted. However, the home and school group increased their writing rate over the 12 weeks between pre-programme and post-programme from 46 to 66 words per 10-minute sample. In contrast, students in the school only group decreased their writing rate from 43 to 34 words over the same period.

Table 2 also shows that students in the home and school group had a slightly higher writing rate at baseline (63%) than students in the school only group (56%). However, students in the home and school group increased their writing accuracy over the 12-week period from 63% to 76%, while students in the school only group slightly decreased their writing accuracy from 56% to 47%.

On the first measure of writing quality, students in the home and school group increased the number of adventurous words included in their writing samples from 2.0 to 7.0 over the 12-week programme period, whereas students in the school only group decreased their number of adventurous words written from 3.0 to 2.0. On the second measure of writing quality, the holistic rating of audience impact, students in the home and school group increased their rating from 3.0 to 4.0, while students in the school only group increased their holistic rating from 2.0 to 3.0.

Table 2: Writing Data

	Pre-Programme	Post-Programme
Rate (words attempted)		
Home and school	46	66
School only	43	34
Accuracy (% words correct)		
Home and school	63	76
School only	56	47
Quality (adventurous words)		
Home and School	2	7
School only	3	2
Quality (audience impact)		
Home and school	3	4
School only	2	3

Discussion

Overall, the reading data suggest that by the end of the 12-week home tutoring programme, students in the home and school group were reading Māori language texts that were considerably more difficult than those being read by students in the school group. They were reading these texts with more comprehension, but at a slower rate than students in the school only group. It appears that the interactive home tutoring programme, *Tatari Tautoko Tauawhi*, with its focus on supporting students to search for text meaning, has contributed to their improved reading and understanding of Māori language, over and above that of students receiving the school programme alone. This is consistent with findings from an earlier peer tutoring study in a bilingual classroom in which *tuakana* (older and more skilled students) tutored *teina* (younger and less skilled students) using *Tatari Tautoko Tauawhi* (Glynn et al., 1996). That study reported gains in reading comprehension on both Māori and English texts for both *tuakana* and *teina* students.

Similarly, the writing data show that by the end of the 12-week programme incorporating responsive written feedback and structured brainstorming activities, students in the home and school group were producing writing samples that were longer, more accurate, contained more adventurous words, and received higher ratings of audience impact than those of students in the school only group. It appears that in the present study parents' and *whānau* members' implementation of these two support strategies had a positive impact on the fluency, accuracy and quality of students' writing in Māori. These findings are consistent with those of a previous study employing responsive written feedback for students learning to write in Māori (Glynn, Berryman, O'Brien & Bishop, 2000).

Considered together, the reading and writing data from the three home and school group students and the two school only group students illustrate the potential of parents to improve the reading and writing of their children at school through implementing focussed and interactive strategies such as *Tatari Tautoko Tauawhi*, *Tuhi Atu Tuhi Mai* and *Whakaputa Whakaaro*. The data also support the effectiveness

of these specific strategies when introduced for second language learners in a Māori language revitalisation context.

It is important to try to understand some of the cultural beliefs, values and practices that lay behind the clear positive outcomes achieved by these Māori parents and *whānau* for their own children. The remainder of this paper draws on information from the collaborative narrative between the researchers and Hiro, the home-school liaison worker. It identifies key cultural concepts, actions and understandings between Hiro and parents, teachers and students that embodied a culturally focussed pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1995). These concepts help explain not only the positive reading and writing outcomes achieved but also the increasingly collaborative partnership between community and school. The following narrative illustrates some of these cultural concepts, actions and understandings which can be grouped around one central theme of awakening and activating traditional whānau processes (Smith, 1995).

Whakamana whānau (Activating whānau processes)

Merging personal and professional boundaries and commitments

The first and most essential element identified was that Hiro not only understood, but also affirmed, the cultural background of her students and their families. She strengthened their *wairua* (spiritual well being and self-esteem). She affirmed them in the home, at school and in the community, by employing interpersonal processes that were characteristically Māori. While she was too *whakamā* (humble and self-conscious) to speak directly about her own knowledge and expertise of the people, their language and *tikanga* (culture), she continuingly drew on this knowledge and expertise to improve the learning outcomes for all *whānau* members.

Hiro: ... I was a sort of liaison officer. I would sort of keep in touch with the parents concerned and with their children and with you. But besides keeping touch with the parents, I also had to encourage them to come forward because a lot of our Māori parents are a bit shy and that was a problem with a lot of them. They were keen enough in their own way but they were just shy, took a while to come to the meetings, but when they did come they were fine. It's just *patipati* (encouragement), I call it. You know, give them a little *awhi* (support) and rub on the back and just have a quiet little *kōrero* (talk) to them and most of the time they open up.

Awakening collective identity and collective responsibility

The children and *whānau* Hiro worked with became part of her life, and she part of theirs. This was not just a relationship that held for the research project and research meetings. It went beyond that. Parents no longer identified themselves as individuals. Values of individual achievement, and competition between individuals that are dominant in the majority culture, were gradually replaced by values of collective achievement and collective responsibility for the wellbeing of all members of the research project. Participants were developing relationships and patterns of organization similar to those applying within a traditional Māori *whānau*. They had begun to operate in ways that called for Māori people to identify and act collectively. Through their participation in the project, along with Hiro *whānau* were affirming their cultural identity and validating the cultural understandings that came from experiencing the world of literacy from within a Māori worldview.

Mere: So, was this just advice about the reading and writing?

Hiro: No, whatever they asked.

Mere: Why do you think they came to you?

Hiro: As I said I think they trusted me. You build up that rapport with them by what you do and how you do it. You don't just necessarily give directions. I'm just used to doing things hands on, showing by example. I'm not a lecture type person. So perhaps they saw what I was doing and that I was happy with what I was doing, and that made them happy too. We'd have a cup of tea or coffee. Down here or in the staff room they were at home. They didn't feel uncomfortable. They felt safe.

Well they sort of formed their own whānau and helped each other too. That didn't matter that they weren't brother and sister and that word *whanaungatanga* (interconnectedness based on personal relationship) came out very strongly with that group of parents, with their 'network' going. We also had to share cassette recorders, and so one of them would finish with it, and go round the corner and pass it on the next one down the street. And so they did the rounds and the school supplied the recorders. I didn't have to go and pick them up from each one. They would just pass them on to the next one. And I got them all back at the end of the programme. So that was excellent. And they helped each other in that way. Well even with the responsive writing. That's another way that *whanaungatanga* came out because as we said last time, they got sick of waiting for the teacher and they took control. I mean I started [by just] listening, but the busier I became, they decided that they would take control and they did.

Mere: So there was an element of trust with you. What about with each other?

Hiro: Yes I think so. There was that there too. It came and was developed through that *whanaungatanga*, because they were helping each other, there were no hidden agendas. They were all on the same wavelength and I think the trust developed out of that.

Mere: What is *whanaungatanga* for you?

Hiro: It's being part of a family. Not necessarily blood ties. Having that family feeling working together is part of a *whānau*. And might all be from totally different areas but when you get together you all work towards the *whānau* goal, helping each other. Doesn't necessarily have to be brother, sister, mother, father.

Mere: One of the things that amazed me was that they were actually just as interested in everybody else's child as they were in their own.

Hiro: I think it was to give them something to compare with maybe. I could be wrong but just to see how their child was doing while there was another person's child to compare with. Not so much against, as with.

Mere: Right. Because I got the impression that they wanted the benefits to come to all of the children. As you say, they did form their own *whānau*. So they wanted all of the children who were part of the *whānau* to benefit.

Hiro: Yes.

- Mere:** That strong *whānau* network that had developed, I haven't seen it in any of the other places. How do you think you got it?
- Hiro:** That's the way our school is. Well we've got about 90% [Māori students and *whānau*]. And that's the way our school is run. It's run like a big whānau whether you are in mainstream [English medium] or immersion [Māori medium]. Everything is whānau.

Hiro had taken a personal interest and got to know very closely each of the families with whom she worked. Not only did she share in their work and successes, but she also shared in their pain and their grief.

- Hiro:** Well there was one grandfather, who was having problems with his ex, and that child got hi-jacked by the ex and that grandfather had worked so hard. Yep and that was sad when he came to tell me that his grandson had been taken away by his grandmother, his ex. And then there was one, a parent that had all the time in the world, but he was too busy playing spacey games to listen to his own child read. And there was one mother who felt that she was not that good at Māori. But she persevered, borrowed dictionaries and everything. This made them work.
- Then there was another one. Mum wasn't in the home but dad was working with the child. That was the difficult one cause he [the child] was taught in bi-lingual, taught to read in English first, and then he came to immersion. So that was a big step for him, he needed a fair bit of help for a start. And the father just needed help in sort of calming down, not losing it. But dad turned out really good. He went on to train as a teacher.

Initiating collective action and problem solving

In establishing this home and school partnership, it was essential that these parents and *whānau* members exercised some control over the context and direction of their learning. Balance of power, shared control and reciprocity between learning and teaching roles, are seen as elements of responsive, social contexts that promote independent learning (Glynn, 1985; 1995).

In this project, it was clear that Hiro and the school were embodying these concepts in their pedagogical practice. They believed *whānau* not only could but also should become involved in the formal education of their children. With Hiro's help it was not long before these parents who had up until then been the learners, reciprocated the teacher role. This could have been a potential source of conflict between home and school, but because of Hiro's professional experience and *mana* (authority and standing within the culture) the *mana* of the parents as well as the teacher were maintained. There was mutual respect and appreciation. Both groups were able to work alongside and learn from each other. The central collective focus was as much on promoting the wellbeing of the whole group (teachers and parents) as it was on improving literacy outcomes for students. Participating in a *whānau* structure carries important responsibilities as well as benefits.

Hiro: I like seeing people who are not in the education sector, parents and other *whānau* members, latching on to things in education and seeing the benefits.

Mere: Do you think those parents latched on?

Hiro: I think so. The majority of them I would say. The hardest part was getting them into that routine of working with the teacher. Mind you, it was hard getting the teacher into the routine too!

When it came to the responsive writing and brainstorming, well it ended up the parents decided they'd do it at home. They took it away from the teacher because they got sick of waiting for him and I can understand that, being a parent and a grandparent myself. But I can also understand the teacher who was only new to our school so he was still getting to know his children and still settling in. Some [teachers] don't take long you know some only take five minutes but some take longer and I think that may have been where the difficulty was.

Mere: You had a really strong group of parents.

Hiro: Oh yes very strong. They knew what they wanted and they demanded it and if it wasn't forthcoming well that's what they did. They took it away. And they operated it themselves but they hounded me, to, you know, keep them up with it.

Mere: Did you feel like you were piggy in the middle?

Hiro: No, because the teacher was fine about it and so were they. They were quite happy. As long as there was someone there to do it, it didn't have to be the teacher. And it just kept going. I just felt that the teacher would need to sort of get himself faster into a routine. Yes, some take a bit longer than others.

This example of collaborative problem solving provided an opportunity for the co-operative and active learning roles of the teacher and *whānau* to be interchanged, while keeping intact the *mana* of teacher and parents.

Strengthen the whānau, strengthen student achievement

A key to parents' support of the project was Hiro's commitment as a *whānau* member to meeting their needs for cultural safety and comfort, rather than simply ensuring their compliance with the project requirements. Given the many competing demands made on parents' time and energy, she ensured that resources were always ready for them, that there was always time and space to meet where they felt comfortable and safe, (and where there was always something to eat and drink). When asked why she thought none of her parents had dropped out Hiro replied:

Hiro: Perhaps because we had our regular meetings. Sometimes I'd set a time for meetings on a Wednesday afternoon and it usually tied in just before they came to collect their children. I didn't want to hold a meeting in the morning so that they'll come from wherever they were, have the meeting, and then go home. I fitted the meeting in after lunch before three o'clock so that they could stay and pick up their children and they didn't mind doing that because it wasn't inconveniencing them and sometimes it would be just one or two. Might be the whole lot. But if some were having problems then I would have a meeting with just one person at a time. I didn't [always] have them all together

at once. I had, say, this mother up here who's still in the office helping. I'd, say, have her stay for half an hour. The first half hour 1:30 p.m. to 2:00 p.m. and then I'll have someone else from 2:00 p.m. to 2:30 p.m. or whatever or might even be shorter time and I gave them that time as their own.

Mere: Right. So, you actually had the group meeting, and I attended some of those, but you also had some individual meetings.

Hiro: Yes, cause I felt well if they were shy about some of the things they were doing and weren't too confident, well on a one to one they would open up and they wouldn't be embarrassed in front of other people.

Hiro saw it as crucial that both children and *whānau* on the project should learn not only the specific tutoring skills, but also important independent living skills. She referred to one mother in particular who because of her experience in the project began a concerted effort to learn the Māori language, and went on to become a valued assistant in the school. This mother grew not only in self-confidence but also in self-efficacy.

Mere: The mother you are talking about was actually one of the mums that I thought was shy. She's certainly not shy now!

Hiro: Oh heck no. She runs that office [the school office] up there when the office ladies are away.

Mere: She really became...

Hiro: ...confident, her self-esteem is up there [indicating with hand]. That's what I like to see, confident in her own ability. Once she got her confidence she was in charge of getting the books and doling them out. Because she grew in confidence, she is still busy in the school. We've got a brand new photocopier, this is how good she is, and it's one of those with a memory and you punch it in. Well she's the chief operator. Besides the office lady, she is the only one who knows how to operate it. She came here voluntarily and now there are some things she gets paid for. If one of the office ladies is away, she steps in, and then she gets paid. She has just grown in confidence in her capability. It's all been hidden in there and it's just coming out.

The project provided an authentic context for learning for the *whānau*, and for Hiro herself. *Whānau* members succeeded in helping their children improve their reading and writing at school. Meanwhile Hiro herself was fully engaged with the researchers in developing new assessment and intervention strategies for improving literacy throughout the *whānau*. While Hiro made the most of the professional development opportunities arising within the project, she did so in order to better equip herself to help other *whānau* members.

Hiro: Well I had heard a little bit about it [the Rotorua Home and School Project]. I was getting excited too and that's why I pushed John [the school principal] to ask if we could go first in the first group because it sounded exciting. Anything to help our children and our parents help their children. It's always a value. We needed the *Tatari Tautoko Tauawhi*. And we needed to up-skill our parents in that procedure as well so that they [parents] could support our kids and our teachers.

There wasn't much [professional development available] in assessment for our children in Māori medium. I've always felt we're still playing catch up. I'd actually like to take the senior staff on that *whakaputa whakaaro*, [structured brainstorming], *tuhi atu tuhi mai*, [responsive writing] one day at a *hui* - just take them through that. Because that's excellent for them.

Since this project was completed, students and *whānau* participated in making two videotapes, which present the experience of the *whānau* and the school in the whole research process. The first video (Berryman, Glynn, & Glynn, 2001a) depicts the various cultural qualities of the home and school partnership in this school, as conveyed through the stories and voices of students, parents, grandparents, teachers, principal and other school staff. The second video (Berryman, Glynn, & Glynn, 2001b) provides a detailed close up of parents learning to use the tutoring procedures with children from their community. Both videos validate and affirm Māori culturally preferred ways of speaking, acting, and theorising about their children's learning to read at home and at school.

Conclusion

There are two fundamental lessons to be learned from our experience on this project. The first is the clear effectiveness of culturally focussed pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1995). All three literacy strategies were implemented successfully by parents and *whānau* members to improve their children's reading and writing in Māori. These learning strategies embody concepts and actions that take on particular significance within a Māori worldview. One such concept is *ako* (Pere, 1982) denoting a reciprocity of roles and balance of power in the interactions between learner and teacher. A second concept is *tuakana-teina* denoting a particular caring relationship and commitment that carries responsibilities for an older or more skilled person to nurture and teach the younger or less-skilled person. This is seen in the way in which Hiro speaks about her relationship with parents and *whānau* members in the school. A third concept is that of *mana*, as embodied in the action of *whakamana tangata*. This principle underlies the importance of respecting and upholding the integrity, the dignity, the personal autonomy of all people. Maintaining *mana* is especially critical in any interaction between teachers and learners, or between teachers and parents. Any teaching interactions, negotiations or decision-making processes which result in loss of *mana* for any party will damage the wellbeing of all involved. This is also seen in the way in which Hiro speaks respectfully about parents and teachers, and her complete avoidance of judgement or criticism of any of their contributions

The second lesson we learned from this project is the specific pedagogical power that emerges from activating *whānau* structures. A culturally-focussed approach to pedagogy which strives to embody concepts and principles such as these is likely to improve the learning and wellbeing of Māori students experiencing difficulties in mainstream education. In this project, both the specific literacy support strategies themselves, as well as the cultural contexts in which they were deployed, effectively addressed the traditional power imbalance between community and school, and between the roles of parent and teacher. Graham Smith is right in wanting to awaken *whānau* in order to intervene and revitalise language and culture (Smith, 1995). Within the context of home and school literacy partnerships, it is abundantly clear that "culture counts" (Bishop & Glynn, 1999).

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2. This paper is based on an oral presentation given at the *Addressing Difficulties in Literacy Conference*, Faculty of Education and Language Studies, Centre of Curriculum and Teaching Studies, The Open University, Milton Keynes, U.K., September 2002.

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Analysis of errors in the writing of first year university students of Maori

Lorene Earnshaw and Stewart Fleming

Software Engineering Group, Department of Computer Science

[lorene@cs.otago.ac.nz stf@cs.otago.ac.nz]

Victoria Weatherall

School of Maori, Pacific and Indigenous Studies

[Victoria.weatherall@stonebow.otago.ac.nz]

Alistair Knott

Artificial Intelligence Group, Department of Computer Science

[alick@cs.otago.ac.nz]

University of Otago, PO Box 50, Dunedin, New Zealand

Abstract

This paper presents a survey of the range of grammatical and lexical errors made in written Maori by University students taking an introductory course in Maori language. We begin by introducing, and discussing the motivation for, an error classification system which accommodates different classes of error. We then provide an analysis of errors in three different types of student writing: homework assignments, impromptu tests and examination transcripts. We conclude with some remarks about the patterns of error which we found.

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Background: Motivation for the study

When teaching a language, it is important to have in mind a model of the kinds of error to which students are prone at any point in their course. What a teacher should do with this model is an issue which has generated a certain amount of controversy. For instance, it has been argued that explicit error correction strategies are unhelpful as they discourage students from using constructions which they are uncertain about (Truscott, 1996). Others argue that error correction can be beneficial when it is given in a form which students can readily understand (see, for example, Ferris, 1999; Lee, 1997). However the issue of explicit error correction is resolved, it seems clear that the teacher needs to know about the kinds of error which are commonly made by students (Corder, 1967). Without this knowledge, it is hard to decide how quickly to proceed from one topic to another, or which types of interaction to concentrate on in the classroom.

In this paper, we present an analysis of the kinds of written error made by University students taking an introductory course in Maori language. Our motivation is twofold. First, we want to provide the teacher involved in the course, and (with some caveats), other teachers of introductory courses in Maori, with some quantitative information about the patterns of error. Secondly, and more specifically, our study is intended to play a role in the design and evaluation of two computer-aided language learning (CALL) systems which we are building to complement the course: one developed by a Software Engineering group, and one developed by a Computational Linguistics group. We want to ensure that these systems are designed to target the errors which

are most commonly made. Moreover, we aim to incorporate into our evaluation of the CALL systems a comparison of errors made by students who have had experience with one CALL system or the other and students who have experienced only face-to-face teaching. Our focus here is, however, on the analysis of errors itself rather than on the CALL systems to which reference has been made, our main purpose being to present what we hope will be a useful resource for teachers involved in introductory courses in Maori language.

We begin by surveying some existing work on error analysis in Maori. We then present the classification system we developed to accommodate the types of error we encountered. This classificatory system draws on earlier approaches to classification, and extends them in some respects. The analyses of several different types of student work using this classification system are then presented, along with some commentary on the reliability of the classification. Finally, we draw some tentative conclusions for teachers of courses similar to the one under consideration here.

It is important to note here that although earlier work on the analysis of errors made by learners of Maori focused on school-age children (particularly those enrolled in the kura kaupapa system), our student population is different, being made up of University students, a mixture of Maori and non-Maori, most of whom have very little background in the language.

Proficiency development and error analysis relating to learners of Maori: A review of some existing research

The last few years have seen the emergence of research on language proficiency development and error analysis in the case of learners of Maori. Johnson and Rolleston (2001) report on the results of pre- and post-course Maori language proficiency testing in the case of teachers attending an in-service development course at the University of Waikato. Crombie, Houia and Reedy (2000) comment on the development and trialling of a pilot proficiency test designed for use with young learners of Maori (particularly those in Year 5 of Maori-medium schooling). Both of these studies, particularly the second, are relevant to a study by Houia (2002) which analyses typical errors produced by the Year 5 students who took part in the proficiency test trials referred to by Crombie, Houia and Reedy. Houia's research presents the most detailed study of Maori language errors to date, and was a particularly valuable source of reference for the development of the error classification system presented here.

At the top level, Houia's classification system distinguishes among errors in relation to whether they involve omission, addition, selection or ordering. Omission errors involve the exclusion of elements; addition errors involve the inclusion of extra elements; selection errors involve choice of the wrong element. In the case of ordering errors, all of the obligatory elements are present but are wrongly ordered. Houia's classification system also distinguishes among errors in relation to another dimension: whether they are grammatical, lexical or semantic in nature. In addition, it provides, wherever possible, a detailed analysis of each error in terms of the precise nature of the omission, addition, selection or ordering problem encountered.

Student profiles

The students whose errors we investigated were enrolled in an introductory Maori language course - MAOR 110 - at Te Tumu (the School of Maori, Pacific and Indigenous Studies) at the University of Otago. This paper assumes no prior knowledge of the Maori language. The objectives of the course are for students to learn some basic sentence structure patterns of Maori, to develop confidence in using these patterns in both writing and in speech in context, to develop basic conversational fluency, and accurate pronunciation. The topics cover the first three chapters of *Te Kākano* (Moorfield, 2001), with an audio CD for listening exercises.

Students who enrol in MAOR 110 come from a range of different discipline backgrounds. Some are pursuing a major in Maori Studies; others are, for example, pursuing studies relating to professions in which a knowledge of Maori will be beneficial. Although the course under consideration here is a 100-level paper, it attracts a mixture of first year students and more advanced students, school leavers, mature students and staff. The paper is designed for students with no prior knowledge of the Maori language so most of the students are first time Maori language learners. Even so, there is generally a small number of students who have prior knowledge of the Maori language. Most of these students have not, however, learnt the language in a formal environment.

Course assessment involves a mixture of assignment types (see *Table 1* below):

Table 1: Assessment structure for MAOR110

Internal Assessment:		60%
Listening/Oral	30%	
Listening	20%	
Written	10%	
Final Exam (Written) 2 hours		40%

Listening and oral assessments are based on individual tutorials. Students are expected to attend these tutorials at pre-arranged times and to undertake assessments based on listening exercises (with associated questions) which are included on the *Te Kakano* CDs. Written assessments are given to students to complete in their own time. Students must return the assessments within a certain time frame (normally one week after the assessments are handed out). Other tests can be introduced into the course without prior warning, and a final examination is completed by students at the end of the course.

Classification of errors

Our work is motivated by the need to consider the types of error made by students learning te reo Maori. One reason for doing this is to understand how additional teaching support could be provided via provision of computer-aided tutorial systems. Another reason is to develop more sophisticated linguistic models to be used in the construction of language translation tools. To suit research projects targeted at these different areas, we had to develop a classification scheme that was flexible enough to record information about the types of error that were commonly made.

The error classification system

Since the activities of our two research groups (Computational Linguistics and Software Engineering) are differently motivated, each group initially adopted a different approach to the construction of the classification system. The Computational Linguistics group proceeded in a top-down manner, defining broad categories first. The Software Engineering group pursued a bottom-up approach, beginning by identifying specific errors in each text, and developing and adapting their classificatory system in terms of best fit as new errors were encountered and compared with errors that had already been identified. This approach allowed new levels of detail to be incorporated into the classification progressively, allowing for both the recording of new errors as they were encountered and the provision of more detail in relation to errors already recorded.

By adopting a common coding scheme, the two groups were able to evolve separately at the same time as maintaining an exchange of data. Thus, we were able to achieve a fluid, flexible state of affairs regarding the coding of errors for different purposes. For example, although the Software Engineering Group added more detail about errors involving macrons than was required by the Computational Linguistics group, this did not affect the exchange of data.

We began our error classification by examining the research of Houia (2002), where errors are roughly grouped into categories according to whether they involve problems associated with selection, addition, omission or ordering. However, we found that these broad categories did not provide enough precision for our purposes in developing computer support for te reo Maori learners. It suited our purpose better for these to become sub-categories and for the main categories of error to be divided into grammatical and content/dialogue errors. In fact, we found that we frequently had to rearrange our classification system to accommodate errors in the dataset under consideration that had not been encountered in the analysis of previous datasets. This suggested to us the need for a more flexible arrangement of categories and sub-categories, with automated (where possible) exchange of data between them. Regarding the form of the classification, the guiding principles were that the system should be:

- quick and easy to use;
- describable in terms of a simple, standardised procedure;
- flexible enough to allow for the introduction of new types of error as they were encountered and for the revision of categories to accommodate further detail;
- organised in such a way as to capture detail about specific errors as well as information about general types of error.

This last point is critical for the effectiveness of our work as it allows for a situation in which the actual error analysis and any subsequent software development based on that analysis can be carried out independently of one another, with both groups (error analysts and software developers) being able to record and/or recover all of the information required at different stages throughout the history of the project.

Coding errors

In this section, we discuss each of the categories in turn, referring to the different aspects of the classification shown in *Tables 2, 3 and 4*. The top-level classification distinguished between closed-class word errors, open-class word errors and dialogue errors. We included two extra categories: word ordering, and a catch-all category 'Wrong'.

Closed class errors (Table 2) are errors involving those word classes (such as pronouns, tense/aspect markers, determiners and prepositions) that include a specific, easily identifiable number of items. Kinship terms are normally regarded as part of the 'noun' open class, but they are particularly important in te reo Maori, and do form a closed subclass of nouns. In particular, they are taught as if they were closed class words.

Open class errors (Table 3) refer either to errors involving open class words, such as nouns and verbs, or to errors which could involve words of any class, such as spelling errors. Open-class errors are divided into word selection errors (choosing the wrong word), word addition errors, word omission errors and spelling errors. We also distinguish two extra classes of error - macron errors (which we have treated separately from other kinds of spelling errors) and 'noun phrase' errors, which are errors relating to the selection, addition or omission of a whole noun phrase. Macron errors are treated separately from other spelling errors, not on prior linguistic grounds, but because the researchers wanted to know how many errors could be associated with words involving macrons.

Dialogue errors (Table 4) suggest that the student did not understand the question, or did not understand the dialogue conventions of te reo Maori; these are therefore treated as comprehension errors rather than performance errors. We did not classify errors in dialogue structure or rhetorical structure because the dialogue structure is controlled and short answers expected. "Did not attempt the question" is included as a Dialogue Error. This is because there can be a number of different reasons for failing to answer a question, including lack of understanding of the question itself.

Ordering Errors belong to the word ordering category. Since the range of syntactic structures used in MAOR110 is fairly limited, this class needs no subclasses.

The final top-level class, "*Wrong*", is used for errors that do not fit well into any other class. In our analysis of source texts, this classification was used for answers which had more than three distinct errors, or when the sentence was 'irreparably wrong'.

An error classification system designed for a more advanced paper might require syntactic sub-classification. It might, for example, be possible to distinguish between structural errors at the phrase level and structural errors at the sentence level. However, the first kind (e.g. some noun phrase errors) tend to show up as "addition" or "omission" errors in the word error classes. Morphological errors (such as errors involving a passive suffix) were not recorded as they are not directly relevant to the content of MAOR110 and were therefore not tested. They would, however, be included in the analysis of errors in the case of more advanced classes.

Table 2: Closed class error classification

Sub Category	Type	Error Type	Sub Type	Code	Example	
Pronouns	Personal Pronouns	selection	Used Possessive Pronoun	PPSP	Kei te hianu taku.	
			Mimicking	PPSM	Q Nō hea koe? A. Nō Rotorua koe.	
			Used instead of determiner	PPDET	Ko Anaru ia kuri	
			Used Wrong One	PPSW	Q Nō hea koe? A. Nō Rotorua ia.	
	Possessive Pronouns	addition	omission	Addition	PPA	Ko John taku matua rāua ko Miriam taku whaea.
				Omission	PPO	Ko John Ko Jame aku tuākana
		selection	Used Personal Pronoun	POPSP	Ko Hone ia ingoa.	
			Mimicking	POPSM	Q. Ko wai tō matua? A. Ko James tō matua.	
			Used plural instead of singular	POPP	Q. Ko wai tō matua? A. Ko James aku matua.	
			Used singular instead of plural	POPS	Q Ko wai ō mātua. A. Ko James rāua ko Viv taku mātua	
			Used instead of determiner	POPDET	Q E hia ngā pene? A. E rua aku pene.	
			Used the wrong one	POPW	Q Ko wai tō whaea. A. Ko Viv tana whaea.	
		addition	omission	Addition	POPA	Ko John taku hoa taku.
				Omission	POPO	Q Ko wai tō whaea. A. Ko Viv whaea.
Starters	TAMs	selection	Selection	TAMS	Q. Nō hea koe? A. Kei Ōtepoti ahau.	
			Addition	TAMA	Kei te tātahi rātou.	
			Omission	TAMO	Q. Nō hea koe? A. Ōtepoti ahau.	
			omission			
	Counting TAMs	selection	Used e instead of toko	CSE	e rua aku tuākana	
			Used toko instead of e	CST	Tokorua ngā pene	
			Used another TAM	CSO	Ko rua ngā kūrī	
		addition	Used in front of tekau	CTE	E tekau ngā pukapuka	
			Used in front of tahi	CTA	Toko tahi te tangata	
		omission	e	COE	rua ngā pene	
	toko		COT	rua aku tuākana		
	Addressee Term	selection	Selection	ATS	Kia ora a hoa.	
			Addition	ATA	Kia ora e Henare.	
			Omission	ATOM	Kia ora hoa.	
	Determiners	selection	Used plural instead of singular	DETSP	Kotahi ngā pene	
			Used singular instead of plural	DETSS	E waru te pene	
			Used instead of possessive	DETPOP	Q: E hia ō pene? A: E rua ngā pene.	
			Used instead of personal	DETTP	Q: E hia ana pene? A: E rua ngā pene.	
		addition	omission	Addition	DETA	te tekau
				Omission	DETO	E waru pene
	Parts of Speech	Personal Articles	selection	Selection	PAS	Kei te haere ko John ki te toa.
				Used instead of object Marker	POM	Kei runga a te tepu.
				Addition	PAA	Kei te haere ko a John ki te toa.
				Omission	PAO	Kei te haere John ki te toa.
Object Marker "i"		selection	Selection	OMS	Kei runga o te tepu.	
			Used instead of Personal Article	OMP	Kei te haere i John.	
			Addition	OMA	Kei runga i te pene i te tepu.	
Preposition		omission	Omission	OMO	Kei runga te tepu.	
			selection	PS	Kei te haere ahau i Ākarana/ Kei raro ki te tepu	
			addition	PA	Kei te haere ki ahau ki Ākarana.	
Interrogatives		omission	Omission	PO	Kei te haere au Ākarana/Kei raro te tepu	
			selection	IS	using hia instead of hea	
			addition	IA	Kei hea Ākarana taku kāinga.	
Possessive Articles		omission	Omission	IO	Kei tō kāinga?	
			selection	AO	Ko John te tamaiti o Harry.	
			addition	OA	Ko Harry te matua a John.	
Locatives		omission	Omission	LOS	Kei runga. Should be Kei raro.	
			selection	LOA	Kei runga te pene i runga i te tepu.	
			addition	LOO	Kei te tepu. Should be Kei runga i te tepu.	
			omission	LOO	Kei te tepu. Should be Kei runga i te tepu.	
Nouns		Numbers	selection	Selection	NS	E iwa rau. (800)
				addition	NA	E iwa rau iwa. (900)
				omission	NO	E iwa rau e whā tekau mā. (941)
				omission	NO	E iwa rau e whā tekau mā. (941)
	Kinship	selection	Used plural instead of singular	KSS	mātua instead of matua	
			Used singular instead of plural	KSP	matua instead of mātua	
			Used Wrong One	KSW	tuākana instead of tungāne	
		addition	omission	Addition	KA	Ko tuākana ko John taku tuakana.
				Omission	KO	Ko John taku.

Table 3: Open class error classification

Macrons	omission	Omitted a Macron	MACO	raua
	selection	Macron in wrong place	MACW	Otēpoti
	addition	Added a macron	MACA	whānāu
Noun Phrases	selection	Used plural instead of singular	NPSP	Ko James aku mātua
		Used singular instead of plural	NPSS	Ko James raua ko Viv taku matua
	addition	Addition	NPA	Ko taku hoa ko James taku hoa
	omission	Omission	NPO	Kei te haere ki te toa.
Wrong Word Used			WWU	Used tūru for table
Spelling			SPEL	Mistakes with nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc
Omission			OMIS	
Addition			ADD	Ko taku tuakana ko John taku tuakana.

Table 4: Dialogue Error Classification

Short Answer Format	SAF	Ko John. (Ko John taku tuakana)
Answering in a different format	FORM	Q: Nō hea koe? A: Kei Ōtepoti au.
Wrong Answer	WA	Q: Nō hea koe? A: Kei Ōtepoti taku kāinga.
Used an English word instead of Māori	ENG	Ko John taku brother.
Did not attempt the question	DNA	
Partial Answer	PART	Q: Ko wai ō mātua. A: Ko Sue taku māmā.

Analyses of student texts

The classification system was developed from the in-depth analysis of written assessments that were undertaken by students as a formal part of the studies of MAOR110. In this section, we report on the method of analysis that was used to initially develop the classification and on our method of ensuring reliability of the classification of these errors by the analysts.

Choice of student texts

Our main aim was to choose texts which were representative of the written work which our students had to produce. We have not attempted to generalise beyond the specific course which we are considering. This means that the results are inevitably skewed towards the particular exercises which students undertake on this course.

There are three types of data available: Assignments, Impromptu Tests and the Final Exam. Assignments were exercises that the student took home and completed before a due date. The impromptu test was unannounced and the students were not allowed access to any other written material while completing it. The final exam was carried out at the end of the semester, covering all the topics that had been taught up to that point. The final exam contained elements that were not present in the previous two datasets. As we did not track the work of individual students, we were unable to compare the performance of different individuals across the three data sets.

We found that we had to make some more detailed decisions about coding of errors as we were coding the source texts. The context of the questions and answers had to be taken into account when analysing the errors. We found cases where, while an answer was grammatically correct, it did not answer the specific question being asked. We also found cases where a student provided a more complex response than the one that was anticipated. Note that these two categories of answer are the ones that are likely to be most difficult to recognise in a computer-supported learning environment.

Data entry and normalisation

Assessment papers were photocopied from the original scripts submitted by students. Any material that might identify the student was redacted. Each script was allocated a unique identifier to allow tracking of errors back to source materials. Each script was

coded by an analyst working with the classification. Where an error was found, it was letter coded as indicated in *Tables 2, 3 and 4*.

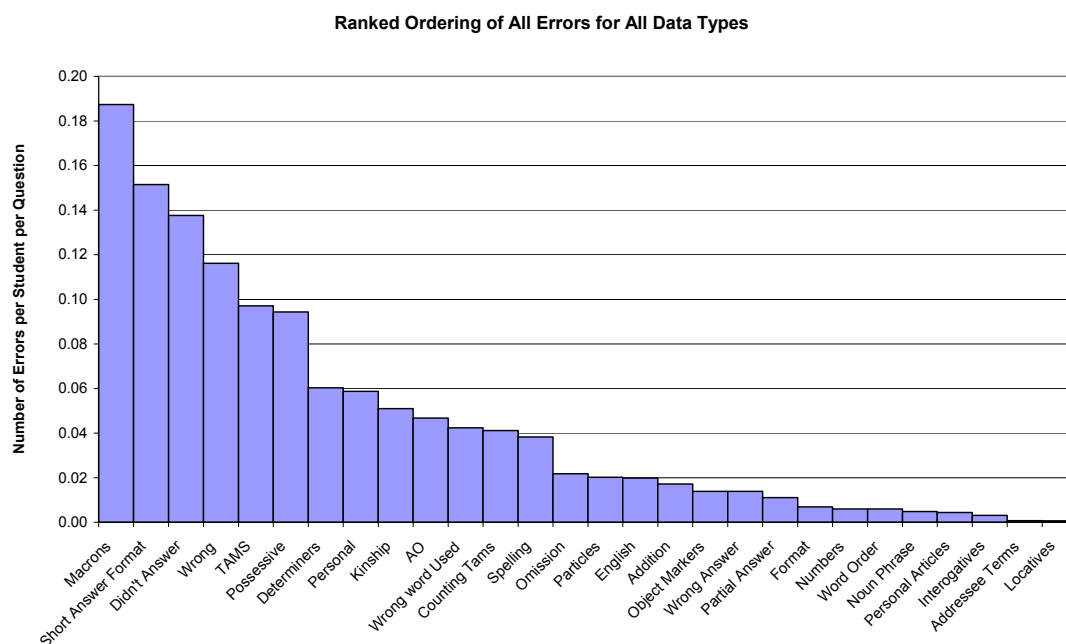
Analysed scripts were collected from the analyst and the classification data entered, tabulated for each individual question. Up to three errors could be recorded for each sub-question. If there were more than three distinct errors for a question, the error type W (Wrong) was used.

The error quantities were normalised for each question by dividing by the number of participants and then by the number of sub-questions available in that particular set. This resulting number is the average number of errors per student per question for each error type.

The most common errors overall

The most common error category resulted from errors involving macrons (see *Figure 1*), accounting for 15% of the overall total. Errors involving short answer format made up 12% of the total. Half of all the errors recorded are from the top four categories, and approximately 80% are made up from the top ten categories: macrons, short answer format, did not answer, wrong, tense/aspect markers, possessive pronouns, determiners, personal pronouns, kinship and ā/ō.

Figure 1: Overall Errors



Macrons

Macron errors were broken down into the following:

- Omission of macron - 92%;
- Addition of macron - 6%; and
- Placement of the macron in the incorrect place - 2%.

By recording data about the error types at the time of coding, we are able to add more detail to assist with further analysis. For example, in *Table 5*, we have collated a list of the most common words associated with macron errors. The word “ma” occurred 77 times (19.4%). By further analysis of this data, we can break down the distribution of errors for a particular word. This ability to view the errors in different ways makes it possible to ask deeper questions about the underlying data and potentially can allow for more targeted teaching and learning activities.

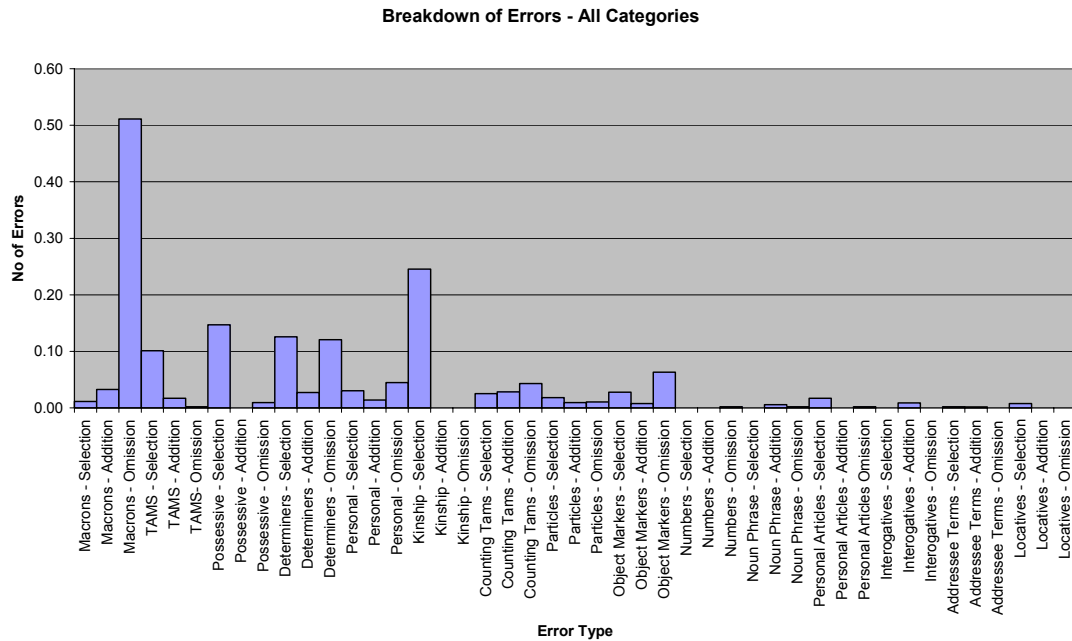
Table 5: Words associated with macron error

Word	Occurrence	Word	Occurrence
Mā	77	Whā	45
Pāhi	43	Tungāne	31
Hāpāhi	28	Nō	21
Rā	15	Tēnā	15
Ōtepoti	11	Rāua	11
Wahine	11	Kāore	9
Rākau	9	Kī	8
Rātou	8	Tāone	6
Kāinga	5	Ināianeī	4
Tāmaki-makau-rau	4	hāwhe	4
meneti	4	Pāpā	3
Whakatāne	3	Whānau	3
tūru	2	āe	2
mātakitaki	2	tamāhine	2
a	2	tama	2
kāpata	2	haere	2
Ākarana	1	ēnei	1
kara	1		

Selection, omission and addition errors

It is also interesting to look at the distribution of error types in terms of the categories of selection, addition and omission (see *Figure 2*). There are several points which emerge from this view of the data. Firstly, errors with macrons are overwhelmingly errors of omission, something that is consistent with the data in *Figure 2* which indicate that the words most frequently misspelled are those that have macrons. Secondly, in the case of closed class words, determiners and object markers are often omitted, while selection errors frequently occur with possessives, tense/aspect markers, determiners and kinship terms.

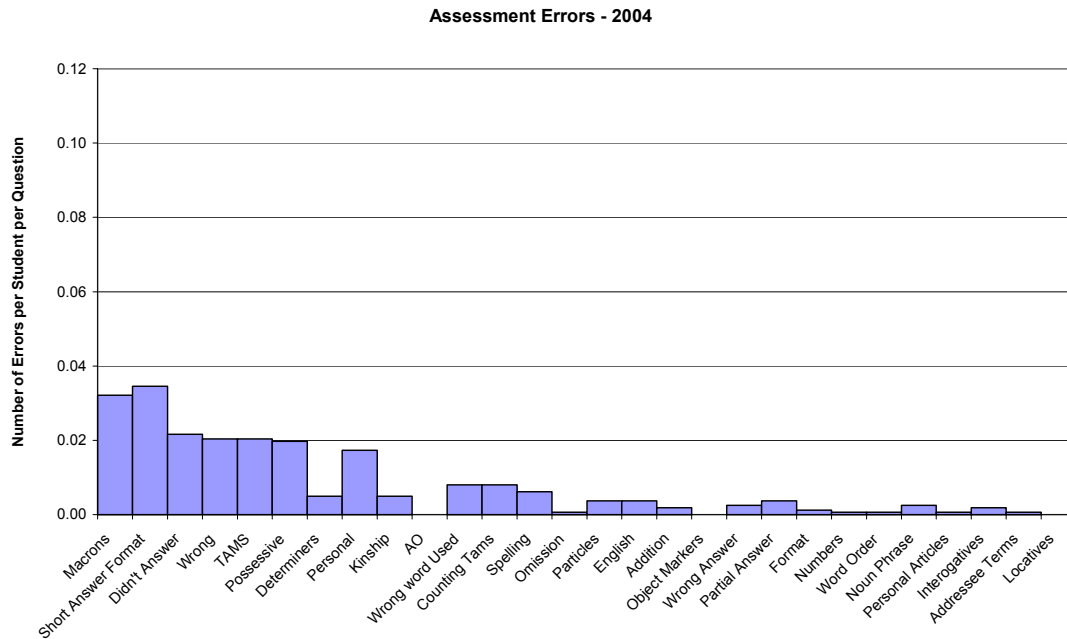
Most of these findings are consistent with the intuitions of the course teacher. It is unsurprising that omissions frequently occur with object markers and macrons since these do not feature in English. It is somewhat surprising, however, that there are not more tense and aspect marker omissions in general given that these are also not found in English in the form in which they occur in Maori. We assume this is because students can readily understand the rule that most sentences require a tense and aspect marker.

Figure 2: Breakdown of errors into sub-categories**Differences among assessment types**

Since the datasets that we use stem from three different sources, we investigated whether there were any characteristic differences among the assessments. We would expect some variation, since not all assessments tested the same material, nor did they test it in the same way. We plotted three separate charts – assessments (see *Figure 3*), impromptu test (see *Figure 4*) and the final examinations (see *Figure 5*) – using the same categories on the X-axis as in *Figure 2*, and the same scale for the Y-axis on all three. This allows the data in each chart to be compared directly.

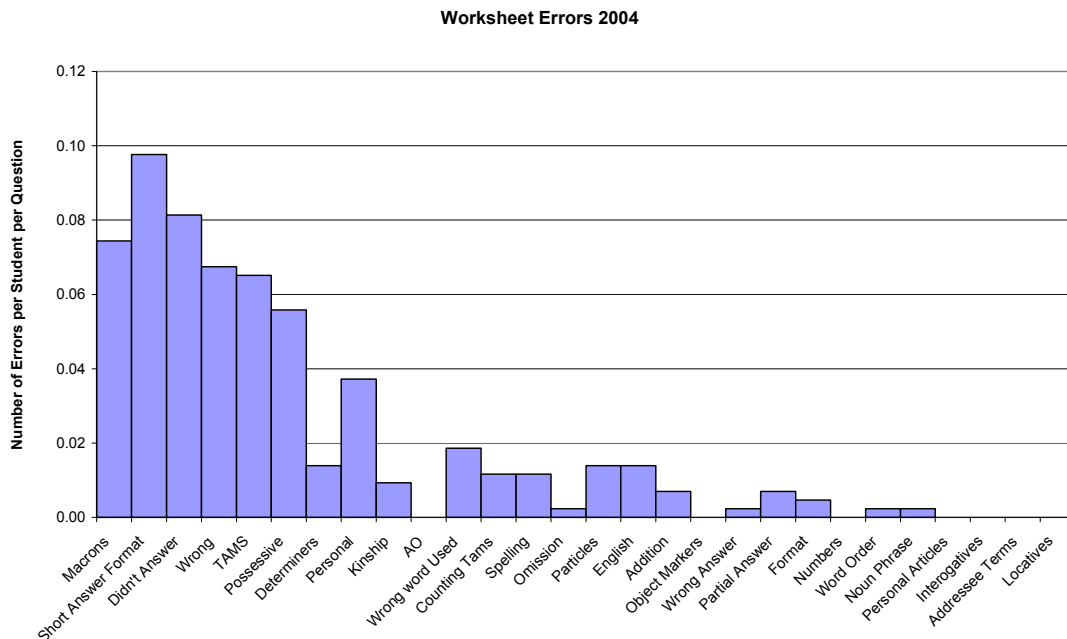
The different datasets we have gathered reflect different sets of questions, which were given to the students at different points in their course. The exams were given at the end of the course, while the assessments and impromptu tests were given at various times throughout the course. As there were elements in some assessments that were not assessed in the others, some error types have zero occurrence in those assessments. It is not possible to address this unequal opportunity for errors to arise in each of the datasets through a reliable normalisation process.

Figure 3: Assessment results

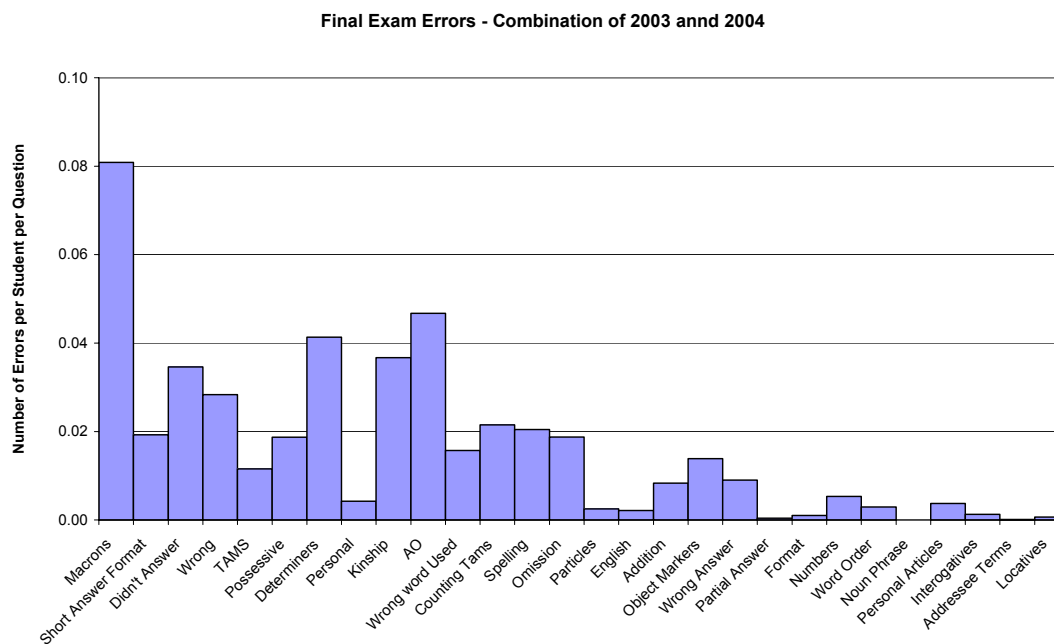


The data in *Figure 3* were collated from the normal coursework-related assessments given to students at various times during the delivery of the paper. For our purposes, we were only interested in the classification of errors rather than the comparison of distributions of error types across assessments.

Figure 4: Impromptu test results



Data shown in *Figure 4* were collated from the test that was given without warning and for which students could not refer to any additional material. Again, we present only the distribution of errors.

Figure 5: Final exam results

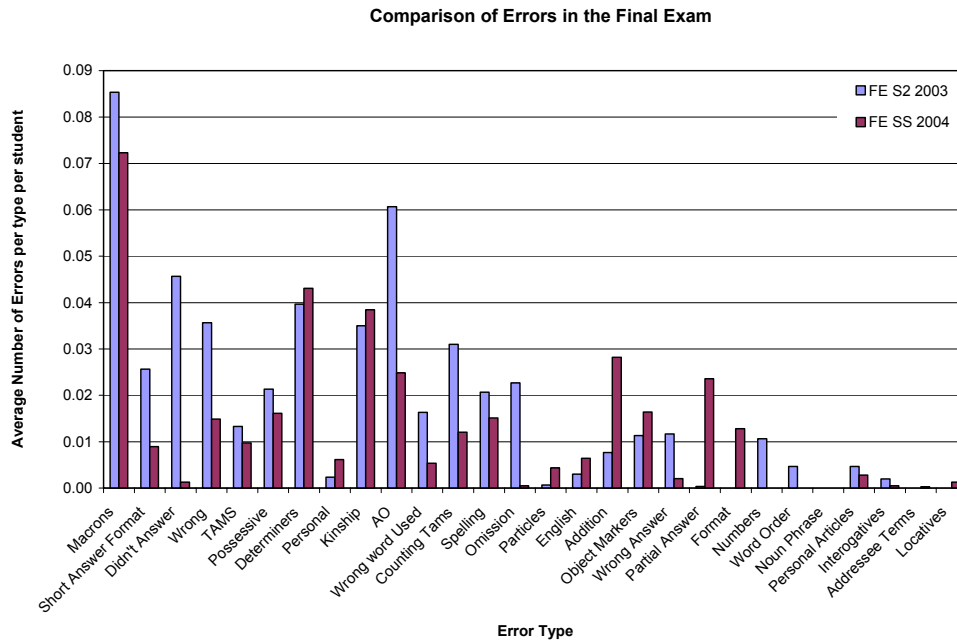
Data in *Figure 5* was collected from two final examinations. In these results the error type \bar{a}/\bar{o} appears, where it does not in the results shown for the assessment and the impromptu test. Students were not given any questions relating to this distinction until the final exam. The absence of this error type in the other two datasets reflects the lack of opportunity for this error to occur.

Differences between classes

Within our datasets, we coded examination scripts for two different final examination papers (see *Figure 6* below). One set of scripts came from the final examination at the end of normal delivery of the paper during semester and the other came from the Summer School version of the same paper.

The ability to record data to track distribution of error types in the assessments across subsequent offerings of a course can be valuable to the teachers of that course. It allows them to determine variances in teaching technique are having any effect, or to determine long-term reliability of the error classification.

Figure 6: Comparison of the final exams in terms of errors



Coding process reliability

Since our classification was developed with the notion that separate researchers would be using it for different purposes, we had to consider the protocol (*c.f.* Carletta, 1996) that would be necessary to ensure reliability of the coding process between studies. We tested inter-rater reliability of the coding process by defining a procedure that explained the error categories and provided examples of types of error and how they might be categorised. We used Cohen’s kappa statistic (Cohen, 1960) to measure the degree of reliability between the assessments made by different markers.

Procedure

Source material for this exercise was a final examination paper. Six questions were selected from this paper. Each question consisted of a varying number of sub-questions. Data was recorded by two markers (A and B) for each question in the paper. Any personal information that might identify a student was removed from the source material prior to analysis and a separate unique identifier was assigned to each paper for tracking purposes.

Ratings were grouped by question (*i.e.* all ratings for sub-questions were tabulated on one sheet). The contingency tables for each question were assembled to cross-tabulate the classifications provided by the two analysts. The overall contingency table was assembled by repeating this process across all questions. Manual and automated error checks were conducted at this point to ensure that all classifications had been entered correctly and that the contingency tables summarised this data correctly.

From the raw data, a contingency table with two classification factors (Analyst B against Analyst A) was assembled for each question and an overall contingency table was assembled to aggregate data for all questions. We calculated the kappa statistic

for each table. The kappa statistics overall, and those derived from the individual questions, are shown and their implications discussed below.

Results

The following results (see *Table 6*) were computed for the kappa statistic, one for each of the individual question-specific datasets and one for the overall aggregated dataset.

Table 6: Kappa statistics for the individual questions and overall assessment.

Data set	Kappa
Q2	0.83
Q3	0.87
Q7	0.97
Q8	0.91
Q9	0.89
Q11	0.82
Overall	0.90

There is a high level of agreement between the assessments made by the different analysts, both overall and for the individual questions. The overall agreement is the most significant statistic as it takes into account all opportunities for errors to be classified.

The kappa statistic for the datasets for individual questions is useful as a broad indicator of agreement. However, more useful information about variances between analysts can be found by examining the differences for individual categories. This sort of examination can uncover any misunderstanding of the rating procedure or the classification system, or bias between markers.

Example: In Question 2 of our source material, there are 32 cases where analyst A has classified an error as WWU (Wrong Word Used). In 29 of these cases, analyst B agrees, but has made a different assessment in the 3 other cases. These variations show up in the contingency table as shown in *Table 7*.

Table 7: Variations in classifications applied by two individual raters.

Rater B classification	Rater A classification (WWU)
KSW (Kinship Wrong)	1
NE (No Error)	1
NS (Number Selection)	1
WWU (Wrong Word Used)	29

From knowledge about how the classification was developed, we can start to make more detailed assessments (although slightly more subjective) of the variances.

- *Kinship Wrong* is a more subtle diagnosis than *Wrong Word Used* and *Number Selection* is an additional distinction;

1. Conversely, *Wrong* answer is a less subtle characterisation.

2. The case where one of the raters marked *No Error* may indicate a variation in the strictness of marking. It may, however, simply reflect the fact that one marker simply missed marking an error.

It is worth noting that this kind of audit trail is enabled by the way the data has been collated and organised. First, we form a pair of classifications – those given by the respective analysts {class_A, class_B}. Then within the data collated for the question, we search for the classification pair. These are recorded against the unique ID for the script. From the ID, question and sub-question, we can go back to the original script and diagnose why the variation has occurred.

This form of audit activity is extremely useful in improving the procedure that is to be followed by analysts. By giving examples of how the classification is to be used, we can define the procedure in sufficient detail as to minimise variance. We will also uncover cases where we would be willing to accept variance – where there might be equally valid interpretations that account for differences in the error classification.

This reliability allows us to share the coding effort across several researchers and many source texts. That is, the results are broadly similar across researchers and can, through the automatic translation process that we have adopted, be presented in the appropriate form for the specific purposes of the different software developers. Again, since we have different motivations for the use of the error analyses, we have to admit the possibility that different researchers would consider an error differently when coding the source texts. The outcome of the analyses yields important information about the patterns and relative frequency of errors made by te reo Maori language learners. It allows us to concentrate effort on providing support through computer-based tools where the focus is on the most frequently occurring errors.

Conclusion

We have described a procedure of identifying errors from student assessments and a general-purpose classification scheme for arranging the errors. This scheme is flexible enough to allow data to be recorded for several different purposes, both for teaching and learning support directly related to the assessments and other activities such as building linguistic models and software development.

We are confident that the classification can be used reliably between different individuals to analyse written student work. The results from the pilot study indicate the level of reliability that can be achieved between researchers using the classification and procedure for marking.

Our main practical conclusion is that anyone running a course based on the first three chapters of *Te Kākano* might expect to encounter a pattern of errors similar to those that we found in our study. Some of the errors we have seen are likely to be found in all learners of Maori at this level of development.

We expect that the classification scheme will undergo further refinement as we look at a greater variety of assessments. This work is expected to continue within our own research groups. Furthermore, by making the classification system available more widely, we hope to enhance its development through the contribution of others working in similar areas.

It seems logical that any kind of exercise that targets the correct usage of macrons, determiners, ā/ō, possessive pronouns and kinship terms should see a reduction in the total number of errors made. Exercises that target the difference between short answer formats and full answer formats would also be beneficial. However, our intention is not to develop a teaching strategy that eliminates errors altogether. After all, errors are a natural, indeed necessary, part of language learning. Our intention in developing this classification is to create a diagnostic tool for the purpose of classifying errors and, through a process of instructional design, to link this system to useful exercises that will support students in the further process of learning.

More work is required to validate the procedures we use to help to ensure that different assessors can code errors with the same degree of reliability. The error classification in its present form consists of a set of classification codes and examples of error for each class. As such, it represents an outline marking scheme, one that is particularly suited to the *Te Kāhano* source text. We would like to encourage other researchers and teachers working in similar areas to consider using this classification system in their work. This would greatly assist in its further development.

For other texts, and to allow the classification scheme to be more useful to a wider body of researchers, the process of assessment can be coordinated amongst a group of assessors. By using the error classification scheme as an outline, and then conducting and discussing a sample marking exercise, the assessment team can evolve their own specific marking schemes to suit their own purposes. By computing kappa statistics for the cross-marked sample, the assessment team will be able to calibrate their marking exercise and identify any potential variance among the team.

In future work, the Computational Linguistics group will use the error analysis to develop a computational grammar and an automated human-machine dialogue system, both of which are sensitive to the most commonly occurring errors. The Software Engineering group will use the error distributions discovered through this analysis as the starting point for the design of instructionally-centred exercises and software systems to support student learning. Further analysis and evaluation of these systems will be carried out to determine their effect on the number and type of errors that students typically make.

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Does direct grammar instruction improve students' performance on grammar-based tests of English as a foreign language?

Wu, Hsiao-li (Ellen Wu)

Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages, Taiwan
[hlwu@mail.wtuc.edu.tw]

Abstract

This paper reports the results of an experiment designed to test the hypothesis that direct grammar instruction has a positive impact on the test performance of learners of English as a foreign language. At first sight, the results appear to indicate that direct grammar instruction had a negligible effect overall on test performance. However, a more detailed examination of the results suggests that there was a marked positive effect in the case of some students. Furthermore, the test itself proved useful as a diagnostic tool and as a measure of student progress. Perhaps most significant is the fact that a comparison of the results of a pilot study and the experimental study itself raises issues about the significance, or otherwise, of research on teaching and learning second and foreign languages that is based on single experiments. Teachers of languages (international, community and indigenous) need to be sure that experimentally-based research is both robust and of direct relevance to the particular contexts in which they work. This is of real importance for many Pacific and Pacific-rim countries where the teaching and learning of English can have implications for economic success, and the teaching and learning of indigenous languages can have implications for the very survival of these languages.

Background to the research

Over the past few years, I have attempted to make my teaching of English at tertiary level in Taiwan more student-centred and more 'communicative' in the sense that it is "designed to [encourage] learners to communicate real information for authentic reasons" (Ministry of Education (New Zealand), 2002, p. 16). In spite of the fact that language classes in Taiwan are generally large by Western standards and the fact that students are accustomed to teacher-directed rather than student-centred learning, my efforts seemed to me to be successful in relation to student motivation and student progress. Even so, I felt that there was a problem. One of the main aims of many Taiwanese students of English is to achieve a satisfactory score in the TOEFL test, a test of English as a foreign language that was established in 1964 and that has been taken by nearly 20 million students in 165 countries (<http://www.toefl.org>: visited 15 July, 2003). I was not convinced that adopting a communicative approach would necessarily improve students' scores in the TOEFL test. I was also interested in finding out whether it was really the case, as much research on second language acquisition suggested, that teaching grammar explicitly might be less useful than is generally supposed in Taiwan.

It seemed to me that the issues that Western researchers were primarily concerned with were not necessarily those issues that were of most significance to teachers of English in Taiwan where success tends to be measured in terms of the scores students achieve on TOEFL (or TOEFL-style) tests. It may be that TOEFL tests do not provide a good measure of language proficiency. However, they play an important role in Taiwan. In particular, there has been much debate in the press recently about a comparative study of average TOEFL scores across Asian countries that places

Taiwanese test-takers (with an average score of 198 out of 300) at number 23 in a list of 30 countries (see, for example, Yiu, *Taipei Times*, Nov 7, 2003).

It is sometimes claimed that direct grammar instruction has little effect on the ability of second language learners to communicate accurately and effectively. This *may* be the case. However, even if it is the case, it is possible that direct grammar instruction *does* have an effect on students' ability to score well in tests such as the TOEFL. If this is so, it may provide a partial explanation for the fact that so many teachers of English in Taiwan (and perhaps also in other countries where the TOEFL test has a major influence) continue to include a considerable amount of explicit grammar instruction in their teaching programmes. After all, English language teachers in Taiwan may be – or at least may feel that they are – judged on their ability to coach students for examinations such as the TOEFL.

Ideally, I would have liked to examine the relationship between the TOEFL test itself and other measures of language proficiency. I would also have liked to look at the TOEFL test as a whole, rather than one section of it. However, it was necessary to set realistic goals. I therefore decided to examine the TOEFL test (structure section) and to try to find out whether teaching specific grammar points is productive in terms of students' capacity to score well on these sections of the test. Even this fairly modest aim proved, in the event, to be too ambitious. Because students tend to be familiar with sample tests, it was necessary to design my own test, one that was based on the structure section of the TOEFL. Also, because the students who would be involved in the experiment were attending classes where there was a particular language focus, it seemed sensible to reflect that focus in the test itself. It is in this context that the overall aim of the research reported on here was formulated, that aim being to find out whether providing direct grammatical information about, and practise in using, specific language points (relative clauses, modal verbs, reported speech, indirect questions, conditional sentences, the past perfect and passive constructions) increases the chances that intermediate level students of English as a foreign language will perform well on a test similar to the structure section of the TOEFL test in which these language points are examined.

Research methods

The original intention was that students in two intermediate level English classes at *Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages* in Taiwan would be asked to begin and end their course by completing a test designed on the basis of the structure section of the TOEFL test. That test would deal with relative clauses, modal verbs, reported speech, indirect questions, conditional sentences, the past perfect and passive constructions. One mark would be given for each correct answer. Both classes would be following the same course – a course based on *New American Streamline: Connections* by Bernard Hartley and Peter Viney (Units 42, 51, 52, 58, 60, 61, 62, 64, 65, 66, 69, 72, 74, 75, 76), a course that includes the grammar points to be tested. Students in one of the two classes would be given a self-access resource designed to cover the grammar points (and associated meanings) that were tested in the pre- and post-test and were asked to work through these in their own time, repeating each of the exercises until they achieved a perfect score for each one or until two weeks before the end of the course (whichever was first). The pre-test and post-test scores of both groups of students would then be compared.

Because there were difficulties associated with the initial stage of the experiment (first semester 2003), it was decided to treat that stage as a pilot study, reserving the full experiment for the first semester of 2004. The pilot study involved two groups of students (*Group A* (experimental group) and *Group B* (control group)) who were following the same course but had a different teacher. *Group A* students took the pre-test (before the start of the course) and post-test (after completion of the course). It was not possible to arrange for the other group (*Group B*) to take the test before they began the course. However, it did prove possible to retrieve the scores of all of the students on their pre-course college examination (grammar section) as well as on the college examination (grammar section) they took at the end of their previous course (2003). In spite of the difficulties that were associated with what turned out to be a pilot study (the study conducted in 2003), the results proved to be interesting in a number of ways. Furthermore, these results clearly indicated that it would be wise to pay attention to the students' college examinations as well as to the results of the pre-test and post-test in attempting to reach conclusions.

Following the pilot study in 2003, the experiment was conducted in the first semester of 2004 with two groups (*Group C* (experimental group: 49 students) and *Group D* (control group: 48 students)), the students in both of which were following the same course as those involved in the pilot study the previous year. Students in both groups took both the pre-test and the post-test. In addition to the course, students in *Group C* (the experimental group) were provided with the self-access resource pack. The pre-test and post-test results for both groups were then compared.

Staff and students involved in the experiment were given an explanation of the experiment's aims and methods. It was clearly indicated that those who did not wish to take part would not be obliged to do so and that anyone who initially agreed to take part could withdraw at any stage. It was also explained that no individual student or staff member would be identified in the reporting of the research. In the event, all those approached agreed to take part and none withdrew during the course of the experiment.

Critical review of selected literature dealing with the effects of grammar instruction and the relationship between proficiency testing and grammatical accuracy

Communicative language teaching and the question of focus on form

Some supporters of what has been called 'communicative language teaching' have argued that there should be no formal instruction in grammar. For example, Beretta (1998, p. 233) has claimed that "form can best be learned when the learner's attention is focused on meaning". However, as Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1997, p. 143) note, the "the lack of firm linguistic guidelines in relation to what is meant by the term ['communicative approach'] led to a diversity of communicative approaches that shared only a very general common objective, namely, to prepare learners for real-life communication rather than emphasizing structural accuracy".

There is no way of being sure what content and methodology are best in any particular instance in relation to second language learning. As Sheen (1994, p. 127) notes, "the frequent paradigm shifts in the field of second and foreign language teaching have not resulted in significant progress in language learning. The fault seems to lie in the overstatement of criticisms directed at existing paradigms and the failure to challenge the validity of the advantages imputed to replacements". Furthermore, as Ioup (1984,

p. 350) observes, the research results that are needed “will not be easy to obtain” and “many of the hypotheses put forth must be viewed as tentative” [so] we must be cautious of the conclusions drawn from them”.

An overview of studies on the effect of a focus on form on second/ foreign language acquisition

Long (1983) examined the findings of ten research studies concerning the effects of formal instruction in the case of second/ foreign language teaching/ learning and concluded that “there is considerable evidence to indicate that SL [second language] instruction does make a difference” (p. 374). He noted that six of the ten studies supported the belief that formal instruction helps language acquisition, three did not, and one (i.e. Martin, 1980) seemed to indicate that exposure to language without formal instruction was helpful. Following further studies on the effects of direct formal instruction on second/ foreign language acquisition, Ellis (1994, p. 623) also reached the conclusion that “formal instruction can result in definite gains in accuracy”. He added, however, that “if the instruction is directed at a difficult grammatical structure which is substantially beyond the learner’s current interlanguage, it is likely that it will only lead to improved accuracy in planned language use”. The problem is that it is not clear from the research studies exactly what type of formal instruction is helpful and what types of effect are likely to be achieved. It is therefore useful to look at some of these studies in more detail.

An examination of some research on the effect of direct language instruction on second/ foreign language acquisition

Dulay and Burt (1974) carried out a study of Chinese-speaking and Spanish-speaking child learners of English. From that study, they concluded that there was evidence of a *natural order* of acquisition of English morphemes. If this is the case, it suggests that direct instruction may have little effect because what really matters is sufficient exposure to the language to allow natural acquisition to take place. This conclusion is also supported by other research that was carried out later (see, for example, Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982). However, these studies have been criticised by a number of linguists. Because the study conducted by Dulay and Burt (1974) was a cross-sectional one rather than a longitudinal one, it was not constructed in a way that could reveal the actual order of acquisition of morphemes. Because the data for all of the students was treated together rather than separately, it is impossible to tell what morphemes any individual learner had control of. As Ellis (1994, p. 287) has noted, experiments of this kind are not sufficiently well designed to support the view that direct language instruction is *not* effective. All they can really do is support “the commonsense assumption that learners need to understand input in order to learn from it”. In other words, these studies do NOT indicate either (a) that there is a natural order of acquisition in second/ foreign languages, or (b) that direct formal instruction is of no real value.

There are other studies – studies that are more convincing – that also argue that learners of second/ foreign languages acquire the language in the same way whatever they are taught. Cazden, Cancino, Rosansky and Schumann (1975) and Wode (1978) conducted experiments that seemed to indicate that interrogatives in English are learned in a particular sequence by all learners, and Meisel, Clahsen and Pienemann (1981) have argued that word order is learned in a particular sequence whatever learners are taught. Pavesi (1986) argues that this is also true of relative clauses. In each of these cases, the order in which particular structures appeared in the language

of second/ foreign language learners was different from the order in which they are acquired by children in the context of first language acquisition. There are, however, difficulties in interpreting the findings of experiments such as these. As Tarone (1990) argues, new forms which appear in the carefully controlled speech/ writing of second language learners may be absent, or present irregularly, in less controlled contexts. They may be used accurately and appropriately only some of the time. It could also be that teaching new forms *does* have an effect – but that that effect is less evident as time passes. Thus new forms may appear regularly immediately following instruction, but may later appear only irregularly until they are finally fully integrated into the learner's language. The fact that the language of learners is often very variable makes it extremely difficult to reach any definite conclusions about (a) the effect of direct formal instruction, and (b) the presence or absence of a natural order of acquisition.

Another problem that can be found in some of the experiments that have been carried out is that they do not seem to take full account of the very different ways in which formal instruction may happen. In other words, they do not take full account of either the methods used to teach language or the type of context in which language is taught. Even so, there is at least one very persuasive piece of evidence that supports the view that providing comprehensible input without a focus on form does *not* lead, in the case of second language learners, to accurate use over time. This is the study conducted by Swain (1985) involving students attending a Canadian French immersion programme. Swain found that these students exhibited grammatical errors in spite of the fact that they had an abundance of comprehensible input. This appears to provide firm evidence in support of the view that first and second language acquisition are very different. In fact, Newport (1990), for example, indicates that the notion that there is a 'critical period' in the case of second language acquisition is almost certainly mistaken. Stern, Burstall and Harley (1975) studied the effects of language tuition on 17,000 British schoolchildren, some of whom began their tuition at age 8, others at age 11. The results of this study – the largest single study of children learning a second language in a formal classroom setting – indicated that the older children made more rapid progress than the younger ones (something that we would not expect if the same processes were at work as in the case of first language acquisition). The findings of this study are supported by those of Genesee (1981; 1987) which involved children attending French immersion programmes in Canada. What the evidence currently available seems to indicate is that first language acquisition and second language acquisition are fundamentally different in a number of important ways. Thus, Cook (2000), summarising current research indicators, notes that the following are true only in the case of a second language: complete success is very rare; fossilization and backsliding are common; difficulties in forming grammatical judgments are common; and both teaching and correction are generally helpful.

Some support for the view that direct language instruction can have a positive effect on second/ foreign language acquisition

Weslander and Stephany (1983) studied 577 children with limited English proficiency in grades 2 to 10 in public schools in Iowa. They found that although students who had more instruction did better syntactically, the effects were strongest at the lowest levels of proficiency. However, although Ellis (1984) found that three hours of instruction in wh-questions led to some students improving a great deal (as demonstrated in a game designed to elicit relatively spontaneous oral questions), those who improved the most were actually those who had practised the least. This

experiment raises questions about the value of practice (or, at least the value of certain types of practice). So, too, does another experiment by Ellis (1992) which indicated that the accuracy with which adult beginner learners of German performed the 'verb-end' word order rule in communicative speech was not affected by differences in the amount of practice in this structure they had had over a six-month period. These experiments raise questions, but they are not questions about the value of direct language instruction. In fact, a study by Lightbown, Spada and Wallace (1980) of 175 French-speaking school learners of English showed that half-hour grammar lessons had a significant effect on judgments of grammatical accuracy (of a range of morphological features) in comparison with a control group who had not had these lessons. To some extent, this finding is contradicted by a study by Pica (1983) who looked at the effect of formal instruction on unplanned speech. He came to the conclusion that although formal instruction is of assistance, it has an effect only on those features that are easy to acquire. By 'easy to acquire' he means those cases where there is what he refers to as a transparent form-function relationship. This type of conclusion really needs much more detailed follow-up. After all, degree of transparency can actually be a factor of teaching as well as of language itself.

A conclusion that Ellis (1994, p. 621) has reached is that "formal instruction may have a delayed effect". This would not be surprising. After all, teachers constantly recycle teaching points in order to give learners the opportunity to come to terms with them gradually over a period of time. What *is* interesting about this observation is that it alerts us to the fact that experimental data should be treated with caution in that there are so many factors that need to be taken into account in interpreting them. In many cases, the experiments involved are conducted over a short time period although effects may vary over time and different results may have emerged if the experiments had been repeated.

There appears to be no convincing evidence to support the view that teachers of English in Taiwan should abandon grammatically oriented instruction. In fact, such evidence as there is suggests that this type of instruction can be helpful. The most enlightened response to the research that has emerged to far is, I believe, to treat it with caution, bearing in mind that there are many factors that need to be taken into account in its interpretation. In summarising the position, Johnson (2000, p. 174) says:

Overall, the empirical research to date suggests that contextualized formal instruction appears to result in faster learning and in higher levels of accuracy (Long, 1983; Pica, 1983), although such instruction is likely to be effective only if it is carefully timed (Pienemann, 1984; 1989) and accompanied by other types of focus (Ellis, 1983, pp. 92 - 113).

Terminology, meaning and significance

The terminology used by linguists in discussing second language learning/ acquisition reveals a lack of agreement in relation to some issues that are relevant to the research reported here.

For Krashen (1981), learning and acquisition involve distinct processes, the first (learning) being conscious, the second (acquisition) being subconscious. He sees subconscious acquisition as being the primary process, requiring no more than comprehensible input. Conscious learning is, he believes, far less significant and is limited to a restricted number of rule-governed domains. For Strozer (1994), on the

other hand, conscious grammatical instruction is necessary and significant. This raises issues that relate to what is meant by 'conscious', by 'grammatical' and by 'instruction'. Is what Strozer refers to as 'conscious grammatical instruction' fundamentally different from what Schmidt (1994) terms 'noticing'? Is 'noticing' different from 'understanding'? According to Schmidt (1995), 'noticing' involves rehearsal in short-term memory, whereas 'understanding' involves becoming familiar with rules and their meanings. Is this difference one that can be reflected in different types of instruction? Are Long's references to 'focus on form' essentially the same as references to 'consciousness-raising' by Fotos and Ellis (1991) and Rutherford (1987)? Is 'consciousness-raising' the same as 'input-enhancement' (Sharwood Smith, 1991)? The answers to these questions are critical in relation to research that seeks to determine the effect that grammatical instruction has on performance, whether that performance relates to communicative interaction or test-taking.

According to Torlaković and Brook, it is "obvious that in L2 acquisition, both explicit and implicit learning are present". But this is not, as they observe, "the same thing as direct conscious instruction being *necessary* for L2 learning". Nor does it tell us anything about "the effects of [different types] of learning" or whether what is consciously learned (by whatever method) can or does eventually become automatized (http://www.cognitivesciencesociety.org/confproc/gmu02/final_ind_files/torlakovic_brook.pdf: visited 16 July 2004). These are critical questions which highlight problems relating to the precise significance of much of the published research on the effect of grammar-based instruction on second language performance. So far as this study is concerned, the importance of these observations is that they highlight the need to be clear about exactly what is involved in the experimental process. In other words, it is important to be clear about *precisely* what the experiment involves (the precise form, for example, that the self-access resource takes and the precise nature of the pre-test and post-test). It is also important to restrict any comments made on the basis of the data gathered to what can genuinely be concluded in relation to that data rather than making inferences about grammar-based instruction more generally.

Grammar-based instruction and proficiency testing

The research conducted here has a bearing on proficiency testing only to the extent that the test instrument designed for the experiment reported here is based on part of the TOEFL test, and the TOEFL test is itself claimed to be a test of proficiency.

The concept of 'proficiency' has been defined in a range of different ways. A widely accepted definition is that provided by ACTEFL (1986), that is, "a hierarchy of global characteristics of integrated performance". The words 'global' and 'integrated' suggest that proficiency involves overall ability to use a language, rather than the ability to use particular structures accurately. Even so, in spite of recent changes to its format, the TOEFL test continues to rely heavily on the ability of test takers to select grammatical constructions on the basis of contexts that are very limited. Sections of the TOEFL focus on the atomistic (individual structures etc.) rather than the global. To this extent, the TOEFL test appears to be out of touch, to some extent at least, with contemporary approaches to proficiency testing. It is, for example, very different from other tests of proficiency such as the IELTS (International English Language Testing System) (<http://www.ielts.org/>) or the proficiency benchmarking system included in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 21 - 42). As Chen and Johnson¹ observe:

Does it [the TOEFL test] provide the best possible measure of learner proficiency? It is, after all, only one of a number of possible test instruments and there are many universities, particularly in Europe, that do not think highly of it. Like many similar tests, it measures learner performance in a particular test on a given day under a particular set of circumstances. In spite of some recent changes to its format, there are those who would argue that it is out of touch with research on the importance of rich discourse context, that it is somewhat dated in being largely atomistic in orientation (testing specific language points – often in limited single sentence contexts – rather than overall use and comprehension), and that it is culturally and cognitively biased in favour of those who have studied in a North American context. Furthermore, as North (2000) notes, it provides a number score (rather than a set of proficiency descriptors). For test takers – and anyone else who lacks detailed technical knowledge of the test – this number is largely meaningless except as an indication of whether the required threshold has been attained or not.

It is not, however, the strengths or weaknesses of the TOEFL test that concern me here. Whatever its strengths or weaknesses, the TOEFL test is currently widely used in Taiwan and it is relevant to the extent that my concern is not to determine whether the use of self-access grammar-focused materials of the type developed in the context of this research project increase overall proficiency, but whether they increase students' ability to perform well in a test similar in nature to part of the TOEFL test. So long as the TOEFL test continues to be widely accepted in Taiwan and elsewhere, the results of such an experiment will be of interest to educationalists even though, in the longer term, it might be more useful to examine the relationship between self-access grammar-focused materials and proficiency development itself (without reference – direct or indirect – to the TOEFL test).

The test instruments

Introduction

The overall aim the research project reported here was to find out whether providing instruction in the form of a self-access resource (focusing on relative clauses, modal verbs, reported speech, indirect questions, conditional sentences, the past perfect and passive constructions) increases the chances of intermediate level students of English as a foreign language to perform well on a test similar in design to the grammar section of the TOEFL test in which the language points referred to here are examined. With this aim in mind, appropriate classes (experimental and control) at *Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages* in Kaohsiung, Taiwan were identified, staff and students were invited to participate in the research and a test and self-access resource were designed on the basis of the content of the course the students were to pursue.

The content of the students' English language course

Initially, two classes of intermediate students of English as a foreign language (students who were judged, in being placed in these classes, to have approximately the same overall level of English language proficiency) were identified. In both cases, the students were studying English as a minor rather than a major subject. Each class would follow the same eighteen week first semester course (from March - July 2003). It was later decided that the research conducted in 2003 would be treated as a pilot study and that the full experiment would be run in 2004 and would involve two

different groups of students who were following the same course as those involved in the 2003 pilot study.

All of the students involved in the research project were following a course based directly on *New American Streamline: Connections* by Bernard Hartley and Peter Viney (Units 42, 51, 52, 58, 60, 61, 62, 64, 65, 66, 69, 72, 74, 75, 76). Some of the textbook units from *New American Streamline: Connections* include particular grammar points. These units were analysed and it was found that the following structures received particular attention: *relative clauses, modal verbs, reported speech, indirect questions, conditional sentences, the past perfect and passive constructions* (see *Appendix 1: Content of Relevant Units in New American Streamline: Connections*).

I then reviewed the TOEFL test with particular reference to the grammar section. This involved accessing sample test sections on the Internet (see, for example, <http://www.free-toefl.com>). The questions involved were found to be of a multiple-choice type. Two examples are provided below:

1. With the passing of time and the encroachment of people, the habitat of gorillas _____ to decrease.

- (A) continuing
- (B) which continue
- (C) continues
- (D) that it has continued

2. Sugar intake, particularly that of refined sugar, _____ curtailed by most overweight people wishing to lessen their corpulence.

- (A) must being
- (B) which must
- (C) must be
- (D) must

In designing the self-access and test materials, I took account of the nature and content of the relevant sections of the TOEFL test and the structural content of *New American Streamline: Connections* (Units 42, 51, 52, 58, 60, 61, 62, 64, 65, 66, 69, 72, 74, 75, 76). Both the self-access materials and the test were designed in such a way as to highlight the grammar points included in the units from *New American Streamline: Connections* which the students would be studying during their course. The questions contained in the test were constructed in line with the sample TOEFL test questions that had been examined.

Designing the self-access resource

The self-access resource is divided into parts (sections) – one for each of the grammatical areas covered. Each part begins with a title (sometimes including sub-headings) which clearly indicates the nature of the grammar point that is in focus. The titles are:

- Introducing Reported Questions and Reported Answers (with ‘to be’);
- Introducing: Reported Questions and Reported Answers (with What? Where? How?);

- Introducing *He said that he could . . .*;
- Introducing *Do you know if . . . ? Do you know who . . . ?*;
- Introducing *I'm sure about . . . ; I'm not sure about . . .* ;
- Introducing *I don't know if he can . . .* ;
- Introducing Tense and Time: Past Perfect + past simple - Past Perfect Continuous + past simple;
- Introducing *the one . . .* ;
- Introducing conditionals;
- Introducing passive.

In each section, the title and/or sub-heading is followed by a pictorial and verbal representation of the grammar point in focus. This is intended to indicate as clearly as possible both the relevant structure and the associated meaning/s.² Where it was considered useful to do so, this is followed by a diagrammatic representation that indicates how the target structure operates and/or is derived. This is, in turn, followed by one or more examples and exercises (see *Appendix 2: Self-access resource*).

Designing the test

A test based on the structure section of the TOEFL test and including those grammar points listed in the textbook units and demonstrated in the self-access resource was designed. Although it was felt that the fact that students *might* perform better on the test the second time round simply by virtue of the fact that they had encountered the content before, this seemed unlikely and the advantages of using the same version of the test as both a pre-test and post-test were considered to outweigh any potential disadvantages. In terms of focus, the test questions are sequenced as follows:

- Question 1:* sure about + substitution;
- Question 2:* 1st. conditional in the context of an interrogative including the present tense of the verb 'to know';
- Question 3:* 2nd. conditional in the context of a statement involving the past tense of the verb 'to ask';
- Question 4:* subject pronoun and present tense verb in the context of an imperative ('ask') + object pronoun + *where*;
- Question 5:* 1st. conditional following subject + negative form of the verb 'to know';
- Question 6:* insertion of past tense form of appropriate verb in the context of present report of past event;
- Question 7:* 1st. conditional in imperative construction;
- Question 8:* relative pronoun in the context of an interrogative involving the verb 'to know';
- Question 9:* 1st. conditional with modal auxiliary in the context of a clause involving present tense form (negative) of 'to know';
- Question 10:* Base form of the verb 'to know' in the context of present report of past event in conditional context;
- Question 11:* Past perfect in the context of past simple;
- Question 12:* relative clause containing past tense form of verb 'to be' following interrogative construction including present tense form of the verb 'to know';
- Question 13:* past perfect in the context of past simple;
- Question 14:* negative indefinite pronoun in initial position in complex object

- construction;
- Question 15:* past perfect progressive in the context of past simple;
- Question 16:* passive construction with past tense of the verb 'to be';
- Question 17:* indefinite article + indefinite pronoun in the context of noun group object following present tense form of the verb 'to be';
- Question 18:* simple passive construction involving verb 'to make';
- Question 19:* past perfect progressive in the context of simple past;
- Question 20:* conditional involving present simple form of the verb 'to be' following a main clause including the modal auxiliary 'will';
- Question 21:* passive construction involving present perfect;
- Question 22:* passive construction involving past perfect;
- Question 23:* past perfect in the context of past simple;
- Question 24:* present perfect progressive in the context of a present adverbial ('now');
- Question 25:* 3rd. conditional involving verb 'to have' in hypothetical context;
- Question 26:* 3rd. conditional involving verb 'to be' in hypothetical context;
- Question 27:* present perfect with 'already';
- Question 28:* present perfect progressive in the context of present adverbial ('now');
- Question 29:* 1st. conditional (basic);
- Question 30:* present perfect + adjective;
- Question 31:* modal verb('could') plus base form of lexical verb following reporting clause with past tense form of reporting verb;
- Question 32:* reported question involving noun group plus past tense of the verb 'to be';
- Question 33:* reported question involving past tense of the verb 'to be' followed by an adjective;
- Question 34:* reported question involving past tense of lexical verb;
- Question 35:* present perfect progressive in the context of present adverbial ('now').

The test included as *Appendix 3: The test*. The answer key is included as *Appendix 4: Test answer key*.

Setting up and reporting on the pilot study and the experiment

Introduction: Ethics-related considerations

Before the test instruments were prepared, staff at *Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages* who were teaching the relevant classes were advised of the details of the planned research and were asked whether they would be prepared, in principle, to be involved. It was indicated that involvement in the research was purely on a voluntary basis and that anyone agreeing to be involved could withdraw that agreement at any time up to the beginning of the experimental phase. Teachers who did agree to be involved would have their identities protected and all reporting would be done without reference to the names of participants. Even so, it was explained that anonymity could not be guaranteed because it would be possible for those familiar with the institution to discover which groups had been involved in the research and who had taught them. Prior to the running of the pilot study in 2003 and the experiment in 2004, students in the classes that had been targeted for involvement were advised of the nature of the proposed research and asked whether they would

agree to participate. In the case of the teachers involved, it was explained that participation was voluntary and that only those students who expressed a desire to be involved would be included. Those who initially agreed to be involved could withdraw at any stage up to the end of the post-test phase. Reporting would not include the names of students. In the event, all of the teachers and students approached agreed to be involved and none withdrew at any stage.

The pilot study

Two groups of students were involved in the pilot study which was conducted in the first semester of 2003. The first group - *Group A* - included 41 students; the second group - *Group B* - included 47 students. Each group was involved in a first semester intermediate English course based directly on *New American Streamline: Connections* by Bernard Hartley & Peter Viney (Units 42, 51, 52, 58, 60, 61, 62, 64, 65, 66, 69, 72, 74, 75, 76). In the event, it proved impossible for the students in *Group B* to take the test before their course began. For this reason, the aims of the pilot study were revised, the focus being on detecting any problems associated with either the test or the self-access resource. Even so, a number of strategies (see following) were adopted in an attempt to partially compensate for the fact that one group of students was unable to take the pre-test.

The students in *Group A* took the test (pre-test) just before they began their course (a course lasting 18 weeks). Six weeks before the end of the course, they were provided with the self-access resource and asked to complete each section in their own time and hand it in for marking.³ Unless they gained a perfect score, they were given the section again, along with instructions to look carefully at the grammatical information provided. Over a four-week period, they could repeat and submit each section as many times as they liked until they gained a perfect score. When a student completed any section correctly, that section was withdrawn. At the end of the four-week period (two weeks before the end of the course), all of the remaining sections were returned, whether or not students had successfully completed all of the exercises.

At the end of the course, the students in *Group A* took the test for the second time; the students in *Group B*, who had not been provided with the self-access resource, took the test for the first time.

Issues of objectivity, validity and reliability in relation to the test were considered in relation to test construction, test administration and test scoring. A test is *objective* if it cannot be influenced by the experimenter (test user) in its administration, scoring and interpretation. Standardisation is a precondition of objectivity, as are exact instructions for test administration, and check lists for scoring. In this case, the test instructions were designed to be the same in all cases and the test was administered in the same way and by the same person on each occasion. An answer key designed at the time the test was constructed (see *Appendix 4*) was used and the test was administered without preamble from the test administrator (the same person on each occasion), the instructions forming part of the test itself. Test *reliability*, which relates to accuracy of measurement, was assured by the multi-choice nature of the test itself. Thus, the test can be regarded as reliable because there is only one acceptable response to each multi-choice question, these responses being the only ones that are both grammatically correct and semantically appropriate. Test *validity* relates to the extent to which a test measures what it is designed to measure. In this case, the test was designed to measure candidates' ability to select correct responses from a number

of alternatives (as in the case of the section of the TOEFL test on which it is based). There is, of course, in the case of multi-choice testing, a margin of error in that the correct response can be selected by chance. However, that margin of error remains the same throughout the experiment and so should not affect the final outcome which relates to the extent of improvement of each group rather than to the absolute score of any individual.

When all of the tests had been scored, the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in *Group A* were compared. These were also compared with the post-test scores of the students in *Group B* and with the final college examination (grammar section) scores of both groups of students before the course began and at the end of the course.

The test score results are provided in *Appendix 5* alongside the results of college examinations (grammar sections) taken before the course began and at the end of the course. The scores gained in a CSEPT (Common Student English Proficiency Test) taken at the end of the year following the course are also provided⁴ (See *Appendix 5*: Test scores, examination results and CEPT results - Groups A and B).

A summary of the results for those students in *Group A* who completed the pre-test and post-test and the college examinations (grammar section) and for those in *Group B* who completed the post-test and the college grammar examinations (grammar section) follows. Note that results are rounded up to a single decimal point.

Group A

Pre-test – Total number of *incorrect* responses 331

Total number of students 41

Average number of *incorrect* responses **8.1**

Post-test – Total number of *incorrect* responses 127

Total number of students 41

Average number of *incorrect* responses **3.1**

End of course grammar exam (41 students)

Total number of *correct* responses 205 out of a possible 410

Average *correct* responses = **5.0**

Group B

Post-test – Total number of *incorrect* responses 298

Total number of students 47

Average number of *incorrect* responses **6.3**

End of course grammar exam (47 students)

Total number of *correct* responses 234 out of a possible 470

Average *correct* responses = **5.0**

The information available is summarised in a slightly different way in *Table 1* following:

Table 1: Summary of test results (pilot study): Groups A and B

	Pre-test (Average number of <i>incorrect</i> answers)	Post-test (Average number of <i>incorrect</i> answers)	Pre-course college exam (grammar section). Average number of correct responses	End of course college exam (grammar section) Average number of correct responses	Notes
Group A	8.1	3.11	6.159/61.59%	5/50%	41 students
Group B		6.34	5.7/57%	5/50%	47 students

The *Group A* students reduced their average incorrect score in the experimental test from 8.1 to 3.1 and scored an average of just over 61.6% in the end of course grammar examination.

In the **post-test**, the *Group B* students had an average incorrect score of 6.3, within 1.8 of the average incorrect score of students in *Group A* in the **pre-test**.

In the end of course grammar examination (see *Appendix 6*), *Group A* students scored an average of 61.6% and *Group B* students scored an average of 57%. In the CSEPT, *Group B* students also scored lower on average (an average of 55.8%) than did the students in *Group A* (an average of 61.1%). Thus, the students in *Group A* (those who were provided with the self-access resource) scored slightly higher in the post-test, the end of course grammar examination and the CSEPT. In the case of *Group A* students, all except 3 decreased the number of incorrect responses in the post-test (in comparison with the scores in the pre-test). The other three all retained the same score. Six of the students improved their scores by 10 points (over 28%) or more.

Combining the results of the test with gained in the end of semester examination (grammar section) and the CSEPT compensates, to some extent at least, for the fact that the students in *Group A* were unable to take the pre-test. It is, for example, interesting to note that whereas the average number of incorrect responses for students in *Group A* decreased from 8.1 in the pre-test to 3.1 in the post-test, the average number of incorrect responses of the students in *Group B* in the post-test was, at 6.3, within 1.8 points of the average incorrect response score of the students in *Group A* in the pre-test. My tentative conclusion – one that must be treated with caution in view of the fact that *B Group* students did not take the pre-test – is that the self-access instruction guide had a positive effect on students' ability to perform in the test (a test based on aspects of the TOEFL). This does not mean that explicit grammar instruction improves students' overall communicative capacity (such a conclusion would go beyond what can be realistically inferred from the data). Nor does it *necessarily* mean that explicit grammar instruction of the type made available in the self-access resource improves students' chances of performing well in the TOEFL. What it *does suggest*, however, is that explicit grammar instruction of the type made available in the self-access resource provided improves students' chances of performing well in a test designed to directly reflect the grammar points covered in the self-access materials. It is important, however, to stress that the data derived from the pilot study can be regarded as no more than indicative.

The experiment

The experiment, which was carried out in the first semester of 2004, was set up in exactly the same way as the pilot study except for the fact that both groups of students took both the pre-test and the post-test. There were two groups of students involved, both groups taking the same intermediate English course as those students who participated in the pilot study in 2003.

Two groups of students were involved – *Group C* (experimental group: 49 students) and *Group D* (control group: 48 students). In addition to the course, students in *Group C* were provided with the self-access resource pack. Once again, as in the case of *Group A* students in the pilot study, the students in *Group C* were asked to work with the resource pack for four weeks or until they were able to complete all of the associated test materials correctly (whichever was first).

A summary of the results for students in *Group C* (experimental group) and *Group D* (control group) follows. In this case, relevant CSEPT results were not available as the CSEPT is taken at the end of the year. However, the results of two college examinations (grammar sections) *were* available – one taken before the beginning of the course, and one taken at the end of the first semester of 2004 (and intended to relate directly to the content of the course).

The test scores and college examination (grammar section) results are included here as *Appendix 7*. The relevant sections of 2004 college examinations are included as *Appendix 8*.

Group C (experimental group)

Pre-test – Total number of *incorrect* responses 549

Total number of students 49

Average number of *incorrect* responses **11.2**

Post-test – Total number of *incorrect* responses 240

Total number of students 49

Average number of *incorrect* responses **4.9**

Pre-course college grammar exam

Total number of *correct* responses 315 out of a possible 490

Average *correct* responses = **6.4**

End of course college grammar exam (49 students)

Total number of *correct* responses 300 out of a possible 490

Average *correct* responses = **6.1**

Group D (control group)

Pre-test – Total number of *incorrect* responses 540

Total number of students 48

Average number of *incorrect* responses **11.25**

Post-test – Total number of *incorrect* responses 256

Total number of students 48

Average number of *incorrect* responses **5.3**

Pre-course college grammar exam (48 students)

Total number of *correct* responses 304 out of a possible 480
 Average *correct* responses = **6.3**

End of course college grammar exam (48 students)

Total number of *correct* responses 296 out of a possible 480
 Average *correct* responses = **6.2**

The information available is summarised in a slightly different way in *Table 2* following:

Table 2: Summary of test results: Groups C and D

	Pre-test (Average number of <i>incorrect</i> answers)	Post-test (Average number of <i>incorrect</i> answers)	Pre-course college exam (grammar section): Average number of correct responses	End of course (2004) college exam (grammar section): Average number of correct responses	Notes
Group C	11.2	4.89	6.43	6.12	49 students
Group D	11.25	5.33	6.3	6.16	48 students

Group C (experimental group) students reduced their average incorrect score in the experimental test from 11.2 to 4.9 and scored an average of 6.1 out of 10 (61%) in the end of course grammar examination.

Group D (control group) students reduced their average incorrect score in the experimental test from 11.25 to 5.33 and scored an average of 6.2 out of 10 (just over 60%) in the end of course grammar examination.

As can be seen from the data, the average pre- and post-test results for both groups of students were similar, although the experimental group did improve their performance on the test *slightly* more than did the control group. The average percentage score of *C Group* students was 68% on the pre-test and 86% on the post-test (an improvement of 18%); the average percentage score of *D Group* students was 67.8% on the pre-test and 84.8% on the post-test (an improvement of 17%).

At first sight, the results appear to indicate that the self-access resource had a negligible effect. However, a more detailed examination of the results is interesting. Of the 49 students in the experimental group who completed both the pre-test and the post-test, over a third – 22 (34.7%) – improved their initial score by 20% or more; of the 48 students in the control group who completed both the pre-test and the post-test, fewer than one fifth – 9 (18%) – did so. Furthermore, of the 15 students in the experimental group who improved their score by 25% or more, only 4 – just over a quarter – scored above average on an end of semester college grammar examination, whereas of the 8 students in the control group who improved their score by 25% or more, half – 4 (50%) – also scored above average on the end of semester college grammar examination. This *suggests* that the fact that the greater number of students in *Group A* (than in *Group B*) who improved their test performance by 25% or more

cannot be accounted for simply in terms of the fact that they had a higher level of overall grammatical competence.

Conclusions and recommendations

Introduction

The experiment reported here was conducted in order to test the hypothesis that direct grammar instruction (in the form made available in the self-access resource) has a positive effect on the capacity of learners of English as a foreign language to succeed in a test based on the grammar section of the TOEFL, one that focuses on the same grammar points as those that are focused on in the self-access resource. My tentative conclusion is that they do, but that that effect is far more evident in the case of some students than in the case of others.

Strengths and limitations of the experiment

The grammar resource provided to students was in the form of self-access materials. This means that anyone interested in the experiment can check exactly what was provided rather than, for example, simply taking the word of the researcher that certain structures were taught (without any evidence of precisely how they were taught). The fact that the test is multi-choice in nature with only one correct response for each question and the fact that the administration instructions are standardised and a test scoring guide is provided means that the results can be relied on. Finally, the fact that college grammar examination results are also made available provides for useful supporting evidence in relation to any conclusions drawn from the experimental data.

There are aspects of the experiment that could have been improved upon and any firm conclusions should, I believe, depend upon several re-runs of the experiment in appropriate contexts. One of the main problems experienced in conducting the experiment reported on here related to the time that was available. The research was completed within an eighteen month period. Before conducting the experiment, it was necessary to design the test and the self-access resource that were to be used. In fact, the design of the test and the self-access resource took several months. By the time they were completed, the groups of students who were to be involved were about to begin their classes. Although there was time to explain the nature of the experiment and get the consent of students and staff before the classes began, one of the classes (*Group B*) was underway before the test could be made available. In an attempt to compensate for the fact that *Group B* students were not able to take the test before their course began, I decided to take account of the college examinations (grammar sections) that all of the students took prior to their course and at the end of their course. I also decided to include the results of a CSEPT test – based on the TOEFL – taken by the students. In the post-course examination, *Group B* students performed, on average, slightly better than *Group A* students (55% as compared with 51%). This was useful information to the extent that it suggested that the fact that the performance of *Group B* students on the post-test was close to that of *Group A* students in the pre-test was unlikely to be attributable to the fact that the overall level of grammatical competence of students in this group was significantly higher than that of students in the other group. Overall, then, the data derived from the pilot study suggests that the students in the experimental group did derive some benefit (in terms of test performance) from the availability of the self-access resource.

In the first semester of 2004, it was possible to run the experiment in a more effective way in that for both groups of students – *Group C* (experimental group) and *Group D* (control group) – were able to take both the pre-test and the post-test. Even so, there were several respects in which the conditions were not ideal. Each group of students had a different teacher and so it could be that any differences detected were attributable to different levels of success in the teaching. For this reason, reference was once again made to the college grammar examinations that all of the students took before the course and at the end of it. The fact that the average score of both groups of students in these examinations was very similar suggested that any significant average differences in the test scores could be attributed to the fact that the experimental group members were given the self-access resource whereas the control group members were not.

Another area of concern is that it is impossible to be sure that the students in *Group C* did not share the self-access resource materials with students in *Group D*. For this reason, I would, if I were to run the experiment again, confine the use of the resource to supervised sessions. I would also be careful to ensure that the teacher of the control group was unfamiliar with the content of the self-access resource.

In the introduction to the second section of the self-access resource, the emphasis is placed on sentences involving 'asked' and 'told' that are structurally matched (e.g. *I asked her what her name was; She told me what her name was*). However, in the sample sentences, the students are required to supply specific information with 'told' and this involves a greater level of complexity. This reflects an error in the construction of the resource (which was unfortunately not detected during the pilot study). However, only the grammar actually illustrated appeared in the pre-test and post-test.

Finally, only one version of the test was constructed. This was used as both the pre-test and post-test. This means that students could have improved their score in the post-test simply by virtue of the fact that they had encountered the test before. Even though I believe that this is unlikely in that exposure to the test was for a very limited time period on each occasion of use, I would, if I were to run the experiment again, use a different version of the test as a pre-test and post-test even though I recognise that there could be problems associated with attempts to determine the comparability of the two versions. In preparation for this, I have designed a second version of the test, paying very careful attention to possible complicating factors such as, for example, the level of grammatical complexity exhibited in both the correct and incorrect responses to multiple choice questions. This version is very similar to the original version. In each case, the preamble is the same. In each case, there are illustrative examples (which are also very similar). The main part of each version of the test is headed *Grammar Survey* and in each case there are 35 questions. The instructions are also the same in each case. In addition to the fact that the questions in each version of the test make the same demands on students in terms of contextually situated structural competence, the choices available as responses to the questions are as closely matched as possible. Thus, for example, the options available in relation to *Question 35* (including those that are grammatically incorrect) include, in each case, the same structural range: *is washed/ is cleaned; has been washed/ has been cleaned; is being washed/ is being cleaned; has washed/ has cleaned*. In addition, the introductory part of the question is phrased in the same way: *Is the office clean? No, it _____ now; Is the car clean? No, it _____ now.*

Tentative conclusions: The pilot study

Group A students who took both the pre-test and post-test and who were provided with the self-access resource reduced their average incorrect score in the experimental test from 8.1 to 3.1 (by over 50%). They scored an average of 51% in the end of course examination (grammar section). *Group B* students – who took only the post-test and whose members were not provided with the self-access resource – had an average incorrect score of 6.3 in the post-test – an average of 1.8 more incorrect responses than the average incorrect response score of the *Group A* students in the pre-test. They scored an average of 50% in the end of course examination (grammar section). This suggested – but certainly did not indicate conclusively – that the availability of the self-access resource played a role in the improved scores of *Group A* students in the post-test as compared with their scores in the pre-test.

Tentative conclusions: The experiment

Group C (experimental group) students reduced their average incorrect score in the experimental test from 11.2 in the pre-test to 4.9 in the post-test. They scored an average of 61% in the end of course examination (grammar section). *Group D* (control group) students reduced their average incorrect score in the experimental test from 11.25 in the pre-test to 5.3 in the post-test. They scored an average of 61.6% in the end of course examination (grammar section). The average pre- and post-test scores for both groups of students were similar, although the experimental group students *did* improve their performance on the test slightly more than did the control group. The average percentage score of *C Group* students was 68% on the pre-test and 86% on the post-test (an improvement of 18%); the average percentage score of *D Group* students was 67.8% on the pre-test and 84.8% on the post-test (an improvement of 17%). At first sight, the results appear to indicate that the self-access resource had a negligible effect. However, a more detailed examination of the results is interesting. Of the 49 students in the experimental group who completed both the pre-test and the post-test, over a third – 22 (34.7%) – improved their initial score by 20% or more; of the 48 students in the control group who completed both the pre-test and the post-test, fewer than one fifth – 9 (18%) – did so. Furthermore, of the 15 students in the experimental group who improved their score by 25% or more, only 4 – just over a quarter – scored above average on an end of semester college grammar examination, whereas of the 8 students in the control group who improved their score by 25% or more, half – 4 (50%) also scored above average on the end of semester college grammar examination. This *suggests* that the fact that the greater number of students in *Group A* (than in *Group B*) who improved their test performance by 25% or more cannot be accounted for simply in terms of the fact that they had a higher level of overall grammatical competence.

Overall, the results of the pilot test and the experimental test combined suggest that the availability of the self-access grammar resource had some (limited) positive effect on the performance of students in the associated grammar test, but that that effect was more evident in the case of some students than others. This conclusion is, however, a tentative one and I do not believe that it can – without further research evidence – be used to support the view that the direct teaching of grammar has a positive effect on related grammar tests, let alone on proficiency generally. What this research demonstrates above all is, I believe, that experimental results should be treated with extreme caution. Had both groups in the first run of the experiment (later treated as a pilot study) been able to take both the pre-test and the post-test, and had the results still indicated that the experimental group out-performed those in the control group in

the post-test, I would have been tempted to conclude that there was evidence that the availability of grammar-based instructional materials improved students' ability to perform well in grammar tests (if not in genuine proficiency-based tests). However, although this was what appeared to be indicated in the 2003 pilot study, it was not borne out by the full experimental study conducted in 2004. I am not convinced that a re-run of the experiment would produce the same results as either the 2003 pilot study or the 2004 experimental one. I therefore conclude that language-based experiments of this type must be conducted several times in different contexts before any firm conclusions can be reached. This makes me considerably more sceptical about the experimental results reported in the research literature than I would otherwise have been. Carrying out this research project has taught me several important lessons, not the least of which is that teachers need to be very cautious about interpreting research literature on language teaching and learning.

Two other findings are of significance. First, although not designed specifically as a diagnostic test, the test instrument proved to be very useful for diagnostic purposes. If the grammar sections of college examinations were designed in a way that is similar to the design of the test, the results would be more useful to teachers than are those of the current examinations. Secondly, the data from both the pilot study and the experiment indicated that the students were far more successful in relation to the aims and objectives of the course than the end of course examination suggested. Since courses, teaching staff and students are often assessed in relation to the performance of students in examinations, it is important that these examinations should accurately reflect course content. If they do not, the courses, the teaching staff and the students may all appear far less successful than they actually are.

Recommendations for future research

I believe that there would be considerable value in repeating the experiment reported here – or one similar to it – in a range of different contexts and on a number of different occasions, making sure that access to the self-access resource was carefully controlled. Only then would it be possible to reach firm conclusions on the basis of the results. It would also be useful to track, so far as is possible, the teaching focus of the college course itself.

Endnotes

1. Margaret Chen and Diane Johnson: *English Language Proficiency Benchmarking in Taiwan: Issues and problems*. Paper presented at a conference at Minchuan University in Taiwan on March 3, 2004.
2. The illustrations used were created by Joan Oddy and are subject to copyright. For copyright reasons, the self-access resource cannot be used without permission.
3. It was decided to provide students with the self-access resource in paper format rather than on-line for two main reasons. First, it was felt that on-line resources might be more readily passed on to students in *Group B*. Secondly, it was felt that students who received the materials on-line might be tempted to violate copyright restrictions on the illustrations contained in the resource, possibly making use of them for other purposes.
4. The CSEPT is a test that is very similar in design to the TOEFL.

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Appendix 1: Content of Relevant Units in *New American Streamline: Connections* by Bernard Hartley & Peter Viney

Unit 42: A court case

Teaching points: Relative clauses:(He's) the (man) (I saw)
Expressions: Are you absolutely sure (about them)?

Unit 46: Making reservations

Teaching points: Reservations; Inquiries; Prepositions of place
Expressions: If you don't mind

Unit 48: Talking about the weather

Teaching points: Will it (rain)?/ It might/ might not (rain)/What will (the weather) be like (in Denver)?/ It depends on . . .

Unit 50: Asking for directions

Teaching points: Location. Prepositions of place/ movement
Expressions: Can you tell me the way/ best route to . . . ?/ Can you tell me when we get (there)?/ Does this bus go to . . . ?/ Don't bother to knock./ Exact change only./ I have an appointment with (Mrs. X)./ Just go right in./ (She)'s expecting you./ Step in./ Turn (left) on (the interstate).

Unit 51: Coast guard rescue

Teaching points: Indirect questions (1): Ask (him) if (he's married)./ Ask (her) where (she lives).
Expressions: Be in pain/ By radio/ Uh-oh.

Unit 52: UFO

Teaching points: Indirect questions (2): Do you know (who) (it is)?/ I don't know if (it's open).
Expressions: Don't ask me!/ Great!/ The engine died./ (They were) on (their) way to (Spain).

Unit 58: On the road

Teaching points: Conditional (type 1) (continued)/ Road travel.
Expressions: . . . buddy/ I don't know if you can help me./ I have no idea./ In that case . . . / It's nothing serious./ That's not necessary./ Will you take a credit card?

Unit 59 Reservations

Teaching point: Format for business letters
Expressions: by fax/ Dear Sir or Madam/ I wish to . . . / Please find enclosed/ Please hold/ That's all/ We are pleased to . . . / We look forward to . . . / Yours (truly)

Unit 60 Emergency – Dial 911

Teaching point: Past perfect (1): He had (done it). + Q + Neg
Expressions: just in time/ 911 (emergency telephone number)

Unit 61: Embarrassing experiences

Teaching point: Past perfect (2)
Expressions: do some shopping/ hand in hand

Unit 62: A ghost story

Teaching points: Past perfect (3); Past Perfect continuous; Emphatic pronouns
Expressions: Don't be silly!/ Go on/ That isn't funny.

Unit 64: Where is it made?

Teaching point: Passive (1): It is/ was made in (America)./ It is/ was imported from exported to . . . (America).
Expressions: I'm doing fine.

Unit 65: A real bargain

Teaching point: Passive (2): It has been (renovated)./ It will be (built)./ Houses
Expression: I guess not.

Unit 66: The Six O'clock Report

Teaching points: Passive (3): It is (being done)/ It had been (done)

Unit 69: Classifieds

Teaching point: Conditional (type 2): If (I) had enough money/ were rich, I'd (do that). + Q

Unit 72: What would you do?

Teaching point: Extension of conditionals (1): (If clauses)

Unit 73: Far Trek

Teaching point: Passive – modals: It can/ cannot has to/ might/ must be done.

Unit 74: Reports

Teaching point: Reported speech (1) – basic tenses: to be, can, have, Present simple, Past simple, Present perfect; Future simple

Unit 75 Oral exams

Teaching point: Reported speech (2) – questions: She asked me what (my name was)./ She asked me if (I was married).
Expressions: Hey (Martha)!/ read out loud/ right away

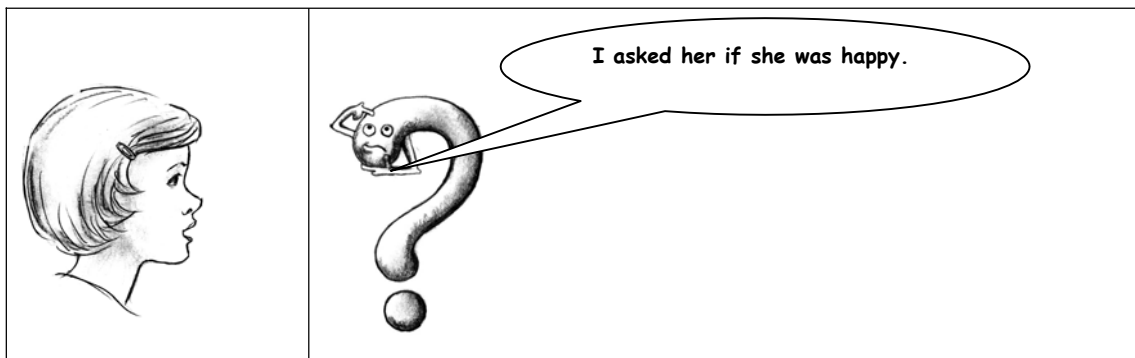
Unit 76: But you said . . .

Teaching point: Extension of reported speech (3)
Expressions: I can recommend it highly./ I'm really sorry (to hear that)./ in fact/ just a minute/ You were so right.

Appendix 2: Self-access resource

Part 1: Introducing *Reported Questions and Reported Answers (with 'to be')*

A. Look at the following images.



B. Look at how this works.

present tense of 'to be' Are	subject pronoun you	adjective happy?
--	-------------------------------	----------------------------

I	asked	her	if conjunction	she subject pronoun	was past tense of 'to be'	happy adjective
----------	--------------	------------	--------------------------	-------------------------------	-------------------------------------	---------------------------

Yes	subject pronoun I	Present tense of 'to be' am
------------	-----------------------------	---------------------------------------

She	told	me	that	she subject pronoun	was past tense of 'to be'	happy adjective
------------	-------------	-----------	-------------	-------------------------------	-------------------------------------	---------------------------

C. Here's another example.

A: Are you ill?
I asked her if she was ill.

B: Yes I am.
She told me that she was ill.

D. Now try these sentences

1. **A: Are you angry?**
I asked him _____
B: No I'm not.
He _____

2. **A: Are you interested?**
I asked her _____
B: Yes I am.
She _____

3. **A: Is it new?**
I asked her _____
B: No it's not.
She _____

4. **A: Are you too hot?**
I asked him _____
B: No I'm not.
He _____

5. **A: Is he mad?**
I asked her _____
B: Yes he is.
She _____

6. **A: Are they expensive?**
I asked her _____
B: No they're not.
She _____

7. **A: Are you ill?**
I asked him _____
B: Yes I am.
He _____

8. **A: Is it wet?**
I asked her _____
B: Yes it is.
She _____

9. **A: Is it fresh?**
I asked her _____
B: No it's not.
She _____

10. **A: Is it yellow?**
I asked her _____
B: Yes it is.
She _____

11. **A: Are they cold?**
I asked her _____
B: Yes they are.
She _____

Part 2: Introducing: *Reported Questions and Reported Answers (with What? Where? How?)*

A. Look at these pictures.



I asked her where the kettle was.
She told me where the kettle was.

B. Look at how this works.

Where	is	the	kettle?
-------	----	-----	---------

I	asked	her	where	the	kettle	was.
She	told	me	where	the	kettle	was.

C. Here's another example.

A: What's the time?
I asked her what the time was.

B: Ten o'clock
She told me what the time was.

D. Now try these sentences

1. **A: What's your name?**
I asked her _____
 B: Mary.
She told me _____

2. **A: What's in the box?**
I asked her _____
 B: Apples.
She told me _____

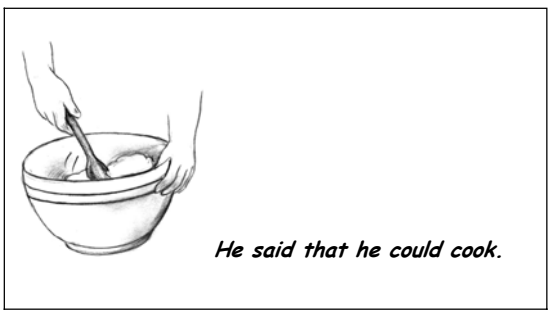
3. **A: Where are the keys?**
I asked her _____
 B: On the table.
She told me _____

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4. **A: How do you feel?**
I asked her _____
B: Good.
She told me _____
5. **A: What's under the table?**
I asked him _____
B: The cat.
He told me _____
6. **A: Where are your books?**
I asked her _____
B: In my bag.
She told me _____
7. **A: Where do you live?**
I asked her _____
B: In Taiwan.
She told me _____
8. **A: How do you feel?**
I asked her _____
B: Good.
She told me _____
9. **A: How angry are you?**
I asked her _____
B: I'm very angry.
She told me _____
10. **A: Where is your umbrella?**
I asked him _____
B: In the car.
He told me _____

Part 3: Introducing *He said that he could . . .*

A. Look at the following picture



B. Look at how this works.

I	can	cook.			
He	said	that	he	could	cook.

An arrow points from the 'can' in the first row to the 'could' in the second row.

C. Here's another example

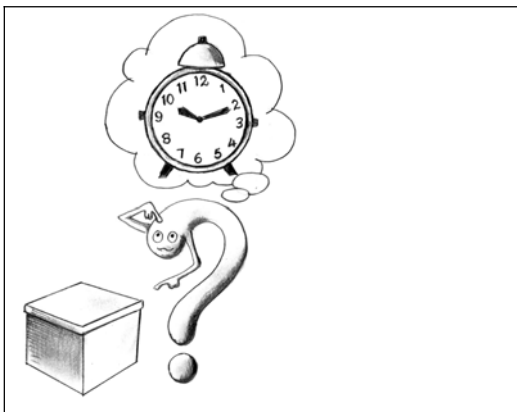
I can read English.
He said that he could read English.

D. Now try these sentences

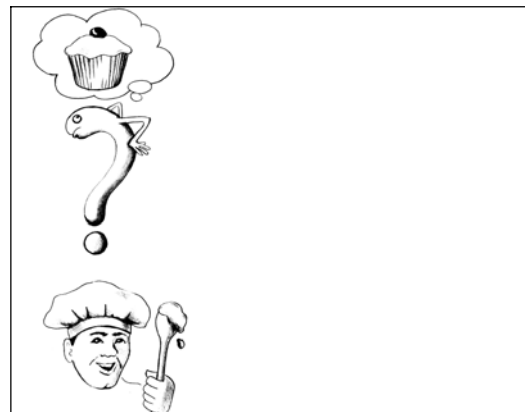
1. I can play the piano.
She said _____.
2. I can swim.
He said _____.
3. I can play tennis.
She said _____.
4. I can hear the train.
She said _____.
5. I can cook rice.
He said _____.
6. I can feed the cat.
She said _____.
7. I can ride a bicycle.
She said _____.
8. I can see Tom.
She said _____.
9. I can do it.
She said _____.

Part 4: Introducing *Do you know if . . . ? Do you know who . . . ?*

A. Look at the following pictures



Is the alarm clock in the box?
Do you know if the alarm clock is in the box?
I don't know if it's in the box.



Who ate the cake?
Do you know who ate the cake?
I don't know who ate the cake.

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B. Here's another example

<p>Who bought the apples? Do you know who bought the apples?</p>

C. Now try these sentences

Part (i)

- 1. Who has my pen?**
Do you _____?
I don't know _____.
- 2. Who took my pen?**
Do you _____?
I don't know _____.
- 3. Who is ill?**
Do you _____?
I don't know _____.
- 4. Who ate the banana?**
Do you _____?
I don't know _____.
- 5. Who had the keys?**
Do you _____?
I don't know _____.
- 6. Who has the newspaper?**
Do you _____?
I don't know _____.
- 7. Who took the newspaper?**
Do you _____?
I don't know _____.
- 8. Who is angry?**
Do you _____?
I don't know _____.
- 9. Who saw the accident?**
Do you _____?
I don't know _____.
- 10. Who had the keys?**
Do you _____?
I don't know _____.

B. Here's another example

<p>Is the cat ill? Do you know if the cat is ill?</p>
--


C. Now try these sentences

Part (ii)


1. **Is it in the cupboard?**
Do you know _____?
2. **Was he ill?**
Do you know _____?
3. **Is he happy?**
Do you know _____?
4. **Was she late?**
Do you know _____?
5. **Is the water hot?**
Do you know _____?
6. **Was the movie expensive?**
Do you know _____?
7. **Is the movie interesting?**
Do you know _____?
8. **Was the cake good?**
Do you know _____?
9. **Is she nice?**
Do you know _____?
10. **Was the cat hungry?**
Do you know _____?

Part 5: Introducing I'm sure about . ; I'm not sure about .

A. Look at the following pictures



Is the clown clever?
Yes.
Are you sure?
Yes, I'm sure about it.



Is the clown clever?
I think so.
Are you sure?

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B. Here's are some more examples


<p>A: Does the train leave at 7 o'clock? B: Yes. A: Are you sure? B: Yes, I'm sure about it.</p>	<p>Is he a doctor? I think so. Are you sure? No, I'm not sure about it.</p>
--	---

C. Now try these sentences

- A: Is the cake good?
B: Yes.
A: Are you sure?
B: Yes, _____.
- A: Is the book expensive?
B: I think so.
A: Are you sure?
B: No, _____.
- A: Is the water hot?
B: Yes.
A: Are you sure?
B: Yes, _____.
- A: Is the book expensive?
B: I think so.
A: Are you sure?
B: No, _____.
- A: Is the cat happy?
B: I think so.
A: Are you sure?
B: No, _____.
- A: Is it an interesting movie?
B: Yes.
A: Are you sure?
B: Yes, _____.

Part 6: Introducing *I don't know if he can . . .*


A. Look at these pictures



Can he find the treasure?
I don't know.
I don't know if he can find the treasure.


Can he find the keys?
I don't know.
I don't know if he can find the keys.

B. Here's another example




Can he play the drum?
I don't know if he can play the drum.


C. Now try these sentences




Can she play the violin?
I don't know _____



Can she play the triangle?
I don't know _____



Can she cook?
I don't know _____

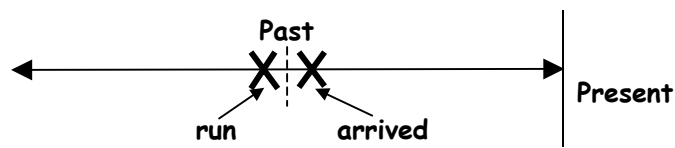
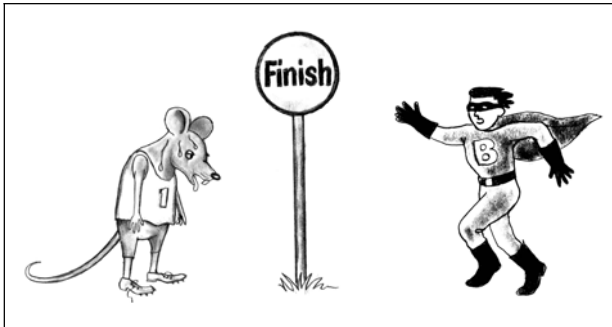


Can he jump high?
I don't know _____

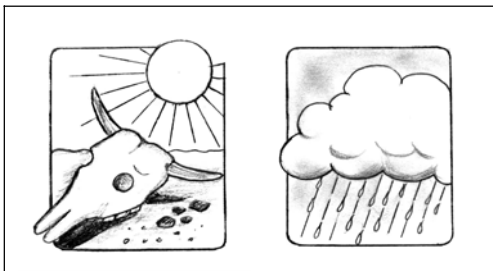
Part 7: Introducing Tense and Time

A. Look at these pictures

Past Perfect + past simple

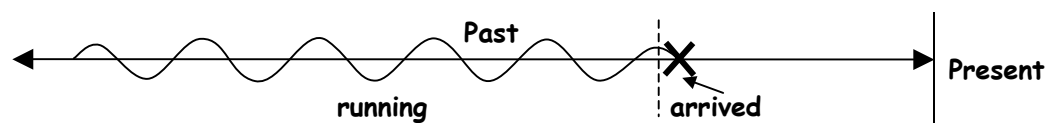
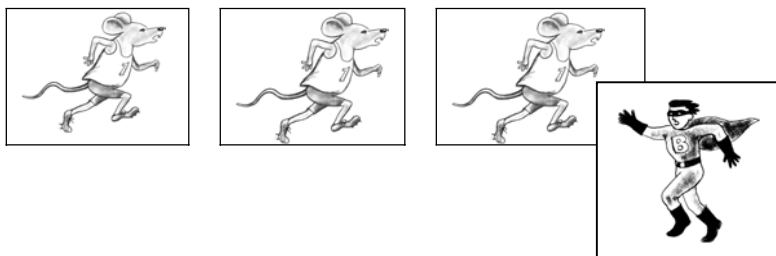
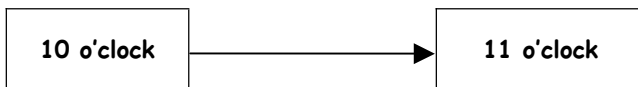


Mouse had (already) run the race when Batman arrived.



It had been dry (for years) when the rain came.

Past Perfect Continuous + past simple



Mouse had been running (for an hour) when Batman arrived.

B. Here are some more examples

They (watch) television for an hour when I (arrive).
They **had been watching** television for an hour when I **arrived**.

John (unhappy) for weeks when he (meet) Sally.
John **had been unhappy** for weeks when he **met** Sally.

When I (arrive) he (eat) dinner.
When I **arrived** he **had already eaten** dinner.

C. Now try these sentences

1. I (wait) for three hours when the train (arrive).

2. He (clean) the house when I (get) home.

3. She (ill) for two weeks when I (call) the doctor.

4. He said that he (work) all day.

5. Mary (read) all day when Tom (phone).

6. The old man (lonely) for a long time when he (meet) Sally.

7. When I (arrive) at the office, the mail (already deliver).

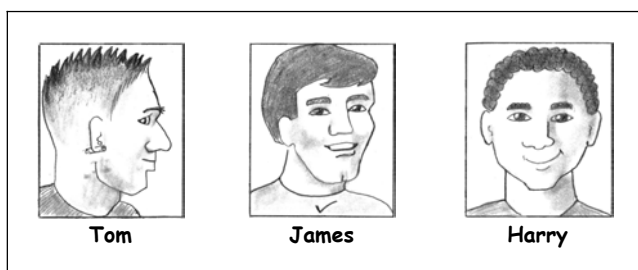
8. The child (excited) for weeks when Christmas (arrive).

9. The child (scream) for hours when I (give) her the doll.

10. He (already leave) when the rain (start).

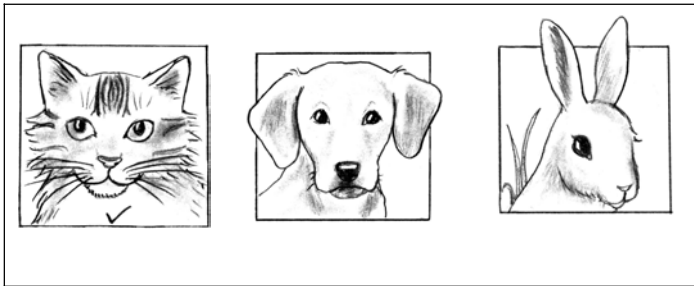
Part 8: Introducing *the one*

A. Look at the following pictures.



Who do you like - Tom, James or Harry?
James is the one I like.

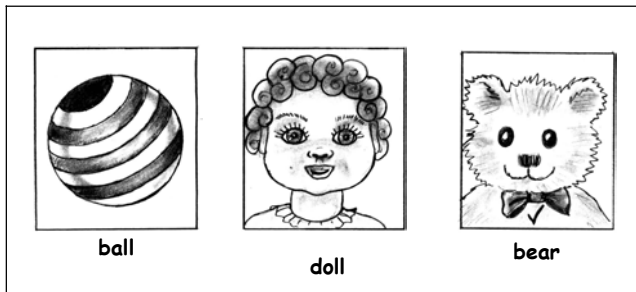
B. Here's another example.



Which animal do you like?
The cat is the one I like.

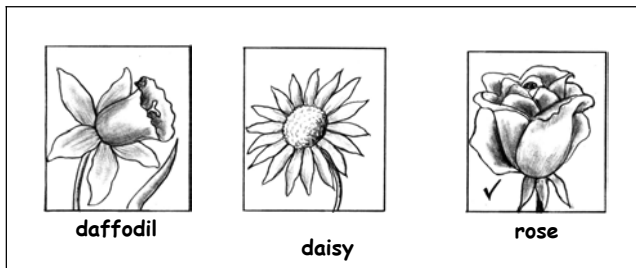
C. Now try these sentences

1. Which toy do you like?



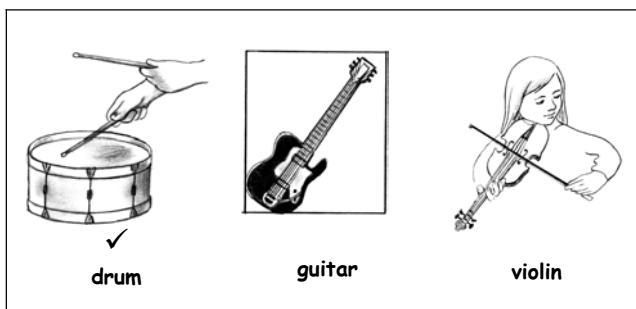
The bear _____

2. Which flower do you like?



The rose _____

3. Which instrument do you like?



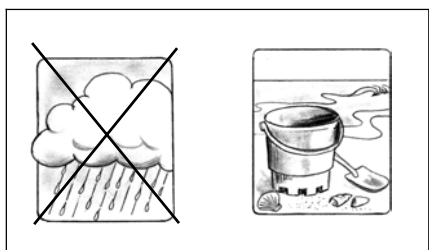
The drum _____

Part 9: Introducing *Conditionals*

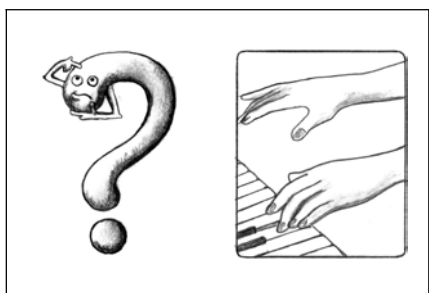
A. Look at the following pictures



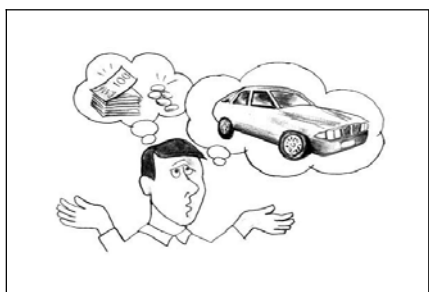
Will it rain? We don't know.
If it rains, we'll visit grandma.



Will it rain? We don't know.
If it doesn't rain, we'll go to the beach.



Can she play the piano? I don't know.
I don't know if she can play the piano.

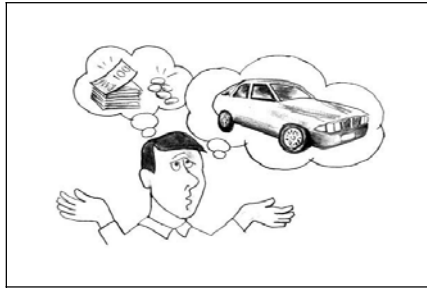


Am I rich?
No.
If I were rich, I'd buy a car.

If I **were** rich, I'd (**I would**) buy a car.

were **would** **buy** **a** **car**
verb adjective

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Do I have money?

No.

If I had money, **I'd** buy a car.

If I **had** money, I'd (**I would**) buy a car.

verb

noun

B. Here are some more examples

If it rains, I (TAKE/UMBRELLA).

If it rains, I'll take an umbrella.

If (~~RAIN~~), I'll walk to the park.

If it doesn't rain, I'll walk to the park.

I don't know if he (ABLE/SWIM).

I don't know if he can swim.

I'm not a builder. If I (BUILDER), I (BUILD/HOUSE)

I'm not a builder. If I were a builder, I'd build a house.

I don't have a garden. If I (GARDEN), I (GROW/FLOWERS).

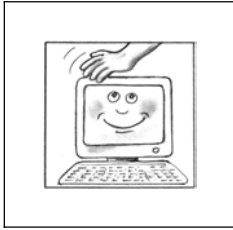
I don't have a garden. If I had a garden, I'd grow flowers.

1. I (WEAR/COAT) if it snows.
I _____ if it snows.
2. I don't know if she (ABLE/SKI).
I don't know if she _____
3. I'm not an artist. If I (ARTIST), I (PAINT) a picture of you.
I'm not an artist. **If I _____, I _____ a picture of you.**
4. I don't have a pen. If I (PEN), I (WRITE) the instructions.
I don't have a pen. **If I _____, I _____ the instructions.**
5. If it is a sunny day, we (HAVE/PICNIC).
If it is a sunny day, we _____
6. She doesn't have a cell phone. If she (CELL PHONE), she (PHONE) you.
She doesn't have a cell phone. **If she _____, she _____ you.**
7. **If it (~~RAIN~~), we (VISIT) Taipei.**
If it _____, we _____
8. I don't know if he (ABLE/SING).
I don't know if he _____
9. I don't know if he (ABLE/DANCE).
I don't know if he _____

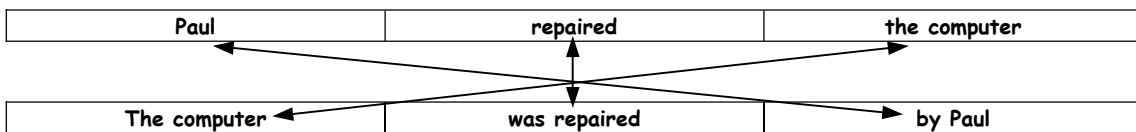
10. My cat isn't a hunter. If he (HUNTER), he (CATCH) that mouse.
 My cat isn't a hunter. **If he** _____, **he** _____ that mouse.

Part 10: Introducing *Passive*

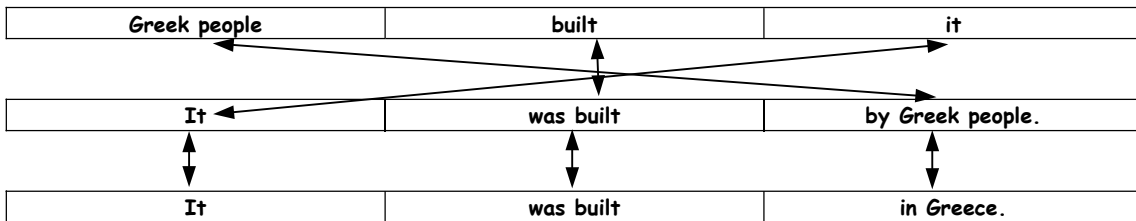
A. Look at the following pictures and see how the sentences work



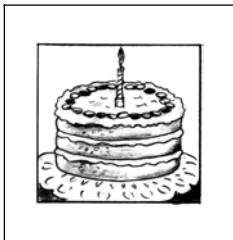
Paul repaired the computer.
The computer was repaired by Paul.



Greek people built it.
It was built by Greek people.
It was built in Greece.

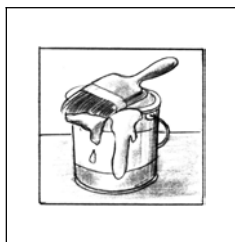


B. Here are some more examples



Can I make the birthday cake?
 No. **It has been made (already) (by Sally).**
The birthday cake already exists.

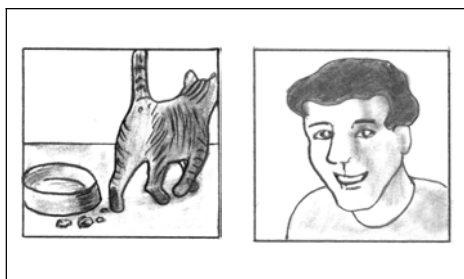
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Can I paint the kitchen?

No. **It has been painted (already) (by Tom).**

Tom has already painted the kitchen.



past

past (later)

The cat had (already) been fed when John arrived home.

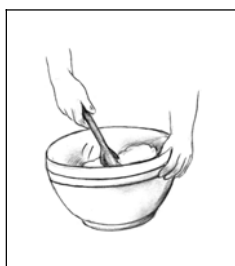


Shall I read to the children?

No. Sally is doing it.

It is being done (by Sally) (now).

Sally is reading to the children.



Shall I cook dinner?

No. Tom is cooking it.

It is being cooked (by Tom) (now).

Tom is cooking dinner.

It (made/was made/might made) in New Zealand.

It _____ in New Zealand.

It was made in New Zealand.

Tom made it.

Passive: It _____ Tom.

It was made by Tom.

Tom posted it yesterday.

Passive: It _____ Tom.

It was posted by Tom.

Can I post the letter? No, it (posted/has posted/has been posted) already.

Can I post the letter? No, it has been posted already.

Is my car clean? No, it (wash/is washing/is being washed) at the moment.

Is my car clean? No _____ at the moment.

No it's being washed at the moment.

C. Now try these sentences

1. **That computer (made/had made/had been made) in England.**
That computer _____ in England.
2. **The doll (broken/ can broken/ could broken/ was broken) by Mary.**
The doll _____ by Mary.
3. **That car (made/was made/could made)**
That car _____ in Taiwan.
4. **Your room (is cleaned/ is being cleaned/was cleaned) at the moment.**
Your room _____ at the moment.
5. **The meal (had cooked/had been cooked/ cooking) when I arrived.**
The meal _____ when I arrived.
6. **The mouse (had caught/was caught/ is caught) by the cat.**
The mouse _____ by the cat.
7. **All the T-shirts (had sold/were sold/had been sold) when I got there.**
All the T shirts _____ when I got there.
8. **The computer (was being mended/mended/could mended) by an electrician.**
The computer _____ by an electrician.
9. **The dish (is broken/had broken/had been broken) by my mother.**
The dish _____ by my mother.
10. **Tom's sport shirt (washed/can being washed/is being washed) by his mother.**
Tom's sport shirt _____ by his mother.

Appendix 3: The test

Grammar Survey

Name/ number: _____

Class: _____



In this grammar survey, you will find a number of sentences that have missing sections. Below the sentence are 4 possible choices for completing the sentence. Read the sentence, consider the choices, then put a tick (✓) in the box next to the best choice to complete the sentence. Here are two examples to show you what to do.

EXAMPLE 1:

He ran _____.

<input type="checkbox"/>	A	quick
<input type="checkbox"/>	B	the plant
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	C	quickly
<input type="checkbox"/>	D	him

EXAMPLE 2:

I like _____ apples.

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	A	eating
<input type="checkbox"/>	B	eat
<input type="checkbox"/>	C	buy
<input type="checkbox"/>	D	him

If you change your mind about your answer, put a cross through the first answer and then tick another box. Here is an example to show you what to do.

EXAMPLE 3:

The sun is _____.

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	A	shine
<input type="checkbox"/>	B	shone
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	C	shining
<input type="checkbox"/>	D	shined

Grammar Survey

Now begin the survey. There are 35 questions. Remember, you will find a number of sentences that have missing sections. Below the sentence are 4 possible choices for completing the sentence. Read the sentence, consider the choices, then put a tick (✓) in the box next to the best choice to complete the sentence.

1. I am absolutely sure _____ .

<input type="checkbox"/>	A	that
<input type="checkbox"/>	B	about that
<input type="checkbox"/>	C	it
<input type="checkbox"/>	D	him

2. Do you know _____ .

<input type="checkbox"/>	A	is it's there
<input type="checkbox"/>	B	it there
<input type="checkbox"/>	C	if it's there
<input type="checkbox"/>	D	is it there

3. He asked me _____ I was happy.

<input type="checkbox"/>	A	that
<input type="checkbox"/>	B	if
<input type="checkbox"/>	C	what if
<input type="checkbox"/>	D	nicely

4. Ask her where _____ .

<input type="checkbox"/>	A	she works
<input type="checkbox"/>	B	she work
<input type="checkbox"/>	C	work
<input type="checkbox"/>	D	worked

5. I don't know _____ .

<input type="checkbox"/>	A	he like it
<input type="checkbox"/>	B	if he likes it
<input type="checkbox"/>	C	if he like it
<input type="checkbox"/>	D	he likes it

6. He _____ me where the garage is.

<input type="checkbox"/>	A	said
<input type="checkbox"/>	B	argued
<input type="checkbox"/>	C	says
<input type="checkbox"/>	D	told

7. Ask her _____ it's raining.

<input type="checkbox"/>	A	is
<input type="checkbox"/>	B	if
<input type="checkbox"/>	C	that
<input type="checkbox"/>	D	if that

Does direct grammar instruction improve students' performance?

8. Do you know _____ bought the dress?

- | | | |
|--|---|---------|
| | A | whose |
| | B | why |
| | C | who |
| | D | why not |

9. I don't know _____ to the party.

- | | | |
|--|---|----------------|
| | A | if he come |
| | B | if he can come |
| | C | if he can came |
| | D | if can came |

10. She doesn't _____ if John passed the exam.

- | | | |
|--|---|-----------|
| | A | knew |
| | B | knows |
| | C | know |
| | D | knowledge |

11. When I arrived he _____ already eaten dinner.

- | | | |
|--|---|--------|
| | A | has |
| | B | could |
| | C | should |
| | D | had |

12. Does Mary know _____ .

- | | | |
|--|---|------------------------|
| | A | who was at the party |
| | B | was at the party |
| | C | which was at the party |
| | D | who at the party |

13. The train _____ when I reached the station.

- | | | |
|--|---|------------|
| | A | must left |
| | B | has left |
| | C | had left |
| | D | could left |

14. Jean's the _____ I like.

- | | | |
|--|---|-------|
| | A | who |
| | B | that |
| | C | one |
| | D | dress |

15. They _____ television for an hour when I arrived.

- | | | |
|--|---|--------------------|
| | A | had been watch |
| | B | had been watching |
| | C | have been watching |
| | D | have watched |

16. The book _____ by Paul.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | written |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | was written |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | write |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | wrote |

17. It 's _____ I like.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-----------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | the which |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | one |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | which |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | the one |

18. It _____ in Taiwan.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|----------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | was made |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | made |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | make |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | has make |

19. We _____ for twenty minutes when the bus arrived.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | had been waiting |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | were waiting |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | waited |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | have been waiting |

20. I'll ask him _____ .

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|--------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | is he sick |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | if he's sick |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | he is sick |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | he was sick |

21. It _____ to you by Paul.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-----------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | is posted |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | posted |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | has posted |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | has been posted |

22. When I saw the toy, it had already _____.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | broke |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | break |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | been broken |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | be broke |

23. The work _____ when I arrived.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|---------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | had be done |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | done |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | had been done |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | has been done |

Does direct grammar instruction improve students' performance?

24. Is the car clean? No, it _____ now.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-----------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | is being washed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | has been washed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | is washed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | has washed |

25. If I _____ enough money, I'd buy that car.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | have |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | would have |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | did have |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | had |

26. If I _____ a police officer, I'd arrest him.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|----------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | would be |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | am |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | were |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | can be |

27. It has already _____ built.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | be |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | been |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | was |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | has |

28. Your meal _____ now.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | is being cooked |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | was being cooked |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | has being cooked |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | had being cooked |

29. We'll go if it _____.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|---------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | couldn't rain |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | didn't rain |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | rain |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | doesn't rain |

30. He said that his daughter _____ for a week.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|---------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | had been sick |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | be |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | is |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | has be sick |

31. She said that he _____ early.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | has leave |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | could leave |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | could left |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | had leave |

32. She asked me what _____.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|----------|--------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | his name was |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | his name is |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | is his name |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | was his name |

33. I asked her if _____.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|----------|--------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | she is sick |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | is sick |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | she was sick |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | was sick |

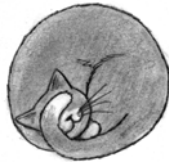
34. She asked me how _____.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|----------|--------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | I felt |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | feel |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | I feel |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | felt |

35. Is the car clean? No, it _____ now.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|----------|-----------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | A | is washed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | B | has been washed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | C | is being washed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | D | has washed |

This is the end of the grammar survey. Now check your answers.



Appendix 4: Test answer key

Example	Answer	Example	Answer
Example 1	C	17.	D
Example 2	D	18.	A
Example 3	C	19.	A
1.	B	20.	B
2.	C	21.	D
3.	B	22.	C
4.	A	23.	C
5.	B	24.	A
6.	D	25.	D
7.	B	26.	C
8.	C	27.	B
9.	D	28.	A
10.	C	29.	D
11.	D	30.	A
12.	A	31.	B
13.	C	32.	A
14.	C	33.	C
15.	B	34.	A
16.	B	35.	C

Appendix 5: Test scores, examination results and CSEPT scores - Groups A and B

Group A	Correct (pre-test)	Incorrect (pre-test)	Correct (post-test)	Incorrect (post-test)	Final Exam Grammar 10 Jan. 2003	Final Exam Grammar 10 June 2003	CSEPT NOV 2003
1	31	4	33	2	8	6	
2	23	12	33	2	6	4	62
3	30	5	32	3	7	3	65
4	31	4	34	1	7	7	89
5	14	21	28	7	3	3	
6	33	2	34	1	5	7	86
7	33	2	35	0	7	3	72
8	25	10	29	6	8	8	62
9	32	3	32	3	5	8	43
10	29	6	31	4	8	6	65
11	30	5	30	5	6	4	50
12	29	6	30	5	7	4	46
13	30	5	34	1	8	5	48
14	24	11	32	3	4	3	38
15	20	15	24	11	4	1	48
16	25	8	33	2	5	5	60
17	21	14	28	7	4	4	43
18	34	1	35	0	10	7	106
19	30	5	33	2	4	4	84
20	27	8	34	1	5	5	67
21	28	7	30	5	5	5	46
22	28	7	33	2	7	4	48
23	17	18	32	3	5	5	53
24	26	9	34	1	5	7	60
25	30	5	32	3	6	5	60
26	25	10	32	3	7	4	34
27	30	5	34	1	6	3	50
28	27	8	32	3	6	7	67
29	24	11	35	0	7	6	70
30	28	7	34	1	6	7	62
31	21	14	33	2	7	6	53
32	33	2	35	0	8	3	89
33	19	16	29	6	6	4	38
34	27	8	32	3	6	7	55
35	27	8	34	1	7	5	60
36	30	5	33	2	8	8	67
37	25	10	34	1	5	7	89
38	25	10	26	9	4		
39	30	5	28	7	9	5	
40	28	7	33	2	5	8	
41	23	12	29	6	5	2	
	26.87804	8.07317	31.90243	3.09756	6.12195	5.125	61

Does direct grammar instruction improve students' performance?

Group B	Correct	Incorrect	Pre-course grammar exam	End of course grammar exam	CSEPT-Grammar
1	32	3	6	8	70
2	29	6	6	4	72
3	26	9	4	2	50
4	31	4	6	4	60
5	30	5	6	5	53
6	31	4	6	6	62
7	26	9	3	4	
8	34	1	7	6	72
9	31	4	7	5	62
10	31	4	5	6	77
11	32	3	6	6	46
12	30	5	8	5	58
13	32	3	7	10	77
14	30	5	6	6	65
15	25	10	4	3	38
16	26	9	5	3	46
17	28	7	6	8	62
18	24	11	4	8	62
19	30	5	5	1	34
20	26	9	6	3	60
21	31	4	7	8	67
22	30	5	8	7	48
23	32	3	6	5	70
24	32	3	7	4	58
25	30	5	7	4	48
26	27	8	6	4	46
27	33	2	7	6	70
28	29	6	5	5	41
29	28	7	3	6	41
30	32	3	6	8	62
31	19	16	6	5	50
32	30	5	7	4	50
33	34	1	8	6	72
34	31	4	6	5	48
35	29	6	4	6	58
36	27	8	3	3	62
37	35	0	4	1	46
38	24	11	6	3	62
39	32	3	7	8	70
40	30	5	5	5	55
41	30	5	7	4	46
42	29	6	6	5	55
43	20	15	6	3	19
44	27	8	2	4	48
45	27	8	7	8	70
46	25	10	5	2	46
47	10	25	4	2	29
	28.6595	6.3404	5.7021	4.9787	55.7173

Appendix 6: 2003 college grammar examinations

Final college exam 2003 (pre-course)

Part A: Choose the right statement for each question.

1. A. I already have saw that movie.
B. How many new friends have you been knowing since you came here?
C. I have written my wife a letter every other day for the last two weeks.
D. Since the beginning of the twentieth century, medical scientists made many important discoveries.
2. A. I used to be fat, but now I'm not.
B. I am used to be fat.
C. I didn't used to be fat.
D. I never use to be as fat as I am now.
3. A. Those aren't Fred's books, are they?
B. She'll help us later, will she?
C. There is a meeting tonight, isn't it?
D. Life in Wenzao is wonderful, isn't that?
4. A. They are the ones that won the race.
B. Alexander Bell was the man invented the telephone.
C. What was the name of the man whom lent you money?
D. He is the one saved the little girl from the fire.
5. A. She asked me call her back later.
B. Ask Paul do not interrupt me while I am working.
C. The doctor told me to stay in bed for a few days.
D. Tell Fanny to not use the copy machine for personal materials.

Part B: The following sentences contain errors. Choose only one mistake for each question below.

1. I admit that I have got older since I last saw you, but with any luck at all, I also got wiser.
D A B C
2. Last night while we were walking home, we saw an unidentified fly object.
A B C D
3. The baby is crying. She has been cried for almost ten minutes. I wonder what's wrong.
A B C D
4. Linda is the one that has been interesting in astrology since she was a little girl.
A B C D
5. Would you mind tell me how to get to the President Department Store? You can tell me
A B C
what bus I should take.
D

Final college exam (post-course)

Part A. Finish the sentence with the correct answer. (2 points each)

1. I won't go to the party this weekend . . .
A. if I will feel sick.
B. if I couldn't finish all of my homework.
C. if my sweetheart doesn't come with me.
D. All of the above.

Does direct grammar instruction improve students' performance?

2. If I were the President of Taiwan, . . .
- A. I must give all students more holidays.
 - B. I could have a nice office in Taipei.
 - C. I will pay teachers more money.
 - D. Both A and B.
3. When I got home last night, . . .
- A. it was started raining.
 - B. it already started raining.
 - C. it was raining.
 - D. Both B and C.
4. . . . before I saw the UFO fly past me in the night sky.
- A. I had been driving on the road for about half an hour . . .
 - B. I have never believed that aliens were real . . .
 - C. I talked on my cell phone with a friend . . .
 - D. Both A and C.
5. I saw the new James Bond movie last weekend . . .
- A. because I ever seen all the other James Bond movies.
 - B. when the cinema started burning.
 - C. although I haven't liked most of his previous films.
 - D. None of the above.

Part B. Write the correct form of the verb in parentheses. Be sure the tense is correct too! (2 points each)

1. He thinks that cars which (make) in Italy are better than French cars.
2. The alien told the captain, "First, you (take) by my crew to our spaceship and then we will eat you!"
3. The popular movie (watch) by ten million people since it opened last month.
4. Almost one billion bottles of tat soda (sell) last year.
5. A new highway (build) right now near my house. I hope there isn't a lot of traffic noise when it is finished!"

Appendix 7: Test scores and examination results - Groups C and D

Group C	Correct (pre-test)	Incorrect (pre-test)	Correct (post-test)	Incorrect (post-test)	Pre-course college grammar exam	End of course college grammar exam
1	22	13	22	13	5	4
2	21	14	26	9	5	4
3	24	11	30	5	6	8
4	25	10	31	4	6	5
5	20	15	25	10	6	6
6	18	17	30	5	6	3
7	23	12	30	5	5	8
8	19	16	31	4	6	5
9	23	12	32	3	4	6
10	25	10	30	5	10	9
11	17	18	26	9	6	5
12	21	14	32	3	4	7
13	29	6	33	2	6	6
14	32	3	34	1	10	9
15	29	6	34	1	9	9
16	24	11	34	1	6	3
17	23	12	30	5	7	9
18	19	16	28	7	8	5
19	24	11	33	2	7	7
20	24	11	32	3	6	5
21	25	10	29	6	6	3
22	21	14	30	5	7	4
23	29	6	32	3	8	6
24	29	6	32	3	10	9
25	23	12	30	5	7	5
26	18	17	32	3	5	5
27	25	10	32	3	6	9
28	34	1	35	0	9	9
29	29	6	32	3	6	6
30	24	11	29	6	6	7
31	17	18	30	5	7	9
32	19	16	32	3	6	5
33	25	10	31	4	5	6
34	21	14	32	3	7	5
35	31	4	33	2	9	9
36	21	14	29	6	5	7
37	22	13	27	8	5	8
38	22	13	30	5	6	6
39	30	5	31	4	7	7
40	29	6	29	6	7	5
41	30	5	29	6	6	4
42	22	13	24	11	6	3
43	17	18	28	7	6	6
44	28	7	34	1	6	7
45	18	17	23	12	7	4
46	24	11	33	2	7	8
47	28	7	31	4	6	6
48	25	10	32	3	6	6
49	18	17	21	14	3	3
	23.79591	11.20408	30.10204	4.89795	6.42857	6.12244

Does direct grammar instruction improve students' performance?

Group D	Correct (pre-test)	Incorrect (pre-test)	Correct (post-test)	Incorrect (post-test)	Pre-course college grammar exam	End of course college grammar exam
1	21	14	29	6	7	8
2	27	8	31	4	5	9
3	26	9	27	8	7	7
4	24	11	29	6	8	8
5	31	4	34	1	8	9
6	25	10	28	7	8	8
7	23	12	29	6	7	4
8	31	4	34	1	6	9
9	25	10	30	5	4	4
10	19	16	21	14	8	7
11	17	18	29	6	7	6
12	23	12	30	5	7	4
13	22	13	27	8	6	4
14	22	13	31	4	7	6
15	22	13	32	3	6	7
16	21	14	23	12	6	5
17	25	10	33	2	6	6
18	20	15	25	10	7	6
19	27	8	29	6	7	6
20	26	9	31	4	7	8
21	23	12	31	4	6	7
22	24	11	29	6	3	4
23	24	11	32	3	5	4
24	21	14	26	9	6	4
25	29	6	35	0	9	8
26	31	4	33	2	7	5
27	9	26	26	9	5	4
28	21	14	32	3	8	9
29	29	6	34	1	9	8
30	21	14	28	7	7	4
31	23	12	29	6	7	7
32	20	15	29	6	7	7
33	27	8	33	2	5	8
34	25	10	33	2	7	6
35	24	11	27	8	8	4
36	30	5	33	2	2	7
37	20	15	33	2	8	9
38	23	12	30	5	5	7
39	16	19	22	13	4	2
40	30	5	35	0	8	10
41	25	10	32	3	5	6
42	26	9	30	5	5	5
43	25	10	34	1	9	9
44	27	8	32	3	8	7
45	30	5	26	9	4	2
46	22	13	35	0	7	5
47	15	20	20	15	3	5
48	23	12	23	12	3	2
	23.75	11.25	29.66	5.3333	6.3333	6.16666

Appendix 8: 2004 college grammar examinations

Final college exam 2004 (pre-course)

Part A: Choose the **right** statement for each question.

1. A. I already have saw that movie.
B. How many new friends have you been knowing since you came here?
C. I have written my wife a letter every other day for the last two weeks.
D. Since the beginning of the twentieth century, medical scientists made many important discoveries.
2. A. I used to be fat, but now I'm not.
B. I am used to be fat.
C. I didn't used to be fat.
D. I never use to be as fat as I am now.
3. A. Those aren't Fred's books, are they?
B. She'll help us later, will she?
C. There is a meeting tonight, isn't it?
D. Life in Wenzao is wonderful, isn't that?
4. A. They are the ones that won the race.
B. Alexander Bell was the man invented the telephone.
C. What was the name of the man whom lent you money?
D. He is the one saved the little girl from the fire.
5. A. She asked me call her back later.
B. Ask Paul do not interrupt me while I am working.
C. The doctor told me to stay in bed for a few days.
D. Tell Fanny to not use the copy machine for personal materials.

Part B: The following sentences contain errors. Choose only one mistake for each question below.

1. It's amazing that Dan and Dave taught himself to play the guitar. They both enjoy themselves when playing it.
A B C D
2. Last night while we were walking home, we saw an unidentified fly object.
A B C D
3. The baby is crying. She has been cried for almost ten minutes. I wonder what's wrong.
A B C D
4. Linda is the one that has been interesting in astrology since she was a little girl.
A B C D
5. The movie that I saw last night isn't frightened at all. In fact, I find it amusing.
A B C D

Final college exam 2004 (post-course)

Part A: Finish the sentence with the correct answer.

1. I won't go to the party this weekend...
A. if I will feel sick.
B. if I couldn't finish all of my homework.
C. if my sweetheart doesn't come with me.
D. All of the above

Does direct grammar instruction improve students' performance?

2. If I were the President of Taiwan, ...
 - A. I must give all students more holidays.
 - B. I would have a nice office in Taipei.
 - C. I will pay teachers more money.
 - D. Both A and B

3. When I got home last night, ...
 - A. it was started raining.
 - B. it already started raining.
 - C. it was raining.
 - D. Both B and C

4. ...when I saw the UFO fly past me in the night sky.
 - A. I had been driving on the road for about half an hour
 - B. I have never believed that aliens were real
 - C. I talked on my cell phone with a friend
 - D. Both A and C

5. I saw the new James Bond movie last weekend. ...
 - A. because I ever seen all of the other James Bond movies.
 - B. when the cinema started burning.
 - C. although I haven't liked most of his previous films.
 - D. None of the above

Part B: Choose the correct sentence or the best answer of each item.

1.
 - A. People in Taiwan are grown rice.
 - B. Bananas are exported from Taiwan to Poland.
 - C. I'm not sure where are my shoes made.
 - D. He thinks that cars which made in Italy are better that French cars.

2.
 - A. By the time the doctor arrived, the patient had died.
 - B. I rushed my teeth before I had gone to bed.
 - C. He had been to Japan last Sunday.
 - D. After he went jogging, he had taken a bath.

3.
 - A. I had lived in Kaohsiung for two years old.
 - B. He had been lived in Kaohsiung for fifteen years.
 - C. She was watching TV when her teacher visited her.
He had come while we were eating dinner.

4.
 - A. My car was died last week.
 - B. The new computer works very well.
 - C. Are the old computers worked well?
 - D. Our classroom needs to clean every day.

5.
 - A. When was the accident happened?
 - B. A hospital was been built around the corner.
 - C. Where do stamps have to be placed on the envelope?
 - D. That book should return to the library as soon as possible.

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Te Pua Wānanga Ki Te Ao



THE UNIVERSITY OF WAIKATO THE SCHOOL OF MAORI AND PACIFIC DEVELOPMENT

**Professor Aroha Yates-Smith
Dean**

Private Bag 3105 - Hamilton - New Zealand - Phone #: 64 - 7 - 838 4737 - Fax #: 64 - 7 - 838 4742
E-mail: smpd@waikato.ac.nz - Website: <http://www.waikato.ac.nz/smpd>

Dean's Welcome

Nau mai haere mai

Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao (The School of Māori and Pacific Development) aims to lead the way for the new millennium as an educator and research institute in Māori and Indigenous Studies. In achieving this we strive to be a world centre of excellence in teaching and research. Underpinning our School activities is the commitment to the advancement of Māori through the teachings of Te Reo, Tikanga, and indigenous development. With our quest for knowledge, Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao is committed to building long term relationships. Our School aims to provide life long learning opportunities and to prepare our students for successful careers. We welcome all to join our whānau at Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao.

Professor Aroha Yates-Smith
Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao

The School consists of several departments that contribute to our vision of uplifting the people:

- Te Aka Reo
- Te Aka Tikanga
- Development Studies
- Te Tīmatanga Hou
- Te Whakapiki i te Reo
- Centre for Māori and Pacific Development Research

Te Aka Reo and Te Aka Tikanga

Our School was founded on the strong teachings of Te Reo (Māori Language) and Tikanga (Māori Protocol or Traditions). It is through the teachings of language and traditions that the School aims to maintain and develop the cultural identity of Māori as indigenous peoples of New Zealand.

Staff at our School are involved in a wide range of activities outside of their teaching duties. Staff are involved in activities such as iwi/hapū management and treaty negotiations, kapa haka and other Māori performing arts, which all contribute to the teachings and learning within Te Aka Reo and Te Aka Tikanga.

By maintaining and developing Māori cultural identity, the School plays an important role in indigenous nation building in New Zealand.

Development Studies

Our Development Studies department offers the opportunity for incorporating the international dimensions of development issues for our School. Alongside the Māori development issues, the department offers learning about other indigenous peoples and the challenges they face in nation building. The department provides a multidisciplinary approach to learning by offering courses from a wide range of fields that relate to issues of development.

Te Tīmatanga Hou

Te Tīmatanga Hou is a foundation programme designed for Māori students in mind. The programme is taught under a kaupapa Māori philosophy where tikanga, and te reo are incorporated where possible. The programme targets in particular Māori who do not have any previous tertiary education study experience and require preparation for entering the tertiary education environment. This is a commitment by the University and the School for providing accessibility to tertiary education for Māori through providing sufficient academic preparation in a culturally sensitive environment.

Te Whakapiki i te Reo

Te Whakapiki i te Reo offers practicing teachers the opportunity to enhance and develop their language proficiency and competency. The course further seeks to develop language skills for the delivery of Māori as a second language. This service helps the School to achieve the promotion and development of Te Reo outside and beyond the tertiary level of education.

Centre for Māori and Pacific Development Research

Given our School's relative youth, we have been successful in securing and undertaking research contracts. The School will be opening a new Centre for Māori and Pacific Development Research, which will help to manage the research activities within the School.

Guidelines for Final Submission of Article for JMPD

General

Manuscripts should be in Times 12 cpi with 1.5 spacing and fully justified. There should be the equivalent of one line left between paragraphs within sections and new paragraphs should not be indented. Articles that are 20 pages in length or shorter are preferred. The manuscript should **NOT** have numbered pages but should have a footer on each page with the first three words of the title.

Title

The title should be in Times 12 cpi boldface and should be centred on the page. The title should indicate as clearly as possible the nature of the content of the manuscript. All content words of the title are to have an initial capital letter.

Abstract

Each article must include an abstract of not more than 200 words. The heading Abstract should be in Times 12 cpi boldface, and centered.

Headings

Level 1 headings should be capitalized in the same way as the main title, and centered. The font used is Times 12 boldface. The format for *level 2 headings* is the same as for *level 1 headings* except that the font is Times 11, and the heading is justified to the left of the column. There should be the equivalent of a one line space between level 1 and level 2 headings and the following text. The format for *level 3 headings* is the same as for level 2 headings, except that the font is Times 10, and there should be no space left between the heading and the text.

References within the text

All references within the text should be placed in parentheses containing the author's surname followed by a comma and a space before the date of publication (Jones, 1999). If the sentence already includes the author's name, then it is necessary only to put the date in parentheses: Jones (1999). When several works are cited, each entry should be separated by a semicolon: (Jones, 1999; Peters, 1995; Simon, 1993). When a reference has more than three authors, cite only the name of the first author followed by *et al* in every subsequent reference to the same work. When including page references, separate them from the date by a comma and a space (Jones, 1999, pp. 7 – 14). Page numbers should be indicated as follows: Peters (1999, p. 1), Jones (1998, pp. 4 - 7).

Endnotes

Endnotes are indicated within the text by a number¹ in superscript. They should be in Times 9, and appear together at the end of the article and before the reference list.

Tables and Figures

All tables and figures should be centered in the manuscript. Tables and figures should be numbered in the text, and should be preceded by a caption in Times 12 cpi italic. The equivalent of one line space should be left between captions and the tables or figures to which they refer. Captions and the tables or figures to which they refer should always appear together on the same page.

References

References should be listed in alphabetical order at the end of the article. The title of the section, 'References', should be a *level 1 heading*. The first line of each bibliographical reference must be justified to the left of the column, and the rest of the entry should be indented five spaces. The following examples (of fictitious references) illustrate the format required for conference proceedings, books, journals, articles, Ph.D. theses, and chapters of books respectively:

- Jones, L. E. (1999). Marae Protocol. In *Proceedings of the First Annual Conference of the Society for Māori Language Revitalisation* (pp. 71 -- 133). Wellington, NZ: Te Rapa Books.
- Peters, S. O. (1997). *Words and Meanings*. London: Groves and Parker.
- Stephens, E. & Jones, A. E. (1987). An Experimental Approach to Case, *Journal of Case Studies*, 2 (3), 12 - 17.
- Houia, A. (1992). Common Syntactic Errors in Young Learners of Greek. Doctoral Thesis. University of Te Rapa, Auckland.
- Edmonds, A. B. (1991). Scaffolding Second Language Learning. In T. A. Stone, A. T. Bread & V. Matthews (Eds.), *Scaffolding in Education* (pp. 12-48). Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.

Policy regarding use of the macron

The editors will respect the decisions made by authors in relation to their use of the macron in text written in English and/or Maori. Where Maori words are included by the editors themselves in text written in English, the macron will not be used in cases where a particular word (such as, for example, the word *Maori* itself) is deemed by the editors to have been fully integrated into New Zealand English. Thus, the macron is not used in the title of the Journal.

Submission

Each manuscript should be submitted on white A4 paper (3 copies) and sent to the Production Editor (Dr. Winifred Crombie) at *Pua Wānanga Ki Te Ao* (the School of Māori and Pacific Development), *Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato* (University of Waikato), Private Bag 3105, Hamilton, New Zealand.

The manuscript should be accompanied by a Word Disk and/or also sent by email attachment to <crombie@waikato.ac.nz>. Author's names should **NOT** be included in the manuscript but should be indicated in an accompanying letter in which institutional affiliations, institutional addresses, email addresses and phone and fax numbers are also included. The accompanying letter should indicate clearly whether the content of the manuscript has, in the same or similar form, either (a) been delivered as a conference paper and, if so, where and when, or (b) been produced or published in any other context and, if so, where and when.

Acknowledgments

Place all acknowledgements (including those concerning research grants and funding) in a separate section at the end of the article.
