

2010

# Extraversion and oral proficiency in ESL

Joshua Boyd Howard

*Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College*

Follow this and additional works at: [https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool\\_theses](https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool_theses)



Part of the [Linguistics Commons](#)

---

## Recommended Citation

Howard, Joshua Boyd, "Extraversion and oral proficiency in ESL" (2010). *LSU Master's Theses*. 921.  
[https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool\\_theses/921](https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool_theses/921)

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at LSU Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in LSU Master's Theses by an authorized graduate school editor of LSU Digital Commons. For more information, please contact [gradetd@lsu.edu](mailto:gradetd@lsu.edu).

EXTRAVERSION AND ORAL PROFICIENCY IN ESL

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
Louisiana State University and  
Agricultural and Mechanical College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of  
Master of Arts

in

The Interdepartmental Program in Linguistics

by

Joshua Howard

B.A., Louisiana State University, 2004

August 2010

## **DEDICATION**

For my parents, Robbie and Gara Ann Howard.

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

I would like to offer my sincerest gratitude, first and foremost, to Dr. Janet McDonald for her patience and expertise, to Dr. Jeremy King for his advice and enthusiasm, and to Dr. Joshua Thoms for his wisdom and accommodation. I also owe a debt of thanks to Brooke Arboneaux, Wilmer Barrera, Margaret Jo Borland, Joe Givens, Tony Hall, Dr. Michael Hegarty, Maureen Hewitt, Rose Honegger, David Jackson, Patricia Murphy, Paul Nash, NiTyjah Thigpen, Dr. Kenneth Tillman, Tina Villa, and all of the students at ELOP (Baton Rouge), IEP (Lafayette), and IELP (New Orleans) for the various ways they assisted me in the completion of this project. All of your efforts are much appreciated.

And especially, thanks to Aem Howard, for patience.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	v
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
2 MATERIALS AND METHODS.....	15
3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	26
REFERENCES.....	58
APPENDIX	
A RATING SHEET FOR GLOBAL IMPRESSION JUDGES.....	64
B LANGUAGE HISTORY QUESTIONNAIRE.....	65
C TRANSCRIPTIONS OF NARRATIVES.....	67
D EMOTION WORDS .....	88
E ANSWERS TO QUESTION 10 (MOTIVATION).....	89
VITA.....	90

## ABSTRACT

Extraversion has been proposed as an influence on the success of a second language learner, although studies in this area have produced mixed results (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999; Marin-Marín, 2005; Wakamoto, 2007). Through a narrative retell task, the current study investigated the effects of extraversion on the spoken English performance of 25 native speakers of Spanish. Extraversion was measured with a Spanish version of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire or EPQ (1975). Narratives were elicited using the wordless picture story *Frog, Where Are You?* (Mayer, 1969). Drawing on the work of Dewaele (1998), Dewaele and Pavlenko (2002), and Oya, Manalo, and Greenwood (2004), the researcher analyzed the narratives in terms of complexity, verbal accuracy, clausal accuracy, and emotion word quantity. Native speakers of English rated each narrative on a holistic global impression scale. Extraversion was found to correlate negatively with verbal accuracy ( $r = -.438, p < .028$ ). However, the sample tested at an unusually high level of extraversion ( $M = 17.12, SD = 3.72$ ). Only one subject's extraversion score was lower than eleven. When this outlier was removed, all correlations between extraversion and the variables involved proved to be non-significant.

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

A major focus in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) relates to the factors that contribute to success in learning. Researchers have investigated the effects of factors such as task anxiety (Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre, 1992; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994), socioeconomic status (Ikeda, 1989), and acquisition setting (Chun, 1981; Fathman & Precup, 1983) on the level of proficiency a learner attains. In addition, the attempt has been made to correlate second language (L2) learning with certain intrinsic individual differences or global personality traits (Liu, 1989; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000; Wokusch, 1989).

One personality dimension of interest to SLA researchers is that of extraversion/introversion. Language teachers commonly picture an ideal student as one who vocally participates in class and seeks opportunities to use the target language (TL) outside the classroom. In other words, those who exhibit extraverted behavior are seen as better learners, if only because they make instructors feel they are winning the battle (Brown, 1973; Swain, 1993). Hans J. Eysenck (1994), the father of the “Big Three” model of personality (psychoticism, extraversion, and neuroticism or PEN), says:

The typical extravert is sociable, likes parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to, and does not like reading or studying by himself. He craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, acts on the spur of the moment, and is generally an impulsive individual. He is fond of practical jokes, always has a ready answer, and generally likes “to laugh and be merry.” He prefers to keep moving and doing things, tends to be aggressive and lose his temper quickly; altogether his feelings are not kept under tight control, and he is not always a reliable person.

The typical introvert is a quiet, retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people; he is reserved and distant except to intimate friends, he tends to plan ahead, “looks before he leaps,” and distrusts the impulse of the moment. He does not like

excitement, takes matters of everyday life with proper seriousness, and likes a well-ordered mode of life. He keeps his feelings under close control, seldom behaves in an aggressive manner, and does not lose his temper easily. He is reliable, somewhat pessimistic, and places great value on ethical standards. (p. 3)

The intuition may be that an extravert will achieve greater oral proficiency, an introvert greater literacy. However, as Kiany (1997) points out, Eysenckian theory generally holds that extraversion is an impediment to learning for several reasons:

Extraverts in comparison to introverts are believed to have less cortical arousal and more reactive inhibition. The cortical under-arousal of extraverts and over-arousal of introverts have to be balanced with different kinds of behaviour. To this effect, extraverts would tend to seek more "excitation" which is mainly manifested through "impulsive" and "outgoing" behaviour, while introverts would tend to show more "reflective", "less exciting" behavior. As to reactive inhibition...extraversion is partly identified with "fast accumulation" and "slow dissipation" of reactive inhibition. In other words, extraverts are mentally more easily inhibited which implies that they may be more susceptible to mental distraction, hence may not have as much mental concentration as introverts do. (p. 113)

The low cortical arousal of extraverts has also been linked to limited long term memory (M. W. Eysenck, 1974). Thus, although language teachers may appreciate extraverted students, psychologists point out characteristics of the extraverted personality that may limit longterm achievement potential. Linguists have had difficulty producing evidence that either corroborates or refutes this belief.

This study is an inquiry into the possibility of a relationship between extraversion and speech production of second language learners. Since personality often influences the effect an individual has on others, the study also involves assessments of the L2 learners' speech samples by native speakers of the target language. The study is carried out in the United States, where native speakers of English are abundant. Hence, the subject sample consists of adult learners of

English as a second language (ESL). Although the current study is centered on extraversion and English, extraversion has been examined in a variety of second language acquisition studies involving languages other than English. We now turn to a review of this literature.

### **Review of Literature**

Attempts to link extraversion to written language have proven disappointing. For example, extraversion was investigated in a study by Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978). The authors hoped to outline the characteristics of a good second language learner by analyzing the performance of 72 Canadian (Anglophone) students of French. The goal was to identify strategies used by successful learners and determine what cognitive and personality traits influenced the choice of strategies. Naiman et al. administered an achievement test from the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) and an imitation task test along with the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI), which includes measures for both extraversion and neuroticism. Neurotic individuals are moody and anxious, overreacting to a variety of stimuli and regaining their composure much more slowly than stable individuals. The expectation of Naiman et al. was that high extraversion scores would correlate with high performance on the IEA and imitation tests. However, the links between this trait and test scores were weak at best. Findings in other studies tend to resemble those in Naiman et al. (1978).

In a study of 40 non-English major Iranian Ph.D. students, Kiany (1998a) administered the Persian restandardized form of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), which contains measures for extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism. Psychotic individuals lack empathy

and tend toward aggression and love of danger; they also have troubled socialization histories. Kiany compared the subjects' extraversion scores to their global academic performance, as measured by the GPAs of their high school diplomas, Bachelor's, and Master's degrees. Correlations were also sought between extraversion and English proficiency, as measured by subjects' scores on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). Only non-significant, mostly negative relationships were found between extraversion and the other variables. Kiany pointed out that the subjects' English training was in a traditional grammar-translation classroom where they had no chance to either practice speaking or hear their instructor speaking English. He suggests that more interesting results may be yielded in a second language (as opposed to foreign language) situation or a communicative language teaching system.

In a study of 89 final year secondary school students in Belgium, all of whom spoke Dutch as an first language (L1), Dewaele (2007) administered a short form of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised (EPQ-R) and compared extraversion with subjects' end-of-year grades in the L1, L2 (French), L3 (English), and L4 (German). Half of the final grade consists of oral language skills, and half for written skills, but only the subjects' composite grades were obtained. No significant effects of extraversion on language grades were observed. However, there were significant correlations between grades and gender, social class, and foreign language anxiety. Likewise, there were strong links between the language grades themselves. Dewaele theorizes that personality occupies a place of very little importance compared to other

factors when it comes to a subject's final results in language learning as measured by grades (see his thoughts on speech production and extraversion below, however).

Working with a pool of 40 students with nine L1s in a New Zealand ESL program, Morimoto (2006) administered the Eysenck Personality Inventory and compared subjects' extraversion scores to their depth of vocabulary knowledge as measured by the Vocabulary Association Test (VAT), which requires subjects to identify three words from a list of six that are closely related to a given word. Depth of vocabulary knowledge was also measured by the Grammatical Knowledge Test (GKT), a sentence completion test which requires subjects to supply the correct form of an indicated word. Morimoto also administered the Strategy Inventory for Vocabulary Learning (SIVL) and compared extraversion to the choice of learning strategy types (i.e., memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social). No significant differences between introverts and extraverts were found. Moreover, it was found that introverts and extraverts did not always conform to the common intuition regarding their choice of learning strategies (extraverts scored higher on the use of cognitive strategies, for example). Morimoto suggests that vocabulary knowledge is idiosyncratic and not related to personality, and that choice of learning strategies is fluid and more influenced by learning context than by degree of extraversion.

In a study of 150 English major students of varying classifications from the University of Quintana Roo, Mexico, Marin-Marin (2005) administered a Spanish version of the EPQ-R and compared extraversion to the subjects' preferred vocabulary learning strategies, vocabulary proficiency, and end-of-semester English grades. Although extraversion was found to be a

predictor of certain socially-oriented learning strategies, and there was a moderate negative relationship between extraversion and English academic achievement, there was no correlation between extraversion and vocabulary proficiency as measured by the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLS).

In a study of 148 female English-major college students in Japan, Wakamoto (2007) administered the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) personality test and sought correlations between extraversion and language learning strategies and English listening proficiency. Strategy choice was measured via the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Listening proficiency was measured through the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) listening sections. Extraverts leaned toward socio-affective learning strategies, at least in their own estimation. In teacher-fronted classroom practice, however, no students used socio-affective strategies. Likewise, Wakamoto could not confirm any impact of extraversion on listening proficiency.

Conclusions such as these discourage the use of extraversion as an independent variable in future studies. In fact, the reputation of this trait has suffered to the point where Dewaele and Furnham (1999) have termed it “The Unloved Variable in Applied Linguistic Research”.

However, even as Naiman et al. (1978) admit to finding no effects of extraversion in their own study, they never explicitly give up the conviction that extraversion should have *some* impact on language proficiency, instead laying the blame on the instrumental measure—the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI). Naiman et al. raise doubts over whether this instrument accurately measures the personality dimension known as extraversion. This is curious since, as

Dewaele and Furnham (1999) point out, the EPI is considered valid and reliable among psychologists (Claridge, 1986; Costa & McRae, 1986; Drummond, 1990). Not discounting the possibility that no relationship, in fact, exists between extraversion and learning, the lack of correlations may be due to flaws in research design.

Note that all of the studies cited above have as their dependent variables scores on tests of written or listening proficiency. Dewaele (2005) suggests that extraverts are unlikely to differ from introverts in these types of tasks, and that personality-oriented SLA researchers should focus more on oral proficiency tasks in which extraverts are likely to stand out.

Further review of the literature reveals several studies involving a speech production element where extraversion correlated with various dependent variables. Van Daele, Housen, Pierrard, and Debruyne (2006) administered an oral retell task based on a wordless picture story to 25 Belgian secondary school students learning both French and English. The students were asked to deliver the narrative in both TLs. The study was longitudinal: the same task was assigned three times with a six month interval between each administration. At Time 2, subjects were administered a short form of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised (EPQ-R). A positive correlation between extraversion and lexical complexity in both target languages was found at Time 1. This correlation disappeared over subsequent intervals. The full sample tested at higher than average extraversion: Mean 9.5 ( $SD = 1.98$ ) out of 12 where a normal population's mean would fall between 6 and 8, according to Van Daele et al. The authors suggest that the extraverted, novelty-seeking students grew bored with repeating the same task and therefore expended less linguistic effort after each successive interval, hence the

decrease in lexical complexity. If this is true, a similar effect of extraversion on complexity should be observable in an oral retell task that is only administered once.

Another study involving a narrative retell task is found in Oya, Manalo, and Greenwood (2004). The seventy-three subjects, all Japanese, were learning English in New Zealand and were given the Maudsley Personality Inventory, the first tool H. J. Eysenck devised to measure extraversion and neuroticism. Their English narratives were based on six picture cards from a subtest of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale. They were analyzed according to their fluency, complexity, and accuracy. Each narrative was also assigned a global impression rating by native speakers of the TL. The global impression scale consisted of four bands, each representing a successively higher degree of language resources, confidence/intelligibility, and quality of story told. A positive correlation was found between extraversion and global impression only, suggesting that holistic measures are meaningful in assessing an individual's oral command of a language, and extraverts can reasonably be expected to perform better at such measures.

Along the same lines, Dewaele (1998) published a study of variations in speech rate in twenty-seven first- and second-year students of French at the Free University of Brussels. The subjects' L1 was Dutch, and the EPI was used to get a measure of extraversion/introversion.. They were recorded both in informal conversation (15 hours) and formal oral testing (5 hours). A significant relationship was found between extraversion and speech rate in both settings. Extraverts not only spoke faster but displayed greater morpholexical accuracy and produced longer utterances in the formal setting. Dewaele also had three native speaker judges rate the quality of interlanguage in the formal register (scoring scale unknown). High speech rate and

accuracy were found to correlate positively with evaluation scores. Presumably, Dewaele's evaluation criteria for the native speaker judges can be likened to the global impression rating used in Oya et al. (2004).

Although another study by Dewaele and Pavlenko (2002) does not involve narrative, it does suggest an intriguing possible link between extraversion and emotional language. The authors examined the interlanguage of twenty-nine native speakers of Dutch who were learning French; interlanguage is the linguistic system developed by a learner to approximate the target language on the way to proficiency. The corpus was 10 hours of informal conversation between the participants and their French instructor at the Free University of Brussels. Participants were administered the EPI, and degree of extraversion was found to be a significant predictor of use of emotion lemmas. A lemma is a word chosen as the headword of a set of lexically identical items. It might be called a canonical form. For example, the lemma *angry* is the headword of the set of words that includes *angrier* and *angriest*. The latter two are examples of word tokens. Dewaele and Pavlenko attribute the correlation between extraversion and emotion lemmas found in their study two factors: introverts' avoidance of words that may nudge their already high level of arousal over the optimal limit, and extraverts' ostensible lack of fear of punishment for pragmatic failure or social blunders. This is important since proper grasp of the way a TL expresses emotion—and ability to produce emotional language—can be seen as a crucial step on the path to oral proficiency.

## Research Proposal

With these findings in mind, the present study will involve a narrative retell task and investigate the relationship between the subjects' extraversion and the complexity and accuracy of the narratives they produce. A holistic measure akin to those found in Oya et al. (2004) and Dewaele (1998) will also be included. Although this study differs from Dewaele and Pavlenko (2002) in that the corpus will not consist of informal conversation, the selected narrative will provide opportunity for the use of emotional expressions. In this way, the effect of extraversion on emotional language output, if any, can be observed. The study will also investigate the link (if any) between extraversion and language output as measured by number of T-units, a T-unit being an independent clause along with any dependent clauses attached to it (Hunt, 1965). Another measure of language output will be the amount of time the subject speaks. The decision was made to exclude measures of fluency—i.e., the number of hesitations, false starts, and filled and unfilled pauses in a speech sample—because it is believed that the presence or absence of these phenomena will directly affect the global impression rating a subject receives. In other words, it is up to the native speakers who listen to the narratives to decide if a speech sample is delivered fluently enough to warrant a high rating. This sacrifices the possibility of finding a correlation between extraversion and fluency. However, Busch (1982) and Oya et al. (2004) found no significant correlations between these two variables, and Oya et al. cite this lack of correlation as support for the validity of their holistic measure; the holistic measure includes the “human element” (p. 851) that may reveal more about learners'

personality differences in practical application than individual component parts of the speech output.

Note also that in each of the studies cited above, the population shared a native language, and in fact came from the same country. This study will also only include subjects with the same L1. The hope is that culture will not have a greater influence on the results than personality. This would be a strong possibility with subjects from widely disparate countries. For example, students from Confucian Heritage societies (China, Korea, Japan) suffer significantly higher levels of foreign language anxiety than other groups (Woodrow, 2006, as cited in Dewaele, 2007). The Japanese subjects in Wakamoto (2007), even those with the highest extraversion scores, rarely spoke in class and displayed a very passive attitude toward English as a foreign language (EFL). Teachers seemed to expect and encourage this approach. Wakamoto cites the Japanese proverb, "The nail that sticks out gets hammered down." He notes that the desire to conform to a homogenous society seems deeply ingrained in the Japanese mindset.

In contrast, students from Central and Southern American countries, where the traditional Western view as described by Brown (1973) is prevalent, might display more stereotypical extraverted/introverted behaviors. This is important since the study calls for subjects accustomed to free expression of personality in hope of observing the effect of extraversion/introversion on speech production. Thus, the data pool will consist only of native speakers of North and South American Spanish.

## Primary Hypotheses

It is believed that extraverts are more loquacious than Introverts and will express more separate ideas in their narrative output. In this study, the *T-unit* (Hunt, 1965) will be the definition of these separate ideas. A T-unit is an independent clause along with all dependent clauses attached to it. Thus,

*Hypothesis 1. There will be a positive correlation between extraversion and number of T-units.*

Likewise, Van Daele et al. (2006) found a positive correlation between extraversion and complexity. This study will define complexity as words per T-unit, as in Oya et al. (2004). This leads to

*Hypothesis 2. There will be a positive correlation between extraversion and complexity.*

However, as Foster and Skehan (1996) point out, narratives are more cognitively demanding than other tasks and may have the trade-off effect of prompting language high in complexity and low in accuracy. Also following the model of Oya et al. (2004), this study will obtain two measures of accuracy. Verbal accuracy is the number of correct verbs out of total verbs used, and clausal accuracy is the number of correct clauses out of total clauses used. This leads us to

*Hypothesis 3. There will be a negative correlation between extraversion and clausal accuracy.*

*Hypothesis 4. There will be a negative correlation between extraversion and verbal accuracy.*

Extraversion is also believed to be linked to emotion vocabulary. Although ideally the emotion vocabulary present in the narratives would be “lemmatized” (i.e., word *lemmas* would be separated from word *tokens*), as in Dewaele and Pavlenko (2002), the comparatively short length of the corpus (one narrative per subject as opposed to hours of conversation) precludes

this. Instead, lemmas and tokens will be tallied together into a single numerical score of emotion words. Words will be logged based on the model of fifty state terms found in Davitz's *The Language of Emotion* (1969), just as in Dewaele and Pavlenko (2002). This leads to *Hypothesis 5. There will be a positive correlation between extraversion and emotion words.*

It is conjectured that extraversion corresponds with high scores on holistic assessments from native speakers; Dewaele (1998) and Oya et al. (2004) observed this effect. This study will employ the global impression scale found in Oya et al. (2004). The scale itself is reprinted in Appendix A. Thus we expect:

*Hypothesis 6. There will be a positive correlation between extraversion and global impression.*

### **Secondary Hypotheses**

Kim (1993) found that length of stay in the U.S. correlated with Korean-English bilinguals' ability to judge the grammaticality of English sentences. Ene (2007) found a similar effect of length of stay on the accuracy of written texts by non-native English speaking graduate students. Although subjects' length of stay in an English-language immersion environment has nothing to do with personality, it is proposed that higher complexity, accuracy, and global impression correlate with number of months in the U.S. This data will be elicited using a personal language history questionnaire (Appendix B, Question 4). Thus:

*Hypothesis 7. There will be a positive correlation between months in the U.S. and complexity.*

*Hypothesis 8. There will be a positive correlation between months in the U.S. and clausal accuracy.*

*Hypothesis 9. There will be a positive correlation between months in the U.S. and verbal accuracy.*

*Hypothesis 10. There will be a positive correlation between months in the U.S. and global impression.*

Question 16 of the language history questionnaire asks participants to rate their current spoken English ability as beginner (1), somewhat experienced (2), average (3), or very experienced (4). It is believed that a high self-assessment rating reflects the confidence born of experience, and this will be reflected in global impression scores. This leads to

*Hypothesis 11. There will be a positive correlation between self-assessment and global impression.*

## CHAPTER 2: MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Participants

Twenty-five native speakers of Spanish from Central and South American nations were solicited by the researcher to participate in the study. Thirteen subjects were enrolled full-time in an intensive ESL program. All such programs consisted of six- or eight-week terms and four to five hours of instruction per day (i.e., one hour each of spoken English, reading, composition, grammar, and elective courses). They were housed at large universities in the southern region of the United States. Students of these programs had achieved classification as low proficiency ( $n=3$ ), intermediate ( $n=6$ ), and high proficiency ( $n=4$ ) according to the criteria of each program.

**Table 1. Demographics of the sample. Male = 14, female = 11.**

	Age (years)	Age at First Instruction (years)	Time Spent Studying English (months)	Length of Stay in the U.S. (months)
Lowest Value	18	3	3	1
Highest Value	39	26	139	60
Mean	23.56	10.6	63.125	16.4
Standard Deviation	5.34	5.72	45.22	15.83

The twelve subjects not enrolled in ESL programs were studying full-time at U.S. universities or community colleges. They had completed at least one term of an intensive ESL program at a large university in the United States. Subjects were recruited in person or through advertisements on school bulletin boards, and their participation was voluntary without compensation.

## Materials

Hans J. Eysenck (1947) was the first to quantify character through the dimensions of extraversion/introversion and neuroticism/stability. The Eysenck Personality Inventory (1964) included scales to obtain measures of these traits as well as a lie scale to measure dissimulation (i.e., whether respondents were not being completely honest in their answers). Later, collaboration between Hans and Sybil Eysenck led to the addition of a psychoticism/tough-mindedness scale to the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire or EPQ (1975). The EPQ is still considered viable and used in a variety of psychological studies in disparate languages (Abdel-Khalek, 2009; Nash et al., 2007; Wang & Miao, 2009). It consists of 90 yes-no questions, takes between 20 and 35 minutes to complete, and includes scales of the PEN traits as well as the lie scale. Items related to each scale are randomly and evenly distributed in the questionnaire. There are 21 questions for extraversion, 25 for psychoticism, 23 for neuroticism, and 21 for lie.

This study made use of a Spanish version of the EPQ so that the possibility of language interference in the accuracy of responses could be kept minimal. Also, even though this study is not concerned with psychoticism or neuroticism, questions unrelated to extraversion were retained on the logic that the EPQ is meant to be administered as a unit; removal of entire scales could lead to distortion of results. In this, the researcher followed the example of Kiany (1998a).

In addition, subjects were asked to complete a personal language history questionnaire. This recorded data such as age and length of stay in the U.S. (see above) as well as opinion points like the individual's main motivation for learning English (examples: "to study in a U.S.

university”; “to speak with the people from this country”) and self-assessment of current spoken English ability on a four-point scale. The full text of the 16-item questionnaire is included in Appendix B.

The narratives were elicited using a 24-page wordless picture book. The book, *Frog, Where Are You?* (Mayer, 1969), has been used in a variety of language acquisition studies (Cameron & Wang, 1999; Minami, 2004; Reilly, Losh, Bellugi, & Wulfeck, 2004). The plot is as follows: a boy’s pet frog escapes from a jar while the boy and his dog are asleep. The next day, boy and dog begin a search that leads them through encounters with various forest animals until they discover the frog with his family in the swamp.

*Frog, Where Are You?* was chosen because it includes illustrations of low frequency vocabulary items (*beehive, antlers, log*) as well as a range of emotions (concern and surprise at finding the frog missing, irritation at the dog, fear of the bees, elation at finding the frog again, etc.). Readers must infer one action from body language and visual clues alone—i.e., the frog is located by the sound of his croaking from behind a fallen tree. In the illustration, the boy is shown with a hand to one ear and the dog with ears pricked, but the frog is not visible on the page. It was hoped that challenges such as these would prompt output that makes use of communicative strategies—i.e., strategies that a learner uses to prevent the communication breakdown that might result from his or her lack of linguistic resources or inability to access them (Ellis, 1997). Examples of such strategies, as described by Rossiter (2005), include circumlocution (describing the characteristics of an item or action), code-switching (use of an L1 word for an L2 concept), all-purpose words (using a general word in place of a more specific

one), word coinage (use of L2 rules to create a word that does not exist in the L2), and approximation (use of a synonym or superordinate to replace a related concept). The first of these, circumlocution, is of special interest because it may tie in with extraverts' greater loquaciousness.

### **Procedures**

Participants were asked first to complete the language history questionnaire, then the EPQ. The researcher remained on hand to answer any questions that arose.

After the paper phase was complete, subjects were given a copy of *Frog, Where Are You?* and asked to skim the book at their own pace. This was done on a one-to-one basis in a quiet room with no distractions. No time limit was set on the first viewing. The subjects and the researcher did not converse during this period. The subjects were next asked to return to the first page and relate the narrative, again at their own pace, in their own words in English. The narratives were audiorecorded in digital format. The researcher did not respond to requests for information or clarification from the subjects when and if they occurred.

Narratives were transcribed into orthographical English. Some language devices were ignored in transcription. These include repetitions and false starts, reformulations, replacements, and fillers (including stock phrases such as "I don't know" and "What's the name for this?" as well as phonetic devices like "um" and "uh"). Fillers may represent the insertion of rote-learned word chunks, and reformulations and replacements are instances of self-repair, in which case only the last phrasing was transcribed and analyzed. "Uh" and "um" are more of

interest in terms of fluency—a variable not present in this study—rather than complexity, accuracy, or number of T-units (Oya et al., 2004; Perales, Mayo, and Licerias, 2009).

An extraction of 20% of the sample size (5 participants) was transcribed by a third party with no vested interest in the outcome of the study. Agreement with the main researcher's own transcriptions was 93% based on words. Disagreements usually occurred at areas of phonetic ambiguity in the inflectional endings of verbs, and such verbs were discarded in analysis for this reason (see below).

### Measures

This study obtained five dependent measures for each narrative: one for complexity, two for accuracy, one for global impression, and one for emotion words. The first four follow the model in Oya et al. (2004), the last the model in Dewaele and Pavlenko (2002).

Complexity was recorded as number of words per T-unit. A T-unit is defined as an independent clause along with all dependent clauses attached to it (Hunt, 1965). In the case of reported speech, the first clause following the main verb was treated as a noun clause object. A new T-unit began with the clause following the first. For example (full transcriptions provided in Appendix C):

When they were doing that his dog felled out  
and the boy got angry  
and *he said*, "*Don't do that.*  
Don't you see?  
I'm scared.  
I don't want to lose another pet."  
(subject A4)

The third T-unit—*he said*—includes the imperative *don't do that* as a noun clause object.

One measure of accuracy was found by calculating the ratio of correct clauses out of total clauses used. Again following Oya et al. (2004), the following types of clauses were included:

1. Coordinated clause (e.g. *The dog went out and (he) fell down.*)
2. Nominal clause (e.g. He realized *that the frog wasn't there.*)
3. Relative clause (e.g. They are watching the frog *which is inside a jar.*)
4. Adverbial clause (e.g. The deer starts running *while the dog follows closely behind.*)
5. Comparative clause (e.g. It was even better *than what they thought before.*)
6. Nonfinite clause (e.g. He asks his dog *to be quiet.*)
7. Verbless clause (e.g. He keeps yelling for the frog *while on top of the rock.*)

An error in morphology or syntax/word order would result in the clause being counted as an error (Foster & Skehan, 1996). This did not apply to incorrect use of articles:

There was this boy who had *the dog* and also has a frog in a bottle  
(subject A1)

But he didn't know that it's not a tree  
It's *a* animal  
(subject G2)

The clauses were counted as correct even though subject A1 uses the definite article (*the dog*) where the indefinite article is syntactically called for (this is the first mention of the dog in the narrative), and subject G2 uses *a* preceding a noun that starts with a vowel.

False starts and reformulations were also ignored. For example:

So one night he went to sleep  
And while he was sleeping the frog, uh, go...*went* out of the bottle.  
(subject A1)

All of the above clauses were counted as correct, and only the last verb in the phrase "the frog, uh, go...*went*" was transcribed and analyzed in terms of verbal accuracy (see below). In

disregarding incorrect article use, false starts, and reformulations, the researcher followed the example of Oya et al. (2004).

The second accuracy rating was the ratio of correct verbs out of total verbs used. Some degree of idiomatic leeway was allowed in the verbs produced. The main criterion was that they be properly inflected and make sense in the context (Oya et al., 2004). The verbs included were:

1. 3rd Person singular (e.g. The frog *escapes*.)
2. Regular past (e.g. The boy *opened* a window.)
3. Irregular past (e.g. He *went* to sleep.)
4. Progressive Participle "be" auxiliary (e.g. He *was sleeping*.)
5. Perfect participle (e.g. The dog *has made* a mess.)
6. Passive participle "be/get" auxiliary (e.g. His head *got trapped* inside.)
7. Modal (e.g. They *couldn't* find it.)
8. "Do" auxiliary (e.g. The frog *didn't like* the place.)
9. Copula (e.g. The kid *was* happy.)
10. Nonfinite forms (e.g. The bees start *to chase* the dog.)

The following extractions show two instances of verbs that were counted as correct due to idiomatic leeway:

So they open the window  
And the boy is *screaming* the frog's name, looking for it  
(subject A3)

They get to a cliff  
and the deer *brakes*  
(subject B3)

The former was allowed even though the boy's expression in the illustration suggests *calling* or *shouting* rather than *screaming*. Likewise, the latter was allowed although the subject

applied a mechanical, automotive verb to a physical action on the part of the deer. In the context of the story, both verbs made sense, and thus met the criteria for correctness.

One persistent problem in analysis was the subjects' tendency to alternate between present and past tenses as they spoke. Examples of this:

And the kid *was* mad cause in the tree there *was* a eagle  
but the kid *is still trying* to find his frog  
but his dog *is playing* with everything  
And then the kid *was* mad, still looking for it  
and he *can* find only animals and not his frog  
(subject A8)

And then he *was talking* with owl,  
so he *keeps* going  
and he *was looking* in the rocks, in the holes, in the air, in the trees, everywhere  
and then he *looks* behind this rock  
(subject B6)

Working from a strict model of narrative tense, at least half of the verbs in each example above would necessarily be counted as errors. However, as Wolfson (1982) points out, we must not confuse alternation between simple past and conversational historical present (CHP) with a genuine error in syntax. In her study of 550 conversational narratives collected from a wide variety of native English-speaking sources, she found that not once was CHP used in every single instance where it could have occurred—i.e., tense alternation between present and past showed up in every narrative. In addition, the tense switching itself appeared to serve a discourse function, marking episode boundaries and dramatic peaks. It is beyond the scope of this study to determine whether the twenty-five subjects represented here were advanced enough in English to approximate native speaker storytelling pragmatics. However, Wolfson's

work was taken into account in the analysis in that errors were logged at the individual T-unit level only, without consideration for what came before or after. Given this new consideration, all verbs in the examples above are correct.

Furthermore, an error was logged if tense alternation occurred between an independent clause and one of its dependent clauses to create a paradoxical time realm. Example:

He saw that his frog wasn't in the place  
where he put it before he goes to bed  
(subject B6)

The verb in the underlined subordinate clause was counted as an error, even though it is inflected correctly, because of the paradox that results from its containing the word *before* and being subordinate to the clause *where he put it*, which is itself subordinate to the past tense clause *his frog wasn't in the place*.

In addition, verbs are often followed by sounds with which a possible tense marker could assimilate to produce homonyms. For example:

And the dog *tried to* put his head into the bottle  
(subject A5)

The subject could have been understood to utter either *tried to* or *try to*. The latter would constitute an error, but since it is difficult to be sure in cases where the enunciation is rapid, we must refrain from counting it as an instance of regular past. Such forms were disregarded in terms of verbal accuracy (i.e., they were not counted among either the correct verbs or the total verbs). The clauses in which they occurred were counted as correct in terms of clausal accuracy if there were no other errors in syntax, morphology, or word order. In some cases, the

subject spoke slowly or clearly enough that there was no phonetic ambiguity, and these verbs were thus counted as correct or erroneous as appropriate in terms of both accuracy measures.

Finally, verbs such as *put*, *beat*, *set*, and *hit* are ambiguous in that they are not marked for past tense: a phrase such as *she hit* could be either counted as a correct instance of irregular past or an error in third person singular. Such verbs were disregarded altogether unless they were used in such a way as to produce an unambiguous error (e.g., *They puts*). Clauses in which they occurred were treated as correct if there were no other errors in syntax/word order or morphology.

Complexity and accuracy ratings were calculated by the main researcher. A sample of five narratives (20% of the data pool) was analyzed by a third party with no vested interest in the outcome of the study. Agreement between the two sets of analyses in terms of complexity was 98%; clausal accuracy 98%; and verbal accuracy 95%.

Each narrative was also assigned a global impression rating. This measure was quantified with a scale of four bands. Band 1 represents a very low level of language proficiency and storytelling ability, while band 4 represents the highest level of both (see Appendix A). This scale is the same as that used in Oya et al. (2004).

Global impression ratings were assigned by native speakers of English who neither knew the subjects personally nor had any vested interest in the outcome of the study. Raters listened to the audiorecordings and noted their assessment next to the appropriate subject number. Three sets of ratings were obtained: one set consisted of five native speakers who rated five recordings each, and two other sets were obtained from two individuals who assessed the

entire data pool. In analysis, if there was a disagreement among the ratings (for example, if a narrative was assigned ratings of 2, 3, and 3) the rating with the majority of votes was considered official (in this case, 3). If the three ratings disagreed with none claiming the majority (e.g., 2, 3, and 4), the official rating was the average of all three (again, 3). Seven subjects were assigned the same rating by all three native speakers, fourteen achieved agreement in two out of three ratings, and in four cases all three ratings disagreed. Fortunately, no wildly incongruous discrepancies (e.g., 1, 3, and 4) occurred.

The emotion words of each narrative were tallied using the fifty state terms outlined in Davitz (1969) as a model. Appendix D contains a complete list of emotion words from the data set along with a hypothetical schema map of how they fit into Davitz's state categories.

Analysis consisted of Pearson correlations of the five dependent measures (complexity, clausal accuracy, verbal accuracy, emotion words, and global impression), the traits from the EPQ (extraversion, psychoticism, neuroticism, and lie), class level (in an intensive ESL program, ranging from 1 to 6), and several measures gleaned from the language history questionnaire (see below). The findings related to the main research questions are presented in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 3: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Results

#### **Extraversion**

The results of a Pearson correlation analysis between extraversion, the other scales from the EPQ, and the linguistic measures from Hypotheses 1-6 are outlined in Table 2. Correlations were considered significant at the  $p < .05$  level and highly significant at the  $p < .01$  level.

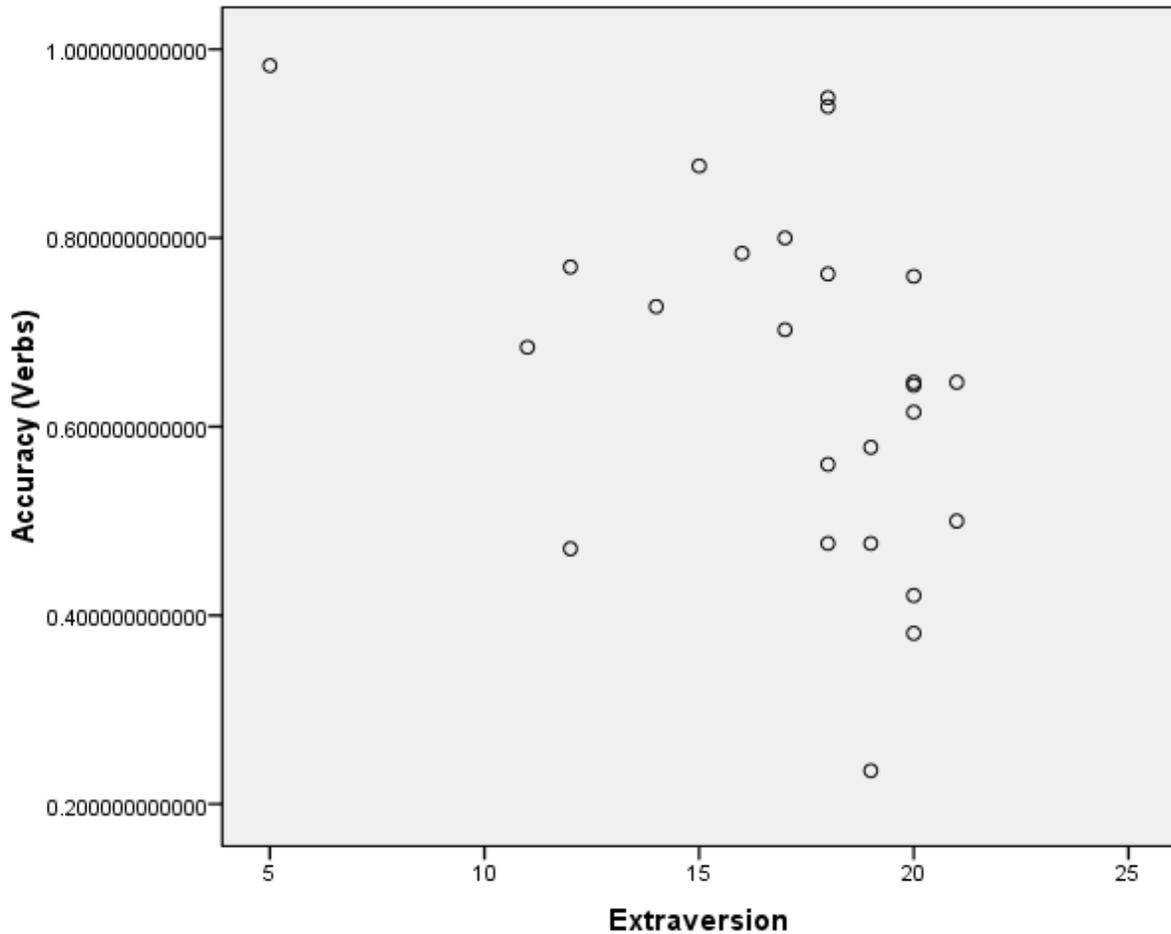
**Table 2. Correlations between EPQ scores and six linguistic measures.**

<i>Extraversion</i>	# of T-units	Complexity	Clausal Accuracy	Verbal Accuracy	Emotion Words	Global Impression
<i>M</i> = 17.12 <i>SD</i> = 3.72	-.069 <b>p &lt; .742</b>	-.298 <b>p &lt; .147</b>	-.378 <b>p &lt; .062</b>	-.438* <b>p &lt; .028</b>	.112 <b>p &lt; .594</b>	-.118 <b>p &lt; .369</b>
<i>Psychoticism</i>						
<i>M</i> = 3.48 <i>SD</i> = 2.45	.109 <b>p &lt; .603</b>	-.133 <b>p &lt; .526</b>	.103 <b>p &lt; .623</b>	-.032 <b>p &lt; .878</b>	.147 <b>p &lt; .483</b>	.005 <b>p &lt; .981</b>
<i>Neuroticism</i>						
<i>M</i> = 9.72 <i>SD</i> = 4.46	-.293 <b>p &lt; .155</b>	.255 <b>p &lt; .219</b>	.076 <b>p &lt; .719</b>	.105 <b>p &lt; .619</b>	-.437* <b>p &lt; .029</b>	-.221 <b>p &lt; .289</b>
<i>Lie</i>						
<i>M</i> = 11.48 <i>SD</i> = 4.47	-.262 <b>p &lt; .206</b>	.297 <b>p &lt; .149</b>	-.467* <b>p &lt; .019</b>	-.432* <b>p &lt; .031</b>	-.250 <b>p &lt; .228</b>	-.166 <b>p &lt; .426</b>

The negative correlation between extraversion and accuracy was significant in the case of verbs and near-significant in the case of clauses. All other correlations were both non-significant and, in the cases of T-units, complexity, and global impression, in the wrong direction. An additional correlation was calculated between extraversion and time spoken, and found to be non-significant ( $r = .044$ ,  $p < .833$ ); this latter variable also failed to correlate significantly with any other factors. Therefore, only Hypothesis 4 of the primary hypotheses (*There will be a negative correlation between extraversion and verbal accuracy*) was confirmed

by the data. A high degree of extraversion appears to tie in with lack of accuracy in syntax.

However, the scatterplot in Figure 1 shows the relationship between extraversion and verbal accuracy in more detail.



**Figure 1. Pearson correlation scatterplot between the variables *extraversion* and *verbal accuracy* .**

The mean extraversion score for the full sample was 17.12 ( $SD = 3.72$ ), where S.B.G. Eysenck et al. (1986) list the average for college-age U.S. American males as 14.83 ( $SD = 4.15$ ) and for females 15.30 ( $SD = 4.35$ ). Only one subject (B3) obtained an extraversion score lower than

eleven. The same subject managed 98% accuracy on verbs. When this outlier is removed, the significance of the negative correlation between extraversion and verbal accuracy disappears, and the relationship between extraversion and clausal accuracy is no longer near-significant (see Table 3).

**Table 3. Correlations between extraversion and accuracy with removal of Subject B3.**

Clausal Accuracy	Verbal Accuracy
-0.238 <b>p &lt; .262</b>	-.284 <b>p &lt; .179</b>

The mean extraversion score was strikingly high, and the mean lie score for the group, 11.48 ( $SD = 4.47$ ), was also higher than the average of 6.27 ( $SD = 3.45$ ) for U.S. American males and 6.97 ( $SD = 3.69$ ) for U.S. American females found in S. B. G. Eysenck et al. (1986). Although the college-age U.S. population should probably not be considered the baseline for personality scores, it is noteworthy to find only one subject out of the twenty-five in the current study with an extraversion score in the lower half of the scale. A more in-depth look at the EPQ scores of the current sample is in order.

### The EPQ Scores

According to Eysenck and Eysenck (1994), the lie scale measures the tendency to “fake good” (p. 9) and provide socially desirable responses, especially under conditions where such answers are deemed highly appropriate (e.g., a job interview). Examples of questions from this scale include “Have you ever taken the praise for something you knew someone else had really done?” and “Were you ever greedy by helping yourself to more than your share of anything?”

According to the *Manual of the EPQ*, research by Michaelis and Eysenck (1971) shows that the lie scale accurately measures dissimulation; it is possible to manipulate lie scores by altering the experimental conditions to provide greater or lower motivation to lie. The relatively high lie scores of this group might be explained if this experimental setting provided a high motivation to dissimulate. Michaelis and Eysenck have shown that this motivation can be detected by noting the correlation between lie and neuroticism. Under conditions of high motivation to fake good, this correlation is high (near -.5). It is low or absent under low motivation to dissimulate. In other words, under conditions of high motivation to dissimulate, the more subjects answer No to questions like “Are you an irritable person?” and “Have you ever wished you were dead?”, thus earning a low neuroticism score, the more they answer No to questions like “Have you ever been late to an appointment or work?” and “Have you ever taken advantage of someone?”, thus earning a high lie score. The correlation between lie and neuroticism in this data pool is non-significant ( $r = -.088$ ,  $p < .677$ ), indicating an experimental condition providing low motivation to fake good.

Likewise, the *Manual* states that most normal populations display a significant negative correlation between psychoticism and lie. This is in fact the case for our data pool ( $r = -.426$ ,  $p < .034$ ). Apparently, it is usually the case that the more subjects answer No to questions like “Do you enjoy hurting people you love?” and “Do you enjoy practical jokes that can sometimes really hurt people?”, thus earning a low psychoticism score, the more they answer Yes to questions like “Are *all* your habits good and desirable ones?” and “Do you always practice what you preach?”, thus earning a high lie score.

There is still the problem that the group displays a higher lie-mean score than the U.S. American sample from S. B. G. Eysenck et al. (1986). Here the *Manual* recommends dividing the data into high and low lie scorers and analyzing each group separately. The correlations of lie with neuroticism and psychoticism should be checked. If similar, they will justify treating the data as one group. In our data pool, fourteen subjects scored between 11 and 20 (out of 21) on lie, and eleven scored 10 or lower. The results of Pearson correlations of lie with neuroticism and psychoticism for the two groups are found in Table 4.

**Table 4. Correlations of lie with neuroticism and psychoticism for high and low lie scorers.**

	Neuroticism	Psychoticism
High lie ( $n = 14$ )	-.606* <b>p &lt; .022</b>	-.384 <b>p &lt; .175</b>
Low lie ( $n = 11$ )	.483 <b>p &lt; .132</b>	-.195 <b>p &lt; .566</b>

In the first group, the correlation between lie and neuroticism exceeds the -.5 point mentioned by the *Manual* as an indicator of high motivation to dissimulate. Since the correlation between lie and psychoticism in the high lie group is also greater than that of the low lie group, the latter could be considered the reliable one. When Pearson correlations are run between the language measures using only the eleven members of the low lie group—in which, incidentally, our introverted outlier B3 is included—we obtain a significant negative correlation between extraversion and verbal accuracy ( $r = -.669, p < .024$ ; Hypothesis 4). Unlike the results from the full sample, this negative correlation remains significant when B3 is removed ( $r = -.641, p < .046$ ). There is also a highly significant correlation between length of stay and complexity ( $r = .788, p < .004$ ; Hypothesis 7—*There will be a positive correlation*

*between months in the U.S. and complexity*), which remains significant with the removal of B3 ( $r = .722, p < .018$ ). However, the division based on lie scores creates two very small samples, and it is not certain that these results render the high lie group unreliable, especially given the correlations between lie, neuroticism, and psychoticism in the full group.

Another possibility is that the lie scale measures a separate personality factor; the *Manual* suggests a degree of “social naivety or conformity” (see also Furnham, 1986). The lie scores can be used as a measure of this when the correlation between lie and neuroticism is low, indicating low motivation to dissimulate, as in this full sample (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1994). It is beyond the scope of this study to determine whether these subjects possessed a higher degree of naivety or conformity than normal.

Suffice it to say that as they stand, there is nothing in the EPQ scores that would justify treating them as unreliable. The extraversion scores are almost all high, and this precludes confirmation of any of the hypotheses outlined above.

### **Months in the U.S.**

There was a highly significant correlation between length of stay in the U.S. and global impression ( $r = .516, p < .008$ ), confirming Hypothesis 10 of the secondary hypotheses (*There will be a positive correlation between months in the U.S. and global impression*). There were non-significant positive correlations between length of stay and complexity ( $r = .089, p < .672$ ), clausal accuracy ( $r = .136, p < .516$ ), and verbal accuracy ( $r = .319, p < .120$ ).

## **Self-assessment**

Question 16 of the language history questionnaire asks subjects to rate their current spoken English ability according to a four-point scale: beginner (1), somewhat experienced (2), average (3), and very experienced (4). There was a significant positive correlation between self-assessment and global impression ( $r = .479$ ,  $p < .021$ ), confirming Hypothesis 11 of the secondary hypotheses (*There will be a positive correlation between self-assessment and global impression*). There were also highly significant positive correlations between self-assessment and clausal accuracy ( $r = .644$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and verbal accuracy ( $r = .693$ ,  $p < .000$ ). Self-assessment correlated negatively with both age ( $r = -.459$ ,  $p < .028$ ) and age of instruction ( $r = -.493$ ,  $p < .017$ ). Older subjects rated themselves lower in spoken English ability, and the older a subject was at the time of their first instruction in English, the lower their self-assessments. Curiously, there was also a highly significant negative correlation between self-assessment and lie ( $r = -.572$ ,  $p < .004$ ). Subjects who rated themselves highly in spoken English ability showed less of a tendency toward socially desirable responses on the personality test.

## **Other Measures**

### **Class Level**

Intensive ESL programs classify students according to proficiency level, as determined by placement tests and achievement while in the program. Level 6 was the highest available in the ESL programs involved in this study. Two students were classified as level 6, two as level 5, six as level 4, and three as level 3. The twelve students not enrolled in ESL programs had achieved

high classification in such programs before registering at their universities or community colleges. They were designated as level 6 for the statistical analysis purpose of this study.

There were highly significant correlations between class level and several variables. These are summarized in Table 5. It seems that class level is a reliable predictor of the accuracy of a subject’s narrative output as well as the number of individual ideas expressed. High class level also corresponds with the ability to make a favorable impression on a listener who is a native speaker of the TL; this is to be expected, since higher class levels naturally deal with more advanced structures and vocabulary, and note that each intensive English program represented in this study included one hour dedicated to spoken English as its own class five days per week. Furthermore, subjects who were in the higher levels accurately assessed themselves as higher in level of spoken English ability.

**Table 5. Correlations between class level and other variables.**

	<b>Accuracy (Clauses)</b>	<b>Accuracy (Verbs)</b>	<b>Number of T-units</b>	<b>Global impression</b>	<b>Self-assessment</b>
<b>Class Level</b>	.600 <b>p &lt; .002</b>	.627 <b>p &lt; .001</b>	.540 <b>p &lt; .005</b>	.611 <b>p &lt; .001</b>	.610 <b>p &lt; .002</b>

**Additional Measures from the Language History Questionnaire**

In addition to the personality dimensions of the EPQ and the six linguistic measures outlined above, the study also collected ratings for measures found on the language history questionnaire (Appendix B). The following measures were run through Pearson correlation

analyses, with correlations considered significant at the  $p < .05$  level and highly significant at the  $p < .01$  level, as above:

*Gender* (Question 2; Male=1, Female=2)

*Age* (Question 3)

*Age of First Instruction* (Question 4)

*Instruction in School vs. Immersion Learning* (Question 5; Immersion=1, School=2)

*Motivation* (Question 10; see below)

*Talkativeness* (Question 12; No=1, Yes=2)

*Frequent Conversations in English* (Question 13; No=1, Yes=2)

*Enjoyment of Language Study* (Question 14; No=1, Yes=2)

The additional details related to the school vs. immersion measure (Questions 6 and 7) were eliminated because of confusion over what exactly was meant by immersion (see *Discussion* below). There was also a great deal of confusion over Question 8, along with difficulty in calculating the exact number of months spent learning English—or even defining a “month”! Some subjects reported that they had had English classes in primary school that only met twice per week. Does a month of such education truly comprise a “month” studying English? For the data collection purposes of this study, these months were counted because the students were expected to do homework and maintain the language at least somewhat in working memory. However, because of the remaining uncertainty in the definition, the variable was discarded. Question 11 asks if there was a period of two or more years in which the subject did not use English after beginning to learn it but before coming to the United States. This question was

discarded because it was the least well-understood of all sixteen items, presenting problems in both comprehension and explanation. Initially it was meant as a screening device for subjects who had sizeable gaps in their learning history, but scarcity of subjects in general precludes its consideration in final analysis. Likewise, Question 15, which asks what other languages the subject has studied or used, was not included because eighteen of the twenty-five subjects reported studying no languages other than Spanish and English.

### **Gender**

No significant relationships between gender and other variables were found.

### **Age**

There was a significant negative correlation between this variable and neuroticism ( $r = -.444$ ,  $p < .026$ ). Older subjects tended toward the “calm, even-tempered, controlled and unworried” (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1994, p. 3) end of the scale of emotional stability. It’s possible that age and experience bring with them the benefit of increased ability to deal with upsets and distinguish between the truly troubling and the inconsequential.

### **Age of First Instruction**

There were significant negative correlations between age of instruction and verbal accuracy ( $r = -.471$ ,  $p < .017$ ), global impression ( $r = -.501$ ,  $p < .011$ ), and frequent conversations in English ( $r = -.412$ ,  $p < .041$ ). Subjects who began learning English at later ages not only had problems producing accurate verbs, but also failed to impress native speakers with the quality of their narratives and did not often engage in English conversations, either with native speakers or fellow second language learners. Much has been made of the age at which learning

begins as an influencing factor on the ultimate level of second language proficiency attained. For a review of the pertinent literature, see Long (1990). The precise nature of the influence is a longstanding debate in linguistics, but suffice it to say that there appears to be a definite lessening in the possibility of attaining near-native proficiency as a learner's age increases. Findings like the ones listed above for the current study add further weight to this observation.

### **Immersion vs. Instruction**

There was a significant correlation between instructed learning and global impression ( $r = .423, p < .035$ ). In the case of instructed learning and frequent conversations in English, the relationship was highly significant ( $r = .600, p < .002$ ). Subjects who reported learning English through formal instruction rather than immersion managed to produce higher quality narratives, according to the judgments of native speakers of English. Likewise, subjects who learned by instruction also reported engaging in conversations in English often. It may be that instructed learners have been exposed primarily to the standard form of the target language, and thus sound more formal and studied to native speakers, which results in higher global impression ratings being assigned to instructed learners. Instructed learners may also have acquired motivation to engage in frequent conversations in the TL in order to practice what they learn in the classroom, although this is difficult to confirm without individual case studies. Note, however, the study by Kang (2006) of a Korean physician in Canada who deliberately sought out opportunities to practice his instructionally-acquired English with native speakers. Among the factors Kang cites as motivators for the physician's approach were insecurity about using English around other Koreans and his extraversion, though the latter was self-reported

and not instrumentally measured. In future versions of this study, case study data should be acquired from the participants regarding their learning strategies. This may further elucidate the connection between instructed learning and frequent conversations in English.

### **Motivation**

Gardner and Lambert (1972) distinguish between two types of attitude for the second language learner: instrumental motivation, which has economic or convenience benefits as its goal, and integrative motivation, which aims for eventual seamless integration into the society of the target language's native speakers. An example of an instrumentally motivated learner would be one who enrolls in Spanish classes because he or she is qualified for a job that requires regular contact with Hispanics, but who has never had the desire to learn Spanish for any other reason. An integratively motivated learner would be one who learns a language—e.g., Chinese—because of a lifelong interest in Chinese culture and history as well as a desire to become culturally closer to the people of China.

The two categories are broad, and the distinction between them is not always clear or neat. However, the answers that subjects provided to Question 10 were assigned a rating from 1 (highly instrumental motivation) to 4 (highly integrative motivation) by the researcher, retaining full awareness of the subjectivity of this approach. The complete list of answers to this question, along with their ratings, is provided in Appendix E. Positive correlations were found between integrative motivation and emotion words ( $r = .498, p < .011$ ) and number of T-units ( $r = .442, p < .027$ ). Subjects whose motivation can be described as close to Gardner and Lambert's integrative category produced more individual ideas as well as emotionally weighted

vocabulary within those ideas. If we are to accept that the expression of emotion is an essential step on the path to sociopragmatic competence (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002), it seems logical that subjects who wished to integrate themselves with the target language society would put more effort into acquiring this competence, and thus their speech would be found to have greater expressiveness in emotional terms.

### **Talkativeness**

Subjects' agreement with the description of themselves as "talkative" had a highly significant positive correlation with extraversion scores ( $r = .835, p < .000$ ) and a significant negative correlation with neuroticism scores ( $r = -.468, p < .018$ ). This agrees with the description found in Eysenck and Eysenck (1994) of the extravert who "needs to have people to talk to"; in contrast, the neurotic with his "anxious" mind and "constant preoccupation with things that might go wrong" (p. 3) is not a person likely to judge himself as "talkative".

### **Frequent Conversations in English**

Answering Yes on Question 13 had correlations with instructed learning and age of instruction, as described above.

### **Enjoyment of Language Study**

There were no significant correlations between answering Yes on Question 14 and any other variable.

### **Additional Findings Related to Emotion Words**

There was a non-significant positive relationship between extraversion and emotion words ( $r = .112, p < .594$ ). There was also, not surprisingly, a highly significant positive correlation

between emotion words and T-units ( $r = .833, p < .000$ ): the more ideas a subject expresses, the more emotion words he or she is likely to use.

Positive correlations were also found between this variable and global impression ( $r = .410, p < .042$ ) and integrative motivation ( $r = .498, p < .011$ ). Furthermore, emotion words correlated negatively with neuroticism ( $r = -.437, p < .029$ , see Table 2 above). Evidently, the use of emotion vocabulary is an aid to the goal of a subject's narrative being assessed as high in quality by a native speaker. If the incorrect expression of emotion constitutes a sociopragmatic blunder (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002), the negative correlation between emotion words and neuroticism might be explained by neurotics' fear of such blunders.

In total, the subjects used emotionally weighted vocabulary in 91 words out of a corpus of 7034 words. The most commonly used word was *happy* (22), followed by *scared* (13), *angry* (7) and *mad* (6). Some told the entire story using only a single emotion word or none at all.

Deciding what incidents call for the insertion of emotion in the narrative is, of course, entirely subjective. Roughly, however, the obvious depictions of emotion in the story (i.e., through the boy's facial expressions) are found in 10 frames:

- Frame 1.) the boy is happy to have the frog in the beginning
- Frame 3.) the boy is surprised and worried to find the frog missing
- Frame 6.) the boy is concerned when the dog falls out of the window
- Frame 7.) the boy is angry at the dog for breaking the glass
- Frame 10.) the boy is annoyed at a gopher who bites his nose
- Frame 13.) the boy is irritated at an owl who knocks him out of a tree
- Frame 17.) the boy is afraid when a deer throws him from a cliff into the swamp
- Frame 19.) the boy is curious and hopeful when he hears the frog's croaking
- Frame 20.) the boy sternly commands the dog to be quiet
- Frame 23.) the boy is delighted when he finds the frog with a female frog and children

No subjects used emotion words at all of these points; among individual subjects, A4 and A8 reported on the boy's emotional state most frequently (at 5 and 6 frames out of 10, respectively). Both were young, high-proficiency graduates of an ESL program, currently enrolled at a four-year university. However, not all subjects matching this description performed similarly.

The incidents most commonly reported with emotion words were Frame 7 (11 out of 25 subjects) and Frame 23 (14 out of 25). Frame 7 represents a marked shift in emotion from the frame immediately preceding it. At first the boy is concerned when the dog falls from the window, but when he determines that all is well his countenance gives way to annoyance. This is especially notable when compared to the face of the dog, who is resting comfortably in the boy's arms, licking his face and even smiling slightly. This might account for the fact that eleven subjects chose to describe Frame 7 emotionally while only one (A5) gave emotional weight to Frame 6.

Frame 23 represents the final dramatic high point in the narrative and its conclusion, which might explain the subjects' frequency in assigning emotion to it (Labov & Waletzky, 1997). It is noteworthy that the eleven subjects who did not use emotion vocabulary to describe this frame also avoided emotion words in the other nine "expressive" frames preceding it, except for D4, who reported emotion in Frame 3 only.

Frame 17 was not reported at all. In this frame, a deer, which had been carrying the boy stuck in his antlers, suddenly stops at the edge of a small cliff. This propels the boy into the swamp along with the dog, who had been running close behind. Even though the boy's mouth

is open in an O of fright, this is a great deal of action to be described. It is possible that the subjects skipped over the emotional content when faced with this potentially perplexing image. The same might apply to other expressive frames that were described without emotional vocabulary: action was reported at the expense of feeling.

Thus, except for Frame 7 (a distinct emotional shift) and Frame 23 (the “happy ending”), the subjects did not report incidents emotionally very often. This may bear out the assertion of Dewaele and Pavlenko (2002) that second language learners tend to reserve emotional speech for their native tongue and use neutral, non-risky vocabulary in their L2s, although we refrain from making too broad a claim on this point.

### Summary of Findings Related to Global Impression

A variety of factors correlated with global impression ratings; these are summarized in Table 6. We can conclude that the native speaker judges in this study assigned higher ratings to subjects whose narratives contained larger numbers of individual ideas (T-units) as well as more correctly used verbs (verbal accuracy). Together, emotion words, verbal accuracy, and number of T-units indicate the importance what might be called the “richness” of an L2 learner’s narrative to the narrative’s effect on a native speaker listener.

**Table 6. Significant findings related to global impression.**

	Months in U.S.	Self-assessment	Accuracy (Verbs)	Emotion Words	Class Level	Age of Instruction	Instructed Learning
Global impression	.516 <b>p &lt; .008</b>	.479 <b>p &lt; .021</b>	.498 <b>p &lt; .011</b>	.410 <b>p &lt; .042</b>	.611 <b>p &lt; .001</b>	-.501 <b>p &lt; .011</b>	.423 <b>p &lt; .035</b>

## Communicative Strategies

Apparent instances of five communicative strategies were tallied for each transcription by the researcher. These are listed along with examples from the corpus in Table 7. The only highly significant correlation was, not surprisingly, between circumlocution and all-purpose words ( $r = .845, p < .000, n = 15$ ), since it is often necessary to use the latter as part of the former (e.g., “this little thing where the bees live”; “this thing that looks like a tree”).

**Table 7. Communicative Strategies (Rossiter, 2005) with examples from the present corpus.**

Communicative Strategy	Example
<i>Circumlocution</i> : Describing the characteristics of an item or action.	“Jumping and got to the top” for <i>climbing</i> .
<i>Code-switching</i> : Use of an L1 word for an L2 concept.	“ <i>Castor</i> [Sp. ‘beaver’]” instead of <i>gopher</i> .
<i>All-purpose Word</i> : Using a general word in place of a more specific one.	“Thing” instead of <i>beehive</i> .
<i>Word Coinage</i> : Use of L2 rules to create a word that does not exist in the L2.	“Earing” for <i>cocking an ear</i> .
<i>Approximation</i> : Use of a synonym or superordinate to replace a related concept.	“Lake” instead of <i>swamp</i> .

## Conclusions and Discussion

None of the hypotheses related to extraversion are borne out by the data. The findings with and without the outlier B3 are summarized in Table 8. Despite the absence of any incontrovertible effect of extraversion on these results, however, the possibility of an interaction between extraversion and oral proficiency cannot be ruled out. This study suffered from several shortcomings, both in itself and when compared to earlier studies. These are described below and justify not discounting extraversion as a predictor of spoken English achievement.

**Table 8. Summary of findings related to extraversion with and without the outlier B3.**

	With B3	Without B3
# of T-units	-.069 <b>p &lt; .742</b>	-.014 <b>p &lt; .948</b>
Complexity	-.298 <b>p &lt; .147</b>	-.245 <b>p &lt; .248</b>
Accuracy (Clauses)	-.378 <b>p &lt; .062</b>	-.238 <b>p &lt; .262</b>
Accuracy (Verbs)	-.438* <b>p &lt; .028</b>	-.284 <b>p &lt; .179</b>
Emotion Words	.112 <b>p &lt; .594</b>	.078 <b>p &lt; .717</b>
Global Impression	-.188 <b>p &lt; .369</b>	-.163 <b>p &lt; .447</b>
Self Assessment	-.247 <b>p &lt; .256</b>	-.167 <b>p &lt; .457</b>
Age	-.114 <b>p &lt; .587</b>	-.206 <b>p &lt; .334</b>
Gender (Male=1, Female=2)	.080 <b>p &lt; .705</b>	-.055 <b>p &lt; .798</b>
Talkative (Yes/No)	.835** <b>p &lt; .000</b>	.793** <b>p &lt; .000</b>
Frequent Conversations in English (Yes/No)	-.191 <b>p &lt; .360</b>	-.177 <b>p &lt; .408</b>
Enjoyment of Language Study (Yes/No)	.270 <b>p &lt; .192</b>	.466* <b>p &lt; .022</b>
Instrumental (1) to Integrative (4) Motivation	.170 <b>p &lt; .418</b>	.075 <b>p &lt; .727</b>
<i>Circumlocution</i> as a Communicative Strategy	.176 (n=17) <b>p &lt; .500</b>	-.005 (n=16) <b>p &lt; .985</b>

### **Review of Hypotheses and Comparisons with Existing Research**

#### **Primary Hypotheses**

*Hypothesis 1. There will be a positive correlation between extraversion and number of T-units.*

Dewaele (1998) found a positive correlation between extraversion and speech rate, measured as words per minute. This study measured the number of T-units a subject produced

as well as the amount of time spoken. The correlation obtained was non-significant for both T-units ( $r = -.069$ ,  $p < .742$ ) and time spoken ( $r = .044$ ,  $p < .833$ ). This may be due to the fact that the corpora are not truly comparable: Dewaele obtained fifteen hours of informal speech and five hours of formal oral testing. This study involved only a single, controlled task which required subjects to speak less than fifteen minutes each. Dewaele also had the advantage of greater control of his sample: ages ranged from 18 to 21, and the subjects had all been studying the TL (French) between six and eight years. Subjects' ages in this study ranged from 18 to 39 and their personal estimates of their months of English instruction ranged from three to 139.

*Hypothesis 2. There will be a positive correlation between extraversion and complexity.*

Van Daele et al. (2006) found a positive correlation between extraversion and lexical complexity in a narrative retell task in two TLs. Lexical complexity was determined by means of Giraud's Index: the total number of word types is divided by the square root of the total number of word tokens. Using the contrasting definition of complexity found in Oya et al. (2004)—i.e., words per T-unit—this study found a relationship between this variable and extraversion that was non-significant and negative ( $r = -.298$ ,  $p < .147$ ). Though the tasks in both Van Daele et al. and Oya et al. were similar to the task in the current study, the twenty-five students in Van Daele et al. were all age 14 and had received 180 classroom hours of instruction in English and 390 hours in French. The sample size in Oya et al. was much larger (73) and all subjects were classified as intermediate proficiency. It must be noted that the correlation between extraversion and complexity in Oya et al. was also non-significant, though positive ( $r = .096$ ).

*Hypothesis 3. There will be a negative correlation between extraversion and clausal accuracy.*

*Hypothesis 4. There will be a negative correlation between extraversion and verbal accuracy.*

Working from the assertion of Foster and Skehan (1996) that narratives may prompt language high in complexity but low in accuracy, this study put forth the hypotheses that the relationship between extraversion and two accuracy measures would be negative. The measures of clausal accuracy and verbal accuracy were identical to Oya et al. (2004). Non-significant positive correlations were recorded in Oya et al., while this study obtained a significant negative correlation between extraversion and verbal accuracy only. However, with the removal of subject B3, the only subject with a extraversion score lower than eleven, this correlation becomes non-significant. Thus, the findings of this study regarding accuracy agree with Oya et al.

Dewaele (1998) obtained a positive correlation between extraversion and speech rate, and speech rate correlated with morpholexical accuracy. Regarding this variable, Dewaele says:

Among the morphological errors we distinguished five classes: violation of gender and number, and for the verbs, violation of tense and aspect (i.e., the use of the 'imparfait' instead of the 'passé composé'), of mode and of person. At the lexical level we took into account any non-existing French words that were not code-switches or borrowings (lexical inventions), words that were superficially right but that did not fit in the context (semantic errors), the absence of a word in an obligatory context and finally the suppliance of a word where it was not necessary. (p. 119)

Only part of the lexical portion of Dewaele's morpholexical accuracy was taken into account: the transfer of Spanish phonetic rules leading to verbal incomprehensibility was logged as an error; two examples are *jell* for *yell* and *esleeping* for *sleeping* (lexical inventions). An attempt was made to follow the model of Oya et al. (2004) in that "[a] clause was considered as a

correct one as long as it made sense” and “even if the meaning of a verb produced was unnatural, it was treated as a correct verb as long as it made sense” (p. 847). In other words, though *the boy is screaming the frog’s name* (subject A3) and *the deer brakes* (subject B3) make sense in the context of the narrative, and were accordingly logged as correct, *jell* might be mistaken for *gel* by a listener unfamiliar with the phonetic transfers often found in native Spanish-speaking users of English. By the same logic, *esleeping* must also be considered an error because it may not immediately register as the participle *sleeping*.

*Hypothesis 5. There will be a positive correlation between extraversion and emotion words.*

Dewaele and Pavlenko (2002) obtained a positive correlation between extraversion and emotion lemmas, while the correlation between extraversion and emotion words in this study was non-significant and positive. Again, the sample in Dewaele and Pavlenko was much narrower demographically than that in this study: all of Dewaele and Pavlenko’s subjects were between 18 and 21 and were at the level of “pre-advanced to advanced interlanguage” (p. 279). Data were collected as one-to-one conversations about hobbies, likes and dislikes, and other informal matters. About 10 hours of speech were collected, yielding a hypothetical speech extract length of approximately 21 minutes per subject. Given the lack of similarities between tasks in these two studies, it is perhaps not surprising that this study failed to replicate Dewaele and Pavlenko’s correlation between extraversion and emotion lemmas. Emotion words in the current study were not “lemmatized” because they were so few. This raises the question of whether *Frog, Where Are You?* truly provides enough opportunities for the use of emotion language to justify including the latter as a dependent variable.

It may be that narrative retells involving this book in particular are not well suited for a consideration of sociocultural competence—i.e., the ability to express emotion in the TL (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002). Dewaele and Pavlenko collected their data in an informal conversational setting. In the current study, subjects were with the researcher as they inspected the pictures and as they delivered the narratives. Oya et al. (2004) claim this condition “could be considered informal” (p. 845). Although Oya et al. were not investigating emotion, it must be noted that the subjects in this study treated the task as something highly formal and pressured. One subject began her narrative, then broke down completely and asked to start again. She then rushed through the story, constructing her narrative out of only ten of the twenty-four frames. Others began slowly, describing each frame, but skipped more pictures as the narrative progressed. Both of these behaviors decrease the opportunity for emotional vocabulary usage. This may point toward a less than ideal choice of task for a study with emotional content as a dependent variable. Cameron and Wang (1999) found higher incidents of “narrativity”—i.e., utterances reporting characters’ internal states (emotions)—in 60 Canadian children who narrated *Frog, Where Are You?* over the telephone rather than face-to-face with a researcher. Children narrating over the telephone also spoke longer and created more (and more syntactically accurate) T-units. This suggests that the presence of an interlocutor inhibits the use of emotional vocabulary; it may be fruitful for subjects in future versions of the study to deliver their narratives to a third party not present in the room through some form of telecommunication.

*Hypothesis 6. There will be a positive correlation between extraversion and global impression.*

Oya et al. (2004) obtained a positive correlation between extraversion and global impression. Using the same scale and comparable raters (i.e., native speakers of the TL), this study failed to replicate the former result, instead obtaining a correlation that was non-significant and negative. As noted previously, Oya et al. dealt with seventy-three subjects, all of whom were classified at the intermediate proficiency level. This stands in contrast to the current study, which included twenty-five subjects whose proficiency levels ranged from low to advanced according to the criteria of their ESL programs. Some subjects were even enrolled full-time in American universities at the graduate level. This may explain the failure to replicate Oya et al.: these subjects' proficiency levels (possibly based on experience, exposure, or other factors independent of personality) influenced raters more than the perceived extraversion (or lack thereof) in their narrative delivery.

### **Secondary Hypotheses**

*Hypothesis 7. There will be a positive correlation between months in the U.S. and complexity.*

*Hypothesis 8. There will be a positive correlation between months in the U.S. and clausal accuracy.*

*Hypothesis 9. There will be a positive correlation between months in the U.S. and verbal accuracy.*

There were non-significant positive correlations between length of stay and complexity ( $r = .089, p < .672$ ), clausal accuracy ( $r = .136, p < .516$ ) and verbal accuracy ( $r = .319, p < .120$ ). This does not provide strong support for Hypotheses 7, 8, and 9. It is important to note that

although Kim (1993) and Ene (2007) found correlations between proficiency and length of stay, their studies involved grammaticality judgments and written texts, respectively. It may be that length of stay is reflected in increased performance in academic tasks, but very few academic tasks revolve around oral narrative retells. This may account for the lack of strong correlations between months in the U.S. and these three variables.

*Hypothesis 10. There will be a positive correlation between months in the U.S. and global impression.*

The correlation between months in the U.S. and global impression was highly significant ( $r = .516, p < .008$ ). It seems that whether or not subjects who had been in the TL environment longer produced narratives that were higher in complexity or accuracy, the subjects had come to grasp enough of TL discourse to tell stories that impacted positively on native speakers. This suggests that language study in an immersive environment is beneficial, if not for attaining native-like syntactic proficiency, then at least for achievement of good TL sociopragmatics. In other words, the longer an L2 learner resides in an area where the majority of people speak the TL, thus requiring the learner to use the TL in his or her daily life, the better the impression he or she tends to make on native speakers of the TL in a narrative retell.

*Hypothesis 11. There will be a positive correlation between self-assessment and global impression.*

The correlation between self-assessment and global impression was significant ( $r = .479, p < .021$ ). Whether a high self-assessment rating is a byproduct of a subject's extraversion or a considered decision based on the confidence that comes from experience, subjects who ranked

themselves high in spoken English ability tended to produce the same sentiment in native speakers of English. We can conclude that learners are generally correct in their intuitions regarding their own level of proficiency. Further evidence for this is the fact that there were highly significant positive correlations between self-assessment and clausal accuracy ( $r = .644, p < .001$ ) and verbal accuracy ( $r = .693, p < .000$ ). Also, it may be that some subjects had had enough successful or positive interactions with native speakers of the TL that they assigned themselves high ratings in spoken English ability. The belief that one possessed the ability to make a good impression became a self-fulfilling prophecy. Again, this could highlight the positive effects of study in an environment where the learner is surrounded by native speakers of the TL.

### **Shortcomings of the Study**

#### **The Sample**

In addition to the benefit of adding more subjects to the sample size, greater control of the sample would have been a tremendous aid to the current study, as the above comparisons suggest. One of the most crippling flaws in this sample of twenty-five students, at least in terms of the primary hypotheses, was the lack of variance among their extraversion scores extending into the lower half of the scale (i.e., below 11). Only one subject scored sufficiently low on this scale to be classified as introverted (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002) and if we are to exclude for argument's sake the possibility of dissimulation, the high extraversion mean must be accounted for by other means.

All subjects were either enrolled in an intensive ESL program or had finished at least one term in such a program and were studying full-time at U.S. colleges. A high degree of extraversion may be associated with the decision to leave one's home country and study abroad. However, the introverted outlier was enrolled in graduate school and doing well in both grades and (apparent) degree of adjustment, so others like him must certainly exist. This subject's parents graduated from the same American university that he and all of his siblings had either also graduated from or were currently enrolled in. One of these siblings, it must be noted, also participated in this study and obtained an extraversion score of 18, so it is unlikely that subject B3's introversion is a family trait. On the other hand, his decision to attend university in the United States may have been based more on family precedent than personal inclination. In any case, the first priority in future versions of this study must be to increase the sample size in hopes of observing the true effects of variance in extraversion on controlled oral narratives.

Note, also, that the mean EPQ scores of this sample were compared to the mean scores of the American college-age subjects (S.B.G. Eysenck et al., 1986), and the Latin Americans' mean extraversion was judged to be unusually high. However, there is a certain difficulty in maintaining cross-cultural validity in personality tests such as this (Lynn & Martin, 1997; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1983). Researchers are faced with the question of whether individual items are weighted similarly for both the original population for which the test was designed and other populations that may be distant, geographically or culturally. For example, Eysenck and Eysenck (1983) point out that the psychoticism-scale question, "Do you lock up your house

carefully at night?" lost its weighting in Greece, where hot weather forces many to leave windows open at night, thus defeating the purpose of locking the door. Regarding exactly the same question, one subject in the current study protested that locking doors at night is not a matter of choice in her home country, Venezuela, where the high crime rate dictates that houses be locked up carefully. Thus, it must be remembered that the average EPQ scores reported in S.B.G. Eysenck et al. (1986) represent a very different population than the Central and South Americans in the current study. The high level of extraversion may be a reflection of Latin American cultural or environmental differences.

However, Schmitt, Allie, McCrae, and Benet-Martinez (2007) conducted a cross-cultural study of the Big Five Inventory (BFI), a 44-item test of the personality traits of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. Extraversion and neuroticism are similar to the traits found in the Eysenck model, and agreeableness and conscientiousness are encapsulated in his psychoticism trait. See Eysenck (1992a, 1992b) for comparisons of the Big Five model with his Big Three model. In Schmitt et al.'s study, individuals from 56 nations grouped into 10 geographic world regions were administered the BFI, and South Americans were found to score significantly *lower* in extraversion than the rest of the world! This lends weight to the above suggestion that the high extraversion scores in the present sample may be linked to the subjects' decision to leave their comfort zones and study and live abroad. We cannot make too strong a claim on this point, especially since extraversion as measured by the EPQ and the same trait measured by the BFI are not exactly identical phenomena (Schmitt et al., 2007). Nevertheless, the finding in Schmitt et al. (2007) may help

explain the difficulty finding introverts among native Spanish-speaking ESL students. If the same demographic is selected for future studies, increasing sample size will be the best way to obtain suitable variation among the extraversion scores.

The sample also needs to undergo considerable tightening in terms of other internal variables. As noted above, the thirteen subjects enrolled in ESL programs were taking low, intermediate, and high level courses. Future subjects should be recruited, not simply based on their amount of time spent studying English intensively, but also for the level of proficiency they have attained in the eyes of their teachers. Since age, age of instruction, and length of stay were found to have significant effects on several linguistic measures observed here, they are prime candidates for control factors as well.

### **The Language History Questionnaire**

If instructed learning versus immersive learning is to be used as a controlling factor in future samples, significant clarification of the exact definition of both of these terms is needed. As it stands, the language history questionnaire fails to distinguish between learning English in an immersive program as part of one's formal education, and learning while immersed in a non-education-focused environment with native speakers.

Question 10 asks participants to supply, in their own words, the reason they are making the effort to acquire English as a second language. Future reworkings of this item may lead to it being split into several questions requiring Likert-type scaled responses. Examples: "I admire the culture of English-speaking people" and "Learning English will increase my chances for economic success," both with options ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". A

composite motivation score obtained from a set of such questions may be more nuanced and revealing than the subjective assigning of a numerical rating to the participant's self-authored description of his or her greatest motivating factor.

Question 11 was intended to help the researcher screen out subjects who may have suffered language attrition due to long periods gone without exposure to the TL. Even if coupled with a sample size increased to the point where such precautions are practical, the question itself needs to be clarified, perhaps through translation into the L1.

Question 16 requires a self-rating of spoken English ability. However, the available choices make mention of experience, which does not always correspond with ability. Several subjects pointed this out, and this is yet another item in need of clearer presentation. In addition, the four-point scale does not allow for a true assessment of average, and such an intermediate response was asked for by some subjects as well. A five-point scale might allow participants like these to give a more accurate picture of how they see themselves at the current point in their development.

Some items from the questionnaire are useful as control factors, while others are best combined with a broader, more varied set of extraversion scores. In any case, the questionnaire itself is a valuable piece of the analysis toolkit, and should be retained, but in an improved form.

### **Further Shortcomings of the Task**

*Frog, Where Are You?* does not disappoint as a narrative prompt (excluding emotion words); many subjects declared that they appreciated the challenge it presented. However, the lack of

guidance in terms of length of the narratives led to some uneven results. The longest narrative produced was eight minutes and nine seconds. The shortest was one minute and forty-three seconds. High class level did not always correspond with longer output, nor the converse. Some subjects did seem to rush through the task; however, as there was neither a correlation between extraversion and number of T-units nor words per T-unit, it is difficult to see this as anything more than an underminer of the experiment. It should be noted, however, that there was a highly significant correlation between number of T-units and clausal accuracy ( $r = .472$ ,  $p < .017$ ).

A revised version of the experiment should either require output of a minimum length or be carried out under modified conditions so as to discourage rushing. Subjects should not be allowed to skip frames; this will require each subject to comment on the same story events. There should be little variation in the time and place of data collection; it is suggested that the subjects should not be hungry, nor should they be in a hurry to meet with friends for after-class appointments (i.e., they should not be tested outside class hours). The best way to accomplish this is to make participation part of a class assignment, thus enforcing a high motivation to proceed carefully and make the output as accurate and detailed as possible. The oral retell task could be assigned to any number of students, and only the narratives by native speakers of Spanish would be retained for analysis.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

In a study of personality differences and oral test performance, Berry (2007) found that the ratings assigned to test-takers varied with the raters' own criteria for a good performance.

Raters who focused on accuracy, for example, awarded significantly higher scores to extraverts than to introverts. This contradicts the intuition that extraverts speak quickly but inaccurately. Berry suggests that problems with word order, subject-verb agreement, and tense may be camouflaged within the faster, more confident speech of extraverts and exacerbated in the speech of introverts. This is far from certain, however, and warrants further investigation. Future studies employing global impression ratings similar to that in Oya et al. (2004) might also include questionnaires for the raters: are they more impressed by accuracy or fluency? And also: what are their attitudes toward the different personality types? Does this interact with the ratings they assign to the narratives of extraverts, introverts, or even unstable extraverts versus stable extraverts, etc.?

In another study featuring narrative retell tasks, Fiestas and Peña (2004) found that bilingual (English-Spanish) children produced significantly more Spanish-influenced utterances in a task from a multi-framed picture book than in a similar task from a single static picture. Some subjects in the present study produced Spanish-influenced clauses like *Was a deer*, in which the subject pronoun is deleted, an allowable phenomenon in Spanish because the subject is inferrable from the context. Berman and Slobin (1994, as cited in Fiestas and Peña, 2004) report that narrative Spanish differs from narrative English in a variety of other morphosyntactic features—preference for the present progressive (Spanish) versus the simple past (English), for example. If the absence of Spanish influence in a subject's spoken English is to be taken as an indicator of greater oral proficiency, further research might investigate whether this is also

related to personality along with immersion factors such as length of stay in an English-speaking country or integrative motivation.

As in many previous studies, the results regarding extraversion and a variety of oral proficiency variables were inconclusive. It may be that personality forms only a small part (if any part at all) of the quality of language learning aptitude. Larger portions of the latter could be assigned to factors such as motivation and general intelligence. However, the language learning process brings all of the learner's cognitive processes into play, and it is still plausible that personality has an effect on certain aspects of the proficiency that is attained. Of the variables presented here, global impression and emotion words are the most intriguing for further exploration in connection with extraversion. They tie in most prominently with the description of the stereotypical extravert found in Eysenck and Eysenck (1994); one expects an extravert to make a good impression through speech and to be more emotional in his or her output. Whether a task and study can be devised to accurately determine if this is the case in a learner's second language remains to be seen.

## REFERENCES

- Abdel-Khalek, A. M. (2009). The relationship between fatigue and personality in a student population. *Social Behavior and Personality, 37*(10), 1357-1368.
- Berry, V. (2007). *Personality differences and oral test performance*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.
- Brown, H. D. (1973). Affective variables in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 23*, 231-244.
- Busch, D. (1982). Introversion-extraversion and the EFL proficiency of Japanese students. *Language Learning, 32*, 109-132.
- Cameron, C. A., & Wang, M. (1999). *Frog, where are you?* Children's narrative expression over the telephone. *Discourse Processes, 28*(3), 217-236.
- Chun, J. A. F. (1981). *Second language acquisition in a natural setting* [Abstract] (Doctoral dissertation). Stanford University, California.
- Claridge, G. (1986). Eysenck's contribution to the psychology of personality. In S. Modgil & C. Modgil (Eds.), *Hans Eysenck: Consensus and controversy* (pp. 73-85). Philadelphia: The Falmer Press.
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1986). Major contributions to the psychology of personality. In S. Modgil & C. Modgil (Eds.), *Hans Eysenck: Consensus and controversy* (pp. 63-72). Philadelphia: The Falmer Press.
- Davitz, J. R. (1969). *The language of emotion*. New York: Academic Press.
- Dewaele, J.-M. (1998). Speech rate variation in 2 oral styles of advanced French interlanguage. In V. Regan (Ed.), *Contemporary approaches to second language acquisition in social context: Crosslinguistic perspectives* (pp. 113-123). Dublin, Ireland: University College Academic Press.
- Dewaele, J.-M. (2004). Retention or omission of the *ne* in advanced French interlanguage: The variable effect of extralinguistic factors. *Journal of Socio-linguistics, 8*(3), 433-450.
- Dewaele, J.-M. (2005). Investigating the psychological and emotional dimensions in instructed language learning: obstacles and possibilities. *The Modern Language Journal, 89*, 367-380.

- Dewaele, J.-M. (2007). Predicting language learners' grades in the L1, L2, L3, and L4: The effects of some psychological and sociocognitive variables. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 4(3), 169-197.
- Dewaele, J.-M., & Furnham, A. (1999). extraversion: The unloved variable in applied linguistic research. *Language Learning*, 49(3), 509-544.
- Dewaele, J.-M., & Pavlenko, A. (2002). Emotion vocabulary in interlanguage. *Language Learning* 52(2), 263-322.
- Drummond, R. J. (1990). Eysenck personality inventory. In J. Hogan & R. Hogan (Eds.), *Business and industry testing: Current practices and test reviews* (pp. 228-239). Austin, TX : Pro Ed.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ene, S. E. (2007). *The last stages of second language acquisition: Linguistic evidence from academic writing by advanced non-native English speakers* (Doctoral dissertation). The University of Arizona, Tucson.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1947). *Dimensions of personality*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1992a). Four ways five factors are *not* basic. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 13, 667-673.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1992b). A reply to Costa and McCrae: P or A and C—the role of theory. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 13, 867-868.
- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, S. B. G. (1964). *Manual of the Eysenck personality inventory*. London: University of London Press.
- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, S. B. G. (1975). *Manual of the Eysenck personality questionnaire*. San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service.
- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, S. B. G. (1983). Recent advances in the cross-cultural study of personality. In J. N. Butcher & C. D. Spielberger (Eds.), *Advances in personality assessment*, vol. 2 (pp. 41-64). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, S. B. G. (1994). *Manual of the Eysenck personality questionnaire (EPQ-R adult)*. San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service.

- Eysenck, H. J., & Knapp, R. R. (1962). *Manual of the Maudsley personality inventory*. San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service.
- Eysenck, M. W. (1974). Extraversion, arousal, and retrieval from semantic memory. *Journal of Personality*, 42, 319-331.
- Eysenck, S. B. G., Barrett, P., Spielberger, C., Evans, F. J., & Eysenck, H. J. (1986). Cross-cultural comparisons of personality dimensions: England and America. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 7(2), 209-214.
- Eysenck, S.B.G., Eysenck, H.J., & Barrett, P. (1985). A revised version of the psychoticism scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 6(1), 21-29.
- Fathman, A. K., & Precup, L. (1983). Influences of age and setting on second language oral proficiency. In K. M. Bailey, M. H. Long, & S. Peck (Eds.), *Second language acquisition studies* (pp. 151-161). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Fiestas, C. E., & Peña, E. D. (2004). Narrative discourse in bilingual children: Language and task effects. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 35, 155-168.
- Foster, P., & Skehan, P. (1996). The influence of planning and task type on second language performance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 299-323.
- Furnham, A. (1986). Response bias, social desirability and dissimulation. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 7(3), 385-400.
- Gardner, R. C., Day, J. B., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1992). Integrative motivation, induced anxiety, and language learning in a controlled environment. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 14(2), 197-214.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Hunt, K.W. (1965). *Grammatical structures written at three grade levels*. (NCTE Research Report No. 3). Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Ikeda, M. B. (1989). *Administrative implications of the effects of prior language, socio-economic status, oral language proficiency rate, and age on second language acquisition (Doctoral dissertation)*. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10125/9678/>

- Kang, S.-J. (2006). Individual and socio-contextual factors affecting the learning and use of ESL: A case study of a visiting Korean physician. *TESL Canada Journal*, 24(1), 59-79.
- Kiany, G. R. (1997). Personality and language learning: the contradiction between psychologists and applied linguists. *ITL: Review of Applied Linguistics*, 115-116, 111-136.
- Kiany, G. R. (1998a). English proficiency and academic achievement in relation to extraversion: A preliminary study. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(1), 113-130.
- Kiany, G. R. (1998b). *Extraversion and pedagogical setting as sources of variation in different aspects of English proficiency* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Essex, England.
- Kim, R. (1993). A sensitive period for second language acquisition: A reaction-time grammaticality judgment task with Korean-English bilinguals. *Issues and Developments in English and Applied Linguistics (IDEAL)*, 6, 15-27.
- Labov, W., & Waletzky, J. (1997). Narrative analysis: oral versions of personal experience. *Journal of Narrative and Life History*, 7(1-4), 3-38.
- Liu, G. (1989). Interactive styles and second language acquisition. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 12(1), 102-121. Abstract retrieved from CSA Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts. (Accession No. 9005427)
- Long, M. (1990). Maturation constraints on language development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 12, 251-285.
- Lynn, R., & Martin, T. (1997). Gender differences in extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism in 37 nations. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 137(3), 369-373.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The effects of induced *anxiety* on three stages of cognitive processing in computerized vocabulary learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16(1), 1-17.
- Marin-Marin, A. (2005). *Extraversion and the use of vocabulary learning strategies among university EFL students in Mexico* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Essex, England.
- Mayer, M. (1969). *Frog, where are you?* New York: Dial Press.
- Minami, M. (2004). The development of narrative in second language acquisition: frog stories. In M. Minami, H. Kobayashi, M. Nakayama, & H. Sirai (Eds.), *Studies in Language Sciences 3* (pp. 123-138). Tokyo: Kuroshio Publishers.

- Morimoto, S. (2006). On the relationship between extroversion-introversion and depth of vocabulary knowledge. *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics*, 12(1), 82-97.
- Naiman, N., Frohlich, M., Stern, H. H., & Todesco, A. (1978). *The good language learner*. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Nash, L., Daly, M., Johnson, M., Walter, G., Walton, M., Willcock, S., ... Tennant, C. (2007). Psychological morbidity in Australian doctors who have and have not experienced a medico-legal matter: Cross-sectional survey. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, 41(11), 917-925.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Bailey, P., & Daley, C. E. (2000). Cognitive, affective, personality, and demographic predictors of foreign-language achievement. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 94(1), 3-15.
- Oya, T., Manalo, E., & Greenwood, J. (2004). The influence of personality and anxiety on the oral performance of Japanese speakers of English. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 18, 841-855.
- Perales, S., Mayo, M. D. P. G., Licerias, J. M. (2009). The acquisition of L3 English negation by bilingual (Spanish/Basque) learners in an institutional setting. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 13(1), 3-33.
- Reilly, J., Losh, M., Bellugi, U., & Wulfeck, B. (2004). "Frog, where are you?" Narratives in children with specific language impairment, early focal brain injury, and Williams syndrome. *Brain and Language*, 88, 229-247.
- Rossiter, M. J. (2005). Developmental sequences of L2 communication strategies. *Applied Language Learning*, 15(1&2), 55-66.
- Schmitt, D. P., Alli, J., McCrae, R. R., & Benet-Martinez, V. (2007). The geographic distribution of big five personality traits: Patterns and profiles of human self-description across 56 nations. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 38(2), 173-212.
- Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 50(1), 158-164.
- Van Daele, S., Housen, A., Pierrard, M., & Debruyn, L. (2006). The effect of extraversion on oral language proficiency. *EUROSLA Yearbook*, 6, 213-236.

- Wakamoto, N. (2007). *The impact of extroversion/introversion and associated learner strategies on English language comprehension in a Japanese EFL setting* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Toronto, Canada.
- Wang, W., & Miao, D. (2009). The relationships among coping styles, personality traits and mental health of Chinese medical students. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(2), 163-172.
- Wokusch, S. (1989). Gesteuerter fremdspracherwerb bei erwachsenen lernerinnen: Allgemeine probleme und personlichkeitsspezifische schwierigkeiten [Controlled second-language acquisition of adult female learners: General problems and personality-specific difficulties]. *Grazer Linguistische Studien*, 32, 183-202. Abstract retrieved from CSA Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts. (Accession No. 9005464)
- Wolfson, N. (1982). On tense alternation and the need for analysis of native speaker usage in second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 32(1), 53-68.

### APPENDIX A: RATING SHEET FOR GLOBAL IMPRESSION JUDGES

Please rate the speaker in the audiotape according to the following scale:

Band	Description
4. Advanced level of oral proficiency	<p><b>Nature of Story:</b> Story well told; able to elaborate.</p> <p><b>Language Resources:</b> Good range of language resources (vocabulary, grammar, linkage), including low frequency words.</p> <p><b>Intelligibility/Confidence:</b> Confident speaker. Successful communicator.</p>
3. Average oral proficiency	<p><b>Nature of Story:</b> Story is not so elaborate as Band 4 but storyline is apparent.</p> <p><b>Language Resources:</b> Limited language resources (vocabulary, grammar, linkage). Mostly uses common words. Uses some links (so, and then, etc.).</p> <p><b>Intelligibility/Confidence:</b> Always intelligible. Reasonably confident delivery.</p>
2. Just below average oral proficiency	<p><b>Nature of Story:</b> Story is not clear and sometimes causes strain.</p> <p><b>Language Resources:</b> Lacks language resources (vocabulary, grammar, linkage). No explicit links between sentences.</p> <p><b>Intelligibility/Confidence:</b> Sometimes unintelligible. Unconfident delivery.</p>
1. Elementary level of oral proficiency	<p><b>Nature of Story:</b> Unable to tell the story.</p> <p><b>Language Resources:</b> Very basic language resources (vocabulary, grammar, linkage). Difficulties making sentences.</p> <p><b>Intelligibility/Confidence:</b> Often unintelligible. Poor communicator.</p>

Taken from Oya, Manalo, and Greenwood (2004)

Subject Number: \_\_\_\_\_

Rating: \_\_\_\_\_

**APPENDIX B: LANGUAGE HISTORY QUESTIONNAIRE**

1. *Subject Number*: \_\_\_\_\_
2. *Gender*: MALE / FEMALE
3. *Birth Date* (Month/Day/Year): \_\_\_\_\_ / \_\_\_\_\_ / \_\_\_\_\_
4. I first studied English when I was \_\_\_\_\_ years old.
5. Did you first learn English in **school** or by **immersion**? If you learned English in **school**, go to question 6. If you learned English by **immersion**, go to question 7.
6. Check which one applies to you:  
I first learned English in school in my home country. \_\_\_\_\_  
I first learned English in school in the United States. \_\_\_\_\_  
I first learned English in school in another country. \_\_\_\_\_  
Now go to question 8.
7. Check which one applies to you:  
I first learned English by immersion in my home country. \_\_\_\_\_  
I first learned English by immersion in the United States. \_\_\_\_\_  
I first learned English by immersion in another country. \_\_\_\_\_
8. I have studied English in school for \_\_\_\_\_ months total.
9. I have lived in the United States (and/or another English-speaking country) for \_\_\_\_\_ months total.
10. My biggest reason for learning English is:  
\_\_\_\_\_.
11. After I started learning English but before I came to the United States, I did not study or use English for two or more years: YES / NO
12. I am a talkative person: YES / NO
13. I often have conversations in English: YES / NO
14. I like to study languages: YES / NO

15. Other languages I have studied or used:

---

16. Currently, I think my Spoken English ability is (circle one):

Beginner

Somewhat Experienced

Average

Very Experienced

## APPENDIX C: TRANSCRIPTIONS OF NARRATIVES

### Subject A1

There was this boy who had the dog and also has a frog in a bottle.  
So one night he went to sleep  
and while he was esleeping the frog went out of the bottle,  
so the next morning the boy realized that the frog wasn't in the bottle.  
So he start to search everywhere  
and his dog put his head inside of the bottle.  
And the boy opened the window,  
so he start to screamed to called his frog.  
While he was in the window the dog went out and fell down  
and he has the bottle in his head  
so whened he fell downed the bottle broke.  
So the boy was ongry with the dog.  
Then they went outside the house.  
And again the boy start to scream for the frog,  
and the dog start to play with the bees while the boy still searching for the frog.  
Then the bees started to follow the dog.  
After that the boy still searching for the frog in the forest,  
but he couldn't find it.  
He *found/fought* many animals in the forest  
until he fell downed in some kind of lake with the dog.  
And then it was there, the frog with his family,  
so the boy was happy,  
and he took one little frog and take it with him to his house.

### Subject A2

One boy caught a frog  
and he put it in some glass  
and the dog was there with him.  
But when the dog and the child were sleeping the frog run away,  
so in the morning they start to look for the frog.  
And they start searching the room, and the boots, and the behind the bed,  
and the dog get into the glass where the frog was kept,  
so when they go outside and start to *jell* for the frog in the window the dog felled.  
And they're start to look for the frog in the forest,  
and they're look beneath the earth,  
and the dog tried to look for the frog in the woods,

and some bees were there,  
so the dog and the kid were chased by the bees.  
And after a while they were looking  
the boy climb a tree  
and a big bird came from the tree and scared the guy  
and he fell.  
The dog was running because of the bees,  
and the kid was running because of the bird.  
But after a while they keep looking for the frog,  
and the kid was standing in a big stone,  
and he was grabbing something like a tree,  
and it was not a tree,  
was a deer.  
So the deer caught this guy with his head,  
and the deer start running.  
After the deer stops they fell into like water,  
and they finally heard the frog.  
And when they were close they found the frog was with another frog.  
And so all the frogs, because there was not just one, there were more frogs,  
and the guy held a frog again.

### Subject A3

There's this little kid and his dog,  
and they have a frog on the bottle.  
Then after that they go to sleep  
and the frog escapes.  
When they wake up they realize the frog scaped,  
and they look everywhere in the room  
and they don't find it,  
so they open the window  
and the boy is screaming the frog's name, looking for it,  
then the dog fall through the window.  
The kid goes down and pick him up with a sad face.  
They go to the forest  
and he's still shouting the frog's name.  
And the boy looks through a hole in the ground,  
and the dog, he's barking at the beehive.  
The kid's got scare of a mole that was in the ground hole  
and the dog he's shaking the tree where the beehive is he found.  
Then the boy looks through to a tree hole,

and the dog seems to have problems with the beehive,  
the bees are coming out.  
Then the boy get scare again by an owl,  
and the dog is being followed by all the bees from the beehive.  
Then after that the owl leaves and is just staring at the kid in a tree.  
So the kid climbs a rock  
and he's shouting the frog's name again,  
then by surprise an elk,  
and he's trap in the elk's horns.  
So the elk goes to a cliff,  
and the boy and the dog fall on the cliff  
and they fall into a swamp.  
Then the boy hears something,  
the dog's too,  
so they look behind the stump  
and they find the two frogs.  
And then they realize there are a family of frogs.  
Then the boy take a frog and leave waving at the frog family.

#### Subject A4

It was a boy who lived in a beautiful house with his parents,  
and he had two pets, a beautiful dog and a beautiful frog.  
One night he went to sleep  
and suddenly his beautiful frog *scaped* from his bottle.  
The next morning the kid was scared and surprised because he saw his bottle empty without his  
frog,  
so he's said, "What's going on?  
Where's my frog?"  
And he *started* to search everywhere trying to find his frog.  
He looked in his boots,  
he looked everywhere in every possible spot,  
but he couldn't find it,  
so he open his window and called out, "Frog, where are you?"  
And actually his dog was trying to do it too,  
but nothing happened.  
When they were doing that his dog felled out  
and the boy got angry  
and he said, "Don't do that.  
Don't you see?  
I'm scared.

I don't want to lose another pet."  
After a while they went out  
and they start to call again, "Frog, where are you? Frog!"  
And his dog was helping him too.  
So they went to the forest  
and they try to find it.  
"Frog, are you there?" called the kid in a small hole  
and suddenly a bad animal came out and bit him in his nose.  
So his dog was helping too,  
and he start to play with a bee nest,  
and after a while that bee nest fall  
and the bees were so angry  
and they start to follow the dog in order to hurt him because of what he did.  
At the same time the kid was looking to a tree if maybe his frog were there,  
and he was crying out "Frog, are you there?"  
And when he did that a big bird came out of one hole in that tree and scared him so bad that he  
fell down.  
So they had to hide, both the dog because of the bees and the kid because of the big bird.  
After a while they came out again  
and the kid keep crying out, "Frog, where are you?"  
So when he was doing that he climb a small stone and try to grab a small branch,  
but it wasn't a branch,  
it was a deer hore,  
so the horn hit him and put it between his horns and *estart* to run.  
And that deer run for a while  
until he put that kid into a small lake.  
So the kid and the dog were now there in that small lake, wet, angry, and scared.  
But suddenly a beautiful noise came out.  
"What is that?" thought the kid.  
"What is that noise behind that old and dead tree?"  
And he said, "Dog, be quiet.  
I wanna listen.  
That could be my frog."  
So after a while they look behind that tree  
and they finally found that frog,  
and he was not alone,  
he was with a beautiful lady.  
"What is that?" the kid thought.  
"Do you have a family?"  
And the frog said, proud, "Yes, I do.  
I have a wife and beautiful kids now."

So the kid was happy  
and he said, "Frog, may I take one of your kids with me?  
I promise I will feed it just as I did with you."  
So the frog said, "OK.  
Take it.  
It's yours."  
And the kid went home again completely happy.

### Subject A5

In a room I was estanding a boy and with his dog  
and they was looking a frog that maybe the boy founded  
and then the boy and the dog was esleeping  
and the frog tried to pull out of the bottle.  
In the morning when the dog and the boy wake up they see the bottle is empty and then tried  
to find  
the boy he was dressing  
and the dog tried to put his head into the bottle.  
Then they tried to find the frog, tried to call him,  
but he couldn't found.  
And then the dog it was in trouble because he fall down with the big bottle  
his head is into the big bottle,  
and he fall down in the garden,  
and the bottle broken.  
The boy it was angry,  
but the dog was happy, try to be friend.  
Then they try to call the frog around the house  
and they couldn't find him,  
and then the boy tried to found in a little hole,  
but they found it a squirrel,  
and the dog it was playing with a bee's house.  
Then the bee's house fall down  
and the bees tried to play with the dog  
and also the little boy is tried to find the frog into a hole tree,  
they fall down because into the hole it was a big bird  
and also the dog it was running because the bees tried to pick at?  
and then the little boy tried to jump a lot of rocks, tried to going to the top because the rock it  
has a lot of little trips around the rock  
and he couldn't see something to the other side  
and he tried to going to the top and tried to see what going on in the other side.  
And it was something like a big horse,

the boy is on the head of the animal  
and the horse is walking,  
and the little boy is on his head.  
The dog is tried to look what happen.  
And then the horse estopped because the a fall  
The boy is fall down with his dog  
but ufortunatelly, is he fall down in a lake  
and they are wet right now.  
But it's curious the his face because is tried he understand something,  
and he tried to his dog to be quiet because he was thinking something.  
And then he tried to find something with his dog  
and he found the two frogs fall in love,  
and then the boy see the two frogs are with a lot of little frogs,  
and they founded his frog and tried to be friend.

### Subject A6

This is basically the story of a kid  
and there is a dog and a frog in the kid's bedroom  
The dog is looking at the frog  
the frog is inside of a bottle glass  
Then the little kid and the dog they go to sleep  
while they're esleeping the frog is coming out of the glass bottle  
and it scaped  
The next day in the morning they found out that the frog scaped  
and the little kid estart looking for it and ecouldn't find it  
they even start yelling at him in the window  
so suddenly the dog fell from the window  
And the little kid goes to find him  
They're start looking for the frog also in the forest  
and they still are yelling  
while the little kid is looking for the frog in a hole the dog is jumping around a bee nest  
and suddenly the bee nest it fell  
the little kid is looking now for the frog in a what seems to be a hole in a tree  
and the little kid fell because a bird came out of the hole and then scared him  
and the bees start chasing at the dog  
next the kid is still looking for the frog  
he found a really huge rock  
and he start climbing it  
and then while he's climbing it he put his hands on something that looks like a piece of tree  
but it seems that it's not because it's a deer

And then he it's on the deer's head  
and then the deer start running  
and they got to a cliff?  
and then the deer stopped  
and the little kid and the dog fell into a lake  
they fell into a lake  
and now here the little kid is  
he heard something  
and he's asking the dog to be quiet  
probably it's a frog  
and they look at it  
they're start looking for something  
and they found out that they found the frog  
and the frog and a female frog they were together  
and they have little frogs  
So they are happy now because they found that the frog is happy and he has kids  
And at the end of the story he's saying goodbye to the frog and the little frogs  
and he has a frog in his hands  
so I'm guessing that he took one of his kids

#### Subject A7

There is this kid with his little dog who are looking at the kid's frogs which is inside in a jar  
Later the kid and his little dog go to sleep  
and while they're doing that the little frog scapes from the jar  
Next in the morning when they wake up they find out that the frog have scaped from the jar  
They start looking all around the place for the frog  
and while they're doing it the little dog putted his head inside the jar  
and his head got trapped inside  
They even at there by the window  
and the little dog step on the wrong spot and slip and fell outer the window  
And when he does it when he fells on the ground the jar finally breaks  
and he gets free of it  
They estart to looking around the area  
They after that go to the forest looking for the little frog  
and there are some bees that are very close to them while they're doing that  
They start looking all around the place  
the little kid starts looking in the house of this little raccoon  
and while he's doing that the dog starts to play with the house where the bees are and  
which is hanging on a tree  
So then the dog has made that the bees gets angry and estart chasing the dog while

the kid is looking inside of some tree  
The dog start running away from the bees  
and the kid have fallen in the floor because he was looking inside a bird cage  
The kid then step on the top of this big rock and only to find out that he was grabbing some  
animal that was behind it which he didn't notice  
When the animal esteped up the kid found himself on his head  
And that animal starts running with the kid  
and that animal takes him to a clitch  
and on the clitch and the animal suddenly stop and makes the kid fall with his dog  
which was running after this big animal  
They fell in the swamps  
and they see this dead tree which is next to them in the swamp  
and the little kid tell his dogs to be quiet 'cause apparently he's hearing something  
He jumps on the dead tree to see on the other side  
and he finally find the two frogs which are together  
And they find out that the is the mama frog and daddy frog which just have their babies  
they finally realize that the frog which had escaped from the jar was there joining them  
He finally take his frog and wave goodbye to the frog's family

#### Subject A8

There's this kid in the middle of the night  
and he find a frog  
and he was staring at the frog, his new friend  
and he was with his dog  
the frog was in a cage  
and the kid was happy to have a new animal  
Then the kid were went to sleep with his dog  
and the frog didn't like the place  
and he went out  
and he ran away  
And then the kid wake up and see his frog wasn't in the place he put it  
and the dog and the kid doesn't know where the frog is  
so they start looking in the door, in the room  
and they couldn't find it  
And then the dog put his head on this bowl  
and he was playing  
I don't think he was actually looking for the frog  
And then they look outside to watch if the frog was outside the house  
and the dog with his head stuck in the bowl fell the window and broke the bowl  
And the kid was angry 'cause he was trying to find the frog

and the dog was only playing  
Then they went out of the house and went to the woods  
and the kid was looking for his frog  
and the dog was only playing with butterflies and bees  
And after that the kid still looking  
and the dog was playing with this bees' house  
and the kid still looking in the hole  
and then he find a castor? but not the frog  
so he was surprised and mad and 'cause he wants to find his frog  
Then the kid was looking in a tree  
and the dog still playing with the house of bees  
then the house of bees falled  
And the dog was looking at  
and then the bees start to chase the dog  
And the kid was mad 'cause in the tree there was a eagle  
but the kid is still trying to find his frog  
but his dog is playing with everything  
And then the kid was mad, still looking for it  
and he can find only animals and not his frog  
He climb up a rock  
and then the dog is still playing  
and then this deer appears  
and he was in the head  
he thought it was a tree  
And the dog still playing  
and the deer was mad and throw both of them to the river  
And then the kid hear something  
and that was pretty excited  
and behind the tree that was laying in the river they were look for it 'cause the kid find  
something  
and there was a frog with her girlfriend  
and kid look at them  
and there was babies too  
And the dog was surprise  
And the kid was really happy  
and then he took his frog  
and he was happy to see his frog again  
and the dog was really happy too  
and he say bye to the other frogs

## Subject B2

One day a little boy found a frog  
and he put it in a jar  
But during the night while the boy was sleeping the frog escaped  
and the next morning the little boy woke up  
and him and the dog were looking for the frog everywhere  
The dog got his nose into the jar  
and then as they were looking out the window the dog fell out the window  
and the jar broke  
Then they went into they wudes to keep looking for the frog  
The dog start messing with a beehive  
and then the little boy was looking at inside of a big tree  
and he saw an owl that came out and started chase him  
At the same time the dog was being chased by bee  
Then the little boy got on top of a rock  
and a deer was right behind it  
and somehow the little boy ended up sitting on top of the deer's head  
and the deer ran  
and they stopped right before at the end of a cliff  
and the boy fell  
and he fell in a pond  
and since the dog was following the deer and the boy he fell too  
They were inside of the pond  
and they saw a big hollow tree trunk  
and as they looked on the other side they found the frog with his little lady frog and a bunch of  
little frogs  
And then they were very happy  
And then the little boy left with one of the baby frogs and said goodbye

## Subject B3

A boy, a dog, and a frog are in a bedroom at night just before bedtime  
The boy and the dog are watching the frog which is inside a jar  
There're clothes scattered over the floor  
and the boy seems in his pajamas  
The boy and the dog go to sleep while the frog is in the jar  
The frog escapes the jar during the night  
When morning comes the boy and the dog wake up to find that the frog is gone  
They look inside shoes  
they look inside the glass jar

they look upside the window  
and the frog is nowhere to be found  
The dog sticks his head in the glass jar  
and it's stuck  
When they're looking outside the window the dog falls  
and the glass jar breaks  
The boy goes upside the window  
and it's mad at the dog because of what he did  
The boy and the dog go upside the house to a nearby forest where they yell out for the frog to  
come  
and the frog still doesn't come  
and it's nowhere to be seen  
They go to the forest where the dog knocks down a beehive while the boy looks inside a tree  
trunk  
The bees pursue the dog while inside the tree trunk an owl comes out and knocks the boy to  
the ground  
The boy runs from the owl and climbs a rock  
While atop the rock he keeps yelling for the frog to come back  
He grabs onto some branches that turn out to be the horns of a deer  
The deer carries the boy and starts running while the dog follows closely behind  
They get to a cliff  
and the deer brakes, knocking the boy downed, and the dog, into a pond  
They fall into the pond  
and the boy gets up  
and it seems like he hears croaking  
He tells the dog to follow quietly behind while he looks upside a fallen tree  
They look to the other side of the fallen tree and find that the frog is with another girl frog  
and there are children close by  
They are happy to have found their frog  
They take one of the kids back with them and wave goodbye to the family

### Subject B6

It was the little boy and his dog  
and they in his room  
so they were sitting on the carpet watching this little frog that they caught and they put  
it into a glass container  
The time was past  
and the little boy and his dog fall asleep  
and then the little frog jumping and run away  
The next day when the little boy wake up he saw that his frog wasn't in the place where

he put it before he goes to bed  
so he start looking everywhere around in his room, try to find where it was, the little  
frog  
He open the window  
and his dog have the glass container in his head  
and he was calling I guess the name of the little frog to try to find it  
so the dog jumping through the window  
and he broke the glass container  
and the little boy was very upset  
Then he decided to walking around the house and see if he can found the little frog  
so he keeps going and walking and looking for the little frog  
and then he walking around the forest  
and he was looking for the little frog in every single place that he see the little frog can  
come in  
and the dog try to play with this little thing where the bees live  
Then he keep doing it, looking everywhere  
and the dog still playing with the bees  
and he made this thing where the little bees live fall in the floor  
so the bees were follow them  
and then he was talking with ohwl,  
so he keeps going  
and he was looking in the rocks, in the holes, in the air, in the trees, everywhere  
and then he looks behind this rock  
he just jumping and got to the top of the rock  
and he hold in this thing that looks like a tree  
but it wasn't a tree  
it was like a rheeno  
and then the rheeno got very upset and throw him into this little lake  
and then the little boy when he realized that he was into the water, he start hearing  
something  
I guess it was the frog sound  
so he was quiet and tried to walking into the water very carefully  
that way if it was the little frog it's not gonna run away  
so then he found that the little frog have a wife and kids  
and then he was so happy because he found the frog with his family  
and then the family givy one of the little frogs to him  
and he back so happy to his house.

### Subject B7

There was a boy  
he had a frog

and he kept that frog inside of a glass jar  
When he went to bed the frog scape  
The frog went out through the window  
so when the boy wake up the next day he realized that the frog wasn't there  
He tried to find it  
but he couldn't  
so he opened the window and shrou to the frog  
but the frog never comes  
and his dog put his head inside the glass jar and fell off through the window  
but nothing happened to him  
They went to the forest trying to find the frog  
They came near to a bee house  
and the dog tried to reach the bees  
just make them anger  
and when the boy was looking inside of a trunk, the bees attacked the dog, who ran out  
The boy climbed into a rock and hold some branches  
but there was no branches  
there was a deer antlers  
The deer caught the boy and run in the middle of the forest and throw him into a  
swamp  
When he estood up in the middle of the swamp he heard some frogs in the other side of  
a hollow trunk  
When he climbed over the trunk, he saw two frogs along with some little frogs, too  
I think that the frog was paying some visit to the relative in the swamp  
So the boy had a chance to take his frog back to his home again

### Subject D1

The Little Robbie was so happy looking his little frog with his puppy  
During the night the Little Robbie went to sleep close to his little puppy  
and the frog take the opportunity for escape  
Later when he wake up and look at the glass the little frog escape  
and he feel so worried  
and he start to change his clothes pretty fast  
The puppy tried to looking for around and put his head inside the bottle  
Later they estart to looking around the little frog  
Later the puppy jumped and broken the bottle  
and the Little Robbie feel upset with his puppy  
"Why'd you do that?"  
After that they went to the forest and estart to call to the frog  
"Where are you?"

They looking and looking around inside a hole, inside a tree  
but they can't found the little frog  
They found many others animal  
He continue looking and looking for around the forest  
and he found a big rhinedeer  
The rhinedeer took to him on his head and run around and throw it inside a big pond  
Both puppy the little boy was wet  
but they still continue looking for around  
Little Robbie say, "Shh! Quiet," to his little friend  
and what a surprise, they found a family frog  
and he feel so happy  
He took one of the little frog and say, "Bye-bye!  
I got it!  
I found it!"

### Subject D2

First the boy has a frog and a doggie  
and he loves his frog and his doggie  
And when he go to sleep the frog go out of his home  
In the morning when the child wake up I think that maybe doesn't find  
The child saw that the frog is not there  
And he was trying to find it  
and he go out to his house with the doggie  
And he went to the camp  
he went outside  
He was looking for the frog and find bees  
And the bees attack to his doggie  
He was following looking for his frog  
and then he find like a Bambi  
and the Bambi throw the boy and the doggie to a r[al]ver  
And when he was in the r[al]ver he find his frog  
and his frog was with his wife and his children  
And the child was so happy because he find his frog and his frog was fine  
And he went back to home with a little frog

### Subject D3

He is watching his frog before go to sleep with his dog  
so after when he was esleeping the frog escape from his bottle  
and when he wake up he was finding for the frog

He didn't find  
so he was calling to the frog in the window when he push your dog  
and the dog going down  
And he went to the woods  
and he was calling "Frog!"  
And he was finding  
and he look in the hole when something like a rat bite him in the nose  
And after the dog was growling to the beeps  
and they coming going down  
And the boy was in a tree  
After the dog estart to run  
and the beeps going behind him  
And some Hooters escare to the boy  
and he going to the floor  
After he went to a rock  
The Hooters was following him  
And after he see another animal  
This animal push to the boy to the water  
and in the water the boy hears something  
and when he saw what it's going on he saw a frog with his family  
The frog has a wife and sons  
The finish of the history, the boy is come back to his house with a little frog

#### Subject D4

The frog in tonight estay with the dog and the children in your house  
In the middle night the frog is go to the out  
In the morning the child looking for the frog  
but he no stay in your house  
and they both looking for anything far in the house  
The child is very [...] the frog  
Where is frog?  
Where is frog?  
And his dog looking for the frog  
but he no is incount quickly  
But child we go to the jungle where they are looking for anything far  
She look another animal for the bees build  
The another animal is broke the child  
and other animal is dynery for child is land for the water  
In the water the child waiting for minute and take in the frog back in the tree

### Subject D5

I see a little boy with a little dog  
They are see a frog in a bedroom of they  
They going to sleep  
and the frog escaped  
so they take the shirt and pants and lift the windows looking for where is the frog  
Then they going to the jungle to looking for where the frog going  
They scared the main  
and they don't find their  
They looking for in a tree  
they looking for in an ole  
The little kid flall on the tree  
Some owl attack the kid  
The little kid was in a lake looking for the frog  
He was in a tree to see the other side the tree and founded the frog with his family  
He have eight little frogs and a wife  
And at last of the story he take a little frog for him

### Subject D6

In this estory the boy he's looking for your frog and his dog  
Then he is esleeping with his dog  
and the frog want to go another place  
Then the boy is wake up  
and he try to find his frog  
Then he's try to find his frog for all parts of this room  
Then he is say something about "Hey, where are you?"  
Then the dog is going down  
and then he is so sad  
In this story he's saying something  
He found his frog for all the ground, on the tree  
In this part he is esmell something  
I don't know why  
In this picture he is looking on the trip  
In this picture the dog is running  
and he is going down  
Then he found a big bird  
and finally he is on the rock saying maybe, "Where is my frog?"  
Then he is up the horse  
Then the animal is running with his dog

And then he is going down with his dog  
In this picture he is hearing something  
and he says to his dog, "Shh! Silence, please!"  
And then he is found from him  
And finally he and his dog found those frogs  
The frog probably is with its family  
And then he says goodbye to the rest of the frogs  
and he's so happy because he's found his frog

#### Subject D7

It is the night  
and the boy and the dog are playing with a frog  
The frog he tries to escape  
And the boy and the dog are trying to look for the little frog  
So they look in the window  
and the dog falls out  
and the boy is grumpy now  
And they went to the strip to look for the little frog  
and the dog found a little thing for bees  
and he's trying to get it  
And the boy's looking for the frog  
The dog gets the little bees  
and now he's in trouble with the boy  
and the bees are following the dog  
The boy now is looking for the dog and the frog  
and he finds close with some animal  
And later the animal throws him to a lake  
and he finds the dog  
He's telling the dog quiet  
and they are looking for the frog  
and they find a family of frogs  
and they took one

#### Subject E1

One day a kid has a frog that he loves  
He loves the frog so much  
and he always plays with the frog and the dog  
One night while he was sleeping the frog escapes from his little box and runs out  
Next morning when the kid woke up he saw that the frog wasn't in the box any more

so he start to looking for the frog in at his room  
He look at behind the bed, in other room,  
then he went to the window and start to call for the frog  
And when he was calling for the frog the dog fallow through the window  
and then the kid rescue him  
After that they both went to the wood for find the frog  
They look in everywhere in the wood  
they look in behind the earth, on some trees  
he look at one tree  
but while he was looking a kind of bird escare him  
and he fallow from the tree  
Then this bird he was following him  
and he run to some rocks  
and when he get to the rocks some kind of cow hit him  
and he was on this strange animal  
and they start to run  
and then the animal stop  
and he fallow from the animal again  
and he fallow to a lake  
It was a lake  
and while he was in the lake he heard something  
He ask for silence to his dog  
and he look behind a tree  
and he found his frog  
His frog it was with some friend playing with some other frogs friends  
then the kid took the frog and walk away

### Subject E2

I wanna try to speak about the book  
There is a man who is on his bedroom  
and they have a little frog and a dog too  
So he went to sleep with his dog  
and the frog was above the bed  
so the frog leave outside his room  
and when the man woke up the frog wasn't there  
So he was worried about that  
and the dog jump out the window  
and he was so mad  
So they were outside the house  
and the man tried to found the frog

so he were above the rocks to find the frog  
while he didn't find  
so he saw a big animal  
and then he hit his back  
and the dog were with him  
so already he was so happy because he found more than one frog, like a family and his dog too

### Subject E3

Once upon a time it was a kid who has a dog and a frog  
And one night they fall asleep  
and when they wake up they saw that the frog was scaped  
and he look for him anywhere in his house and didn't find it, the frog  
And they went outside and looking for the frog  
and they went to the forest asking the other animals  
They found a lot of animals on their way and still didn't find it, the frog  
And when they was walking on the forest they fell down on the river  
and they heard something behind this tree  
and they look a couple of frogs there  
and those were how he found the frog  
And they happy ending, they go back to his home

### Subject G1

This history is about a boy that had a frog  
and when the child go to sleep the frog escaped from the house  
and then when the child wake up he realize that the frog didn't estay in his place  
so the child get ready and then go to look for the frog with the dog  
He began to call the frog in every place  
but he didn't find him  
He look for everywhere  
and then he find a family of frogs  
and he take one of the frog and take to home

### Subject G2

This istory talk about a boy who hasn a frog in his room  
and the boy is very exciting, very fascinated because they have this kind of pet  
Then on the night he goes to sleep  
and at that time the frogs try to get away or try to jump into the window  
and then in the morning the boys realize that the frogs it's not in the place

so he was upset  
Then he try to found the frogs in all his room, in the clothes, under the bed, into the shoes  
and then the boy and his dog they go to the window to try to called at the frogs and saying  
“Where are you?”  
and at the same time the dog fell down to the window  
and the boy down to the yard to take the dog  
And after that the boy decide to go to look the frog in the forest  
and the first place where the boy look the frogs was in a hole  
and they try to call  
they call to his frogs  
and animals comes out to this hole  
and the boy is scared  
At the same time his dog are playing with something in the tree  
and then the boy is eclimb a tree  
and he try to look into a other hole in the tree  
but he didn’t found nothing  
Then the dog begin to run  
and the boy tried to looking to the dog  
and after that the boy saw a big stone  
and he climb the stone  
and then he take a kind of tree that he thought that it was a tree  
but he didn’t know that it’s not a tree  
it’s a animal  
and then he continue to call at her frogs  
I mean “Where are you? I’m looking for you.”  
And when he realize that this kind of tree that he took it’s an animal  
and the animal begin to run  
and the boy is in the head of the animal  
and the animal begins to run very fast  
and then the animal throws the boy into a kind of river  
and when the boy are in the river he realize that he are hearing the special sounds of the frogs  
and he say to his dog “Quiet, quiet!  
I think that I found at my frogs”  
and then he carefully climb to the piece of tree  
and he realize that he frogs is there together with a family  
and they are very happy because he already found his frogs  
and then the boy take his frog and say goodbye to the family of the frogs  
and then the dogs come back home very happy because he found his special pet

### Subject G3

This is a boy that he is in his room with his dog and his frog  
The frog is inside a glass thing  
It's night  
Now the boy is esleeping with the dog on the bed  
but the frog got out the glass thing  
and he's still sleeping  
The next morning the dog and the boy realize that the frog is out of the glass  
so they start looking for the frog  
He was looking inside the boots  
the dog was looking inside the glass thing  
Then the guy and the dog look outside because they were looking inside a room  
so they decide to look outside the house  
They were looking a big area with trees and animals  
They had a few problems trying to find the frog with animals  
He was looking inside the trees  
and finally they be had a accident looking for the frog  
and they got into a river  
and they saw a tree  
and they decide to see behind the tree to see if the frog was there  
Finally they found a couple of frogs  
I don't know if that frog is the same one that he used to have  
and they saw the couple of frogs have like a little family  
and the boy ask them if they can keep one  
and they said "Yes"  
so the boy kept one little frog

## APPENDIX D: EMOTION WORDS

Emotion words from the present corpus (91):

anger/angry (7), beautiful (7), curious (1), excited/exciting (2), fascinated (1), fine (1), friend (7), grumpy (1), happy (22), like (1), love (4), mad (6), problem (2), proud (1), sad (2), scare/scared (13), surprise/surprised (5), trouble (2), upset (4), worried (2)

**Table 5. Schema map of the emotion words under the "umbrella" state terms in Davitz (1969).**

<b>Corpus</b>	<b>Davitz (1969)</b>
anger/angry	<i>anger</i>
beautiful	<i>admiration, awe, enjoyment</i>
curious	<i>surprise (?)</i>
excited/exciting	<i>excitement</i>
fascinated	<i>awe, reverence</i>
fine	<i>cheerfulness, contentment, serenity</i>
friend	<i>friendliness</i>
grumpy	<i>frustration, impatience, irritation, resentment</i>
happy	<i>happiness</i>
like	<i>affection, delight, enjoyment</i>
love	<i>love</i>
mad	<i>anger</i>
problem	<i>anxiety, nervousness</i>
proud	<i>pride</i>
sad	<i>sadness</i>
scare/scared	<i>fear</i>
surprise/surprised	<i>surprise</i>
trouble	<i>anxiety, depression</i>
upset	<i>anger, anxiety, contempt, embarrassment, fear, frustration, grief, guilt, impatience, irritation, jealousy, nervousness, panic, remorse, resentment, shame</i>
worried	<i>anxiety, nervousness</i>

## APPENDIX E: ANSWERS TO QUESTION 10 (MOTIVATION)

Answers were rated on a scale of 1 (Highly Instrumental Motivation) to 4 (Highly Integrative Motivation).

- A1. To study in a US university (1)
- A2. Professional development (2)
- A3. So I can complete my undergraduate degree in the U.S. (1)
- A4. To have a 2<sup>nd</sup> language (4)
- A5. Because I want to speak in other language and I want to study in E.E.U.U. (3)
- A6. Better opportunities (3)
- A7. To improve it in order to do a Master's (1)
- A8. It is important to know at least 2 languages (3)
- B2. It was part of the curriculum in my school. After that just because it's used everywhere:  
T.V., music, movies, Internet (4)
- B3. To be able to attend school in the US (1)
- B6. Professional interest (nursing science) (2)
- B7. To succeed in a PhD program in USA (1)
- D1. Felt comfortable, to get better opportunities (4)
- D2. Because I want to apply for a Master (1)
- D3. Study (1)
- D4. I need promotion in my job (1)
- D5. Because I will study a major on United States (1)
- D6. Because I want to speak with American's people and I would like study Master (3)
- D7. Study (1)
- E1. Because I want to go college in the U.S.A. (1)
- E2. Because I want to get to school on United States (1)
- E3. Because I want to enter to the University, other thing is because I like English (3)
- G1. Because now this language is very important and in my country if you speak English you  
have more opportunity to find a job (2)
- G2. Because I want to improve my life and get better future (2)
- G3. To study a major here (1)

## **VITA**

Joshua Howard was born in Ruston, Louisiana, and lived in the town of Quitman until he was accepted into the Louisiana School for Math, Science, and the Arts in Natchitoches. He graduated and attended Louisiana State University, earning a Bachelor of Arts in English in 2004. He took several linguistics courses under Dr. Elisabeth Oliver, who inspired his decision to return and pursue the Master of Arts in this field. After finishing his degree he plans to teach English as a Second Language.