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Discourse Analysis of Interpersonal Features in ESL and JSL Textbooks

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DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF INTERPERSONAL FEATURES IN ESL AND JSL TEXTBOOKS

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ABSTRACT

Textbooks play an important role in language classrooms. They serve as models for language use in a target community and significantly influence language learners in their development of language use and perceptions of the target community. In traditional grammar teaching, teachers seldom look into linguistic choices at the discourse level and mainly use language textbooks to focus on grammatical accuracy at the sentence level. Language cannot be divorced from the context and culture of its use; contextual and cultural aspects of language are inherent in discourse. Language textbooks provide not only the needed linguistic resources, but also reflect the interpersonal aspects of language in communities. Those aspects of language use are often ignored in language classrooms, yet they provide important resources for learners on how to convey complex meanings in interactions. Through the analysis of Mood and subject personal pronouns in the Systemic Functional Linguistics framework, this study investigates how context, mode, and proficiency in English and Japanese contribute to create different interpersonal relationships between interlocutors in presented materials in upper level ESL and JSL textbooks. The findings demonstrate that linguistic choices are influenced by contexts, modes, proficiencies of target languages throughout interaction, and that those differences construct different interpersonal relationships. This study suggests explicit instructions on appropriate choices of language in particular situations in language classrooms.

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Textbooks play important roles in classroom teaching. On one hand, textbooks serve as required reading materials; on the other hand, they serve to structure classroom activities. As students have a large amount of exposure to textbook texts, textbooks also take an important role of providing model texts to improve students' ability to use language both intentionally and unintentionally (Edling, 2006).

For second language learners, language textbooks significantly affect students' development of language use and perceptions of community interactions and society. With the model set up by textbooks, second language learners could picture how people in the target community interact with one another through the dialogues and/or sample letters addressing close friends or business partners. Second language learners are especially influenced by those descriptions since they trust the textbook materials as important resources to acquire the language skills necessary to communicate in the context where the target language is used (Ndura, 2004). Language textbooks play the role of "cultural mediators" (Ndura, 2004, p. 143) as they transmit overt and covert social values, assumptions and images. Thus, textbook texts serve as textual paths leading students to participate in a target community, and texts have the power to influence students' perceptions of their new culture (Ndura, 2004).

Language textbooks not only provide needed linguistic resources for students to develop their language skills but also reflect interpersonal relationships between interlocutors as well as the diversity of cultures within their communities. These interpersonal relationships are construed by several linguistic features including personal pronouns and Mood types of the clause on the Interpersonal metafunction of language (Halliday, 2004). Interpersonal metafunction treats clause as an interactive event and describes how language enables us to

participate in communicative acts and interact with other people. The most fundamental aspect of the grammar of Interpersonal metafunction is Mood. Mood represents the speech role of the speaker in interaction, as information provider or seeker. Personal pronouns also represent interpersonal meaning of language as they indicate a closer relationship in a community involving the speaker. They also indicate interpersonal distance between speaker and addressee. Personal pronouns are classified into interactant reference and non-interactant reference. Interactant reference refers to "I," "we," "you" and non-interactant reference refers to "he," "she," "they" (Whitelaw et al., 2006, p. 204). Whitelaw et al. (2006) stated that texts characterized by the interactant system represent a close interpersonal relationship, whereas texts characterized by the non-interactant system show a more formal and distant relationship. The interpersonal relationship represented by those linguistic choices is often ignored in language classrooms, yet provides learners rich resources for the skills necessary to convey the complex meanings in interaction.

This study investigated interpersonal relationships between speakers/writers and listeners/readers in two English as a second language (ESL) textbooks and two Japanese as a second language (JSL) textbooks within the Systemic Functional Grammar framework. The study highlighted the use of personal pronouns and Mood types (interrogatives, exclamatives), and explored the kind of interpersonal relationships between interlocutors represented by those interpersonal features depending on contexts (private, public), modes (spoken, written), proficiencies and the two target languages.

Analysis of ESL textbooks reveals that private texts are characterized by the high frequency of interactant references and the use of interrogatives and exclamatives, while public texts often employ non-interactant references and less interrogatives and exclamatives. Analysis

of modes shows interactant references are preferred in spoken texts, while non-interactant references are preferred in written texts. An analysis of two proficiency levels does not show significant differences. An examination of JSL textbooks indicates that although there is no difference in terms of the use of personal pronouns in two contexts, modes, and proficiencies, the number of interrogatives shows a similar pattern to that in ESL textbooks, and the use of exclamatives is less than that of ESL textbooks.

Due to the small number of language textbooks available in ESL and JSL textbooks for sample texts (two textbooks for each language), the data collected for this study are limited. However, distinctive patterns of Mood choices and personal pronouns in different contexts, modes and cultures revealed in this study provide implications for language teachers to extend the potential of language textbooks.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics examines language in terms of its usage through social interactions and views language as a "system of meanings" (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p. 2), that is, people use language to *construct* meanings. Different choices of words and other grammatical features construe different meanings. The fundamental conceptual framework of language is based on functions rather than forms. Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) is a model of grammar developed by systemic functional linguists Halliday (Halliday, 2004), Matthiessen (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 2010), Martin (Martin & White, 2005; Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 2010) and others. While Chomsky's perspective is largely divorced from meanings of the language and focuses on individual mental processes (Chomsky, 1965), SFG takes a different approach, focusing on the semantic and functional aspects of the grammar of language with meaning and use as its central features (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). This theory has been applied to a wide range of languages, including French (Caffarel, 2006), Chinese (Li, 2007) and Japanese (Teruya, 2007).

Halliday interprets language as a stratified semiotic system, comprising three different levels (Martin & White, 2005). The core component of language is phonology for speech, and graphology for writing. The next level of strata is referred to as lexicogrammar. It is named as "lexicogrammar" from the notion that grammar and vocabulary are not two separate components of language but two poles of a single continuum (Halliday, 2004, p. 7). Lexicogrammar is concerned with the recoding of phonological and graphological patterns as words and structures. The third level of strata will be referred to as discourse semantics, which concerns meaning beyond the clause level.
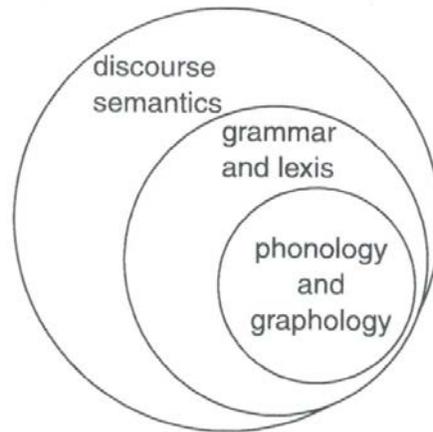
Figure1 Stratification (adapted from Martin and White, 2005, p. 9)

History of Systemic Functional Linguistics

Modern linguistics was first developed by the Swiss scholar, Ferdinand de Saussure (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). His ideas on the principles of linguistics still remain as the center of modern linguistics. Bloor and Bloor (2004) describes de Saussure's two contributions to modern approaches in linguistics. de Saussure argued that language can be perceived as *langue,* which considers language as a set of *signs* (the language system), and as a *parole,* which can be interpreted as the individual's use of the system. He also distinguished between *syntagmatic* and *paradigmatic* dimensions of language. Syntagmatic refers to the word order in sequences, and paradigmatic refers to how alternatives of linguistic items are related within sets. A syntagmatic phenomenon is now referred to as a *structure*, and a set of paradigmatic choices is referred to as a *system* in Systemic Functional Grammar (Bloor & Bloor, 2004).

These Saussurean principles influenced linguists in the Prague School. The Prague linguists were interested in finding functional aspects of grammatical structures. Halliday's concept of language and the Prague school's concept of language have something in common in that they both elaborated upon the functional approach to linguistic structures (Davidse, 1987).

Malinowski and Firth also had a significant influence on the development of SFL.

Bronislaw Malinowski, a Polish anthropologist, interpreted language as a means of action, that is, language was primarily a tool for getting things done (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). He also created the term *context of situation,* which emphasizes the importance of knowing all the complex of social detail of the utterance, not only the literal meanings of the words (p. 245).

J. R. Firth's concept of the *system*, a paradigmatic set of choices, plays an important role in the development of Halliday's theory of SFL. According to Firth, the grammar of the language is polysystemic, a system of systems (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). This concept of the system has been further developed as complex networks, the choices available for the language users. Each choice of word or grammatical feature works as a system and these systems are interrelated with one another, which comprises the system network. As language is considered a social phenomenon, which contrasts Chomsky's structural approach of language being biologically determined, Firth criticized the system of language signs divorced from real world usage.

Language Use in Different Contexts

Language is used in specific situations, and the form of the language is influenced by the complex aspects of those situations. A choice of words or grammatical features differs depending on the day, the place and the people involved. For example, an announcer talking on TV tends to use different rhetorical devices as well as a different tone of voice from how he talks with his colleague after work. The form of written language is also influenced by situations. An email requesting a professor to write a recommendation letter for a job application may employ different rhetorical devices from a letter asking an old friend how he/she is doing. Most of this language use is acquired without conscious attention, as Bloor and Bloor (2004) observe, but some situations require speaker/writer training to properly use language. Especially for the novice ESL learners who did not grow up surrounded by these cultural conventions, the different

language uses in various situations need to be explicitly taught in language classroom for learners to be able to appropriately behave in particular situations. In academic situations, ESL learners need to acquire not only surface level grammatical skills, but also social and disciplinary aspects of language use. ESL learners often face the difficulty of following the writing conventions in English speaking countries, and fail to use proper linguistic devices in their written work. For example, learners might tend to employ personal pronouns such as 'I think' or 'in my opinion' too often in their formal writings. However, these personal pronouns are not preferred in academic context because they do not properly realize the situation where the objective view is more important than the writer's personal view. Therefore, the context influences the choice of words and grammatical features for learners to properly use language in certain situations.

Spoken and Written Language

Since language evolved as speech, all writing systems emerged from spoken language (Halliday, 2004). Each writing system has evolved with its own distinct features. These have clearly differentiated the functions of spoken and written language. Therefore, writing is not simply "speech written down" (p.7).

Types of spoken and written discourse. Cutting (2011) claimed that it is too broad to define spoken language as a reflection of the process of language construction, while written language is a revised and polished product. There are kinds of spoken and written discourse, and each of them is used in different situations for various purposes. Cutting (2011) described that there is a series of discourse types from spontaneous spoken discourse (unplanned or semi planned) to non-spontaneous spoken (semi-scripted or scripted) to spontaneous written discourse (unplanned or semi planned) to non-spontaneous written discourse (polished scripts), and the

borders between the categories are vague. Unplanned spoken discourse, which occurs the most, is casual conversation such as gossip between friends over coffee and chat between strangers at a bus stop. Thornbury and Slade (2006) stated that these conversations take place in a shared context, which is interactive, interpersonal and informal (as cited in Cutting, 2011). Semi-planned spoken discourse includes a proposal for a marriage, job interviews and public speech, when speakers need to choose rehearsed words carefully (Cutting, 2011). Semi-scripted spoken discourse includes a conversational phrase from the shop assistant, the hair dresser and the pilot etc. in which some of the planned words have been written down. Scripted spoken discourse includes recorded telephone messages, news reports on radio and TV, plays and films, and prepared lectures and speeches. Spontaneous written discourse includes scribbled notes on the back of an envelope, mind maps for essays and informal text messages, interactional and interpersonal. Non-spontaneous written discourse is planned and polished scripts, including academic research paper and formal letters to professors.

Differences between spoken and written discourse. It is often considered that written language is more complex than spoken language. Halliday (2001) argued that this is a misinterpretation. Spoken and written language tend to display different kinds of complexity and each of them is complex in its own way (Halliday, 2002). Halliday (2002) described the difference between the two modes as "written language tends to be lexically dense, but grammatically simple; spoken language tends to be grammatically intricate, but lexically sparse." Written language is likely to consist of a larger number of lexical items in each clause, which makes the clauses lexically dense; whereas spoken language is likely to line up more clauses and add subordinate clauses to elaborate the details, which makes the clauses grammatically intricate.

Halliday (2001) stated the differences of the two modes as "spoken language is language

in flux: language realized as movement and continuous flow. Written language is in fix: language realized as an object that is stable and bounded" (p. 187). Both modes draw on different lexical and grammatical resources to realize different situational contexts. Spoken texts tend to employ first and second person pronouns more frequently than written texts. Personal pronouns represent a context which is typically dialogic where roles between speaker and listener are constantly changing. However, this is not the pattern of written language.

Written language is typically monologic, and "there is less of a place for personal forms when making meaning in writing" (Halliday, 2001, p. 82). In addition, written texts show less interpersonal meaning. Written language tends to employ declaratives, which "preset the discursive relationship between writer and reader for the text as a whole" (p. 82). A declarative clause does not necessarily provide a room for interaction, since it functions primarily as statement where speakers take a role of information giver and listeners as information receiver. Hence, the exchange of information is typically one-sided.

Metafunctions

Multiple perspectives can be adopted to interpret language in use (Martin & White, 2005). The functions of language are categorized into three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. Ideational metafunction treats the structure of the clause as a message, and describes how language is used to organize, understand and express how we perceive the world (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). It is further classified into two subfunctions: experiential and logical. Interpersonal metafunction treats the clause as an exchange, and describes how language enables us to participate in communicative acts with other people, to take on roles and to express and understand feelings, attitude and judgments (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). Textual metafunction treats the clause as a representation, and describes how language is used to relate what is said (or

written) to the rest of the text and to other linguistic events (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). These three kinds of meanings do not function individually but are interrelated with one another. The function of the language differs depending on the dimension of meaning. As this study focuses on the Interpersonal metafunction of language use, the next section will address this metafunction in detail.
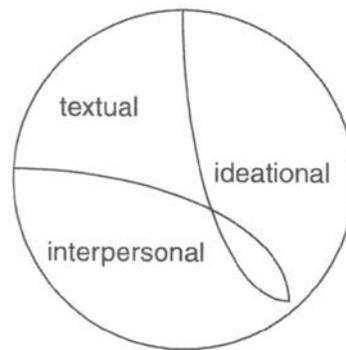
Figure 2 Metafunctions (adapted from Martin and White, 2005, p. 8)

Mood and Primary Speech Functions

Mood and Modality system are mainly adopted to study the Interpersonal metafunction. In Interpersonal metafunction, the clause is organized as "an interactive event involving speaker, or writer and audience" (Halliday, 1994, p. 106). The term 'speaker' covers both speaker and writer. When people speak, the speaker adopts for him- or herself a particular speech role while assigning to the listener a complementary role, which he/she wishes him/her to adopt in his/her turn (Halliday, 1985). The most fundamental speech roles are giving and demanding. The speaker is giving something to the listener, or demanding something from the listener. The two types of commodity exchanged are goods-&-services or information. Taking these two variables into consideration, Halliday (1994) defined the four primary speech functions: offer, command, statement, and question. If the speaker gives goods-&-services to the listener, this is an offer; if

he/she gives information, this is a statement. If the speaker demands goods-&-services from the listener, this is a command; if he demands information, this is a question.

Role in exchange: Commodity exchanged	Commodity exchanged	
	(a) goods-&-services	(b) information
(i) giving	'offer' would you like this teapot?	'statement' he's giving her the teapot
(ii) demanding	'command' give me that teapot!	'question' what is he giving her?

Figure 3 Four primary speech functions (adapted from Halliday, 1985, 1994, p. 69)

These four functions are realized by the different Mood choices: declarative, interrogative, and imperative. A statement is expressed as a declarative clause, offer and a question as an interrogative clause and a command as an imperative clause. In an interrogative clause, for example, a speaker is "taking on the role of seeker of information and requiring the listener to take on the role of supplier of the information demanded" (Halliday, 2004, p. 106). Offering goods-&-services or getting information requires interaction, which enhances interactive features. This interaction occurs between closer interlocutor relationship, especially in informal and dialogic context.

Mood Types

The most important aspect of the grammar of Interpersonal metafunction is Mood. The Mood system is "the expression of the speaker's choice of role in the communicative situation" (Halliday, 1970, p. 325). The Mood is one of the elements to compose a clause; the other is the Residue. The Mood consists of Subject, which is a nominal group, and Finite, which is part of a verbal group.

The types of Mood are first classified into indicative and imperative. Indicative is categorized into two types: declarative is the clause as expression of a statement and

interrogative is the clause as question. The interrogative is further divided into yes/no interrogative to ask polar questions and wh- interrogative for content questions.
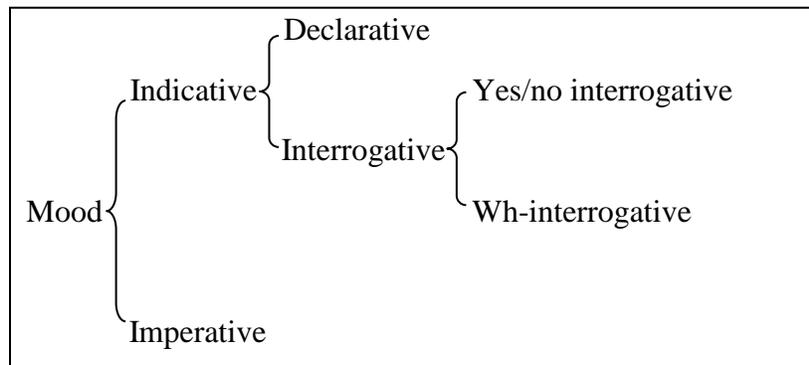
Figure 4 Mood types (Halliday, 2004, p.114)

These Mood types function differently to produce different meanings in particular situations. The basic functions of each Mood type are discussed below.

Declarative. The structure of a declarative clause is the Subject plus the Finite. The Subject occurs before the Finite element.

Example: He   plays   the violin.

            Subject   Finite

For example, in this sample sentence, "He" (the Subject) comes first and "plays" (the Finite) follows. The basic function of a declarative clause is the expression of statement. The speaker takes on the role of a 'declarer' and invites the hearer to take on the complementary role (Halliday, 1970). In a declarative clause, speakers express their own angle in interaction (Halliday, 2004). Speakers presents their own perspectives and do not display interactive meaning as much as interrogatives. Eggins and Slade (1997) stated that "full declaratives are typically used to initiate conversational exchanges by putting forward information for negotiation" (p. 85). Thus, the speaker takes on an active role to initiate the conversation (Eggins

& Slade, 1997).

Interrogative. While declaratives express the speakers' angle, speakers seek the angle of listener in an interrogative (Halliday, 2004). Interrogatives are classified into two types: polar interrogatives (yes-no interrogatives), and wh-interrogatives. In a polar interrogative, the Finite element occurs before the Subject.

Example: <u>Does</u>   <u>she</u>   like her job?

              Finite Subject

An example sentence shows that "Does" (the Finite) comes first and "she" (the Subject) follows. Eggins and Slade (1997) described that "full polar interrogatives are typically used to initiate an exchange by requesting information from others" (p. 85). Thus, the speaker depends on the response of his/her interactants (Eggins & Slade, 1997). Polar interrogatives are not common in casual conversation among close friends or family members, where much of the information is already shared, because the polar interrogatives directly encode an information imbalance (Eggins & Slade, 1997).

Wh-interrogatives consist of a wh-question word, the Finite element and the Subject. The Finite needs to be placed before the Subject, followed by a wh-question word.

Example: <u>Why</u>   <u>are</u>   <u>you</u>   running, Jan?

               Wh-word Finite Subject

Full wh-interrogatives are used to ask for additional circumstantial information and initiate the conversation.

Imperative. Imperatives consist of only Predicator, without containing the element of Subject or Finite.

Example: <u>Get</u>   some sleep.

        Predicator

In an imperative, the Subject is omitted because all imperatives are implicitly addressed to the

addressee, that is, there is an implicit "you" function as Subject for all imperatives (Eggins &

Slade, 1997). "Let's" is an exception since it explicitly indicates the Subject and intends to

include both speaker and addressee. In addition, the Finite is also explicitly indicated if speaker

needs to put additional emphasis on the action such as "*Do* get some sleep." Imperatives

typically function to make commands, that is, speaker demands someone to do something.

Eggins & Slade (1997) stated that typical response to imperatives may well be non-verbal such

as the person turns his/her eyes as he/she are instructed "Look." However, imperatives are used

to negotiate action indirectly in casual talk, that is, they function to encode advice (Eggins &

Slade, 1997). In this use, the speaker has some power over the addressee since advice can

typically be given by someone who is in a dominant position. In addition, the imperative form

gives a strong advice compared to the "should"-form, which is typically expressed as a statement

and is less authoritative.

Exclamative. Exclamatives contain a wh-word combining with one of the clause

elements of either Complement or Adjunct. A wh-word occurs first, followed by the Subject, and

then the Finite, Predicator and other elements.

Example: <u>How</u>   <u>amazingly</u>   <u>he</u>   <u>plays</u> the violin!

        Wh-word   Adjunct   Subject   Finite

Exclamatives are used to express a judgment or evaluation of events (Eggins & Slade, 1997).

The speaker takes on the role of judge, and positions other interactants as likely to agree with the

judgment (Eggins & Slade, 1997). Exclamatives can also be used to challenge, which could also

be expressed through either an imperative or a should-declarative maintaining the inequality role. Exclamatives represent speaker's emotional feelings through 'judgment' or 'evaluation', which occurs more frequently in spoken text.

Clause Complex

In SFG, the major unit of grammatical analysis is the clause because "it is at this rank that we can begin to talk about how things exist, how things happen and how people feel in the world around us" (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p. 8). It is also at the rank of clause that language is used to interact with others (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). Halliday (2004) explained that there is a scale of rank in the grammar of language that we use: morpheme, word, phrase/group, and clause. A word consists of one or more morphemes, a group consists of one or more words, and a clause consists of one or more groups (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). A sentence may consist of one or more clauses, in this case, these are called clause complex.

Subject

The interpersonal meanings in a clause are embodied in the person system, both as pronoun (e. g. she, you) and as possessive (e.g. her and your) (Halliday, 1994). Halliday (2004) described that "the Subject supplies the rest of what it takes to form a proposition: namely, something by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied" (p. 117). The Subject belongs to an interpersonal function, not as a textual or ideational one (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 2010).

The Subject functions differently in terms of ideational, interpersonal and textual aspects of language use. In Interpersonal metafunction, the Subject is "responsible for the functioning of the clause as an interactive event" (Halliday, 2004, p. 117).

The Subject is one of the elements which composes Mood. The Subject in English is

recognized by adding a tag question in declarative clause.

Example: (1) He always wears cowboy clothes for Halloween.

                (2) I heard she has got married last June.

In sentence (1), it can be identified that the Subject is 'he' by adding a tag question "doesn't he?" In sentence (2), a tag question will be "hasn't she?", therefore, the Subject is 'she' not 'I'. The Subject in the interpersonal framework is not always the first word appeared in the sentences, as considered in traditional school grammar.

The Subject can also be seen in the clauses that express proposals, imperatives and indicatives which indicate obligation or willingness.

Example: (a) You'd better go to sleep.

                (b) Can I get you something from the store?

These two sample sentences show that the Subject is responsible for the success of the proposal (p.64). This function is easily seen in the clause of offers or commands, however, it is also applicable in the clause of statements and questions.

Personal Pronoun

The Subject can be classified into personal and impersonal Subject. 'Personal' subject refers to personal pronouns such as "I, you, he and she." 'Impersonal' refers to pronouns "it" and "they" or abstract concepts such as "this study, the history and the economy." The personal Subject indicates a closer interpersonal meaning because "the personal pronoun represents the world according to the speaker, in the context of a speech exchange" (Halliday, 1994, p. 189). The use of personal pronouns emerges from interaction; the speaker or writer uses personal pronouns because he/she is interacting with the listeners or readers. The personal pronouns are first divided into speech roles (I, you), other roles (he, she, it, they), and the generalized personal

pronoun (one, they). The speech role is categorized as speaker only (I), speaker plus listener (we), and speaker plus other(s) (we).
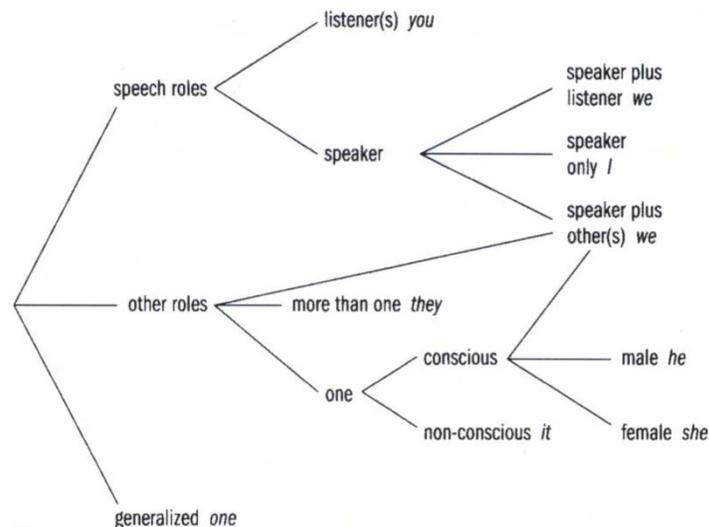
Figure 5 English personal pronouns (adapted from Halliday, 2004, p.325)

Interpersonal Distance

Eggins et al. (1993) stated that interpersonal distance refers to the distance between the speaker and the addressee (as cited in Whitelaw et al., 2006). Spoken discourse includes oral and visual contact, typically with minimal interpersonal distance, whereas written discourse has no visual, oral or aural contact and represents maximal interpersonal distance (Whitelaw et al., 2006). Couchman (2001) suggested that interpersonal distance belongs to Tenor within the semantic stratum, however, it can be measured by analyzing various types of linguistic choices such as the frequency and the types of interactant reference (as cited in Whitelaw et al., 2006).

Interactant reference and non-interactant reference consist of the Pronominal and Determination system which is a grammatical system representing the relationship between the interactants in the dialogue (Whitelaw et al., 2006). Interactant reference refers to speaker such as "I, my," speaker plus such as "we, our," and addressee such as "you, yours" and non-

interactant reference refers to "he, she, they and it" (Whitelaw et al., 2006, p.204).
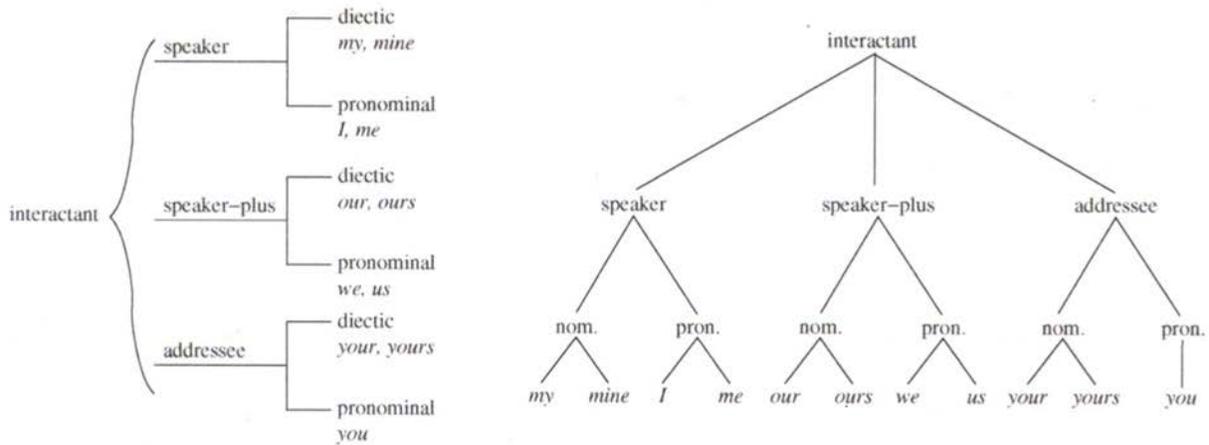
Figure 6 Interactant reference (adapted from Whitelaw et al., 2006, p. 205)

Whitelaw et al. (2006) stated that very close interpersonal distance in a text would be characterized by high frequency of the interactant system: speaker (I, my) and addressee (you, yours). On the other hand, a text which is constructing a more formal and distant relationship tends to employ the non-interactant system, which is a more generalized meaning system rather than interactive reference (Whitelaw et al., 2006).

Previous Studies

An analysis of Mood and Modality in Interpersonal metafunction has been applied to various fields in academic texts such as history (McCabe, 2004), social science and natural science (Edling, 2006), though the number of studies is relatively small.

In her analysis, McCabe (2004) investigated the relationship between the writer and the student reader in Spanish and English history textbooks using Mood and Modality in Interpersonal metafunction. History textbooks are rich resources for interpersonal analysis across cultures, because history itself is a field succeeded through discourse; it is not a simple description of events that occurred in the past (McCabe, 2004). In addition, history has developed in all cultures around the world, and written materials have their own features in its

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culture. Finally, an analysis of textbooks across cultures provides insight into an asymmetrical relationship between textbook authors and their readers as reflected by different educational systems (McCabe, 2004).

This study used chapters or chapter selections from history textbooks written for upper-secondary and higher education in Spain and in the US as sample texts. The clause complexes of the texts were first analyzed for Mood, and then for three types of Modality. The result shows that the declarative clause dominated in both textbooks, which, as McCabe (2004) said, is not surprising due to the informative nature of the texts. This implies that these texts are not intended to be interactional. The authors' purpose is not to be interactive with the reader. Rather, the authors strive to create distance from the reader (as cited in Halliday, 1996). Imperative and interrogative clauses were used less frequently. The questions function as rhetorical devices to guide the reader's attention to some particular aspect of the subject, not as an information exchange (McCabe, 2004). The data in Mood choices shows that the frequency of interrogatives in Spanish texts (0.6%) is slightly less than in English texts (1.7%). This might be reflected by the culture of educational systems in each context. According to McCabe (2004), the Spanish educational system favors rote-learning with large amount of knowledge being presented to students. Students are expected to memorize and report back on exams. In contrast, the US educational system views lecturing as the dispreferred style of teaching in schools (McCabe, 2004). Therefore, the Spanish school system where the students are more passive learners would employ a less interactive feature in its textbooks than the American school system where the students are actively engaged. As for the use of personal pronouns, only the third person was used to refer to readers, and no second person pronouns were used. These results show that the author is detached from the addressee, and also "moves the texts farther towards the information

end of an informational/interaction axis" (p.21). There were some use of "we," but this use includes the reader. This implies that the author suggests to the readers to agree with the proposition (McCabe, 2004).

McCabe's (2004) further analysis of the English textbook found a total of 130 instances of reader reference (third person reference), author reference, questions and imperatives. Adding these findings to the total number of other interpersonal features, the result is around 20.9 instances per 1000 words. This number is similar to Hyland's (2000) study on textbooks in cell biology (22.1), physics (19.2), mechanical engineering (20.4), and electrical engineering (18.7), than it is with marketing (26.3), applied linguistics (28.2), sociology (26.5) or philosophy (51.9) (as cited in McCabe, 2004). As seen from these results, history textbooks tend to reflect the hard knowledge disciplines, that is, "what history textbook authors are presenting is something factual, something that exists out there in the world" (McCabe, 2004, p. 17).

McCabe (2004) drew two main conclusions from this study. First of all, textbook authors tend to construe history as hard knowledge. That is, writing in the hard sciences presents its knowledge as more objective, and as a reflection of the world (McCabe, 2004). Second, authors can present their texts as authoritative through linguistic choices in Mood and Modality. The linguistic choices presented as authoritative is influenced by the educational context where the textbook is made. McCabe (2004) explained that teachers take a role of mediators between subjects and students, and have greater influence than textbooks. Teachers are also invested with authority by their school systems. McCabe (2004) argued that "we cannot just look at the linguistic features of the text as those that imbue it with authority; it is also the context that does so" (p.24). Educational contexts which rely more heavily on hierarchical authority would practice less interactive learning techniques and prefer more knowledge transmission techniques

such as lectures. Texts in such context would produce linguistic features representing greater authority (McCabe, 2004).

Edling (2006) analyzed the relationship between the author and the reader in Swedish textbooks in the field of social science and natural science, in a similar way to McCabe's (2004) study of American and Spanish textbooks. The social science textbooks include the subjects of religion, history, geography and civics, and the natural science textbooks include the subjects of physics, chemistry and biology. In the Swedish social science textbooks, all of the clauses use declarative mood. This is also due to the informative nature of the texts (Edling, 2006). As for the interrogatives, Swedish textbooks show the least frequent use of interrogatives compared to American and Spanish textbooks of McCabe's study. This might also have to do with the Swedish educational system where teachers take a role of an authoritative figure and students behave more passively. The data across grade levels shows a slightly different result. Although declaratives are used predominantly in all grade levels, the use of interrogatives and imperatives were slightly higher in the texts from grade 5 and 8 in social science textbooks. The natural science texts show a similar pattern. Edling (2006) explained that the existence of instances of an interrogative in grades 5 and 8 has to do with a belief that younger children are more likely to learn by interactional resources. Interrogatives and imperatives were used "to increase the interest in a discursive text" (Edling, 2006, p. 130).

Edling (2006) further investigated the degree of dialogical features in the social science and natural science textbooks across grade levels. The features under the analysis were "you" referring explicitly to a reader, questions directly posed to a reader, and "we" and "I" referring explicitly to an author. The data in social science reveals that the degree of explicit reference to the reader ("you") is lower in grade 11 (20%) than in grade 8 (44%). Over a half of the texts use "I" referring to the author and "we" referring to both author and reader across all grade levels.

Although direct questions to the reader were used frequently in grade 5 (57%) and 8 (44%), none of them were used in texts in grade 11. The data in natural science also shows that the use of direct questions in grade 11 (20%) was fewer than that in grade 5 (40%) and 8 (56%). From these results, Edling (2006) argued that the frequent use of the explicit reference to the reader, as well as the visible author, are "expected to increase the students' engagement in the texts and to enhance readability" (p. 132).

In McCabe's (2004) study, the use of declarative clauses in Spanish textbooks was significant, reflecting the authoritative status of textbook writers and teachers. The study also shows a larger number of interrogatives in American textbooks, which represents an educational system preferring an interactive approach, and a smaller number of interrogatives in Spanish textbooks, which represents the authoritative figure of textbook writers and teachers. Edling's (2006) study shows an overwhelming number of declaratives in Swedish textbooks, which illustrates the asymmetrical relationship between textbook writers/teachers and student readers. Edling (2006) also found a large number of interrogatives and imperatives in the lower level texts, which, according to Edling (2006), increases students' attention to the texts. She also argued that the frequent use of explicit references in lower level texts was used to enhance readability.

McCabe (2004) and Edling's (2006) studies, using Mood types and personal pronouns as focused interactional features, provide resources to understand the educational system seen from the asymmetrical relationship between textbook writers/teachers and student readers in different cultural contexts. This knowledge can be applied to language classrooms to enhance language learners' understanding of interpersonal aspect of language use for different types of writings. However, so far, as far as the author is aware, no study on language textbooks (ESL or JSL) has

been conducted with a focus on Mood analysis and choice of Subjects as an Interpersonal aspect of language use related to proficiency level, types of texts. The current study aims to fill in the gap in this area.

CHAPTER III: STUDY

This study examined the number of subject personal pronouns, exclamatives, and interrogatives in two different contexts, modes, and proficiency levels to investigate the features of Interpersonal metafunctions in ESL and JSL textbooks. Textbooks used in language classes provide learners knowledge not only on vocabulary and grammar. Different texts also rely on different linguistic features to reflect the Interpersonal metafunction, an important aspect of language use which is often ignored in language teaching. To investigate what contributes to different language choices for Interpersonal metafunction, four research questions were raised:

Research Questions

1. Does the context of language use –public vs. private- affect different language choices of personal pronouns, exclamatives and/or interrogatives for Interpersonal metafunction in ESL and JSL textbooks?

2. Does the mode of delivery –spoken vs. written- affect language choices of personal pronouns, exclamatives and/or interrogatives for Interpersonal metafunction in ESL and JSL textbooks?

3. Does proficiency level affect different language choices of personal pronouns, exclamatives and/or interrogatives for Interpersonal metafunction in ESL and JSL textbooks?

4. Are there any cross-linguistic difference(s) between JSL and ESL textbooks on the above-mentioned linguistic features of language choice?

Data Collection

The data for this study were collected from several ESL and JSL textbooks: *Grammar Links* (Mahnke and O'dowd, 2005, level 1 and level 2) and *Genki* (Banno, Ikeda, Ohno, Shinagawa, and Tokashiki, 2011, level 1 and level 2) used in the United States. Textbooks of two proficiency levels, beginner and intermediate, were chosen. The beginner level of JSL textbook

is widely used as an introductory course at the college level of the Japanese language program in the United States, and the intermediate textbook is used in the second-year course of Japanese study. The beginner level of ESL textbook is generally used in an elementary course for ESL learners, and the intermediate textbook is typically used in a low to high intermediate ESL course. The ESL textbooks aim at helping ESL learners improve their academic English skills before they enroll in the regular courses at the undergraduate or graduate level for an academic program. Both textbooks are theme-based, including various texts related to student's everyday life and culture.

In order to investigate how textbook material reflects Interpersonal metafunction, the number and frequency of personal pronouns, exclamatives and interrogatives in these textbooks were examined. The sample amounted to about 91 pages of text for ESL textbooks and 57 pages for JSL textbooks. Each occurrence of a personal pronoun was identified, and then divided into six types of personal pronouns: "I, we, you (specific), you (general), he/she," and "they" in ESL textbooks; and "Watashi (I), Watashitachi (we), Anata (you: specific), Anata (you: general), Kare/Kanojo (he/she), Karera (they)" in JSL textbooks. The sample texts were categorized into public and private texts; spoken and written texts; and elementary and intermediate levels. In other words, one sample text could be elementary-level, public written text, and another one could be elementary-level, private spoken text.

Data Analysis Rubric

Personal pronouns, exclamatives and interrogatives were selected as the focused linguistic features to study the interpersonal function for the following reasons. 1). The use of personal pronouns indicates whether a speaker or a writer discusses his/her personal issue, or addresses interlocutors who are close to the speaker/writer or to a general audience (represented

by non-interactant references). 2). The use of exclamation shows that a speaker/writer shares his/her emotional feelings with interlocutors. In this context, the speaker/writer also tends to share a close relationship with the interlocutors. 3). The use of interrogatives indicates that a speaker/writer wants to ask questions to get or clarify information from their interlocutors, which typically occurs when the speaker/writer tries to establish an interactive, close relationship with the interlocutors.

For this study, the total number of clauses and the six types of personal pronouns in each text were counted and calculated into a percentage. Each type of personal pronoun was divided by the total number of clauses for that percentage.

$$\text{Percentage of a type of personal pronoun} = \frac{\text{Total number of the type of pronoun}}{\text{Total number of clauses}} \times 100\%$$

The percentage of exclamatives and interrogatives were calculated in the same way. The percentage is approximated to two digits and presented in different tables.

Public texts. The public texts were classified in terms of their wider range of audience, unequal status and distant solidarity between the interlocutors, and topics being discussed. For example, one text talks about the college experiences of a student, Mike Kennedy. Although the content of the text is private, the text is directed towards a wider range of audience to introduce typical college student life in the United States (Butler & Podnecky, 2005, p. 93). Another text presents Mike's job interview, at the university tutoring center (Butler & Podnecky, 2005, p. 96). The conversation is carried out between the applicant, Mike, and the director of the tutoring center. The status of the director is higher than that of the applicant, and they do not know each other on a personal basis, thus, creating an unequal status and distant solidarity. Topics in the

texts such as cultural events and different customs around the world, and places such the Grand Canyon, Boston, and San Francisco were classified as public texts since they tend to share knowledge of public information with a large number of people. Newspaper and magazine articles, textbook introduction/explanation, stories and fairy tales are also classified as public texts since these texts have a wider range of audience.

Private texts. The private texts were classified in terms of their narrow range of audience, equal status and close solidarity between the interlocutors. For example, one text is about a girl, Lisa, and her family having a street party. Lisa is talking to her new friend Anne and introducing her family members to Anne (Butler & Podnecky, 2005, p. 44-45). The conversation was mainly carried out between Lisa, her family members and Anne. There is no wide range of audience for the conversation, and the status between the two main interlocutors, Lisa and Anne, is equal, and the relationship of the participants in the conversation is close. Another text is about a boy, David, driving to Yellowstone National Park with his sister Linda, their little brother Ben, and Linda's friend Makiko (Butler & Podnecky, 2005, p. 284-285). Apparently, there is no particular audience for the conversation carried out in a car. The status among the participants in the conversation is equal, and their relationship is close. In addition, E-mails and postcards sent to friends and letters sent to friends or family members are also considered private texts since there is no wide range of audience, and the status between interlocutors is equal with close relationship.

Spoken texts. Even though all of these learning materials are written materials, some clearly represent the feature of spoken languages with a dialogue format; hence, they are labeled as spoken texts. Spoken texts were classified based on given instructions and the given contexts of these texts, in addition to the apparent dialogue format. For example, the instruction in one text states that "'Name That City!' is a TV game show. Read and listen to *the conversation* on the

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show" (Butler & Podnecky, 2005, p. 10-11). In another text, the instruction states that "Daniel Ruiz and Misha Sova *are talking about* their jobs and making some plans for the future" (Butler & Podnecky, 2005, p. 316-317). We can clearly see that these instructions represent spoken texts. Some texts represent the feature of spoken language in a monologue format, such as the description by a reporter and lectures given by a professor and an author of a famous book. These are also classified as spoken texts. For example, the instruction of one text states that "Professor Larson is *giving a class lecture* about people and personalities. Read and listen" (Mahnke & O' Dowd, 2005, p. 9). We can see that this text represents spoken text from the instruction and given context.

Written texts. Written texts were classified according to the format of the texts such as e-mails, letters, postcards, internet advertisements, articles from magazines, paragraphs from textbooks, stories and instructions. For example, one text states "Chip and Chuck are taking vacation. Read their postcards" (Mahnke & O' Dowd, 2005, p. 18). We can clearly define postcard as a written material from the instruction. Some texts did not indicate the particular format of the text. For example, one text states that "Listen and read some information about getting ready for the Olympic Games" (Butler & Podnecky, 2005, p. 82). This text is defined as a written material because it is organized by paragraphs, rather than adjacency pairs commonly seen in conversations.

Result

  ESL textbook. There are a number of differences in terms of personal pronouns in public

and private texts, as well as in spoken and written texts in ESL textbooks. The differences are

also related to the proficiency level of textbook materials.

  Linguistic choices based on private and public context.

  Private texts.

	#of clause	I	We	You	You	He/she	They	!	?
Total	**373**	**94**	**44**	**34**	**0**	**16**	**15**	**58**	**49**
		25%	**12%**	**9%**	**0%**	**4%**	**4%**	**16%**	**13%**

Table 1: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in ESL Private Texts

  Table 1 presents data collected from all private texts in ESL textbooks. The total number

of clauses in the data set is 373. The private texts are characterized by interactant references.

These data show that 25% of "I" are used as a subject pronoun, which is the most frequent

choice compared to other personal pronouns. Twelve percent of the entire clauses used "we" as a

subject, which is the second highest. Nine percent of the specific use of "you" is found, and none

of the general use of "you" is seen. "S/he" as well as "they" are used 4% of the time.

  Exclamatives are used 16% of the time, and 13% for interrogatives, which are higher

compared to the use of personal pronouns. However, the calculation of personal pronouns is sub-

specified into six types, and this practice is not adopted for exclamatives and interrogatives.

  In private context, it is natural to see a very high use of "I", which indicates that a speaker

or a writer tends to talk about his/her personal subject rather than generalized subject. The use of

"we" is the second highest, which shows that the subject being discussed also frequently include

first person perspective. All of these fit the communicative purpose of the private context of

language use when speakers tend to talk more about what has happened to or around them.

The high frequency of exclamatives indicates that a speaker or a writer tends to share his or her emotional feelings, judgment or evaluation of events with their interlocutors frequently. Similar to the use of exclamation, there is also the high frequency of interrogatives, which illustrates that a speaker or a writer tends to ask questions to get or clarify information from the interlocutors. All of these indicate a closer interpersonal relationship commonly seen in private texts.

Public texts.

	#of clause	I	We	You	You	He/she	They	!	?
Total	**1508**	**116**	**93**	**45**	**65**	**185**	**136**	**82**	**126**
		8%	**6%**	**3%**	**4%**	**12%**	**9%**	**5%**	**8%**

Table 2: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in ESL Public Texts

Table 2 presents data collected from all public texts in ESL textbook. In contrast to private texts, public texts are featured with non-interactant references. The data show 12% of use for "s/he," which is the highest number of use among all personal pronouns. There is 9% of use for "they," which is the second highest. The number of non-interactant reference used in public context shows the highest compared to the other personal pronouns. There is 8% of use for "I," and 6% of use for "we." There is only 3% of use for the specific use of "you" and 4% of use for the general use of "you."

The data also indicate a 5% of use for exclamatives, and 8% for interrogatives. These numbers have decreased compared to the ones in the private texts.

The highest number of "s/he" in the public context indicates that a speaker/writer tends to address subjects detached from his/her personal issues, even though the topic tends to focus on one single individual. If we could recall that many texts under public texts actually introduce college study, campus life, etc. to ESL learners, it is not surprising that "s/he" ranks number one

in personal pronoun here. Similarly, the high frequency of "they" also indicates that a speaker/writer tends to talk about a wide range of participants rather than talking about his/her personal issues. But in comparison to "s/he," "they" is more likely to refer to a group of unidentified people, which makes the topic general.

The data collected from the two contexts, private and public, clearly show some different linguistic choices for Interpersonal metafunction. The difference in the frequency of "I" is salient. In private context, 25% of the subject pronoun is "I," however, the number drops to 8% in the public context. Instead, "s/he" and "they" are used as the subject pronouns more frequently. The data illustrate that a speaker or a writer's personal subject is more frequently discussed in private context. While in public context, the subject has been detached from a speaker/writer's personal issue, and shifted to an objective and generalized topic. In all, the different choice of personal pronouns "I" vs. "s/he" and "they" have helped the text to create different interpersonal relationship in different texts. Another significant difference is the number of exclamatives and interrogatives. Exclamatives and interrogatives are more frequently used in private context; however, the number also drops in public context. The data show that participants in private context tend to share emotional feelings or ask questions to get or clarify information to interlocutors more frequently, and they tend to share less emotional feelings or ask fewer questions to interlocutors in public context. The choices of these two features also help create different interpersonal relationship in different texts.

Linguistic choices based on spoken or written modality.

Spoken texts.

	#of clause	I	We	You	You	He/she	They	!	?
Total	**652**	**118**	**55**	**58**	**29**	**34**	**23**	**79**	**97**
		18%	**8%**	**9%**	**4%**	**5%**	**4%**	**12%**	**15%**

Table 3: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in ESL Private Texts

Data collected from all spoken texts are presented in Table 3. Similar to the private texts, the spoken texts frequently employ interactant references. The data show 18% of clauses use "I" as a subject, which is the highest number among other types of personal pronouns. Nine percent of specific "you" is used, which is the second highest number. The number has dropped to 4% for the general use of "you." Eight percent of the clauses use "we," which is the third highest. There is only 5% of use for "s/he," and 4% for "they."

There is 12% of use for exclamatives, and 15% of use for interrogatives, which marks higher number compared to the use of personal pronouns.

The highest number of the use of "I" indicates that a speaker tends to talk about his/her personal subject more frequently than the listener or the third person outside of the conversation. The large number of exclamatives and interrogatives illustrates that sharing emotional feelings, and getting or clarifying information occurs more often in spoken texts.

Both private and spoken texts indicate the highest frequency of "I," as well as higher percentages of exclamatives and interrogatives. This result indicates that private texts and spoken texts share similar characteristics. In private context, participants have a close relationship, and frequently address personal issues using "I" to a narrow range of audience. The close relationship also makes it easier for them to share their emotional feelings, or ask questions. These characteristics are seen in spoken texts as well.

Written texts.

	#of clause	I	We	You	You	He/she	They	!	?
Total	**1229**	**92**	**82**	**21**	**36**	**167**	**128**	**61**	**78**
		7%	**7%**	**2%**	**3%**	**14%**	**10%**	**5%**	**6%**

Table 4: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in ESL Written Texts

Table 4 shows the data collected from written texts. The written texts are featured with non-interactant references, which is a similar characteristic to public texts. The number of the uses of "s/he" is 14%, which is the highest among all personal pronouns. The number of the uses of "they" is 10%, which is the second highest. This shows that the number of non-interactant references is the highest of all the personal pronouns. There is only a small number of use for "I" (7%) as well as "we" (7%).

Five percent of the clauses use exclamatives and 6% use interrogatives. These numbers are lower than the ones in the spoken texts.

The data collected from written and spoken texts also show some differences in linguistic choices for interpersonal function. Compared to the data from spoken texts, the number of the uses of "I" has dropped from 18% to 7% in written text, while the number of "s/he" as well as "they" has increased. The result indicates that the speaker's own personal subjects are more frequently discussed in spoken texts, while writers tend to address subjects detached from their personal issues more frequently. In addition, as mentioned above, the data from the written texts show a similar pattern to the texts in public contexts. This result also suggests that public texts and written texts share similar features. In a public context, a speaker/writer has a distant relationship with the audience/reader, tends to address to a wide range of audience, and discusses subjects detached from the speaker/writer's personal life. These characteristics are seen in written texts as well.

Linguistic choice based on elementary and intermediate proficiency.

Level 1.

	#of clause	I	We	You	You	He/she	They	!	?
Total	**2276**	**222**	**140**	**98**	**34**	**274**	**156**	**172**	**210**
		10%	6%	4%	1%	12%	7%	8%	9%

Table 5: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in Elementary ESL Texts

Table 5 represents the data collected from texts in elementary level textbook, regardless of the public/private context and written/spoken mode. These data show 12% of use for "s/he," which is the highest. There is 10% of use for "I," which is the second highest. There is 7% of use for "they," and 6% for "we." There is only 4% of use for the specific "you," and 1% for the general use of "you." Eight percent of the clauses use the exclamatives, and 9% use the interrogatives.

The highest number of "s/he" in elementary level indicates that subjects detached from speaker's or writer's own perspective are more frequently addressed. This could also be explained by the relatively larger number of public texts than private texts seen in the ESL textbook. For example, one text talks about a college student who is getting ready for the Olympic Games (Butler & Podnecky, 2005, p. 80). The text describes her daily life such as what she is doing for training recently. Another text talks about an astronaut, Neil Armstrong, stepping on the surface of the moon, and an oceanographer and filmmaker, Jacques Cousteau, sailing around the world to explore the oceans (Butler & Podnecky, 2005, p. 406). The text describes what they did in the history. In both texts, she or he indicates a specific person. Overall, more texts that belong to the public domain are seen in the ESL textbook. Hence, this might explain the high frequency of "s/he" in level 1 texts than the percentage of "I" in level 2 texts.

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Level 2.

	#of clause	I	We	You	You	He/she	They	!	?
Total	**1486**	**198**	**134**	**60**	**96**	**128**	**146**	**108**	**140**
		13%	**9%**	**4%**	**6%**	**9%**	**10%**	**7%**	**9%**

Table 6: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in Intermediate ESL Texts

Table 6 presents the data from texts in intermediate level. Thirteen percent of the clauses use "I," which is the highest, and 10% use "they," which is the second highest. Nine percent of the clauses use "we" as well as "s/he." Only 4% use the specific use of "you," and 6% use the general use of "you." Seven percent of the clauses use exclamatives, and 9% use interrogatives.

Surprisingly, the highest number of use is "I." The result shows that speakers or writers frequently address their own personal issues rather than generalized topics, which contradicts general assumption that with increasing level of proficiency, the topic tends to move away from personal issues to public issues. Even though texts in the intermediate level contain many public texts, some of them are written from personal perspectives. For example, one text is an article from a health and fitness magazine where an old woman discusses her daily exercises (Mahnke & O' Dowd, 2005, p. 136). Another text is a magazine article where readers share their opinions about hiking (Mahnke & O' Dowd, 2005, p. 230). Even though the topic is directed towards general audience, the text adopts a first person narrator perspective, hence, the first person pronoun "I" is seen more frequently in level 2 texts.

The data collected from the two proficiency levels show some differences in terms of their linguistic choices for interpersonal function. The highest number of use in elementary level is "s/he," while the highest number of use in intermediate level is "I." Another difference is that the number of general uses of "you" has increased in the intermediate level texts. The result

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indicates that subjects detached from a speaker or writer's personal issues are frequently

discussed in elementary level texts, and the speaker or writer's own personal subject is often

addressed in intermediate level texts. This pattern somewhat contradicts my expectation that with

the increasing proficiency level, language learners should be introduced to more general issues

rather than personal issues. However, the relatively smaller size sample may not make this

difference clear; or the proficiency level between the two texts is not significant enough. The

increased number of the general use of "you" shows that a speaker or writer addresses a wide

range of interlocutors more frequently in intermediate level texts.

Private spoken (combined factors).

	#of clause	I	We	You	You	He/she	They	!	?
Total	**217**	**48**	**19**	**26**	**0**	**6**	**7**	**41**	**42**
		22%	**9%**	**12%**	**0%**	**3%**	**3%**	**19%**	**19%**

Table 7: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in ESL Private Spoken Texts

Table 7 presents the data with combined factors (private and spoken). Private spoken

texts are characterized by interactant references, particularly the use of "I" (22%). The number of

the specific uses of "you" is 12%, which is the second highest. Eight percent of the clauses use

"we" and 3% use "s/he" as well as "they." None of the general use of "you" can be seen.

Nineteen percent of the clauses use exclamatives as well as interrogatives, which is a

high number compared to that of the personal pronouns.

The most frequently used feature in private spoken texts is "I" and specific use of "you"

as well as exclamatives and interrogatives. The highest frequency of "I" indicates that speakers

address their own personal subjects rather than generalized subjects. The large number of

specific uses of "you" indicates that the speaker addresses his/her specific interlocutors directly

rather than talking to a wide range of audience. The high frequency of exclamatives shows that speakers often share their emotional feelings with their interlocutors. The high frequency of interrogatives indicates that speakers often ask questions of their interlocutors. Both show a close relationship between speakers and interlocutors. When we take into consideration the communicative purposes of private texts and spoken texts, this result clearly reflects the appropriate Interpersonal metafunction in those texts.

Public spoken.

	#of clause	I	We	You	You	He/she	They	!	?
Total	**435**	**70**	**36**	**32**	**29**	**28**	**16**	**38**	**55**
		16%	8%	7%	7%	6%	4%	9%	13%

Table 8: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in ESL Public Spoken Texts

The data of public spoken texts are presented in Table 8. Similar to the private spoken texts, public spoken texts among all personal pronouns. Eight percent of the clauses use "we," which is the second highest. Seven percent of the clauses use the specific use of "you" as well as the general use of "you." Six percent of the clauses use "s/he," and only 4% use "they." Nine percent of the clauses employ a larger number of interactant references. The data show 16% of use for "I", which is the highest use exclamatives, and 13% use interrogatives.

The largest number of "I" indicates that speakers address their own personal subjects rather than generalized subject. The high frequency of interrogatives illustrates that speakers frequently interact with the interlocutors to ask questions to get or clarify the information.

The comparison of the spoken texts in these two different contexts reveals some significant characteristics in terms of linguistics choices for interpersonal function. First of all, the highest number of use of "I" occurs in spoken texts both in private and public context. The

result indicates that regardless of the context, speakers are more likely to talk about their own personal subjects rather than talking about generalized subject in conversation with others. The second characteristic is the number of the general use of "you." In private context, none of the general uses of "you" is seen; however, the number has increased to 7% in public context. The results indicates that there is rarely a chance for speakers to address a wide range of interlocutors in private context, however, speakers frequently address a wide range of interlocutors in public context. The third characteristic is the number of exclamatives. There is 19% use of exclamatives in private context, and the number drops to 9% in public context. The result shows that speakers frequently share their emotional feelings with their interlocutors in private context; however, speakers tend to share less emotional feelings with their interlocutors in a public context.

Private written.

	#of clause	I	We	You	You	He/she	They	!	?
Total	**156**	**46**	**25**	**8**	**0**	**10**	**8**	**17**	**7**
		29%	**16%**	**5%**	**0%**	**6%**	**5%**	**11%**	**4%**

Table 9: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in ESL Private Written Texts

Table 9 presents the data collected from private written texts. These texts are also characterized by interactant references. The data show 29% use of "I," which is higher than any other use of personal pronouns. Sixteen percent of the clauses use "we," which is the second highest. Five percent of the clauses use the specific use of "you," on the other hand, the general use of "you" is not seen in this data. There is a small number of use of "s/he" (6%), and "they" (5%). Eleven percent of the clauses use exclamatives; however, only 4% of the clauses use interrogatives.

In private context, "I" as well as "we" are used frequently. The written texts in private

context such as emails, letters, postcards, which are sent to family members or friends with a close relationship to the writer, use "I" or "we" more frequently. The result indicates that, similar to the spoken texts, writers tend to address their own personal subjects in private context. Writers also share their emotional feelings often in a private context. Therefore, private written texts share some features with private spoken texts.

Public written.

	#of clause	I	We	You	You	He/she	They	!	?
Total	**1073**	**46**	**57**	**13**	**36**	**157**	**120**	**44**	**71**
		4%	**5%**	**1%**	**3%**	**15%**	**11%**	**4%**	**7%**

Table 10: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in ESL Public Written Texts

The data collected from public written texts are shown in Table 10. Public written texts are characterized by non-interactant references. The highest number of use in public written texts is "s/he" (15%). Eleven percent of the clauses use "they," which is the second highest. Only 4% of the clauses use "I," and 5% use "we." There is also a low frequency of use for the specific use of "you" as well as the general use of "you."

Only 4% of the clauses use exclamatives and 7% use interrogatives. The number of exclamatives slightly dropped, while the number of interrogatives increase compared to the data in private written texts.

In public context, s/he" as well as "they" are used frequently. In public written texts such as advertisements, magazine articles or passages or paragraphs in the textbooks, writers tend to discuss topics detached from their own personal issues. This "s/he" may not necessarily refer to a specific individual.

The comparison of data collected from written texts in these two different contexts shows

some characteristics of language choice for interpersonal function. First of all, the difference in the number of uses of "I" and "we" between the private and public contexts is salient. There is 29% use of "I" in private context, which is the highest; however, the number drops to 4% in public context. Similarly, the number of uses of "we" has also decreased from 16% to 5%. The result indicates that writers frequently address their own personal subjects in private context, and they are more likely to address subjects detached from their own personal subjects in a public context.

Analysis of subject personal pronouns, exclamatives and interrogatives between two contexts, modalities, and proficiencies in ESL textbooks has revealed that different texts employ different linguistic choices for Interpersonal metafunction. Participants in private context tend to be interactive by asking questions and sharing emotional feelings with one another. They also tend to address specific audiences and discuss their personal issues. On the other hand, participants in a public context are more likely to address a wider range of audience and talk about generalized issues. They tend to be less interactive than the participants in a private context. Data comparing two modalities, spoken and written, have shown a similar pattern to the data of different contexts. Speakers tend to address a specific audience, discuss their personal issues, and share more emotional feelings and ask more questions, while writers are more likely to discuss generalized issues and share less emotional feelings and ask fewer questions. Comparison of two proficiency levels, beginner and intermediate, however, has shown a result contradicting a general assumption. Texts at the elementary level are more likely to talk about subjects detached from personal issues; on the other hand, texts at the intermediate level tend to use a slightly higher percentage of first person pronoun of "I." Overall, it can be concluded that context as well as modality are determining factors that influence linguistic choices for Interpersonal

metafunctions more than linguistic proficiency levels.

JSL textbook. In JSL textbook, only a small number of personal pronouns in subject position are found as Japanese language is a subject dropping language, and tends to refer directly to the name of the subject of the sentence.

Example:

(a) ロバートさんはどんなスポーツが 好きですか。[Robaato san wa donna spootsu ga suki desu ka.] (What kind of sports do you like, Robert?)

For example, in sentence (a), Ken, a Japanese college student, asks Robert, an international student from England, what kind of sports he likes. Ken indicates the interlocutor's name Robert "ロバートさん（は）" instead of saying "あなた（は）"[anata (wa)]("you").

(b) こちらはジョンさんです。ジョンさんは 先月 、日本 に 来 ました。[Kochira wa John san desu. John san wa sengetsu nihon ni kimashita.] (This is John. John came to Japan last month.)

Another example shows the use of a name referring to a third person. In sentence (b), Mary, an international student from the United States studying Japanese, introduces John to Michiko, a Japanese college student. After mentioning the name of the international student, John, in the first sentence "こちらはジョンさんです。", Mary mentions his name in the second sentence again "ジョンさんは 先月 、日本 に 来 ました。" instead of using かれ（は） [kare (wa)] ("he").

In addition, the different functions of subject personal pronouns between English and Japanese could also explain the small number of subject pronouns in the JSL textbook. Currently, translation of English personal pronouns "I," "we," "you (specific)," "you (general)," "he/she,"

and "they" into "watashi," "watashitachi," "anata (specific)," "anata (general)," "kare/kanojo," and "karera" is widely used in English classrooms in Japan. While the English personal pronouns are used both in casual and formal contexts regardless of close or distant relationship, these Japanese pronouns are more likely to be used in a formal context, and some of the personal pronouns are not used depending on the relationship between interlocutors. For example, "kare" (he) and "kanojo" (she) are used when referring to an interlocutor whose status is equal or inferior, but never to someone who is superior (Peterson and Hirano-Omizo, 2007). Instead of using those pronouns, Japanese people use someone's title of honor when referring to a third person whose status is higher than the speaker's. For example, when a Japanese college student refers to a professor in the conversation, he/she adds a suffix "〜せんせい" [-sensei] (teacher; professor) to the professor's name as in "やましたせんせい" [Yamashita-sensei] (Professor Yamashita) instead of using "he." Similarly, when addressing a second person who is superior to the speaker, Japanese students are more likely to use the interlocutor's title with his/her name, instead of using the pronoun"あなた" [anata] ("you").

Unlike the ESL textbooks, no significant difference in terms of the number/frequency of personal pronouns between the private and public context is shown, but rather between the spoken and written text.

Private text.

	#of clause	わた し (I)	わたし たち (We)	あなた (You: specific)	あなた (You: general)	かれ/か のじょ (He/she)	かれ ら (They)	!	?
Total	**748**	**38**	**2**	**0**	**0**	**3**	**0**	**3**	**79**
		5%	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**11%**

Table 11: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in JSL Private Texts

Table 11 shows the data of the number of occurrence of personal pronouns in private context. Five percent of the clauses use a personal pronoun "watashi" (I), however, none of the other personal pronouns are found in this data.

Eleven percent of interrogatives are found, while the use of exclamatives is rarely seen. Among all of the uses of personal pronouns, only "watashi" is used as a subject pronoun. The small number of subject pronouns as a whole indicates that Japanese language is context-dependent in terms of the use of personal pronouns.

Example:

たいていうちで 勉強 します。[Taitei uchi de benkyooshimasu.] (I usually study at home.)

For example, in the sentence above, Mary, an international student from the United States, talks to her friend Takeshi when he asks her what she usually does on the weekend. The subject わたし（は）[watashi (wa)] ("I") in the sentence is omitted. This is because it is obvious to the listener, Takeshi, who the person who studies on the weekend refers to in this context. Thus, Mary does not necessarily indicate わたし（は）[watashi (wa)] ("I") in this sentence.

Compared to the ESL text in a private context with more exclamatives, exclamatives are rarely used in JSL texts even in a private context. This might show a cultural difference between

Americans who tends to express more emotional feelings, and Japanese who tend to be more

reserved even in private context.

Public text.

	#of clause	わたし (I)	わたしたち (We)	あなた (You: specific)	あなた (You: general)	かれ/かのじょ (He/she)	かれら (They)	！	？
Total	**688**	**19**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**5**	**0**	**10**	**65**
		3%	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**1%**	**0%**	**1%**	**9%**

Table 12: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in JSL Public Texts

Table 12 presents the use of personal pronouns collected from texts in public context.

Only 3% of "watashi" (I) are used in the public texts and other uses of personal pronouns are

barely seen. This pattern is similar to the texts in private context. Nine percent use of

interrogatives is seen, while exclamatives are rarely used in these texts.

As is the case with the private texts, personal pronouns are rarely seen in the public texts.

This result indicates that the subject in a sentence is context-dependent in public context as well.

Example:

あの、りゅうがくせいですか。[Ano, ryuugakusee desu ka.] (Um…are you an international

student?)

In the sentence above, Takeshi, a Japanese college student, asks Mary if she is an

international student. Takeshi talks to Mary "りゅうがくせいですか。" without indicating the

subject "you" (あなた), because it is clear to the listener who the subject of sentence refers to in

this context.

The small number of exclamatives shows a similar pattern to the ESL public texts that

participants share less emotional feelings in public context.

The data collected from these two contexts in JSL textbooks show no significant

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difference in terms of personal pronouns and interrogatives. Almost all of the subject pronouns used in both contexts is "watashi" (I), and other personal pronouns are rarely used. The use of interrogatives as well as exclamatives remains relatively stable in both contexts. In JSL textbook, the two different contexts is not a determining factor of linguistic choice for interpersonal function.

Linguistic choices based on spoken or written modality.

Spoken text.

	#of clause	わたし (I)	わたしたち (We)	あなた (You: specific)	あなた (You: general)	かれ/かのじょ (He/she)	かれら (They)	!	?
Total	**587**	**12**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**2**	**105**
		2%	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**18%**

Table 13: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in JSL Spoken Texts

Table 13 shows the number of occurrence of personal pronouns in spoken texts. Only 2% of the clauses use "watashi" (I) and none of the other uses of personal pronouns are seen. Eighteen percent of the clauses use interrogatives, while exclamatives are rarely used in spoken texts.

These data show that spoken texts use a larger number of interrogatives. This result indicates that participants in spoken texts tend to be more interactive by asking each other questions, yet they still tend to show less emotional feelings as indicated by the low number of exclamatives.

Written text.

	#of clause	わた し (I)	わたし たち (We)	あなた (You: specific)	あなた (You: general)	かれ/か のじょ (He/she)	かれ ら (They)	!	?
Total	**849**	**45**	**2**	**1**	**2**	**8**	**0**	**11**	**39**
		5%	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**1%**	**0%**	**1%**	**5%**

Table 14: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in JSL Private Texts

Table 14 presents the data collected from written texts. As can be seen, five percent of total clauses use "watashi" (I) as a subject pronoun. Similar to the spoken texts, other personal pronouns are rarely seen in these data.

Only 1% of the clauses use exclamatives and 5% of the clauses use interrogatives. The number of the interrogatives has decreased compared to that in the spoken texts. This result shows that participants are less interactive in written texts.

The data collected from the two modalities show some characteristics in terms of linguistics choices for Interpersonal metafunction. Firstly, 2% of the clauses use "watashi" in spoken texts, and the number has slightly increased to 5% in written texts. The data indicate that although Japanese is a subject-dropping language, "watashi" is more likely to be used as a subject in written format. This is possibly because writers cannot see their audience directly in written format and cannot rely on context as much as in spoken language; therefore, writers need to indicate the subject of the sentence clearly. The second characteristic between these modalities is the decreased number of interrogatives in written texts. Eighteen percent of the clauses use interrogatives in spoken texts; however, the number decreases to 5% in written texts. This result indicates that participants in spoken texts tend to be more interactive than participants in written texts.

Linguistic choices based on elementary and intermediate proficiency.

Level 1.

	#of clause	わたし (I)	わたしたち (We)	あなた (You: specific)	あなた (You: general)	かれ/かのじょ (He/she)	かれら (They)	!	?
Total	**1074**	**40**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**0**	**0**	**6**	**139**
		4%	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**1%**	**13%**

Table 15: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in Elementary JSL Texts

Table 15 shows data collected from the elementary level of JSL textbook. As can be seen, 4% of the clauses use "watashi" (I), however, none of the other personal pronouns are seen.

Thirteen percent of the clauses use interrogatives, but only 1% of the clauses use exclamatives. The data still show a small number of personal pronouns, as well as exclamatives. Relatively high frequency of interrogatives indicates that participants at elementary level tend to be more interactive, yet they still show less emotional feelings to their interlocutors.

Level 2.

	#of clause	わたし (I)	わたしたち (We)	あなた (You: specific)	あなた (You: general)	かれ/かのじょ (He/she)	かれら (They)	!	?
Total	**1830**	**82**	**4**	**0**	**0**	**16**	**0**	**14**	**154**
		4%	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**1%**	**0%**	**1%**	**8%**

Table 16: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in Intermediate JSL Texts

The data collected from intermediate level of JSL textbook are shown in Table 16. Four percent of the clauses use "watashi" (I), however, other use of personal pronouns is rarely seen.

Eight percent of the clauses use interrogatives, but only 1% of the clauses use exclamatives. The smaller number of interrogatives in comparison to the ones at elementary level shows that participants at higher proficiency level are less interactive than the ones at lower

proficiency level.

The data collected from the two proficiency levels show the different frequency of use of interrogatives between the elementary level and the intermediate level. At the elementary level, thirteen percent of the clauses use interrogatives; however, the number decreases to 8% at intermediate level. The data indicate that participants at the elementary level interact with one another by asking questions more frequently than the ones at the intermediate level. At the intermediate level, interaction between participants tends to be one-sided compared to the elementary level. This could be because of the larger amount of written texts, particularly in the public context. Participants in written texts tend to be less interactive than participants in spoken texts. The lack of an immediate audience in front of the writer typically makes the written text less interactive than spoken texts.

Private spoken (combined factors).

	#of clause	わたし (I)	わたしたち (We)	あなた (You: specific)	あなた (You: general)	かれ/かのじょ (He/she)	かれら (They)	!	?
Total	**297**	**9**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**2**	**55**
		3%	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**1%**	**19%**

Table 17: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in JSL Private Spoken Texts

Table 17 shows the number of occurrences of personal pronouns in the spoken texts in private context. Three percent of the clauses use "watashi" (I), however, other personal pronouns are rarely used in these texts.

Nineteen percent of the clauses use interrogatives, however, only 1% of the clauses use exclamatives. Though the number of personal pronouns and exclamatives remains less frequent, the number of interrogatives is high, which demonstrates that speakers in a private context are more interactive by asking one another questions.

Public spoken.

	#of clause	わた し (I)	わたし たち (We)	あなた (You: specific)	あなた (You: general)	かれ/か のじょ (He/she)	かれ ら (They)	!	?
Total	**290**	**3**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**50**
		1%	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**17%**

Table 18: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in JSL Public Spoken Texts

Table 18 presents the data from public spoken texts. In public context, only 1% of the clauses use "watashi" (I) and none of the other personal pronouns are used.

Similar to the private spoken texts, the number of interrogatives is relatively high (17%), and none of the exclamatives are used. The high percentage of interrogatives indicates that participants in spoken texts are also interactive in public context.

The data collected from spoken texts in these two contexts do not show significant differences in the use of personal pronouns as well as exclamatives. One characteristic is the large number of interrogatives in both texts. The result indicates that participants in spoken texts have a close relationship with interlocutors, and frequently interact with each other regardless of the context.

Private written.

	#of clause	わた し (I)	わたし たち (We)	あなた (You: specific)	あなた (You: general)	かれ/か のじょ (He/she)	かれ ら (They)	!	?
Total	**451**	**29**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**3**	**0**	**1**	**24**
		6%	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**1%**	**0%**	**0%**	**5%**

Table 19: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in JSL Private Written Texts

Table 19 shows the number of occurrence of the personal pronouns in private written texts. Six percent of the clauses use "watashi" (I) and 1% of the clauses use "kare/kanojo"

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(he/she); while no other personal pronouns are seen.

Only 5% of the clauses use interrogatives, and none use exclamatives. The number of "watashi" has slightly increased in written texts in private context. The number of personal pronouns and exclamatives still remains less frequent, and the number of interrogatives has decreased. Although Japanese language tends to omit the subject of a sentence, "watashi" seems to be used in a written context more often. The decreased number of interrogatives indicates that participants in written texts are less interactive and ask fewer questions.

Public written.

	#of clause	わたし (I)	わたしたち (We)	あなた (You: specific)	あなた (You: general)	かれ/かのじょ (He/she)	かれら (They)	!	?
Total	**398**	**16**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**5**	**0**	**9**	**15**
		4%	**0%**	**0%**	**1%**	**1%**	**0%**	**2%**	**4%**

Table 20: Percentage of Pronouns and Exclamatives and Interrogatives in JSL Public Written Texts

Table 20 shows the number of personal pronouns in public written texts. Four percent of the clauses use "watashi" (I), and 1% of the clauses use the general use of "anata" (you).

Only 2% of the clauses use exclamatives and 4% use interrogatives. The number of interrogatives is also small in the public context. This indicates that regardless of the context, participants in written texts are less interactive than the ones in spoken texts.

The data collected from written texts in these two contexts do not show significant differences in linguistic choices for interpersonal function either. One characteristic in written texts in both contexts is the low number of exclamatives and interrogatives. Participants in written texts share less emotional feelings and ask their interlocutors fewer questions. The result also indicates distant relationships between writers and audience.

In JSL textbooks, the use of personal pronouns is scarce due to the fact that Japanese language tends to drop pronouns frequently. Therefore, there is no difference between contexts, modes and levels in terms of the use of personal pronouns. The only difference found is the use of interrogatives indicating that the language in spoken texts is more interactive than the one in written texts.

Comparison of ESL and JSL textbooks. Comparison of ESL and JSL textbooks has shown that the personal pronoun is not a prominent feature in Japanese. Hence, this might create problems for ESL learners of Japanese in understanding the proper use of pronouns in English in different contexts and modes of language use.

In the ESL textbook, the data from two contexts have shown the different interpersonal relationships realized by different linguistic choices. Participants in a private context are more likely to discuss their personal issues and address specific audiences as indicated by more frequent use of "I," "we" and "you (specific)." They also tend to share emotional feelings and ask questions more frequently, as indicated by a larger number of exclamatives and interrogatives. These results illustrate a close relationship between interlocutors in a private context. On the other hand, participants in a public context are more likely to address a wider range of audience and discuss generalized issues detached from their own personal issues as indicated by a larger number of "you (general)," "s/he" and "they." In addition, they tend to show less emotional feelings and ask fewer questions as indicated by a lower number of exclamatives and interrogatives. These results indicate a distant relationship between interlocutors in public texts. The data from two modalities show a similar pattern to that seen in the two contexts. Speakers tend to discuss their personal issues and address specific audiences as indicated by a larger number of "I" and "you (specific)." Speakers also tend to share emotional

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feelings and ask questions more frequently as indicated by the higher number of exclamatives and interrogatives, while writers tend to discuss topics detached from their personal issues as indicated by the higher number of "s/he" and "they." Writers also tend to show less emotional feelings and ask fewer questions as indicated by the lower number of exclamatives and interrogatives. The data from the two proficiency levels show that elementary level texts are more likely to discuss topics detached from personal issues as indicated by the higher number of "s/he," and intermediate level texts are more likely to discuss personal issues as indicated by the higher number of "I," which contradicts my assumption that texts of a higher proficiency level would talk about more generalized issues as proficiency level increases. All of these data have shown that context and modality influence linguistic choices for interpersonal functions more than linguistic proficiency level.

In the JSL textbook, the use of "watashi" (I) and interrogatives have shown differences of linguistic choices for Interpersonal metafunctions between modality, context and proficiency levels. No significant differences on the other personal pronouns and exclamatives were seen. The data from two modalities have shown that "watashi" is more likely to be used in written texts than in spoken texts. This result suggests the different function of Japanese subject personal pronouns in comparison to English subject personal pronouns. Japanese language tends to omit subject pronouns if such information is clear to the listener from the immediate context. However, in written texts where writers cannot directly see the audience and cannot rely on context as much as in spoken texts, writers tend to use a subject personal pronoun, especially "watashi" more frequently in written texts than in spoken texts. The different functions of subject personal pronouns in English and Japanese might cause ESL learners of Japanese difficulties in selecting proper use of subject personal pronouns in particular contexts and modalities. The

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different linguistic choice of interrogatives is clearly seen particularly in different modalities and proficiency levels. Participants in spoken texts and lower levels tend to be interactive as indicated by a larger number of interrogatives. The use of exclamatives did not show any significant difference between two contexts, modalities and proficiency levels. The overall low number of exclamatives in Japanese texts suggests a cultural difference that American people tend to show emotional feelings more than Japanese speakers.

CHAPTER IV: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

This study has explored the interpersonal linguistic features between interlocutors in ESL and JSL textbooks in terms of how language use differs depending on contexts, modes of delivery, proficiencies and target languages.

The central finding of this study is that interactant references such as "I" dominate the private and spoken texts, whereas non-interactant references such as "they" are preferred in public and written texts in ESL textbooks. As Whitelaw et al. (2006) stated, private context or spoken texts are characterized by the high frequency of interactant references when interlocutors tend to have closer relationships with others. In contrast, public context or written texts are characterized by non-interactant references when the interaction is not necessarily a primary goal for speakers with a distant relationship. A close investigation of the data with the two factors combined (contexts and modes) reveals different characteristics of each type of text. The data of private spoken texts show a high frequency of interactant references (43%) and low frequency of non-interactant references (6%). Public spoken texts employ 38% of interactant references and 10% of non-interactant references. Although written texts overall show a high frequency of non-interactant references (24%), data in private written texts indicate a lower percentage of non-interactant references (11%) and a higher percentage of interactant references (50%). Public written texts are featured with the lowest frequency of interactant references (13%) and the highest non-interactant references (26%).

The analysis of Mood choices also shows that interactive features are less preferred in public written texts. While exclamatives and interrogatives are frequently seen in casual conversations between friends and/or family members, letters and emails, they are less preferred

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in public texts, particularly in books and textbooks. As those types of texts take a role of providing knowledge or information to a wider range of audience, and readers take a role of getting knowledge or information from those materials, they do not necessarily seek interaction, which makes the texts less interactive. This also means that declaratives dominate the written texts in public context. As Halliday (2001) stated, in these types of written texts, writers "preset the discursive relationship between writer and reader for the text as a whole" (p.82) by using declaratives. These types of texts do not necessarily provide room for interaction since writers take the role of information givers and listeners as information receivers. The number of interrogatives in JSL textbooks also shows a similar pattern to that in ESL textbooks: exclamatives are used far less frequently. This result depicts the difference between American and Japanese cultures in that American people tend to share their emotional feelings or judgment or evaluation of events more frequently, while Japanese people tend to be more reserved. This shows a similar finding to McCabe (2004)'s study in American and Spanish history textbooks and Edling (2006)'s study in Swedish social science and natural science textbooks. In their studies, the authoritative status of textbook authors or teachers was illustrated by the low frequency of interrogatives in Spanish and Swedish textbooks, while the larger number of interrogatives in American textbooks shows that the students are more actively involved.

The findings of this study can lead to some pedagogical implications. One possible implication is the instruction for ESL academic writing in higher education. This study confirms that written public texts prefer generalized references and less interactive features. Academic writing in higher education, which belongs to this type of texts, requires generalized and objective perspectives and less room for personal and subjective perspectives. The sample textbooks in this study so far have not discussed those contextual aspects of subject personal

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pronouns in their grammar explanations. In the sample textbooks, the subject pronouns are only introduced in the traditional way, such as "I" indicating the speaker himself/herself, "you" indicating a single/plural interlocutor(s), "he" as a male third person and "she" as a female third person. None of the texts in the study explains or mentions that personal pronouns are preferred linguistic features in spoken language when interlocutors have closer relationships. This might explain why novice ESL learners tend to express personal views frequently by using "I" such as "I think" in their writing, although their instructors have taught them to avoid frequent use of personal pronouns in academic writing. Many students just apply the conversational style to their writing as they do not have the knowledge of how language should be used in writing.

Traditional grammar teaching takes a prescriptive approach which focuses on correct usage at the individual sentence level but does not take into consideration appropriate linguistic choices at the discourse level. Hence, the sentences the students produce might be grammatically accurate, but they are not appropriate for the context. Linguistic resources need to be taught explicitly to students. This should help them to be able to express similar ideas in different ways for different purposes. Teachers need to focus on the linguistic features and conventions of academic writing, as the learners have not encountered the writing style before they start learning the target language and they do not become aware of the language use automatically. The genre of academic writing is different from personal essay or biography, and this type of writing should talk about generalized and abstract concepts such as "this study" or "the idea", rather than personal issues. Those linguistic resources suitable for academic writing need to be explicitly taught, particularly to novice ESL writers. For example, an instructor could teach the students to say "this idea is good" rather than saying "I think this idea is good" by highlighting the generalized idea or the concept being discussed. Students should be able to see that this language

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choice actually creates less room for personal opinions. In a similar way, an instructor could also teach students to change the expression "he argues" to "the article argues." Specific explicit instruction on how to manipulate linguistic resources to realize a particular writing style is needed, and could lead ESL learners to successfully participate in the target community with proper linguistic choices.

An instructor could also have students analyze interactive and non-interactive features in texts of different genres and figure out the characteristics of each genre of writing. For example, the students could compare academic articles and emails sent between students and professors in terms of the use of personal pronouns. The students would notice that while they find a high frequency of personal pronouns in emails such as "I would like to" or "I hope you could…," they would find less personal pronouns and more use of impersonal pronouns "it" and "they" and abstract nouns such as "this article" and "the research" in academic articles. The students could discuss and present their findings with peers, and the instructor could explain that personal pronouns are frequently used in emails to enhance interaction, while abstract nouns are preferred to emphasize what is being studied rather than the personal opinions in academic articles. This approach could illustrate the convention of academic writing which employs particular linguistic resources different from other genres and purposes.

Another implication is the instruction of the different use of subject personal pronouns for ESL learners and JSL learners. The different functions of subject personal pronouns in English and Japanese might cause trouble for both groups of learners to acquire the personal pronouns in the target language. For instance, as seen in the data in JSL textbooks, subject personal pronouns are frequently dropped when interlocutors share the same context. As the subject in Japanese is not always required in communication, ESL learners of Japanese might

have difficulty making sense of the third person present tense or translating English sentences into Japanese. The ESL learners at lower proficiency levels particularly tend to translate the English subject pronouns directly to the Japanese subject pronouns, which often seem to be less authentic. In contrast, JSL learners of English might place subject personal pronouns rather infrequently when the same context is shared, or use "anata" ("you") and "kare"/"kanojo" ("he"/"she") to refer to second person and/or third person regardless of the relationships with the interlocutors although "anata" ("you") is more likely to be used to address a superior or peer (Kurokawa, 1972) and "kare"/"kanojo" ("he"/"she") for peer or inferior (Peterson and Omizo, 2007).

Although this study has provided linguistic resources to better understand the interpersonal relationships in different contexts, modes of delivery, proficiencies and two languages and the possible pedagogical implications, the findings of this study are restricted to a small number of sample textbooks. For comparative purposes, only a few textbooks published for communicative skills are used as sample texts in English and Japanese. Future study exploring this aspect of language use in textbooks needs to start with a larger database. Another limitation is that the sample texts are restricted in their authenticity. Although the textbooks represent the language use close to the real-world, some of the dialogues, speeches, letters or emails still seem to be artificial. For example, a class lecture given by a professor was transcribed in written texts, and this presented material might lack pauses, or hesitation devices which are often seen in spoken discourse, as Gilmore (2004) argued in his study of investigating authenticity of textbook texts. Textbook texts are simplified for learners to focus on the target language presented and to make listening comprehension activities easier, which often appears to be inauthentic (Gilmore, 2004). Moreover, since this study focuses on grammatical features in

English and Japanese, it could only be applied to the learners of the two languages. Further

research with a larger number of textbook resources at various proficiency levels would

strengthen the generalizability and validity of the study.

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APPENDIX

Appendix: Letter from Institutional Research Board

MARSHALL UNIVERSITY
www.marshall.edu

Office of Research Integrity

August 13, 2014

Yukina Takahira
1349 6th Ave.
Huntington, WV 25701

Dear Yukina:

This letter is in response to the submitted thesis abstract to investigate how context, mode, and proficiencies in English and Japanese contribute to create different interpersonal relationships between interlocutors in presented materials in upper level ESL and JSL textbooks. After assessing the abstract it has been deemed not to be human subject research and therefore exempt from oversight of the Marshall University Institutional Review Board (IRB). The Code of Federal Regulations (45CFR46) has set forth the criteria utilized in making this determination. Since the information in this study does not involve human subjects as defined in the above referenced instruction it is not considered human subject research. If there are any changes to the abstract you provided then you would need to resubmit that information to the Office of Research Integrity for review and a determination.

I appreciate your willingness to submit the abstract for determination. Please feel free to contact the Office of Research Integrity if you have any questions regarding future protocols that may require IRB review.

Sincerely,
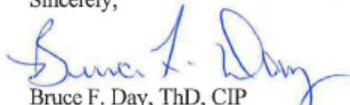
Bruce F. Day, ThD, CIP
Director

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