論文

The Use of Learners' Native Language Description (L1D) for Foreign Language Learning

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1. Introduction

It is commonly said that L2 learners of English cannot produce phonemic differences which do not exist in their L1. Furthermore, phonetic, allophonic and distributional differences may pose difficulties for L2 learners of English.

In this paper, I propose a different viewpoint. That is, with the help of the learners' native language English pronunciation can improve. In the case of Japanese, the use of phonetic transcriptions in katakana pronunciation and letters is indeed helpful to cope with the spelling irregularities of English. The IPA, commonly used in Japan and other countries, is too broad and thus insufficient for learners to acquire natural English speech sound.

In this paper, I propose the use of the learners' native written language as an additional set of symbols to be used for English pronunciation training, especially for learning aspiration, unreleased stops, and word linking. Furthermore, modified *katakana* is added for the convenience of Japanese learners who are not confident in reading out some of the IPA phonetic symbols.

This paper contains a diachronic study of the use of *katakana* for describing English pronunciation, and it also refers to the Chinese and Korean experience in using the learners' native language to teach the pronunciation of English.

Today, Japanese learners must attain an acceptable level of English in order to communicate internationally. I hope all teachers will pay attention to English phonologically and its transcription by not only using the IPA, but also the learners' native language, so that we can come up with better ways of reducing English pronunciation difficulties.

2. Historical background

In this paper, I propose the use of the learners' Near Native Language Description (L1D) which includes phonetics and letters for foreign language learning. Shimaoka (1999) states that the use of Katanaka Description (KD) is a useful technique for learning English pronunciation. *Sanseido's Vista English-Japanese Dictionary* adopts the same method for the expression of English pronunciation. In Japan, there are many books on English study for beginners, but there is no use of Katakana for English pronunciation in school education. Even though not found in official school education in other countries, there are English textbooks or English dictionaries that use the native language for the expression of English pronunciation in countries such as Korea.

It is true that they use International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) in many countries including Japan, especially in English language teaching. But I find it doubtful that the IPA is the best

or only way of learning English pronunciation. I also find it unsound to claim that the IPA is a good way of learning pronunciation merely because official school textbooks use it. In Japan, some English teachers may have the impression that L1D is a false or unnatural way of learning pronunciation.

From the standpoint of the history of English learning in Japan, we find examples of L1D in the beginning of the Meiji era. `The Yokohama City History: the part of public customs (1864) (edited by Yokohama city office in 1932) collected about 300 samples of foreign (mainly English) words and phrases spoken in Yokohama at that time: ゑれですこ ぶろそる [eredesuko burosoru] ('elder brother'), よんげすこ ぶろそる[yonngesuto burosoru](younger brother), はふ[hafu](half),つれこわら[ture kowara](three quarter) or,は、まち[ha machi] (How much ?). In this case, they used L1D since it gave communicability or comprehensibility in the use of foreign language communication needed for economic activities.

According to the same book:

開港後に外国語の普及されたことは、日本人同志の会話や乃至文章のうえにも、幾多の外国語を 混合せしむるに至り、其結果は、邦人下層者の耳にも是等が消化され、邦語化されて、遂には外国語を母語とする所の帰化語が沢山に発生したものなのである。

『横浜市史稿風俗編』

(After opening Yokohama port to foreign trade, Yokohama people used foreign words and phrases in their Japanese conversation. As a result, because the lower classes understood them and used them, many foreign words and phrases were adopted into the Japanese language.

Yokomaha City History)

In the same record, we can see that learning foreign languages did not always mean formal foreign language education in school:

明治に入り、外国人と接触の一番多い人力車夫・・・に依って、学習書の規定や約束もなく、自 然に且つ順調に、不変則ながらの発達を来たし、殊に波止場稼ぎの人力車夫などは、マドロス外国船の下級水夫を相手に最も能く其外国語を聞き分け、且つ応答する新知識者であつたので、自然横浜言葉は比較的下層生活を営むリキシャマン語であり、らしあめん語であり、マドロス語であり、総括的には波止場語であつたのである。

『横浜市史稿風俗編』

(Since the beginning of the Meiji era, rickshaw pullers who were in contact with foreigners learned foreign languages without textbooks or school education. Though their language learning is irregular, it developed spontaneously and smoothly. Especially rickshawmen working in the port could understand and speak the languages of lower level sailors from foreign ships. We can regard rickshawmen as

pathfinders of foreign language in the port town. Yokohama language meant the language of the rickshawmen, sailors and those from the lower economic classes'. *Ibid.*)

I would like to focus attention on not only the use of Japanese for learning English but also the use of English for learning and expressing Japanese in the examples of this period. The evidence of this kind of L1D or KD is as follows: The Japanese word 'muzukasii' meaning 'Difficult' is expressed by 'Moods cashey', and the word 'tadaima' that means Immediately is expressed by 'Todie-mar'.(*Revised and Enlarged Edition of Exercises in the Yokohama Dialect* (1879) (rpt. Charles E. Tuttle,1953)

On the theoretical side, L1D is based on the concept of the use of similar sounds (SS) of native language for foreign language pronunciation. The example of SS for the English learners of Japanese is that the Native Speaker of English (NSE) can read the English expression 'die job' for pronouncing the word 'daijoubu' ('I am all right.'). If the learners pronounce the word guided by romaji, they would have much difficulty. In the same way, when they pronounce 'A, sou-datta-noka (which means 'Oh I see')', they can read the expression 'Us so dot a knock her', using liaison and assimilation, like 'Us^sou dat^a knock ^(h)er' by the natural pronunciation of an NSE.

As a learning strategy, using SS may be criticized by language teachers and scholars because it is just substituting the pronunciation of L2 for L1 from the viewpoint of phonetic similarity, which is not an accurate mastering of foreign language pronunciation. Although I recognize this criticism, nonetheless, I would suggest that L1D and SS can be useful for lower level learners and beginners or in cases of insufficient pronunciation training. L1D and SS are based on the argument of the guideline of minimum limit of communicability and comprehensibility in foreign language communication. Today the guideline of comprehensibility or communicability is provided in, for instance, ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching Foreign Language: Performance Guidelines for K-12 Learners (2002)). Admittedly, some would point out the phonological inaccuracy of SS, nonetheless, I would suggest that SS can offer a practical guideline for foreign language communication for speakers with limited ability in the foreign language.

3. Arguments : the number of specific sounds (vowels and consonants) and SS

In learning English, there is a difference in the number of the specific sounds between L1 and L2. English has 12 vowels and 24 consonants. Granting that the specific sound coefficient of English is 100, the coefficient of Japanese, which has 5 vowels and 14 consonants, is 23. The coefficient of Korean, which has 8 vowels and 24 consonants, is 70, Chinese, with 15 vowels and 21 consonants, is 108, and Vietnamese, with 14 vowels and 23 consonants, is 110, whereas Hawaiian, with only 5 vowels and 8 consonants, is 14.

The differences between the number of specific sounds that L1 and L2 languages contain may affect the mastering of the pronunciation of L2. If this is true, Japanese learners might

be inferior to the Korean, Chinese, and Vietnamese learners of English in pronunciation, while the Japanese might be superior to the Hawaiian learners. Is this reasoning right? The Hawaiian learners are, in a sense, limited by the use of the small number of sounds used in communication. At the first stage of learning English, they may choose the most similar sounds in English pronunciation. Akmajian (2001) pointed out that although the pronunciation of *Merry Christmas* by Hawaiian speakers is /melI kallkamaka/, this does not prove that Hawaiian speakers have inferior L2 language ability.

Chomsky(1970) analyzed the mechanism of child's language acquisition. He pointed out that children can easily acquire their L1 because they hear L1 not as a language but as a sound, whereas adults cannot hear L2 as a sound but as a language based on L1. In the case of L2 (foreign language) adult learners, their native language works as a hindering factor for acquiring foreign language pronunciation.

One might conclude then that the Japanese phonetic system is a hindrance to adult Japanese learners of English (JLE). However, there is no reason to think that the Japanese phonetic system and writing system (including Romaji) is a hindering factor. I suggest that we can use L1 as a clue or introducing factor to learn foreign language sounds and pronunciation.

Whereas I recognize the importance of the IPA, it seems to me that the adult learners can make the most of their L1 systems. The important consideration in learning L2 should be the use of L1 as an assisting device. Newmark (1970) and Reed (1970) argue that L1 is an interfering factor in Language Learning. So the question we have to ask here is whether L1D or KD can be an aid for learners to improve their level of listening comprehension or can be used as a learning strategy for learning foreign pronunciation and phonetics.

4. Examples and comments of L1D test

Subject: 246 second-year native-Japanese university students were divided into 2 groups. Group 1 (G1) consisted of 124 students who were given the introductions and lectures on L1D and SS. Group 2 (G2) consisted of 122 students who had no knowledge about L1D. All students took the JACET form B English Test. The result shows that there were 75 advanced students, 103 intermediate, and 68 at the basic level.

60 second-year foreign students (FS) {Chinese (33), Taiwanese (7), and Korean (20)} had the same test. The result of the same JACET test of FS was 9 advanced, 11 intermediate and 40 basic.

Procedure

The examinees listened to 10 English sentences read by a NSE at regular (8 sec.) intervals with colloquial (180 wpm) speed, and wrote (described) the sentences both in katakana and in English. Adding to this task, FS wrote them in their respective native languages (in the Hangul alphabet, Chinese characters, and Taiwanese phonetic alphabet).

Student Test Rules

The examinees could write the sentences without any restrictions. The goal was to describe the sentences to the best of their ability.

[: the percentage of KD. : percentage of English dictation. : percentage of the correct answer of English dictation. :example of KD]

1(a)ルカーオ！(b) Look out! (G1) 75% 70% 26%
[rukah-o] (G2) 35% 61% 16%
(FS) 34% 47% 31%

2(a)ゲラーオン！(b) Get down! (G1) 90% 85% 40% Get out.(47%)
[gerah-on] (G2) 41% 55% 24%
(FS) 25% 47% 25% Get out.(16%)

3(a)ベアカツ (b)Back up! (G1) 88% 79% 45% Back off.(20%) Back out (17%)
[beakka] (G2) 54% 59% 34% Back off.(20%) Back out (17%)
(FS) 38% 41% 27% Back off.(11%)

4(a)ヘイ、ムーヴェッ (b)Hey, move it. (G1) 79% 19% 11%
[hei mu-bu-e] (G2) 54% 10% 8%
(FS) 23% 34% 24% Hey, movie (14%)

5(a)アオビ（ラ）イベアーッ (b) I'll be right back. (G1) 69% 53% 25%
[ai-o-bi-(ra)i-be-a-] (G2) 51% 42% 15%
(FS) 24% 41% 19%
How be right back./ Have a red bag.

6(a)ホウデッ（ラ）イデア！(b) Hold it right there!
[hou-de-(ra)i-de-a] (G1) 62% 52% 12% Hold right there. (8%)
(G2) 48% 32% 7%
(FS) 29% 46% 24%
How write there./ Hat right there.

7(a)ガッチャ、ディナイ？ (b) Gotcha(I got you), didn't I? (G1) 55% 21% 7%
[gaccha-de-nai] Got a(the) dinner/ Good day tonight/ Get you tonight
(G2) 47% 11% 2%
(FS) 36% 14% 7%
Get it and did not./Got it day right.

8 (a)ジュ（ラ）ッペ！(b) Drop it! (G1) 67% 60% 11%
[jurappe] other katakana [torappe]/[torappinn] Drop in (10%)
(G2) 52% 43% 8%
(FS) 36% 48% 10%
Rock it./ Trap it./ Driving.

9(a)アラマウエー！(b) Out of my way! (G1) 67% 29% 10%

[arama-ue-] Borrow merrow way/ away way/ Our way/ Allow away/ All my way (13%)
(G2) 53% 26% 2%
(FS) 29% 35% 5%
Another way. / On my way.

10(a)クマン！ゲッチョヘアンザッ！(b)C'mon(Come on)! Get your hands up!
[kuman!geccho-heanza] (G1) 51% 49% 31%
Get your hands(21%)Get your hands (9%)
(G2) 45% 39% 21%
(FS) 34% 47% 16%
Come on, give it your hands./Come on, did you either.

Analytic comments

1. In percentage terms, G1 shows a higher percentage than G2 in , but there is not much difference between and and between G1 and G2.
2. The FS had a higher correct answer percentage than that of the Japanese groups G1 and G2. This is interesting, although we cannot conclude that this is because their native languages have a higher numbers of vowels and consonants than Japanese.
3. I calculated the average of all the examinees of each group to get the percentage data . It is important to note that advanced level learners (based on the JACET English test) had the highest percentages of KD while basic level learners had the lowest in G1, G2 and FS. The reason for this seems to be that the percentage of KD reflects their listening ability. Even if lower level students can hear the sound of English spoken at colloquial speed, they cannot perceive it as language, resulting in no KD.
4. The longer the spoken expression is (see the item5, 6, 7, 9, and 10), the lower the percentage of and . Considering that these items do not contain difficult words, the main reason is that the longer expressions (consisting of 7 words or more) are often accompanied with linking words and sentence intonation.
5. The poor percentage in does not correlate with the poor percentage in and . To take the example of item 7, the non-native examinee may hear the sound something like 'Gaccha-denai'. The point is that the non-native learners at the basic level have difficulty guessing the original English expression transformed by phonetic changes.
6. The issue of the low percentage of in item 1, 5, 6, and 8 are relevant to the issue of mastering the sounds /r//l/. The JLE know the spelling and the meaning of 'look', but have difficulty recognizing it when it is pronounced by a NSE. Adding to the difficulty of learning the /r/ and /l/ sounds, the JLE encounter difficulties when they are deciding whether to use ラリルレロ (ra,ri,ru,re,ro) description for the /r/ /l/ sounds regularly or not. KDs for 'computer' are various: クンピュール in Hirasawa(2003) カムピューラ in Saito(2000), or クムピューラァ in Simaoka(1999). Hirasawa suggests the use of アイウエオ for describing /r//l/ sounds (for example, エヤ(e-ya) for 'rat' instead of ラット (ratto), or ヘウプ(heupu) for 'help' instead of ヘルプ(herupu)). I would like to

emphasize that 48% of G1 examinees used ウ（ウガウ、ウガー） to describe 'Look out!' instead of writing ルック, though they wrote 'Look' in English dictation. This is the tendency of advanced level learners. I would speculate that they understand the sounds /r/ and /l/ when listening to English, and they have decided that letter r or l are irrelevant to ラリルレロ in Japanese, and that they learned to use Katakana only for the phonetic alphabet.

7. When we looked at item , we found that we can choose no-description in KD for the /t/ /g/ /k/ sounds at the end of the sentences or phrases. No-description may be used for /r/, as it is very hard for JLE to distinguish /r/ in the sentences, resulting in missing the /r/ sound. So the model KDs in item 5, 6, and 8 show an expression like （ラ）.
8. In the model Kds, a doubled consonant is used in items 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and10. In KD, small ッ is usually used. Although Japanese use ッ in daily conversation, like ヒット (hitto, means 'hit') or ストップ (sutoppu, means 'stop'), Hirasawa (2003) argued that ッ is a unique Japanese sound and that the use of ッ may lead to the failure of communication with NSE, as English lacks the special doubled consonant ッ. It is true that the double consonant ッ is a rare sound, but it cannot reasonably be assumed that the ッ description should not be used in the KD system. In the items shown above, both Japanese and foreign examinees, use ッ for their Katakana descriptions. They often use ッ for expressing elision (3. Ba(ck) u(p), 4.Hey, move i(t)) or liaison (10. Get your hands up.). It is also useful for expressing the intermediate vowel (8. Drop it.).
9. To sum up the major characteristics of the descriptions of FS, variety and regularity of description in their native languages are the most significant. High level learners of Chinese and Korean can express the sounds that they hear, including liaison and elision, in Hangul or Chinese characters, but lower level learners cannot. This suggests that, just as JNE, NLD reflects a learner's listening level. I encounter difficulties when I attempt to decide on the right description to describe English sounds in a language other than English when taking the strict phonological comparison into consideration. It is beyond the scope of this paper to study L1D from the viewpoint of contrastive linguistics. Here I would like to show some typical and important examples of their description.

In the case of Korean learners, they describe グッモニン ソ(gu-moninn-so)for 'Good morning, sir.' ,and グッモニンビュハウァユ(gu-monin-biyu-hau-a-yu)for 'Good morning, Bill. How are you?'. They lack long vowel description that Japanese often use, like モーニング、サー(goddo-mooningu-saa-). The high level learners use the doubled consonant ッ for describing elision in a case like ハウズイッゴイン (hauzi-goinn) (How's i(t) goin(g)?). They can use the linking of the words in Katakana, as we see アイヘビュアコルド(aihevua-korudo) differing from Japanese アイハブア(ai-habu-a). Roughly speaking, individual differences are not found in the description in the Hangul alphabet: for example, 굿 모-닝, 썰(32%) or 굿 모닝, 써(28%)for 'Good morning, sir.', and 아이 헤브 어 코울드 (35%) or 아이 해브 어 콜드 (31%).

The Chinese learners often lack voiced consonants and long vowels in their Katakana

descriptions. The examples are: ウェリウェルサンカイュ、アントイュ (weri-weru-sankaiyu-anto-i-yu) for 'I'm very well, thank you. And you?', ハロ　ハウア、イュ、トイン(haro-haua-iyu-toinn) for 'Hello. How are you doing?' and ハウス、イト、コイン(hausu-ito-koin) for 'How's it going?'. In their Chinese character description, the Chinese students were consistent in the selection of English words for individual Chinese sounds. However, the Chinese descriptions for English sounds varied greatly, as several Chinese characters have exactly the same pronunciation. The samples of their descriptions are: 姑道毛拧撒 比尔 好啊油?(Good morning, Bill. How are you?), 爱母外端外欧 三库油 安的油 (I'm very well, thank you. And you?), 捕端踢姑道, 油? (Pretty good. You?). In this case, the examinee uses 姑道 for 'good', and 油 for 'you'

The Taiwanese learner wrote ㄍㄨˇ ㄇㄛ ㄎㄧㄥ ㄕㄜ(Good morning, sir.),or ㄍㄨˇ ㄇㄛ ㄎㄧㄥ ㄅㄧ ㄦ ㄏㄠ ㄚ ㄩ(Good morning, Bill. How are you?). In the Taiwanese phonetic alphabet description, the consistency of the individual rules is shown.

5. Phonological experiment on Speech rhythm

Aim and detail

This was a basic study in order to show the usefulness of L1D as a teaching tool. Although this kind of experiment is useful for the study and improvement of L1D and SS, data from this experiment is not sufficient to verify the efficiency of L1D.

Languages are classified into two categories from the viewpoint of rhythm: one is the language that has stress-timed rhythm, and the other is the language that has syllable-timed rhythm or mora-timed rhythm. English belongs to the former, and Japanese belongs to the latter. However, another linguistic description and explanation is presented concerning linguistic rhythm. Grabe et al. (1999) suggests that the Pair wise Variability Index (PVI) is helpful to us in measuring and indicating rhythm patterns. PVI can be calculated in the following way: after measuring the length of the vowel between the syllables in the sequence of the discourse, we divide it by the average of the length of the vowel, regulate the normal distribution of individual speech speed, and divide the total sum of differences by the total number of differences. PVI enables us to judge whether the language in question is stress-timed or syllable-timed. When the result of the calculation is a small number, it means that the language is syllable-timed oriented and a large number means it is stress-timed.

I calculated the PVI of the speech samples of 4 NSE's and 8 JLE's examinees. It was presumed that the analysis of the speech rhythm of each speaker would show the characteristics of the rhythm pattern of their speech.

*The measurement and analysis was done with the Panasonic Multi-media support system WE-AS810A

** The framework of the speech materials is based on Low et al. (2000).

[Full Vowel Set]	[Reduced Vowel Set]
1 Tom came back through Australia.	3 Tom was sick of Bill and Sandy.
2 Roy seemed quite cross with Tom.	4 Roy was across at Jonathan's.

Procedure

One sentence was written on one card. The examinee read the sentence on the card aloud at 3 levels of the reading speed: slow, normal, and fast. The order in which the cards were read was changed for each examinee. I measured the length of the vowel, calculated PVI, and compared the speech rhythm patterns of JLEs with those of NSEs.

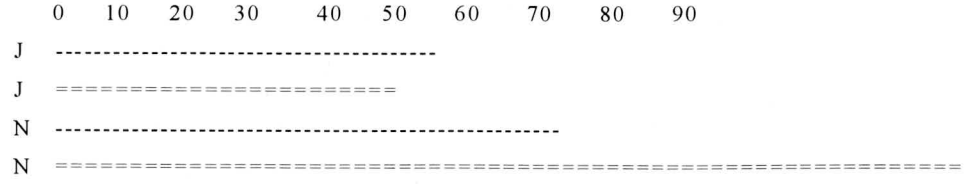
Results and comments

In this experiment, I analyzed the data, putting the PVI values as dependent variables, and put the examinees (NSE and JLE) and contrasting stimulus pairs (Full Vowel Sets and Reduced Vowel Sets) as independent variables. The result of my experiment shows that significant effects are shown both in the examinee group ($F=64.80$, $p=<.01$) and in the contrasting stimulus pairs group ($F=21.54$, $p=,<.01$) and that a significant interaction between the two groups ($F=48.78$, $p=,<.01$) is observed.

There was no noticeable difference of the PVI values between two JLE groups. (J Full M=33.99, SD=10.71, J Reduced M=35.22, SD=12.20, $p=.64$) in the result, whereas a significant difference is shown among NSEs (N Full M=41.03, SD=14.81, N Reduced M=84.49, SD=31.97, $p=<.01$). The survey results indicate that the Japanese learners are unconscious of vowels and reduced vowels in spoken English.

Figure 1 The comparison of the length in PVI value

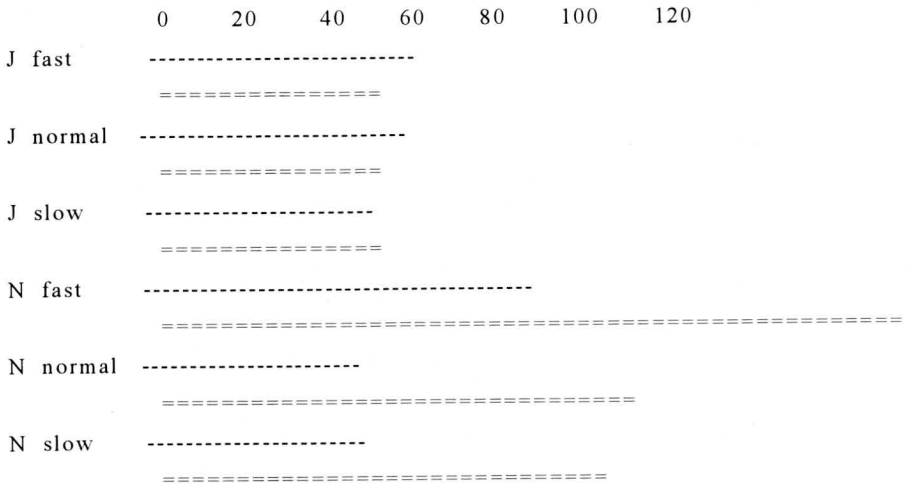
Full Vowel Set ------ Reduced Vowel Set =====



J: Japanese students N: Native speakers of English

As to the difference of PVI values in the speaking speed, I have found the following results: In the JLE group, no difference was found between the fast and the normal speed reading exercises, and only in the slow reading exercise is a significant difference shown between the Full Vowel set と Reduced Vowel Set (Full Slow M=30.85, SD=6.99, Reduced Slow M= 37.46, SD=9.11, $p<.05$, $t=2.13$). In the NSE group, by contrast, a significant difference is observed in every condition.

Figure 2 The comparison of PVI values in various reading speeds



It was found through the PVI experiments that the significant differences are shown among the examinees and contrasting pairs regarding the comparison of the speech rhythm of NSE and JLE. In the JLE group, the fact that a significant difference is not found between the PVI value of Full Vowel Set and that of Reduced Vowel Set makes it evident that the Japanese learners have difficulty with learning and acquiring reduced vowels and indeterminate vowels. We can deduce from the result that some techniques of Katakana description using the phonetic alphabet are easier than IPA and may be effective in learning English pronunciation and the listening training needed to understand the fast reading speech by NSE.

6. The effect of L1D (or KD) on English learning (Goals and discussion)

It is important to consider the implications of whether L1D, SS and KD are effective for learning English not in that it can replace IPA but in that these devices are effective from the standpoint of promoting the learners' interest in English pronunciation, including liaison, elision and assimilation.

Group 1 (G1) consists of 124 students who were given the introductions on L1D and SS. Group 2 (G2) consists of 122 students who had no knowledge about L1D. Test A is a listening comprehension test and partial dictation of short phrases. Test B is a listening comprehension and partial dictation of a dialogue. In both A and B tests, 10 listening comprehension questions (full marks=20), and 15 partial dictation questions (full marks=30) were given. These tests are given to the same examinees 6 months after the L1D tests were given.

The average score of the test

Table 1

	Test A(comprehension)	Test A (dictation)	Test B(comprehension)	Test B(dictation)
G1(n=124)	8.59	13.08	16.22	13.09
G2(n=122)	7.44	13.38	16.64	13.15

To check the effect of L1D instruction for English learning, I analyzed the results of Test A and B statistically (using ANCOVA), based on JACET Form B Test that the examinees had. The result of the Test A listening comprehension part shows as follows:

Table 2

Source	DF	Type□SS	Mean Sq.	F Value	Pr > F
Method(L1D)	1	78.85	78.85	3.75	0.0539*
JACET test	1	218.83	218.83	10.41	.0014**

*p < .05 **p < .01

On the task of listening to single sentences, I found significant differences in G1 (L1D instructed group). However, on the other tasks, no differences were not found.

Listening strategy

All examinees are classified into 3 levels based on the JACET test score. I asked them about their listening strategy and the frequency of using them. I made a T-Square analysis to discover the relationship between listening ability and listening strategy, and found statistically significant differences among the 3 ability levels with respect to 4 strategies:

Strategy A: listen and put them into English (dictation) immediately

Strategy B: concentrate only on the words that he/she can understand

Strategy C: try to retain the English (sounds) like a recording machine

Strategy D: try to translate them into their native language

Table 3 Frequency (%) of strategy and the results of chi-Square analysis

		Lower level	Mid level	High level	T-Sq.Value
	Examinee	68	103	75	
Strategy A	used	58.82	47.57	37.33	6.6040
	not used	41.18	52.43	62.67	Pr=.0368*
Strategy B	used	70.59	78.64	54.67	11.7802
	not used	29.41	21.36	45.33	Pr=.0028**
Strategy C	used	20.59	28.16	41.33	7.6100
	not used	79.41	71.84	58.67	Pr=.0223*
Strategy D	used	47.06	30.10	28.00	7.0531
	not used	52.94	69.90	72.00	Pr=.0294*

Pr: Probability, *p < .05, **p < .01,

The results suggest that mid and lower level learners tend to listen, depending on the meaning or translation of the word in their native language, whereas high level learners tend to listen to the sound or phonetic aspects of the listening materials, though the frequency is not remarkably high. It should be noted that adopting the same strategy does not mean the effects will be the same because high level learners have the skills or knowledge about liaison and elision that can be found and learned by L1D or KD, while lower level learners lack the ability to comprehend spoken English without an aid, like L1D, which makes it easier to learn foreign language phonetics.

7. Conclusions

To sum up, simplicity and applicability are the most significant characteristics of the use of native language for learning a foreign language. This is especially true in learning pronunciation. In concluding, I should note that the technique of phonetic description has two aspects that can be applied to educational practice and linguistic research. As for its relevance as a learning aid in foreign language pronunciation, it was found through the experiments that Japanese learners should pay more attention to the reduced and indeterminate vowels and the phonetic changes that occur when English is read fast, since neither the reduced and indeterminate vowels nor phonetic changes occur in Japanese, the native language of the learners. To solve this problem, a fully worked-out description, which would be easier for lower level learners, is needed in order to learn the basic knowledge of phonetics. It was also discovered that, though there was no statistically significant effect on the improvement for listening comprehension, this approach affects the learners' strategies for listening.

Regarding the aspects of linguistic research, the use of learners' native languages is an effective strategy for the descriptive analysis of the influence of the learners' L1 on learning L2. It is also effective to see the level of the learners' listening ability and knowledge of phonetics.

The research in this paper is not sufficient to examine all of the important aspects or the possibilities of this method. Nevertheless, I would like to emphasize the simplicity, applicability, utility and historical evidence which supports the use of the learners' native language for learning foreign languages. The future direction of this study will be one that includes both diachronic and synchronic approaches.

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