

## Basic Verbs with Constructions as an Effective Primary English learning Material

Shin, Gyu-Ho(Seoul National University)

**Shin, Gyu-Ho** (2009). Basic verbs with constructions as an effective primary English learning material. *Primary English Education*, 15(2), 151-178.

This paper investigates the possibility of utilizing basic verbs with constructions to effectively learn English as a foreign language at the beginning stage. First, in order to find out the status of basic verbs in the existing teaching materials-3rd and 4th grade Korean elementary English textbooks and two types of ESL coursebooks-analyses were conducted. The result was that ① token frequency of all the verbs used and the distribution of sentence types were negatively skewed compared to actual tendencies, but ESL coursebooks seemed to get near the real appearance of verb use whereas Korean textbooks did not; and that ② the types of complement which the verbs took and the context where the verbs used were similar between the Korean textbooks and ESL coursebooks, but the way basic verbs were presented in ESL coursebooks was more intensive and gradual than that of Korean textbooks. Then, based on the idea that the form of a verb is correlated to the meaning of the verb and the structures in which the verb is realized, the role of basic verbs with constructions on English beginners in Korea was examined. Basic verbs are viewed as a facilitative input to start language learning and processing, and constructions are proper linguistic structures that include crucial features in language acquisition. Utilizing basic verbs with constructions will help the learner adequately use their cognitive ability with the input that they take, providing a powerful start to language learning.

Key words: basic verbs, constructions, frequency, textbook analysis, primary English education

## I. INTRODUCTION

Previous research on vocabulary in English textbooks for 3rd and 4th grades of Korean elementary school commonly reported that the textbooks were mostly compatible with the vocabulary guide in the curriculum, in that basic vocabulary list was well represented in those textbooks (Kim, 1998; Cho, 2001; Kim, 2003). There is, however, little literature to inquire into the relevancy of vocabulary which is presented in the Korean elementary English textbooks for effective language learning at the beginning stage. It is one thing for the vocabulary guide to be faithfully reflected in textbook development, and it is quite another for the input provided to beginners to be shown to be adequate to help them learn the target language effectively. If we assume that the ultimate goal of English education in Korea is to permit a high level of English language competence, it is extremely essential to consider the nature of the input given in the textbooks and its consequences for the learners at the very beginning of language acquisition.

This paper investigates the characteristics and limitations of verb input in Korean elementary English textbooks of 3rd and 4th grades, and probes the possibility of utilizing basic verbs with constructions as an effective English learning aid for beginners in Korea. To this end, background knowledge which is needed to conduct this work—input, vocabulary, frequency, basic verbs, constructions, the role of textbooks and vocabulary control—is laid out in a literature survey. Then token frequency of verbs in the textbooks is counted and the proportion of basic verbs is calculated, and then compared to those to the characteristics of ESL coursebooks. Lastly the implications of the result are discussed, and the role of basic verbs and constructions in initial English learning is considered.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 1. Input, Vocabulary & Frequency

A lot of factors are presumed to go into language acquisition; and one of the important elements is input. Stephen Krashen, one of the most famous scholars on this subject, posits an ‘input hypothesis’ which gives a necessary and sufficient role to ‘comprehensible input’: this supports the idea that positive input is enough to acquire a language and also shows the nature of input to effectively elicit language learning and teaching (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1994, 2003). Ellis (1994) argues that “L2 acquisition can only take place when the learner has access to input in the L2” (p.26). In that sense, input in language acquisition deserves more than a passing

notice. To illustrate this, Gass (1988) states in her model of second language acquisition that input is divided into two types of processing (e.g. ‘apperceived input’ and ‘comprehended input’) and together they lead to the starting point of language learning.

A good deal of literature is sought to validate the strength of input-based instruction. First of all, it has been found that input processing instruction<sup>1)</sup> is as efficient as output-based one in language comprehension and production (VanPatten and Cadierno, 1993a, 1993b; VanPatten and Sanz, 1995). Next, compared to traditional grammar-based instruction, an input-based approach is more effective as a means of instruction where the results are measured by communicative tests (Asher, 1972, 1977; Krashen, 2003; Nicola, 1990). Lastly, abundant input functions as an aid to acquire new grammar features and use them accurately (Ellis, 1999; Isik, 2000; Nicola and Krashen, 1997; Winitz, 1996). To borrow Kang (2004)’s phrase, the output-based instruction has worked better than the input-based one in Korean primary school context to some extent; however, as Yang (2004) put it, input-based instruction is also a strong tool in EFL situation as long as it is well-designed as a guide into effective language acquisition.

Shin (2008) mentions that the concrete minimum unit of input to convey meaning is vocabulary. In this context, it is worthwhile looking deeper into the nature of vocabulary in language acquisition. Vocabulary is central in language learning and communication; it is not easy to use language knowledge in discourse without mediating vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000). Especially in the process of language acquisition, Singleton (1999) says that the recognition of vocabulary is the very first step to be taken. Vocabulary becomes the basis for learning the four language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing) (Shin, 2008). It seems that vocabulary plays a crucial role in language learning. One important point lies in the amount of vocabulary. Vocabulary does not mean all the existing words in a language: as Jeong (2008) suggests, the range of vocabulary mentioned here works with necessary words to communicate with others.

Schmitt (2000) shows in full detail how vocabulary (teaching) was seen as language teaching methodologies have been changed. According to his study, little attention was paid to vocabulary although many methodologies exist. Recently, however, the secondary-status of vocabulary has been changed and getting more emphasis on the language teaching areas. He argues:

It has now been realized that mere exposure to language and practice with functional

1) Input processing instruction is a type of input-based grammar instruction. It provides structured input for learners to modify their processing approach that they have usually been using to comprehend input, and consequently it aims for them to make better form-meaning conventions. See VanPatten (1996) and VanPatten (2002) for more details.

communication will not ensure the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary (or an adequate grammar), so current best practice includes both a principled selection of vocabulary, often according to frequency lists, and an instruction methodology that encourages meaningful engagement with words over a number of recyclings. (Schmitt, 2000, p. 14, emphasis added)

Particularly from 1990s, vocabulary acquisition has been gained much popularity. Michael Lewis's (1993) 'Lexical Approach' is a typical example of the increasing interest on vocabulary, and this kind of interest has been reflected in developing language curricula (Brown, 2001).

The problem of vocabulary selection remains. In Ellis (2002), it is argued that input frequency directly tunes language processing: humans are born with a keen sense of frequencies, so they have highly precise knowledge of the frequency distributions and their unconscious central tendencies; language learners continuously categorize similar exemplars, simultaneously recognizing their frequencies (Ellis, 2002). Larson-Freeman (2002) and Tarone (2002) also agree with much of Ellis (2002), stressing the positive role of input frequency in language acquisition and processing. Frequency is not the only factor explaining language learning, but it is an indispensable component of this area.

With this view, frequency becomes a key rationale in selecting vocabulary for language learning and teaching. In fact, there are many important criteria in vocabulary selection. For example, Richards (1974) listed seven standards to give the learner useful vocabulary: frequency, range, language needs, availability and familiarity, coverage, regularity, and ease of learning or learning burden. Of these criteria, frequency is a commonly accepted factor in language education theory and practice, and it is relatively straightforward in terms of applicability (Yang, 2003). Moreover, high-frequency words can express the majority of meanings in the language (Jeong, 2008). For these reasons, frequency has been adopted as a necessary basis to make a vocabulary selection and vocabulary lists until now.

## 2. Basic verb & Constructions

Traditionally, 'verb'<sup>2)</sup> is regarded as a typical predicate, determining the overall form and meaning of the sentence (Goldberg, 1999). According to Bencini and Goldberg (2000), "most psycholinguistic models of sentence comprehension and production also assume that argument structure information is encoded in the verb" (p. 640). Ellis (2002) explains that, in English at least, the verb plays an important role in language comprehension, in that the verb provides strong cues to interpreting syntactic ambiguities. Similar views on the verb as a core processor

2) In this paper, 'verb' refers to main verbs only.

in a sentence are found in Tanenhaus, Boland, Mauner and Carlson (1993). One interesting point is in Matthews, Lieven, Theakston and Tomasello (2005): an initial learner's language (grammatical) knowledge can be observed through the verb. It seems that the verb functions as a core element in language processing and acquisition.

Shifting our focus from 'verb' to 'basic verb'<sup>3)</sup>, it is worth looking deeply into Viberg (2002). According to his study, a small number of verbs dominantly appear in all languages in the perspective of frequency, and the most frequent verbs in a language are referred to as basic verbs (Viberg, 2002). A lot of research about the basic verbs were done, and below are some general findings about the characteristics of these verbs (Altenberg and Granger, 2001; Goldberg, Casenhiser and Sethuraman, 2004; Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg, 1998; Viberg, 2002):

1. Basic verbs tend to show higher frequency of use than others.
2. Basic verbs tend to be influenced by mother talk.
3. The length of basic verbs tends to be short.
4. Basic verbs tend to be unstressed when pronounced.
5. Basic verbs tend to be used in a variety of situations.
6. The meaning of basic verbs tends to be common, light, delexicalized, and be closely connected with children's experience: that is, basic verbs tend to be easy in terms of meaning accessibility.
7. Basic verbs tend to be a basis for making constructions.

Viberg (1993; 1994; 2002) introduces the notion of 'nuclear verbs', which means the verbs or the set of verb meanings that tend to be realized as basic verbs in all existing languages, explaining that the verbs seem to have many kinds of hyponyms, elaborate patterns of polysemy, and develop grammatical meanings. Viberg (2002) further throws some light on the role of basic verbs in second language acquisition: there is a tendency for these verbs to replace more specific ones in the beginning stage of language learning because basic verbs cover most of argument structures and lessen the processing load; once the learner establishes the form and the basic meaning of the verbs, he or she uses them very frequently, and it is a good strategy for them to effectively communicate with others. His observation leads us to consider the usefulness of basic verbs for the English beginners in Korea. Further will be explained in the 'Discussion' section.

3) There are some inconsistencies among researchers in using terms to mention 'basic verb': basic verbs, light verbs, common verbs, high-frequency verbs, general purpose verbs, etc. It might be hard to say that those terms express exactly the same meaning, but it is true that those verbs generally show almost same behavior in English. In this paper the term 'basic verbs' will be used for the coherence of the discussion.

Individual verbs have been a major concern until now, but individual verbs are not enough to understand basic verbs or verb acquisition. Some remarkable arguments are here. Hunston, Francis and Manning (1997) argue that there is a connection between verbs, their meanings, and the patterns that they take, and these features are key factor in language learning. Matthews et al. (2005) assert that “the frequency of individual lexical (and larger syntactic) items and the probabilistic relations between these items are key in language acquisition and language use” (p.123). Naigles and Hoff-Ginsberg (1998) also claim that meaningful differences among verbs are encoded in the set of frames connected with each verb. More direct comments on this can be found in Tan, Kan and Cui (2006): basic verbs, which have little meaning in themselves, are often combined with a limited set of complements, and most of the semantic meaning of this mixture (i.e. verb-complement) is expressed by the object. These ideas prove clearly that there exists something more than the form of basic verbs alone, like connection with meaning or much bigger frame in language acquisition.

‘Construction Grammar’ coincides in the suggestions above. Following Goldberg (1995), constructions mean “form-meaning correspondences that exist independently of particular verbs” (p.1). No underlying syntax or phonological empty element is assumed; constructions seem to be learned on the basis of input and the learner’s general cognitive mechanisms; language knowledge can be explained by a network of constructions (Goldberg, 2003). Numerous previous studies have found out the characteristics of constructions (Bencini and Goldberg, 2000; Ellis, 2002; Goldberg, 1995, 1999, 2003, 2006; Tomasello, 2000, 2003; Goldberg et al., 2004; Schulze and Penner, 2008), and some of those are as follows: constructions contribute the interpretation of the overall sentence meaning that the main verb alone cannot express; constructions are inseparable in itself; constructions, chunks of language, are the usual units of storage and language processing; constructions can overlap as long as they do not crash each other; and constructions are symbolic, combining morphological, syntactic, and lexical form with semantic, pragmatic, and discourse functions that are associated with them.

Constructionists do not suppose that learners must be hard-wired with language common and specific knowledge (i.e. they must have so-called ‘Universal Grammar’) to learn (the complexity of) core language (Goldberg, 2005, 2006; Tomasello, 2000, 2003). Rather, it is based on item-based or exemplar-based nature of language acquisition. This assumes the knowledge underlying fluent language use as a huge collection of memories of previously experienced utterances, not grammar in the sense of abstract rules or structures (Ellis, 2002). The initial state of language acquisition puts an emphasis on piecemeal learning of concrete exemplars (Tomasello, 2000, 2003). As the learner’s cognitive ability grows up, they generalize the individual verb input into verb-centered categories, then those categories into more abstract and

organized systems, and then those systems into adult-like constructions (Goldberg, 2006; Goldberg et al, 2004; Tomasello, 2000, 2003; Tomasello and Brooks, 1999). As Tomasello (2000) points out, “[t]he adult endpoint of this developmental process is not an abstract formal grammar, but rather an ‘inventory of symbolic resources’ including everything from words and morphemes to whole grammatical constructions as kind of linguistic gestalts” (p. 161).

As most of the experiments on learning and generalizing constructions were conducted in L1 situations, one might say that constructionist approach do not have much impact on second language or foreign language learning. Ellis (2002) also indicates the difference between L1 and L2 acquisition: however, he stresses that there are ample possibilities for construction grammar to function as “a reasonable default in guiding the investigation of the ways in which exemplars and their type and token frequencies determine the second language acquisition of structures” (p.170). In that perspective, an experiment by Liang (2002) is noticeable. She replicated Bencini and Goldberg’s (2000) sorting task with Chinese learners of English, and the result shows the correlation between the ability to use English proficiently and the recognition of constructional generalization (Liang, 2002). The learners’ reliance on construction approach and its effectiveness shed some light on the applicability of construction grammar to second language or foreign language learning.

It seems that individual verb’s frequencies are related with frequencies of situations in which the word is realized. An experiment on Matthews et al. (2005) shows that “the more frames in which a verb is heard, the more distinctive it will be from other related verbs, and the earlier (or more easily) it will be acquired” (p. 117). Particularly in case of basic verbs and constructions, Goldberg et al. (2004) present a remarkable observation. They investigated children’s learning of argument structure generalization, and found several important points: ① in the early stage of language acquisition, the learner shows extremely heavy use of basic verbs in each construction: GO in intransitive motion, PUT in caused motion, and GIVE in ditransitive; ② the meaning of basic verbs which are used in a certain argument structure is similar to that of constructions which fall under each argument structure; and ③ very frequent and early use of one verb in a pattern facilitates learning the meanings of that pattern (Goldberg et al, 2004). As Stubbs (1995) emphasized, when it comes to frequency, the necessary consideration lies in the summed frequency of semantically related items, not the frequency of any single word. Effective learning of basic verbs will be accomplished by giving the learners a complex of the verb, that is, the set that the verb makes (i.e. construction), and the meaning of the verb and the set.

### 3. Textbooks & Vocabulary Control

It is generally assumed that textbooks play an important role in language learning and teaching. Compared to L1 acquisition, factors are limited for language learning in an ESL (English as a Second Language) or an EFL (English as a Foreign Language) situation. The most concrete method to fill the void is textbooks. Particularly in EFL surroundings where there is little opportunity to encounter English outside the classroom (Kim, 2005), so the role of textbooks is critical in terms of input source. As Seol (2007) mentions, Korea is a nation that promotes EFL environment and aims to achieve ESL level competence, and textbooks are made and used under national education policies for some years. Therefore, developing well-made textbooks is urgent task.

The Seventh National English Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1997) stipulates a means of vocabulary selection.<sup>4)</sup> The learners are expected to go through a total of 450 words; and of those words, 350 words must be in the basic word list. For 3rd and 4th graders, 80~120 words can be newly used, and 90~130 words for 5th and 6th graders. Of the basic word list, the proposed amount of vocabulary in the elementary level is 578. Accordingly, the number and the type of vocabulary are recommended to be restricted in accordance to the learners' level.

This kind of vocabulary selection—or vocabulary control—has been done in many ESL/EFL contexts. Vocabulary control means the limitation of vocabulary in order for the beginners to easily learn a language: the starting point of this idea is that eliminating the burden of distinguishing and understanding numerous vocabulary makes language learning easier (Coady, 1997). Kim (1997) pointed out that, especially in EFL situation, school hours are limited and there is little opportunity for the learners to be exposed to English, so it is quite natural to determine and teach vocabulary that is relatively small in amount yet useful. Other studies suggest the necessity of vocabulary control in Korea such as insufficient teaching time, learning burden, effective learning at the beginning, and reducing variation among textbooks (Han, 2006; Chang and Jung, 2005; Jin, 2004; Jeong, 2002; Kim, 1997; Kim and Jeong, 1999; Lee, 2004; Shin, 1996). It seems that vocabulary control movement has been widely practiced in the field of English education in Korea.

### III. METHOD

4) The revised 7th National English Curriculum was also published in August 29, 2006, but the textbooks which is our main focus are based on 7th National English Curriculum, so the discussion about vocabulary in the revised version seems to be irrelevant. Please see Chang (2007) and others for more details.



In this analysis, 3rd and 4th grade elementary school English textbooks were chosen. Spoken data is the central input which is provided at these levels, so teacher's guides were included to get the scripts of the recorded materials used in the classroom. All the dialogues, songs, and chants were collected for the study. In order to strengthen the argument, two popular types of general-purpose ESL coursebooks for students learning English outside L1 situation were also analyzed: one type was <Let's Go> (Level 1 and 2), and the other was <English Time> (Level 1 and 2); teacher's guides were also included to get the scripts; 3rd and 4th elementary English textbooks and the two levels of ESL coursebooks are quite similar in the perspective of starting English at the very first two stages.

The analysis took two phases. First of all, quantitative analysis was conducted. Token frequencies of every verb used in each book was counted<sup>5)</sup>, the result in Korean elementary English textbooks was compared to that in ESL coursebooks, and the findings were reanalyzed in terms of basic verbs. Next, qualitative analysis was carried out. Focusing on the basic verbs, the environment that the verbs were used was investigated in a grammatical way (i.e. the type of complement which was combined with the verb, or subcategorization) and in a functional way (i.e. discourse structure and the context in which the verb was used).

Basic verbs, characterized as the most frequent verbs that are easily expandable in meaning and are prominent to combine with other elements, were selected using the Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (Biber, Conrad, and Reppen, 1999) and English Bates Corpus (Bates, 2004, in the Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES) database). There were 13 verbs which were determined as the main basic verbs in this paper: have, do, make, get, give, put, go, say, see, want, know, take, and come. To carry out in-depth analysis in qualitative research, 6 verbs—HAVE, DO, MAKE, WANT, GO, PUT—were chosen for much correspondence of the characteristics of these basic verbs.

## IV. RESULT

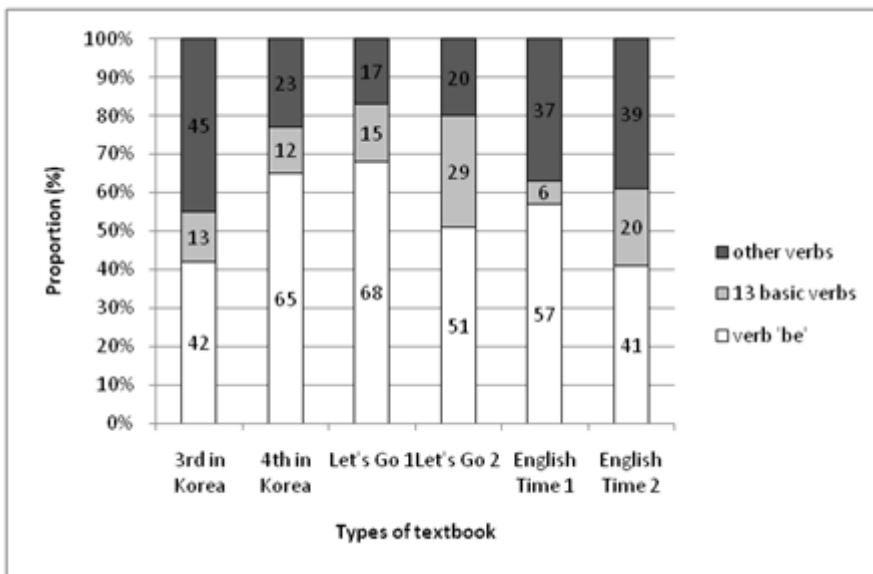
### 1. Quantitative analysis

Token frequencies of each verb in three types of teaching materials are schematized in Figure 1 (See Appendix for details). This gives us some interesting points. First, the rate of the usage of the verb be was proportionally the highest in all three types. It is important to note that the

5) The expressions like 'Thanks', 'Thank you', 'Pardon (me)?', 'Here you are' were excluded.

rate of be was sharply increasing from 3rd to 4th grade textbooks in Korea, whereas the percentage rapidly dropped in other two kinds of ESL coursebooks. Second, the frequency of basic verbs use was the lowest. The remarkable thing is that the ratio of basic verbs usage was slightly declining in Korean textbooks, whereas there was a quite steep rise of the proportion in ESL coursebooks. Third, there were some inconsistencies of verbs used among the books. For instance, verbs expressing weather (e.g. rain, snow) were only used in Korean elementary English textbooks, and some verbs like determine, bless, pet, etc., were only used in ESL coursebooks, which are not allowed to use in Korean elementary English textbooks.

<Figure 1> The Distribution of Verbs



The token frequency of individual verbs seems to be in relation to the sentence types provided in the materials. The three types of teaching aids included a great number of sentence types with the verb be. However, there was a contrast between Korean elementary English textbooks and ESL coursebooks. In the case of Korean textbooks, the number of 'S+be+C' type was increasing from 3rd to 4th while that of 'S+be+A' type was slightly declining; whereas the reverse was happening from level 1 to level 2 in ESL coursebooks. 'S+V+O' type showed a reverse: decrease in Korean textbooks but increase in ESL coursebooks as the grade went up. Another finding is that there were no 'S+V+O+O', 'S+V+O+C', and 'S+V+O+A' types in all six books. Some phrasal verb pattern were presented, but this was an insignificant amount to be

considered. Below is the summary of the result.

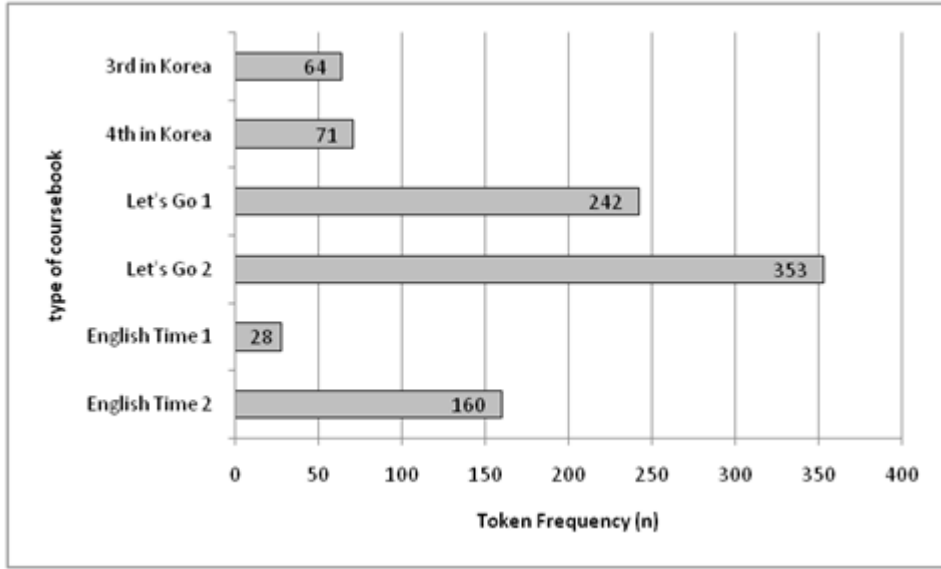
<Table 1> The Number and the Proportion of Sentence Types

Sentence Type <sup>6)</sup>	Korean textbook				<Let's Go>				<English Time>			
	3rd		4th		1		2		1		2	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
S+V	49	15	26	6	9	0	60	5	28	6	165	21
S+be+A	13	4	12	3	182	11	250	21	0	0	85	11
S+V+A	3	1	0	0	1	0	11	1	0	0	18	2
S+be+C	136	42	306	68	947	58	370	30	286	56	240	30
S+V+C	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	2	0	5	1
S+V+O	93	29	91	20	470	29	446	37	184	36	266	33
S+V+O+O	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S+V+O+C	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S+V+O+A	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
phr	29	9	15	3	24	2	72	6	8	2	16	2

In the perspective of basic verbs, the distribution is shown in Figure 2 and Table 2. The teaching materials generally indicated the increase of basic verbs use from lower level to higher level, but the degree was different from each other. In case of <Let's Go>, the sum of all the verbs' token frequencies was big, so it might be natural that the sum of the basic verbs' token frequencies was also big. In <English Time>, the sum of basic verbs' token frequencies increased markedly from level 1 to level 2. Moreover, the way in which individual basic verbs were presented in ESL coursebooks was different from that in Korean textbooks. In ESL coursebooks, some of the verbs (e.g. have, do, go, want) were intensively given to the learners in certain level or chapter, and the structures where the verbs were used expanded step by step; whereas in Korean textbooks there was a sporadic presentation of basic verbs and little expansion of structures. This point is further explained in the next section.

6) 'S' means subject, 'V' verb, 'C' complement, 'O' object, 'A' adjunct, and 'phr' phrasal verbs. It can be viewed as a simplified version of constructions.

<Figure 2> The Distribution of Basic Verbs Use



<Table 2> The distribution of individual basic verbs

	Korean textbook		<Let's Go>		<English Time>	
	3rd (n)	4th (n)	1 (n)	2 (n)	1 (n)	2 (n)
have	22	11	0	107	0	106
do	0	14	9	93	9	30
make	6	0	6	2	11	0
get	0	0	0	5	0	8
give	0	0	0	0	0	0
put	16	0	5	0	2	0
go	9	2	0	46	2	1
say	0	0	3	0	0	0
see	0	1	5	8	2	5
want	0	35	200	65	0	0
know	0	7	7	4	0	0
take	0	0	7	11	2	8
come	11	1	0	12	0	2
sum	64	71	242	353	28	160

## 2. Qualitative analysis

Taking a close look into the use of basic verbs in the aids, 6 verbs—HAVE, DO, MAKE, WANT, GO, PUT—were selected in this stage. There were several resemblances found between Korean elementary English textbooks and ESL coursebooks. For one thing, sentence types used showed correspondence among those. To illustrate, the verb GO was realized as ‘S+V’ and ‘S+V+A’ types (e.g. “Go.” (in chapter 6 ‘How Many Cows?’, 3rd grade Korean textbook), “He goes to the bookstore.” (in unit 8 ‘After School’, <Let’s Go> 2)). The verb PUT was used only as a phrasal form (e.g. “Put on your gloves.” (in chapter 8 ‘It’s Snowing’, 3rd grade Korean textbook), “Put away your pencil.” (in ‘classroom English’, <English Time> 1)). The other 4 verbs were commonly represented as ‘S+V+NP’ monotransitive structure, such as “I want a watch.” (in chapter 8 ‘How Much Is It?’, 4th grade Korean textbook), “I have a dog.” (in chapter 6 ‘How Many Cows?’, 3rd grade Korean textbook), “Make a circle.” (in unit 1 ‘Things for School’, <Let’s Go> 1), and “What’s he doing?” (in chapter 4 ‘At the Store Window’, <English Time> 2).

Discourse functions which the verbs have were also similar. Table 3 gives us the kinds of complement that the verbs take. As seen below, the complement types were not that different from each other, and it means that the context where those verbs were realized were similar. There are things to be mentioned about the individual verbs. First, the verb DO and MAKE took only one complement respectively in Korean textbooks. Second, the verb HAVE, DO, and MAKE were used with relatively various types of complements in ESL coursebooks. Especially in case of the verb WANT in <Let’s Go>, all the complements presented were food throughout the levels.

<Table 3> The types of complement that 6 basic verbs take

Korean textbook		<Let’s Go>		<English Time>	
3rd	4th	1	2	1	2
have	animals	symptoms		goods; school things	food; symptoms; school things
do		proun ‘that’	“what”	“what”; actions; “homework”	actions; “a sandwich” “what”
make	“a snowman”		class activities	“breakfast”	class activities; “a sandwich”
want		goods; food	food	food	
go	∅; “outside”			places; classes	∅
put	clothing		school things		school things

However, there were remarkable contrasts observed between Korean elementary English textbooks and ESL coursebooks. To begin with, several verbs were presented in both declaratives and interrogatives in ESL coursebooks whereas the sentences were all declaratives in Korean textbooks. Next, the structures where the verbs were used were extending and changing by stages in ESL coursebooks (see Table 4) whereas almost the same sentence forms were provided throughout the chapters in Korean textbooks. Most important of all is that some verbs were given intensively in several units in ESL coursebooks: for example, the verb WANT was used 200 times in one unit of <Let's Go> 1, the verb DO was used 93 times in five units of <Let's Go> 2, and the verb HAVE was used 106 times in three units of <English Time> 2. Korean textbooks, in contrast, provided those verbs in a scattered manner.

<Table 4> Samples of sentence structure extension and change in ESL coursebooks

---

*WANT in unit 7 'Food', <Let's Go> 1*

---

I want a banana.  
 What do you want? – I want a milkshake.  
 I want chicken. I don't want fish.  
 Do you want bread? – Yes, I do. / No, I don't. I want rice.  
 I want a new car. I don't want a little cookie. Do you want a yellow bicycle?  
 – No, I don't. I want an orange bicycle.

---

*GO in unit 8 'After School', <Let's Go> 2*

---

I go to dance class.  
 I go to art class and piano class.  
 She goes to the bookstore after school.  
 Does he go to the bookstore after school? – Yes, he does.  
 She goes to her math class.  
 He goes to his math class on Tuesdays.

---

*HAVE in unit 9–11 'In the Store', 'At the Clinic', and 'At Home with Ted', <English Time> 2*

---

I have candy. I don't have juice.  
 You have candy. You don't have juice.  
 We have candy. We don't have juice.  
 They have candy. They don't have juice.  
 He has a fever. He doesn't have a rash.  
 She has a fever. She doesn't have a rash.  
 Does he have tape? – Yes, he does.  
 Does she have tape? No, she doesn't. She has glue.

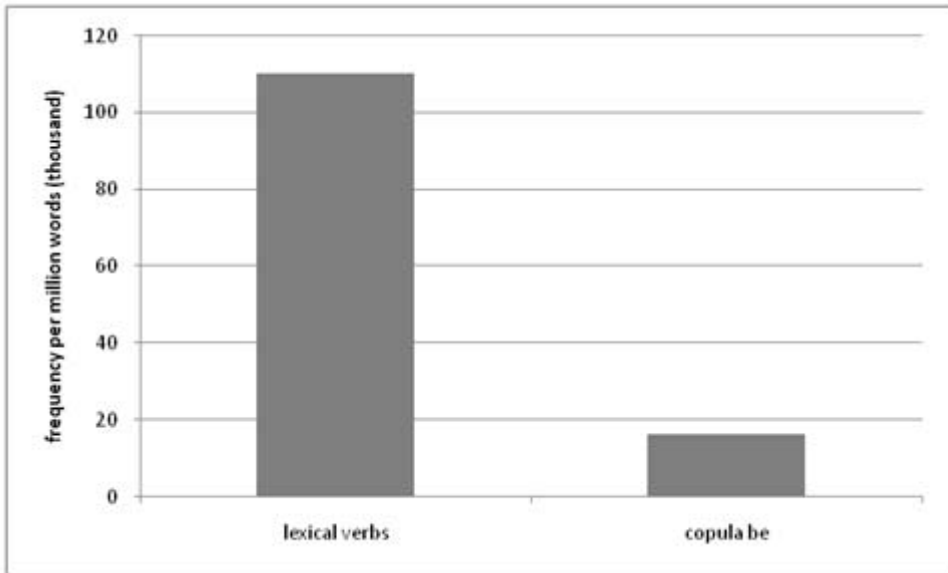
---

## V. DISCUSSION

The results are summarized as follows: ① the distribution of all the verbs used among the materials was skewed—frequency of the verb *be* was extremely high compared to other verbs, and 13 basic verbs were used in much smaller proportion; ② the distribution of sentence type was also off-balance—‘S+be+C’ type was higher than others, especially in Korean elementary English textbooks; ③ there was a sharp increase in the amount and ratio of basic verbs use in ESL coursebooks as the level went up, whereas the reverse happened in Korean textbooks; ④ discourse types or functions for the basic verbs to be used were almost similar between Korean textbooks and ESL coursebooks; but ⑤ the way that the verbs were presented was different—the ESL coursebooks were remarkable in that the verbs were provided intensively and the structures were expanded step by step through several chapters.

The overall token frequencies of each verb and the proportion of sentence types reveal some important arguments. According to LGSWE, the rate of the verb *be* use are less than 20% of the overall lexical verbs use (see Figure 3) (Biber et al., 1999). That is, the actual use of *be* is not as much as expected. However, the percentage of *be* use in Korean elementary English textbooks was far higher percentage compared to other verbs, and likewise in ESL coursebooks. There is a difference, though, that the proportion went up as the level became higher in Korean textbooks, whereas the reverse happened in ESL coursebooks. These tendencies are directly reflected in the frequency of sentence types. ‘S+be+C’ type was highest at the lowest level in three kinds of books; as the level rose, the frequency increased in Korean textbooks, but it dropped in ESL coursebooks.

〈Figure 3〉 Overall distribution of verb types in the LSWE Corpus



This means that the input which is given to the learner is negatively skewed in Korean elementary English textbooks. If the learning environment of ESL/EFL situation and effectiveness in English beginners are taken into consideration, the disparity between the real tendency of verb use and that of input in beginners' textbooks might be overlooked. The important point is, however, that the skewed input does not seem to get near to real tendencies in Korean textbooks. In case of ESL coursebooks, as the level went up, the distribution appeared to be adjusting to the real usage. This view can be applied to the proportion of sentence types: although overall picture for the types to be used does not perfectly match the actual use in practice, ESL coursebooks show a movement to rearrange the proportion of sentence types to make it similar to reality. Korean elementary English textbooks fail to incorporate an accurate reflection of the verbs actually used by native speakers in real situation; and further, it can be one possible explanation of *be* overuse in Korean beginners of English as reported by many researchers (Ahn, 2003; Hahn, 2000; Kim, 2008; Lee 2002; Shin, 2000; Yang, 2001, 2006).

Let us switch gears to basic verbs. The situations in which the basic verbs were used in Korean elementary English textbooks were analogous to those in ESL coursebooks. The reason can be attributed to the nature of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach: suitable functions or contexts for starters of English learning are limited, and consequently the subject matters which are contained in every chapter are alike. It is interesting that, although the use of



verb is common in three types of books, the exemplars of complements are much more diverse in ESL coursebooks than in Korean textbooks. That is to say, the same complement words are more repetitively presented in the case of Korean textbooks. This results from the vocabulary control in National English Curriculum in Korea.

Biber and Reppen (2002) mention that 12 common lexical verbs (e.g. say, get, go, know, think, see, make, come, take, want, give, and mean, except extremely common verbs be, have, and do) account for almost 45% of the use in all lexical verbs in conversation register. In that sense, it is natural to say that basic verbs have to show relatively high proportion of three groups of verbs in the analysis; but this is not the case. Korean elementary English textbooks do not tend to put into the actual frequency of basic verbs use in practice. The same reason—the distinctiveness of language learning situation and effectiveness of beginners' language acquisition—may explain this, but ESL coursebooks are getting well-balanced again in terms of overall proportion and individual token frequency of the verbs. Moreover, in case of ESL coursebooks, some verbs are intensively given by adding structural expansion within several units, making the beginners learn the aspects of basic verbs more effectively. As a result, Korean learners of English appear to have weaknesses in the perspective of basic verbs acquisition.

Shin (2008) emphasizes the meaning of 'sufficient' input to extract the learners' production: not only does this apply to the quantitative aspect but also it applies qualitatively. That is to say, the amount of input provided has to be enough, and the aspects in which the input is presented in the textbooks have to be similar to those in reality. Based on this, providing sufficient input to the beginners of English should be the most important factor in providing well-organized input in view of quantity and quality in the real world. In this context, it is valid argument that the Korean learners of English in 3rd and 4th grades are provided with insufficient input at the very formal start of English education. This is serious problem because, as Kim (2005) noted, students who had used the textbooks including verbs which were somewhat different from what native speakers really do showed the exact same tendency of what they had been given in their writings. The phenomenon related to the verbs used has an influence on the learning hereafter. It is no exaggeration to say that the initial input in early language acquisition is crucial to the learners.

Previously the nature of basic verbs was scanned. Several studies reported that proper use of basic verbs is relatively difficult in EFL situation (Lee, 2007; Kim, 2005). However, due to some significant characteristics, those verbs are said to be acquired earlier and to be used in wider range than other verbs. To put it another way, the meaning accessibility and expandability of basic verbs make it easy to comprehend and produce a language. Basic verbs can function as a basis or a core for the initial language learners to form ability of language comprehension and

production. This is one type of powerful and practical approach to effective English learning and teaching: but the reality does not seem to use the strengths of basic verbs. Their input frequencies are excessively poor, and the way to provide the verbs is not proper to effectually utilize them.

One last point is that, as mentioned before, individual's use of verb frequencies is connected to the distributions of the conventions that the verbs take. There is another possibility of effective learning of English-constructions. It emphasizes the learner's cognitive ability to categorize and generalize language features. In order for the beginners to acquire a language properly, the structures need to be considered when the input is provided. Altenberg and Granger (2001) point out that learners have little crude knowledge of the grammatical and lexical patterning of high-frequency verbs. In this context, it is possible to build up an approach using basic verbs with constructions: the basic verbs which represent constructions are firstly provided to the beginning stage of language learning with the sets in an intensive way, and then make the learners use their generalization ability or strategy to notice and expand the form-meaning correspondences of the structures. These processes, giving the learners effective input and activating their cognitive ability, will lead them to effectual language learning, and help them to actively produce or generate sentences and communicate with others.

## VI. CONCLUSION

This paper was motivated by the discrepancy between frequencies of basic verbs contained in Korean elementary English textbooks and how the native English speakers actually speak. In order to find out the implication of this phenomenon and the nature of input for effective language learning in Korea, an in-depth review on input, vocabulary, frequency, (basic) verbs, constructions, the role of textbooks and vocabulary control was conducted. An analysis of Korean elementary English textbooks in 3rd and 4th grades was subsequently conducted compared to ESL coursebooks, and the results were discussed in detail. In the perspective of verb input provided to the beginners of English, there is quantitative and qualitative insufficiency; on the occasion of basic verbs, this tendency is much serious, in that the strong points of the verbs cannot be utilized to easily learn English.

One possible approach was suggested in this research-utilizing basic verbs with constructions. Some studies with constructions directly and indirectly prove the usefulness of this approach. Only 3 minutes of training, in which some verbs was given in a construction frequently, made children learn to associate a novel meaning with a novel construction (Casenhiser and Goldberg,

2005); the same experiment for 5 minutes also made undergraduate students able to extend the meanings of the constructions to new novel verbs (Goldberg et al., 2004); and Liang (2002), as mentioned before, showed the applicability of this approach in second or foreign language learning. In order for the official starters to learn English effectively, the consideration of constructions and basic verbs as a facilitative tool needs to be strongly emphasized.

The proportion of the verb *be* being very high remains unclear. It may be due to applying CLT approach in ESL/EFL situation, but the reason is likely to be insignificant in this research. One thing to be mentioned here is the effect of vocabulary control on input provided in English textbooks of Korea. The relation between limitation of vocabulary and effective language learning is another important point at issue, so the study on this matter is open to be carried out. Further empirical studies should be conducted to verify the effectiveness of basic verbs with constructions on beginning stage of language learning in Korea.

## Reference

- Ahn, Sung-ho. (2003). A note on the topic-comment stage in Korean EFL syntactic development. *Studies in Generative Grammar*, 13(2), 369–382.
- Altenberg, B., & Granger, S. (2001). The grammatical and lexical patterning of MAKE in native and non-native student writing. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(2), 173–195.
- Asher, J. (1972). Children's first language as a model for second language learning. *Modern Language Journal*, 56, 133–139.
- Asher, J. (1977). Children learning another language: A developmental hypothesis. *Child development*, 58(1–2), 24–32.
- Bates, E. (2004). English Bates corpus. Retrieved February 8, 2009, from the World Wide Web: <http://childes.psy.cmu.edu/data-xml/Eng-USA/Bates.zip>.
- Bencini, G. M. L., & Goldberg, A. E. (2000). The contribution of argument structure constructions to sentence meaning. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 43, 640–651.
- Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Reppen, R. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. New York: Longman.
- Biber, D., & Reppen, R. (2002). What does frequency have to do with grammar teaching?. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24, 199–208.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. (2nd ed). NY: Pearson Education.
- Casenhiser, D. M., Goldberg, A. E. (2005). Fast mapping between a phrasal form and meaning. *Developmental Science*, 8(6), 500–508.
- Chang, Kyungsuk. (2007). Basic vocabulary in the revised national curriculum of English. *English Teaching*, 62(2), 331–353.
- Chang, Kyungsuk., & Jung, Kyutae. (2005). A study on vocabulary control in the national curriculum of English in Korea. *Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 21(1), 197–218.
- Cho, Hye-sook. (2001). *An analysis of the vocabulary of English textbooks for third and fourth grade elementary schools*. Unpublished MA thesis. Hanyang University, Seoul.
- Coady, J. (1997). L2 vocabulary acquisition through extensive reading. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 225–237). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, N. (2002). Frequency effects in language processing: A review with implications for theories of implicit and explicit language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24, 143–188.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Ellis, R. (1999). Input-based approaches to teaching grammar: A review of classroom-oriented research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 19, 64–80.
- Gass, S. M. (1988). Integrating research areas: a framework for second language studies. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, 198–217.
- Goldberg, A. E. (1995). *Constructions: a construction grammar approach to argument structure*. London: University of Chicago Press.
- Goldberg, A. E. (1999). The emergence of the semantic of argument structure construction. In MacWhinney, B. (Ed.), *The emergence of language* (pp. 197–212). NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Publications.
- Goldberg, A. E. (2003). Constructions: a new theoretical approach to language. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 7(5), 219–224.
- Goldberg, A. E. (2006). *Constructions at work: the nature of generalization in language*. New York : Oxford University Press.
- Goldberg, A. E., Casenhiser, D. M., & Sethuraman, N. (2004). Learning argument structure generalizations. *Cognitive Linguistics*, 14, 1–35.
- Han, Doo-jin. (2006). *A Vocabulary Analysis of Elementary School English Textbooks*. Unpublished MA thesis. Chonnam National University, Gwangju.
- Hahn, Hye-ryeong. (2000). *UG availability to Korean EFL learners: A longitudinal study of different age groups*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Seoul National University, Seoul.
- Hunston, S., Francis, G., & Manning, E. (1997). Grammar and Vocabulary: Showing the connections. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 51(3), 208–216.
- Isik, A. (2000). The role of input in second language acquisition: More comprehensible input supported by grammar instruction or more grammar instruction? *Institut voor Togepaste Linguistik: Review of Applied Linguistics*, 129–130, 225–274.
- Jeong, Young-kuk. (2002). A study on implementing vocabulary guide of the 7th national curriculum. *Foreign Language Education*, 9(1), 49–68.
- Jeong, Young-kuk. (2008). Gyooyukyounmunbeopgwa eohwimunbeop [Education English grammar and lexicogrammar]. In Yang, Hyun-Kwon., & Jeong, Young-kuk. (Eds.), *Understanding education English grammar* (pp. 67–90), Seoul: Hankookmunhwas.
- Jin, Byoung-sul. (2004). *A study of the vocabulary in the elementary English textbooks*. Unpublished MA thesis. Jeonju National University of Education, Jeonju.
- Kang, Dong-ho. (2004). The input vs. output instructions: Does it work in Korean primary school contexts?. *Primary English Education*, 10(1), 275–303.
- Kim, Hee-jeong. (1998). *The Relevancy of the basic word lists of the 3rd and 4th grade English*

- textbooks for elementary school*. Unpublished MA thesis. Dongguk University, Seoul.
- Kim, Hyun-jin. (2003). *An analysis of dialogs in elementary school English textbooks*. Unpublished MA thesis. Yonsei University, Seoul.
- Kim, In-seok., & Jeong, Dong-bin. (1999). A study on the new basic word lists for elementary English education. *Primary English Education*, 5(1), 105-140.
- Kim, Kitaek. (2008). *English inflection development of Korean middle school English learners*. Unpublished MA thesis. Seoul National University, Seoul.
- Kim, Myung-Hee. (2005). Teaching English high-frequency verbs in textbooks. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, 5(4), 609-629.
- Kim, Young-suk. (1997). A suggestion for teaching basic elementary English vocabulary. *Primary English Education*, 3, 5-17.
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (1994). *The input hypothesis: issues and implications*. CA: Laredo.
- Krashen, S. (2003). *Explorations in language acquisition and use*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2002). Making sense of frequency. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24, 275-285.
- Lee, Jin-kyung. (2002). *The role of formulaic expression in Korean middle school students' English question formation*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Seoul National University, Seoul.
- Lee, Jin-Kyong. (2007). Use of common verb phrases in describing everyday activities by advanced Korean-speaking learners of English. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, 13(2), 109-127.
- Lee, Younghee. (2004). *A study on the basic word lists of the national curriculum for elementary English education*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Sookmyung Women's University, Seoul.
- Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach*. UK: Language Teaching Publications.
- Liang, J. (2002). *Sentence comprehension by Chinese learners of English: verb-centered or construction-based*. Unpublished MA thesis, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangdong.
- Matthewsa, D., Lieven, E., Theakston, A., & Tomasello, M. (2005). The role of frequency in the acquisition of English word order. *Cognitive Development*, 20, 121-136.
- Ministry of Education. (1997). *The seventh national English curriculum*. Seoul: Ministry of

Education.

- Ministry of Education. (2001). *Elementary school English 3*. Seoul: Daehan Printing & Publishing.
- Ministry of Education. (2001). *Elementary school English 4*. Seoul: Daehan Printing & Publishing.
- Ministry of Education. (2001). *Elementary school English 3 teacher's guide*. Seoul: Daehan Printing & Publishing.
- Ministry of Education. (2001). *Elementary school English 4 teacher's guide*. Seoul: Daehan Printing & Publishing.
- Naigles, L. R., & Hoff-Ginsberg, E. (1998). Why are some verbs learned before other verbs? Effects of input frequency and structure on children's early verb use. *Journal of Child Language*, 25, 95–120.
- Nakata, R., Frazier, K., & Hoskins, B. (2006). *Let's go 1: teacher's book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nakata, R., Frazier, K., Hoskins, B., & Graham, C. (2006). *Let's go 1: student Book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nakata, R., Frazier, K., & Hoskins, B., & Graham, C. (2006). *Let's go 2: student Book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nakata, R., Frazier, K., Hoskins, B., & Kocienda, G (2006). *Let's go 2: teacher's Book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nicola, M. (1990). Experimenting with the new methods. *Dialog on Language Instruction*, 6(1–2), 61–72.
- Nicola, M., & Krashen, S. (1997). Need we sacrifice accuracy for fluency? *System*, 25, 197–201.
- Richards, J. (1974). Word lists: problems and prospects. *RECE Journal*, 5(2), 69–84.
- Rivers, S., & Toyama, S. (2001). *English time 1: student book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rivers, S., & Toyama, S. (2001). *English time 2: student book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rivers, S., Toyama, S., & Merner, T. (2001). *English time 1: teacher's book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rivers, S., Toyama, S., & Taylor, J. (2001). *English time 2: teacher's book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Schulze, M., & Penner, N. (2008). Construction grammar in ICALL. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 21(5), 427–440.
- Seol, Young. (2007). *Lexical comparisons between EFL and ESL middle school English textbooks – a case of textbooks in Korea and Hong Kong*. Unpublished MA thesis. University of Seoul, Seoul.
- Shin, Gyu-ho. (2008). *Chodeunghakgyo sam, sa hakneyon youngeo gyogwaseoe sayongdoen*

- gibondongsau bindowa uimiteukseonge gwanhan yeongu* [A study on frequency and meaning characteristics of basic verbs used in Korean 3rd and 4th elementary English textbooks]. Unpublished bachelor thesis. Seoul National University, Seoul.
- Shin, Myung-shin. (1996). A basic vocabulary list for Korean learners of EFL. *English Teaching*, 51(4), 151–175.
- Shin, Jung-sun. (2000). *Functional category acquisition by Korean EFL learners: the role of UG in foreign language learning*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Seoul National University, Seoul.
- Singleton, D. (1999). *Exploring the second language mental lexicon*. New York: Cambridge.
- Stubbs, M. (1995). Collocations and semantic profiles: on the cause of the trouble in quantitative studies. *Functions of Language*, 21(1), 23–55.
- Tan, Y. F., Kan, M. Y., & Cui, H. (2006). Extending corpus-based identification of light verb constructions using a supervised learning framework. In McCarthy, D., & Wintner, S. (Eds.), *Proceedings of the EACL 2006 Workshop on Multi-Word-Expressions in a Multilingual Context* (pp. 49–56). PA: Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Tanenhaus, M., Boland, J., Mauner, G., & Carlson, G. (1993). More on combinatorial lexical information: thematic structure in parsing and interpretation. In Altman, G., & Shillock, R. (eds.), *Cognitive models of speech processing: The second Sperlonga meeting* (pp. 297–319). UK: Psychology Press.
- Tarone, E. (2002). Frequency effects, noticing, and creativity. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24, 287–296.
- Tomasello, M. (2000). The item-based nature of children's early syntactic development. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 4(1), 156–163.
- Tomasello, M. (2003). *Constructing a language: a usage-based theory of language acquisition*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Tomasello, M., & Brooks, P. J. (1999). Early syntactic development: a construction grammar approach. In Barrett, M. (Ed.), *The development of language* (pp.161–190). UK: Psychology Press.
- VanPatten, B. (1996). *Input processing and grammar instruction in second language acquisition*. Norwood, N.J: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- VanPatten, B. (2002). Processing instruction: an update. *Language Learning*, 52(4), 755–803.
- VanPatten, B., & Cadierno, T. (1993a). Input processing and second language acquisition: a role for instruction. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77, 45–57.
- Vanpatten, B., & Cadierno, T. (1993b). Explicit instruction and input processing. *Studies in Second language acquisition*, 15, 225–243.



- VanPatten, B., & Sanz, C. (1995). From input to output: Processing instruction and communicative tasks. In Eckman, F., Highland, D., Lee, P. W., Mileham, J., & Weber, R. R. (Eds.), *Second language acquisition and pedagogy* (pp. 169–186), Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Viberg, A. (1993). Crosslinguistic perspectives on lexical organization and lexical progression. In Hyltenstam, K., & Viberg, A., *Progression and regression in language* (pp. 340–385), New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Viberg, A. (1994). Vocabularies. In Ahlgren, I., & Hyltenstam, K. (eds). *Bilingualism in deaf education* (pp. 169–199), Hamburg: Signum-Verlag.
- Viberg, A. (2002). Basic Verbs in Second Language Acquisition. *Revue Française de Linguistique Appliquée* 2002/2, 7, 61–79.
- West, M. (1953). A general service list of English words. Retrieved February 8, 2009, from World Wide Web: <http://jbauman.com/aboutgsl.html>. .
- Winitz, H. (1996). Grammaticality judgements as a function of explicit and implicit instruction in Spanish. *Modern Language Journal*, 80(1), 32–46.
- Yang, Hyun-Kwon. (2001). Categorical properties of Korean EFL learner's "Be". *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, 2(2), 227–248.
- Yang, Hyun-Kwon. (2003). Grammar theories and foreign language teaching. *Language Research*, 39(3), 695–709.
- Yang, Hyun-Kwon. (2006). Functional projection in Korean ESL learner's interlanguage syntax. *The SNU journal of Education Research*, 117–128.
- Yang, Miran. (2004). A comparison of the efficacy between input-based instruction and output-based instruction in focus on form. *English Teaching*, 59(2), 145–164.

## Appendix

The overall frequencies of verbs used among three types of teaching materials

Verbs	West(1953) <sup>7)</sup>		Korean textbook		<Let's Go>		<English Time>	
	rank	frequency	3rd grade	4th grade	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
be	2	39715	213	387	1129	620	286	327
have	9	12458	22	11		107		106
do	25	4389		14	9	93	9	30
say	35	2793			3			
make	37	2378	6		6	2	11	
go	50	1849	9	2		46	2	1
take	60	1586			7	11	2	8
come	61	1577	11	1		12		2
know	63	1531		7	7	4		
see	64	1520		1	5	8	2	5
use	65	1512				3	5	3
get	66	1488				5		8
like	67	1430	70	7	135	52	50	57
think	77	1225					4	
find	80	1086			7			
look	87	1021	17	7		2		2
feel	105	853					2	
write	120	768			4	2		15
want	149	654		35	200	65		
point	150	645			6		2	
open	165	596	10				2	3
hold	172	577						4
run	188	534	1	4		14		16
play	193	533		25	5	16	19	1
stand	194	531	4		3		2	
help	199	523	19	40		1		5
put	202	513	16		5		2	
close	203	511	5				2	
meet	206	501						2
hear	212	496			5			
live	215	493				9		4
let	220	489	14	20	9	1		
pay	228	479						2
read	256	432			3	13		11
study	231	471				6		9
speak	309	352				2		5
drive	313	349					10	

hope	317	346							2
reach	325	342			6				
pass	333	333							5
talk	337	332				12			9
walk	341	328			7	5			20
type	345	326				6			
sit	354	321	7		3			2	2
stop	419	275			1			2	2
wait	423	273	10		3				
draw	435	266				6		5	16
color	442	260					3		
watch	457	247			14		6		10
dance	485	229	4				9		
paint	511	218							1
drink	522	213				3			
decide	529	209							1
feed	544	204				6			
raise	545	204							2
ride	620	178			4	9		17	
practice	638	173				6			
catch	639	173				3			
sing	675	160					9	8	17
hit	676	160				4			
touch	680	160	8			15			
throw	682	159				4	2		
count	695	155				4			2
listen	697	154					5	2	
pick	699	154							2
clean	728	146							6
sleep	749	143					3		10
finish	764	140						4	1
eat	817	128				3	9		26
fly	834	126	10			4	5	15	
wash	865	121	15			5	3		
laugh	904	112							9
cry	977	99							11
rain	1015	92	4		3				
shout	1064	85							9
cook	1113	78					10		
brush	1117	78					8		
jump	1151	73	3		3	3			
snow	1160	72	10		5				

hurry	1180	71				4	5	
climb	1203	68				13		
fish	1222	67			6			
wake	1297	60			4			
swim	1305	59	11			8	14	
kick	1438	48			3			
bless	1585	38				4	1	
borrow	1655	34				2	1	
spell	1712	31					2	
pet	1955	18			5			
skate			8					
ice-skate						4		
ski			1					
wink						2		
erase						5		
Sum			508	591	1650	1219	504	798

#### Author's Biodata

The author is on his MA in English Language Education at Seoul National University in Korea. His current interests are input, frequency, vocabulary, basic verbs, construction grammar, corpus linguistics, second language acquisition (especially usage-based nature of language acquisition), and syntax. He can be contacted at sipkyo337@gmail.com.

SHIN, Gyu-Ho

English Language Education, Seoul National University.

Na 709, Samik Apartment, Jaesong-2-dong, Haeundae-gu, Busan, Korea

C.P.: 010-2933-5240

Email: sipkyo337@gmail.com

Received in May, 2009

Reviewed in June, 2009

Revised version received in July, 2009

7) West's (1953) A General Service List of English Words is used in this chart to know the distribution in real usages and to sort the verbs with their frequencies and relative rank. See Shin (2008) for more details about the implications of West (1953).