APPLIED LANGUAGE LEARNING 1&2

Applied Language Learning

1999 VOLUME 10 · NUMBERS

VOLUME 10 · NUMBERS 1&2
1999

Applied Language Learning

Professional Bulletin 65-99-1 & 2

1999 Volume 10 Numbers 1 & 2

Lidia Woytak
Editor

Joseph Morgan
Copyeditor

Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006

From the Editor

Reviewers for *Applied Language Learning*

The individuals listed below served as reviewers of manuscripts submitted to *Applied Language Learning* in 1999. We express our gratitude for expert service to:

Martha S. Bean
San José State University
Christine M. Campbell
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
John B. Carroll
University of North Carolina
Marianne Celce-Murcia
University of California, Los Angeles
Tracey M. Derwing
University of Alberta Edmonton
Dan Douglas
Iowa State University
Robert C. Gardner
University of Western Ontario
Rafael Gomez
Monterey Institute of International Studies
John S. Hedgcock
Monterey Institute of International Studies
Evelyn Hatch
University of California, Los Angeles
Eli Hinkel
Seattle University
Gordon Jackson
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
Renee Jourdenais
Monterey Institute of International Studies
Stephen D. Krashen
University of Southern California
Masaki Kobayashi
University of British Coumbia
James F. Lee
University of Indiana
Ronald P. Leow
Georgetown University
Virginia LoCastro
International Christian University
Barbara Matthies
Iowa State University
Naoko Matsuo
Monterey Institute of International Studies
Murray J, Munro
Simon Fraser University
Denise Murray
San Jose State University
Paul Nation
Victoria University of Wellington
Wilga Rivers
Harvard University
Richard Schmidt
University of Hawaii-Manoa
David J. Shook
Georgia Institute of Technology
Leo Van Lier
Monterey Institute of International Studies
Maryann Weber
Missouri Southern State College
Dolly J. Young
University of Tennessee

Applied Language Learning

PB 65-99-1 & 2

The mission of Professional Bulletin 65-99, *Applied Language Learning (US* ISSN 1041-6791), is to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and information on instructional methods and techniques, curriculum and materials development, assessment of needs within the profession, testing and evaluation, and implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communications, psychology, and the social sciences.

Applied Language Learning, published semiannually by the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center and Presidio of Monterey, presents professional information. The views expressed herein are those of the authors, not the Department of Defense or its elements. The content does not necessarily reflect the official US Army position and does not change or supersede any information in official US Army publications. *Applied Language Learning* reserves the right to edit material.

By Order of the Secretary of the Army:

ERIC K. SHINSEKI
General, United States Army
Chief of Staff

JOEL B. HUDSON
Administrative Assistant to the
Secretary of the Army
00000

DANIEL D. DEVLIN
Colonel, United States Army
Commander
DLIFLC and POM

Availability

To access *Applied Language Learning* on the Internet type:

http://lingnet.army.mil

Additionally, you may obtain the journal on microfilm from ERIC Clearinghouse on Language and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd Street, NW, Washington, DC 20037.

Bulk rate postage is paid at DLIFLC. The basis of official distribution is one copy per training instructor and one per five military linguists.

Postmaster

Send change-of-address information to:

Applied Language Learning
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006

United Parcel Customers

Location is:

Applied Language Learning
Tin Barn
Bldg. 518, Room 7
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006

Readers

Contact Editor, Dr. Woytak, by:

E-mail: woytakl@pom-emh1.army.mil
Telephone: (831) 242-5638
DSN: 878-5638
Fax: (831) 242-5850

Wordprocessing and graphics — *Private Ma Rion Boyd, II*, *Private Clifford Charles Richards, III*
Cover design — *Barney Inada*

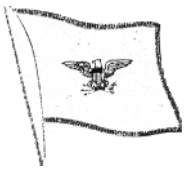
Applied Language Learning

1999 Volume 10 Numbers 1 & 2

News and Views

Articles

General Information



CHAIRMAN OF THE JOINT CHIEFS OF STAFF
WASHINGTON, D. C. 20319-9999

10 May 1999

Lidia Woytak, Ph.D.
Editor, Applied Language Learning
Defense Language Institute
Foreign Language Center
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006

Dear Dr. Woytak,

Thank you for the two recent editions of Applied Language Learning. Please accept my congratulations for such impressive works.

These publications highlight the important need for language and foreign study, especially in today's dynamic international security environment. In the future, linguists and foreign area specialists will play an increasingly vital role in our Armed Forces.

Keep up the great work and best wishes for success in all future endeavors.

Sincerely,

Hugh Shelton

HENRY H. SHELTON
Chairman
of the Joint Chiefs of Staff

Applied Language Learning
1999, Vol. 10, Nos. 1&2, pp. 1-13

Fostering Pragmatic Awareness

Maryann Overstreet
University of Hawai'i-Manoa

George Yule
St. Clement's, Honolulu.

In this article, we offer both examples and proposals for fostering pragmatic awareness in a second language (L2) through the recognition of the interpersonal function of a set of common expressions in contemporary spoken English. These expressions, described as general extenders, include "and stuff," "and things (like that)," "or anything," "or something (like that)," and "or whatever." A number of connections between pragmatic function and linguistic form in English can be demonstrated through a focus on these structurally simple and relatively common expressions. We illustrate the use of these forms in marking assumptions of being similar, being polite, being accurate, being informative, and being emphatic. Despite their general absence from traditional materials, these forms provide an opportunity, within contemporary language teaching approaches, to raise student awareness of how pragmatic considerations influence the production and interpretation of English in its interpersonal uses.

In many adult language teaching programs, there has been a sustained effort in recent years to introduce more ideas from discourse analysis and pragmatics into pedagogical decisions about materials and activities. Instead of providing controlled dialogue scripts to be practiced,

we are now more likely to invite our students, through classroom communication tasks (cf. Crookes & Gass, 1993; Yule, 1997) and out-of-class activities such as conversation partner programs (cf. Stoller, Hodges & Kimbrough, 1995), to cope with L2 spoken interaction as it evolves in context. Even in situations where no interactive tasks are employed, contemporary course materials are now much more likely to include —on CD, video and cassette— many more recorded samples of natural L2 talk in action than was the case ten years ago. One consequence for learners, particularly in second language programs, has been a substantial increase in their exposure to naturally occurring L2 discourse. In the discussion that follows, we shall be mainly concerned with L2 learning contexts, English as a Second Language (ESL) in particular, but we believe that much of what we say also has relevance for foreign-language (FL) learning contexts.

In many L2 and foreign language learning contexts, the pedagogical goal of those various speaking and listening activities and materials may simply be to provide students with motivating experiences and greater exposure to the different voices and styles of interpersonal talk in English. In some situations, however, there may be an interest in going further and engaging our students in more direct consciousness-raising activities with regard to those markers of pragmatic function that can be found in spoken English.

Pragmatics has been defined as the study of invisible meaning, or "how more gets communicated than is said" (Yule, 1996; 3). In order for communication to take place, speakers have to assume that their listeners already know certain things and do not have to be told everything explicitly. In general, the more familiar or socially close we are, the more we can usually assume is common knowledge. Pragmatics is consequently also the study of how speakers indicate, by what they say, the relative social closeness or distance between themselves and their listeners. This type of study naturally looks at the ways in which politeness is appropriately expressed (or not), subtle markers of solidarity between participants, and expressions that indicate, in various ways, that "you know what I mean." It follows that the role of pragmatics in a L2 learning context will be concerned with helping students to understand not only the language being learned, but also to become aware of the social dimensions of that language as it is typically used, expanding on more familiar aspects of sociolinguistic knowledge (cf. Hudson, 1996). More specifically, Bouton (1990, 1994) has pointed out the need for such awareness training if we are to help our students interpret certain features of English pragmatics, such as how implied meanings are

understood in everyday talk. Focused attention may also be required because, as Kasper (1981) has demonstrated, language learners often fail to recognize pragmatic markers in the target language, even when related forms are commonly used as routine formulae in a native language (L1) interaction. For teacher and student, being able to identify the relevant markers is one of the first steps in developing such consciousness-raising activities.

In this article, we would like to draw attention to one set of markers of pragmatic function that we have found to be fairly easily identified in contemporary spoken English. Although it is not always easy to assign functions to forms, we hope to show that these particular forms may have some fairly transparent functions. These forms are then used, in classroom discussions, as a way of raising students' awareness of a number of pragmatic factors that influence how English speakers organize what they have to say in interpersonal communication. In fact, these forms may be extremely useful markers for those students whose goals include not only basic linguistic skills, but also the ability to take part in social interaction and to achieve interpersonal rapport with others using English (cf. Aston, 1993).

The forms we shall focus on are a set of expressions of the type: *and stuff*, *and things like that*, *or anything*, *or something*, *or whatever*. Such forms are not only found in English, though we do not yet know if the translation equivalents in other languages function in a similar way to the forms examined here. Overstreet (in press) presents a large number of contextualized examples from a wide variety of languages. Often simply described as "vague language," or "fillers," (Channell, 1994), or even treated as stigmatized features of speech (Dines, 1980), these expressions appear to some people to have no valuable role in the English language. This impression may exist because there has been a tendency to focus on what they don't do, that is, their lack of explicit reference in terms of content. There has been little attention paid to their positive function, that is, their potential role as indicators of how the content is to be treated, in terms of the interaction. For example, the second question below is not the same as the first question plus a vague noise at the end.

1. Would you like to get a cup of coffee?
2. Would you like to get a cup of coffee or something?

The second version of the question may be used when the offer is being made more tentatively. On a literal level, the addition of

or something indicates that there are possible alternatives. Those alternatives could be interpreted as other items that are similar to *a cup of coffee* (e.g., juice, soda, tea, water). But they could also be interpreted in context as alternatives to the activity that is expressed as *get a cup of coffee* (e.g., go for a walk, have a talk, spend some time together). This expansion of options with the offer naturally increases the likelihood that the offer (but not necessarily the *coffee*) will be accepted in some form.

We have noted that forms such as *or something* and *and things* are extremely rare in the speech of instructed ESL learners in recorded classroom discussions we listened to, yet were noticeably present in the recorded spoken English of some teenagers (originally from Vietnam, now living in Hawaii) who had developed spoken English skills, but with relatively little formal ESL classroom instruction. What is it that these naturalistic learners are recognizing inductively about the useful roles played by these forms, that classroom learners may have to be made aware of, in a much more pedagogically explicit way? We will try to show that it is the marking of certain types of pragmatic functions within social interaction. In the following sections, we will illustrate a number of the functions performed by these expressions, which are called "general extenders."

General Extenders

The set of expressions presented in the following list has no established label in traditional grammar. They are clause final expressions with the structure, conjunction + noun phrase, which extend otherwise complete utterances (hence, "extenders"). They are also nonspecific in their reference (hence, "general"). A more comprehensive analysis of their distribution in spoken American English is presented in Overstreet (in press) and Overstreet and Yule (1997a). The set can be divided into those beginning with *and*, called "adjunctive general extenders," and those beginning with *or*, called "disjunctive general extenders." A few of the most common examples are listed here.

and all that	or anything (like that)
and everything	or something (like that)
and stuff (like that)	or what
and things like that	or whatever

A very large number of other forms, variations and novel

creations, with similar structures, are likely to be identified in class discussions of recorded talk. Such forms are much more common and more varied in spoken English and occur about five times more frequently in informal than in formal speaking contexts. We shall focus on those forms that are characteristic of informal talk, while noting that other forms (e.g., *and so on*) may serve related functions in more formal talk and writing. In the sections that follow, we shall present examples from recordings of informal spoken interaction, involving individuals of different ages and in different locations, to illustrate some of the important functions of these intriguing forms.

Being Similar

The most basic function of general extenders appears to be tied to an assumption of shared knowledge and similarity of experience. Even if our experiences are not identical to those of others, we often talk as if they are similar enough to assume familiarity. Indeed, our interpersonal talk depends crucially on the assumption that, being similar, we already share a great deal in terms of knowledge and experience. In the following examples, the speakers are all inviting their listeners to 'fill in the details' with information that is already assumed to be familiar.

3. They talked with the psychiatrist *and all*
4. There's garlic salt and onion powder *and things like that*
5. I'm sure she's not going to call me or you know write me *or anything like that*
6. They've got crowds there that just listen to The Cure *an' stuff*
7. These were sort of better class people—people with maybe—minor civil servants *and things like that* you know that had been able to afford—dearer rents *and that* in those days you know

In example 3, the speaker treats the listener as someone who will know about the *and all* that is involved in a discussion with a psychiatrist. In 4, two people are preparing a meal together, and one of them is telling the other where to find some items. As described in some detail in Overstreet and Yule (1997b), this use of general extenders is a means of categorizing entities in a particular way, based on an assumption that the listener will recognize the category. Sometimes the category will be generally shared knowledge, as shown in 5, where the use of the general extender in this context seems to imply "other ways of keeping in touch." However, as shown in 6, the category may only be familiar to

a smaller group of people. In 6, the general extender appears to indicate other kinds of music of the type associated with the named group (*The Cure*). In example 7, from a study on teaching spoken English (Brown & Yule, 1983), an older Scottish man is talking about living conditions many years before his listener was born. In this case, the appeal is clearly not to personal knowledge, but to an assumption that knowledge of the category or type is potentially shared, or acceptable without challenge.

As categorization markers, general extenders provide excellent strategic devices for learners who may not know, or be able to recall, a particular superordinate label. As such, they provide a specific means of developing learners' strategic competence, that part of communicative competence that helps speakers overcome difficulties in maintaining interactive communication (Tarone & Yule, 1989). For example, if the word *furniture* cannot be recalled, then *tables and chairs and things like that* can be used. If *cutlery* is unknown, then *knives, forks and stuff* is an effective alternative. In these cases, general extenders allow speakers to accomplish a particular type of reference by inviting the listener to collaborate in identifying what is being talked about.

It is noticeable that, in examples 5 and 7, the general extenders are accompanied by *you know*, an expression also commonly used in contemporary spoken English as an appeal to shared experience (Schiffrin, 1987). Shared experience implies similar backgrounds and hence social closeness. General extenders are subtle indicators of an assumption that the speakers have enough in common that explicitness is not required. This is clearly a pragmatic rather than a grammatical function and one that learners of English will not acquire from standard textbook materials. Working with clear examples from recorded talk, however, students can soon develop an ability to recognize the forms and identify their function as indicators of "you know what I mean." Other related pragmatic functions of these forms that students can identify, and often develop the ability to use, are illustrated in the following sections.

Being Polite

The general pragmatic concept of politeness includes operating principles such as "don't impose" or "give options" (Lakoff, 1990). Many ordinary speech activities, such as invitations, offers, proposals and requests, can actually represent a form of imposition on the receiver. One way in which speakers seem to minimize that imposition is through

the use of *or something*. Quite literally, the expression *or something* provides the receiver with an option to choose something else. Example 2 presented earlier illustrated how such an option was incorporated into an offer. Examples 8 and 9 illustrate the same form being used in a proposal and an invitation respectively.

8. We could even go for a walk *or something.*
9. Wanna go for a drink *or something?*

In both these sentences, the options offered by *or something* appeared, in their contexts of use, to include "not going for a walk/drink," thus allowing the speakers to make offers that could be rejected without offense. In this way, neither the one inviting nor the one invited run the risk of "losing face." This type of interpretation is not immediately obvious to many learners, but can be elicited in discussions of examples such as 8 and 9.

In example 10, the speaker is proposing to rent the listener's apartment after he moves out, and suggesting that she might also buy some of his things. Rather than simply state that she will do these things, the speaker uses two general extenders, *or whatever*, and *or something* (plus *maybe*), as indicators that the proposals are tentative and that she doesn't want to impose.

10. I'd like to move out there and take over your apartment and all the stuff that's in it and just buy it from you, *or whatever*, and maybe buy your truck *or something*.

As illustrated best by extract 10, these general extenders may not represent actual alternatives (i.e., other possible actions), but seem just to serve as markers of politeness, or a willingness to "give options." These two general extenders can also be used for another related pragmatic function, one that is tied to an expectation that we're being accurate when we make assertions.

Being Accurate

For English speakers, there is a simple pragmatic principle in interaction that our statements and assertions will be assumed to be truthful and accurate. This has been more technically defined as the Quality maxim, which operates in cooperative conversation. It states that you should not say what you believe to be false or that for which

you do not have enough evidence (Grice, 1975). Given that we are not always certain that what we are saying is totally accurate, we often have to mark the approximate nature of our assertions. General extenders, as shown in examples 11 to 16, can fulfill this function.

11. I tried to call somebody like the em labor board *or something*
12. I think they must have broken up *or something*
13. Her eyes looked weird ... I really can't remember ... one of her pupils was really tiny *or something*

With *or something*, a speaker can mark that she isn't sure of a name exactly, as in 11, or whether a statement is completely true, as in 12, or whether some aspect of what is being described is really correct, as in 13. This approximating use of a general extender seems to be quite widespread and, as shown in 14, can be used by speakers when they aren't sure that they are using an appropriate expression.

14. that's like— is it like a cultural treasure *or something like that*?

This approximating use of *or something* is a very useful pragmatic marker for learners, regardless of their proficiency level.

On some occasions, English speakers may indicate an awareness that they are not being strictly accurate, yet signal that strict accuracy is not important at that time. The general extender *or whatever*, illustrated in [15] and [16], can be used as such a signal.

15. I first moved down there in ... nineteen eighty-six *or whatever*
16. Load the rest of the stuff in the truck and then come up there Sunday morning or Saturday night *or whatever*

One advantage of general extenders, as illustrated in 15 and 16, is that they can be added at the end of statements, allowing speakers to mark their approximations immediately after uttering them.

Being Informative

There is another general pragmatic expectation in conversation that we will tell others what they need to know on any occasion, but in neither too much detail nor too little. This is known as the Quantity

maxim. It essentially states that, in cooperative conversation, there is an expected level of being as informative as is required in each situation (Grice, 1975). However, getting that level right is not always easy, especially when we know that "more" could be said. We need a means of indicating that we are perhaps not being as completely informative as possible and that more could be said. A number of general extenders seem to serve that specific purpose by signalling "there is more."

In each of the examples in 17 to 20, the speaker uses a general extender to indicate that there is much more to say, associated with "help in looking after young children" in 17, "getting married" in 18, "having surgery" in 19, and "looking after a dog" in 20.

17. I might have more support with babysitting *and stuff* over there
18. I was looking at him you know-knowing that he was going to marry her *and stuff*
19. It requires surgery *and all*
20. She is the caretaker of the dog *and all that*

As already suggested, the assumption of shared knowledge allows the speaker to indicate that "there is more," but not to spell it out, while still being informative. One situation where this seems to be particularly useful in English is in reporting talk. As shown in 21, a speaker can report part of what was said and simply indicate that there was more.

21. I called him and I said, "How was your first day at work?" *and that kind of thing.*

On some occasions, the speaker can indicate that there was more of the reported talk, but that she attaches little value to it. In contemporary English, the general extender *and blah blah blah*, as illustrated in 22, seems to serve this function.

22. They're like "Well, we'd have to mail it to you *and blah blah blah*" and I'm like "Hhh! Never mind!"

Some teachers may not be too enthusiastic about teaching their students to produce this form in their classes, but it would be useful for students to be able to recognize the "downgrading" aspect of the form *and blah blah blah*, because it doesn't just mean that there was more

talk, but that the additional talk was not considered significant or relevant. On occasions, as shown in 23, speakers may actually announce that what they're reporting is not significant. In 23, the speaker is reporting, during a phone call, what he had already included in a letter, and concludes with a general extender.

23. I've sent you a few things, nothing of major importance, it's just about, you know, questions like, you know, are you still coming the twelfth, do you need me to meet you somewhere, *blah blah blah.*

There are other ways in which general extenders can incorporate negative or downgraded meaning, even while conveying "there is more." A common way is to use pejorative nouns within the general extender. We have heard, and seen reported in newspaper articles, forms such as *and junk like that*, *and all that mess*, *and all that nonsense*, *and shit*, *and all that crap,* among others. We might think of even these downgrading general extenders as indicators that the speaker is both aware of the need to be informative and the need to avoid giving too much (irrelevant) detail.

In more formal contexts, especially academic lectures, and also in written English, we have noted the use of *and so forth*, *and so on*, and the combination *and so on and so forth*, in addition to the well-known *et cetera*, to fulfill a similar function. Indeed, for students preparing to cope with English for academic purposes, it is actually a revealing exercise to skim a transcript of an academic lecture to find examples of these general extenders and to recognize that, in many cases, the signal of "there is more" may actually be a signal that certain information is not to be treated as important at that time.

Being Emphatic

Having noted the downgrading or even dismissive aspect of some general extenders, we should also point out the emphatic use of others. As indicators of pragmatic function, some general extenders, such as *and everything*, and *or anything*, are used as intensifiers to emphasize or highlight what is being expressed. The form *and everything*, as in 24, emphasizes that the maximum amount will be or has been done.

24. I'll give you an addressed envelope, postage *and everything* and when you're done here, you can mail the key.

One of the clearest examples of this function occurred in an interview with Tom Cruise, the actor, who was expressing the extreme wildness of his childhood behavior, as reproduced in 25.

25. I was a wild kid. I'd cut school *and everything*.

The maximum amount of what would be expected of "a wild kid" is implicated here by *and everything*. If the speaker wishes to emphasize the minimum amount of what would be expected, the form *or anything* seems to be preferred. In example 26, after one woman had said she had been married in a simple civil ceremony, her friend immediately asked about the minimum expected (other) participants.

26. But your parents weren't there *or anything*?

Similarly, in 27, the speaker is emphasizing the fact that even the minimum type of connection with a former friend has been lost.

27. We never talk *or anything*

Another general extender that is increasingly used in American English for emphasis is the form *or what?*. Typically added to the end of a Yes/No question that expresses an evaluation, this form can be used to invite emphatic agreement. In the example shown in 28, a young woman (J) is inviting her mother (S) to agree with her evaluation of a photograph of her (J's) boyfriend. Notice how emphatically her mother responds.

28. J: Is that the best picture *or what*?
S: Ssssh! It's absolutely priceless.

Rather than simply claim that something is good or "the best," speakers can invite their interlocutors, with *or what?*, to share the same evaluation. The subtle message is, once again, that both speakers must have the same opinions and hence have a lot in common.

Conclusion

We have provided a brief survey of a number of related expressions that appear to have interesting pragmatic functions in English.

We hope that we have also provided an impetus for further investigations of how general extenders may be used in other languages, particularly those other target languages we devote a lot of attention to in foreign language education. Expressions such as *or something* and *and stuff* are certain to occur in the target language input our students are hearing as we present them with more naturally occurring conversational materials and as we encourage those students to take part in more spoken interactions. Rather than dismiss such forms as vague or sloppy talk, we might view them as useful markers of how certain pragmatic functions of English are signalled. Indeed, an awareness of the functions of these particular forms may provide learners with better insights generally into how pragmatic considerations influence what is said, and how, in English.

References

Aston, G. (1993). Notes on the interlanguage of comity. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage Pragmatics*, 224-250. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bouton, L. (1990). The effective use of implicature in English: Why and how it should be taught in the ESL classroom. *Pragmatics and Language Learning, 1*, 43-51.

Bouton, L. (1994). Conversational implicatures in a second language: Learned slowly when not deliberately taught. *Journal of Pragmatics, 22*, 157-67.

Brown, G. & Yule, G. (1983). *Teaching the spoken language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Channell, J. (1994). *Vague language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Crookes, G. & Gass, S. (Eds.). (1993). *Tasks in a pedagogical context*. Philadelphia, PA: Multilingual Matters.

Dines, E. (1980). Variation in discourse—and stuff like that. *Language in Society*, *1*, 3-31.

Grice, P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics. Volume 3. Speech Acts*, 41-58. New York: Academic Press.

Hudson, R. (1996). *Sociolinguistics* (2nd edition). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kasper, G. (1981). *Pragmatische Aspekte in der Interimsprache*. Tuebingen: Narr.

Lakoff, R. (1990). *Talking power*. New York: Basic Books.

Overstreet, M. (in press). *General extenders*. Oxford: Oxford University

Press.
Overstreet, M., & Yule, G. (1997a). On being inexplicit and stuff in contemporary American English. *Journal of English Linguistics, 25*(3), 250-58.
Overstreet, M., & Yule, G. (1997b). Locally contingent categorization in discourse. *Discourse Processes, 23*(1) , 83-97.
Schiffrin, D. (1987). *Discourse markers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Stoller, F., Hodges, R. & Kimbrough, J.© (1995). Examining the value of conversation partner programs. *Applied Language Learning, 6*(1&2), 1-12.
Tarone, E., & Yule, G. (1989). *Focus on the language learner.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Yule, G. (1997). *Referential communication tasks*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Authors

MARYANN OVERSTREET. Coordinator, Department of European Languages and Literature, University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu, HI 96822. Specializations: discourse analysis, German language teaching, psycho-sociolinguistic perspectives on categorization.

GEORGE YULE. St. Clement's, Honolulu, HI 96822. Specializations: discourse analysis, English grammar, pragmatics, task-based language learning.

Applied Language Iearning
1999, Vol. 10, Nos 1 & 2, pp. 15-38

Consciousness Raising and Strategy Use

Carine M. Feyten, Jeffra J. Flaitz, and Michela A. LaRocca
University of South Florida

The present study represents the second phase of a two-phase research project examining the effect of heightening learners' general awareness of language learning strategies on student achievement. In the first phase, students who received Metacognitive Awareness Raising (MAR)—a single 50-minute session which dynamically involved students in developing a general, overarching awareness of language learning strategies—achieved significantly higher scores on their final course grades than did their counterparts enrolled in the control group. The second phase attempted to determine whether the significant results obtained during phase I were attributable to the actual content of the MAR sessions or to the training process. In addition, phase II expanded the population under study to include middle school, high school, and college-level French- and Spanish-language students. The findings and implications of phase II help us understand the complex but potentially valuable links between learner training and language performance.

Joan Rubin's 1975 study of the attributes of successful language learners ushered in two decades of some of the most exciting second-language acquisition research to affect curricula and pedagogy. The contributions of Rebecca Oxford (1986, 1989, 1990, 1993, 1996), Ana Chamot (1989, 1990, 1993), Michael O'Malley (1985, 1990), Madeline Ehrman (1987, 1989, 1990), and Martha Nyikos (1986, 1991, 1993) are perhaps best known in the field of learning strategies research, but scores of dissertations and major and minor articles appear regularly in the profession's literature on the same intriguing topic.

The present study represents the second phase of a research project which investigated the effect of raising general, metacognitive

awareness of language learning strategies on student achievement in beginning and intermediate language courses. It attempted to determine whether the significant results obtained during phase I were attributable to the actual content of the MAR sessions or to the training process. In addition, phase II expanded the population under study from students enrolled in Spanish college-level courses to students enrolled in middle school, high school, and college-level French and Spanish courses. The study addressed issues raised in the literature: for example, (1) whether there is any empirical evidence to the claim that conscious awareness of strategy use correlates with greater language proficiency, (2) whether students actually profit from it, and (3) with regard to the levels at which learner training is most successful, whether it is equally useful for children and adults, and (4) whether it is equally as appropriate for beginning students as for advanced students (Rees-Miller, 1993).

These training issues in no way diminish the significance of learning strategies research nor the need to provide training. Clearly the revelation, reinforced through a plethora of studies (Brown, Branford, & Campione, 1983; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Hosenfeld, Arnold, Kirchofer, Laciura, & Wilson, 1981; O'Malley & Chamot, 1985; Oxford, 1989 & 1990; Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos, & Sutter, 1990; Pressley & Harris, 1990; Russo & Stewner-Manzanares, 1985; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986; Weinstein, Goetz, & Alexander, 1988), that good language learners actively and deliberately take responsibility for their own language learning strongly suggests important teaching implications, namely that teachers introduce learners to the notion of self-direction and guide them in becoming increasingly adept at selecting and using effective language learning strategies. Strategy training, in other words, is needed to transform less successful learners into more proficient ones and to enhance the already steady progress of good strategy users.

The success of strategy training as measured by researchers, however, is not as great as one might suspect. Results, while often promising, tend to be inconsistent. Oxford (1993) blames faulty research designs for the sometimes contradictory effects found in strategy-training studies. She suggests that strategy training is often too limited to produce significant effects. In addition, the training sometimes fails to be well integrated into pedagogical tasks. It may also be too easy or too difficult. Moreover, researchers may ignore the need to accurately assess strategy use among learners before launching a study. There is some indication, too, that without an emphasis on the broad, overarching effects of strategy training, learners associate a given strategy with a single task and fail to generalize beyond the task and thus to expand their repertoire

of strategies (Brown, Branford, & Campione, 1983). The sheer abundance of strategies at a learner's disposal may also produce so much frustration that learners may actually abandon strategy use (Chamot, 1993). Students are not the only ones experiencing frustration in this case. Teachers, in fact, often perceive strategy training as an extra burden and feel pressed for time due to their already crowded curricula. They also feel ill-prepared to properly train their students in the use of learning strategies. Additional factors which can compromise the success of strategy training, if they are not considered in the implementation of the training, are cultural differences, age, educational background of students, students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning, and varying cognitive styles (Rees-Miller, 1993). A study carried out in Japan by LoCastro (1994) echoes these concerns by pointing out the influence of learning environments as well as of values and beliefs of a learning context on strategy use by different populations of learners. Nyikos and Oxford (1993) similarly underline the importance of rewards and beliefs as crucial variables in the classroom.

Learners appear to benefit from developing an appreciation of the overarching effects of strategy training and from developing a conscious awareness of the purpose, nature, significance of strategy training, and one's own strategy use (Brown, Branford, & Campione, 1983; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Wenden, 1986). Awareness raising or consciousness raising may be gaining currency in language teaching (Fotos, 1994; Schmidt, 1990; Sharwood-Smith, 1981), but it is a concept that has proven to be useful in other related fields as well. Its benefits have been noted by scholars in such disciplines as counseling psychology, communication science, and education (Curtis, 1986; Devine, 1978; Feyten, 1991; Nichols & Stevens, 1957; Rankin, 1930). Moreover, the popularity of twelve-step programs which advocate acknowledgment of addiction or other psychophysical disorders as the first critical stage in recovery suggests, too, the effectiveness of approaching challenges from a global perspective.

Considering the difficulties teachers face in implementing full-fledged strategy training in less than perfect classrooms, and the fact that it may be useful to raise students' general awareness of language learning strategies, thus improving their attitudes, motivation, and beliefs about language learning, this phenomenon of learners' general, overarching awareness of language learning strategies warrants further investigation. Addressing the need to retain a focus on the general existence rather than the detailed array of language learning strategies, Flaitz, Feyten, Fox, and Mukherjee (1995) designed a study in which college-level Spanish I and II students participated in a single 50-minute

MAR session in which brief and socially dynamic activities were carried out to raise students' awareness about the existence and benefit of language learning strategies. Their aim was to ascertain whether students would benefit from a "consciousness raising" exercise involving language learning strategies. The MAR session, then was designed as an alternative to the more classical form of strategy "training" which is more systematic and also more time-consuming. The authors distinguished here between the training in specific strategies, the more classical form, and the process of raising general awareness. MAR is defined as the process of heightening learners' general awareness of language learning strategies through the administration of a onetime, 50-minute session which includes interaction with the material, active involvement of students, use of higher order thinking skills, and accommodation of students' social and affective needs. At the end of the semester, final course grades of the treatment group participants were compared with those of participants in the control group. A significant positive effect was observed among members of the experimental group, suggesting the possible benefit of raising students' consciousness with regard to their own potential to identify or develop usable and effective language learning strategies. Nevertheless, Flaitz, Feyten, Fox, and Mukherjee were guarded in their claims of success in promoting more effective strategy use as a result of participation in the MAR sessions. They suggested that their significant results might have been an effect of the methodology they used for conducting the sessions or of the successful socio-affective interaction that was initiated by the researchers and sustained by the regular classroom teachers and their students following the MAR session.

Design and Research Questions

In an effort to replicate the study, address the concerns identified in the previous study, investigate the effectiveness of MAR sessions at different age levels, as well as to explore questions raised in the literature as mentioned earlier, phase II of the MAR study utilized a three-part design comprised of two treatment groups and a control group for each level of education (middle school, high school, and university). The treatment group 1 was administered a 50-minute MAR session on language learning strategies. Treatment group 2 was administered a 50-minute cognitive awareness raising (CAR) session on the benefits of studying a foreign language. The control-group was administered a placebo consisting of a survey on myths and beliefs about language learning. Specifics about the procedures and content of the sessions

are outlined in the procedures section.

Table 1
Content of Training

Treatment Group 1	Treatment Group 2	Control Group
•50-minute MAR session including: *Discussion*: What makes a good language learner*?* Brainstorning: What strategies do you already use? *Jigsaw*: "How to survive your Spanish class" •Midterm follow-up: "What language strategies are you using these days?"	•50-minute CAR (cognitive awareness raising) session on the foreign language including: *Discussion*: The importance of speaking foreign languages; *Brainstorming*: Benefits of studying a foreign language; *Jigsaw*: "Why study a foreign language?"	•Administration of a placebo consisting of a survey on myths and learning.

The following research questions were critical to the study:

1. Does MAR significantly affect achievement as measured by final exam scores of students enrolled in college-level French and Spanish I and II courses?
2. Does MAR significantly affect achievement as measured by final exam scores of students enrolled in high school and middle school French and Spanish I, II, and III courses?
3. What is the difference between the achievement of participants engaged in (1) the strategies (MAR) sessions, (2) the language learning benefits (CAR) sessions, and (3) the control group receiving the placebo (language learning myths survey)?
4. Does raising metacognitive awareness significantly differ in its effect on the achievement of the participants enrolled in middle and high school versus college level language courses?

Method

Sample

The final sample for this study consisted of a total of 33 French and Spanish classes consisting of approximately 25 students per class at the university, high school and middle school level for a total *n* of 863 with *n*= 386 at the college level, *n*= 377 at the high school level, and *n*= 100 at the middle-school level. At the university level, 12 sections of Spanish (six sections of Spanish I and six sections of Spanish II) as well as six sections of French were randomly selected from all possible language classes offered at this university and subsequently assigned to either treatment group 1, treatment group 2, or the control group. Students at this university are placed in level I or level II language classes based on the results of their placement test and their high school language experience. Most of them enroll in these classes in order to meet the language requirement imposed by the university for graduation. The participants in this study are therefore fairly representative of the student body at large and come from a wide range of majors. The native language of most of the participants was English. Whereas in the 1995 study by Flaitz, Feyten, Fox, and Mukherjee no advantage was found for students having previous language learning experience, the present study uses the class as the unit of analysis, and, therefore, renders the issue moot.

The high school participants were drawn from nine sections of Spanish I from one major high school. At the middle school level, six classes of Spanish I from one middle school participated in the study.

Materials

At the outset of the study, all participants completed a ten-item demographic questionnaire which addressed age and gender issues as well as those involving previous language study. The control group also received a 50-item Likert-scaled survey used in Phase I dealing with various myths about language learning. For example, the survey addressed such issues as the relative difficulty of English over Spanish, the comparative ability of children, adolescents, and adults to gain foreign language proficiency, and the ideal conditions under which learners might succeed in learning a foreign language. The questionnaire was used by the research team as a placebo to offset a possible Hawthorne Effect. The two remaining groups (treatment 1 and treatment 2) underwent

treatment that was identical in format but which varied in content. Treatment group 1, therefore, received a handout entitled "How to Survive Your Foreign Language Class" (for MAR training), which included 26 language learning strategies identified by researchers as being commonly used by successful language learners (see Appendix 1). At the same time, members of treatment group 2 received a handout bearing 26 reasons for studying a foreign language (for CAR training). Theirs was entitled "Why Study a Foreign Language?" and was similarly formatted with the letters of the alphabet serving as the organizational framework for the content (see Appendix 2). At midterm, treatment group 1 only completed a learning strategies checklist on which participants marked the strategies with which they had experimented and which they found useful since the initial MAR session at the beginning of the semester. At the end of the term, final exam scores were collected for all three groups.

Procedures

As was mentioned above, the control group was only given a demographic questionnaire and placebo survey. These participants' final exam scores were collected at the completion of the study. The treatment groups 1 and 2, on the other hand, each received training. At the university level, the training which addressed the use of language learning strategies was delivered by a team of trained facilitators, one of whom had conducted MAR sessions in the 1995 study by Flaitz, Feyten, Fox, and Mukherjee. University level treatment group 2 participants, or those examining the benefits of studying a foreign language (CAR training), attended in a onetime, 50-minute session conducted by their regular classroom teacher—usually a teaching assistant or adjunct—who had earlier been trained by the study's research team. At the high school and middle school levels, sessions were conducted by participants' regular

Table 2
Assignment of Trainers by Groups

	University	High school	Middle school
Treatment Group 1 (strategies-MAR)	outside facilitators	regular classroom teacher	regular classroom teacher
Treatment Group 2 (benefits-CAR)	regular classroom teacher	regular classroom teacher	regular classroom teacher

classroom teachers as well. These teachers were selected from a larger group attending an inservice workshop on metacognitive awareness raising. Not only did they have the advantage of experiencing the session from a learner's perspective during the inservice, but these teachers received supplementary training on how to conduct sessions in their own classrooms.

What did those sessions consist of? Both MAR and CAR sessions were identical in format with brainstorming followed by a jigsaw activity, but varied in content with a focus on learning strategies in MAR and on benefits of foreign language education in CAR. However, for the sake of clarity, the strategies sessions will be described first. They began with a brief statement by the facilitators concerning the purpose of the session—to offer useful tips on how to make language learning more effective and enjoyable—and mentioning documented evidence showing that successful language learners use strategies consciously, purposefully, appropriately, and frequently (Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos & Sutter,1990). A 10-minute brainstorming activity followed, and was conducted in an environment of snacks, background music, and a rearrangement of desks into clusters of four or five. Each group of participants was given a large piece of newsprint and a colored marker, and asked to list quickly as many strategies as possible that they were already using to promote more effective language learning. Each group then taped their newsprint list to the wall for others to read and comment upon. A jigsaw activity making use of the handout entitled "How To Survive Your Foreign Language Class" was then distributed to each classmate. Jigsaws typically require small groups of students to master a portion of the content of a topic and then to move as "ambassadors" to other groups. Once in their new groups, they teach their subset of information to members of the new group. They also obtain information about the missing portions of the content from these new group members. Following several rotations of this kind, the topic is fully reconstituted. In the MAR training involving the presentation of language learning strategies, a subset of the original 26 strategies was assigned to each small group with instructions that members must analyze, comment on, and exemplify each item in their subset. They were also told that they would be traveling to another group to teach what they had learned and to collect additional information as well. Facilitators circulated throughout the jigsaw activity to clarify items and prompt participants. Upon completion of the jigsaw, a representative from each group presented the single most compelling strategy agreed upon by members. The MAR session was not repeated, but at midterm a compilation of the strategies from the brainstorming activity plus items

from the "How to Survive" handout was distributed in a checklist format. The purpose of the checklist was to provide students with an opportunity to revisit the issue of language learning strategies after an interval of approximately six weeks. At the end of the semester, final exam scores were collected from students in the strategies group.

Treatment group 2 (benefits—CAR) received training which resembled the strategies group training in format. That is to say, sessions began with a brainstorming activity followed by a jigsaw activity. In addition, the light ambiance which included music and snacks and the small-group configuration of desks remained the same. The content, however, varied. Instead of working from the "How to Survive Your Foreign Language Class" handout, treatment group 2 (benefits) participants were given a handout entitled "Why Study a Foreign Language?" Therefore, the session proceeded in identical fashion except for the nature of the topic under discussion. Final exam scores from this group, as from the strategies group and control group, were collected for analysis. It is important to note that exams administered to all groups at each level of study were identical and were generated intradepartmentally. Thus, for example, students in a university-level Spanish I strategies section sat for the same exam as students in the university-level Spanish I benefits and control group sections*;* likewise, all middle school students received the same exam.

Data Analysis

In this study, treatment was randomly assigned to classrooms within each type of school—university, high school, and middle school. (See Table 3.) Therefore, the unit of analysis was the classroom rather than individual students, which allowed for inferences based on an experimental design. Further, each type of school was treated separately using one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA). Because the sample size for statistical analyses was small, additional calculations of effect sizes were performed using Stevens' *^f*. Cohen (1988) identified effect-size criteria which are described in the findings section. A large-effect size indicates that although no statistical significance was obtained, there is good reason to believe that the difference in treatment is not benign. The analysis of effect size is commonly used to determine whether given factors are actually more promising than a test of statistical significance might convey. In other words, large-effect sizes suggest that the data greatly deviate from the null hypotheses and suggest further study. Finally, all hypotheses about main effects and interactions were tested as nondirectional hypotheses with a nominal alpha of *.10*.

Table 3
Distribution of Language Classes by Group and Level

	Treatment Group 1 (Strategies-MAR)	Treatment Group 2 (Benefits-CAR)	Control Group (Placebo)
University (2 sections each class)	Spanish I Spanish II French I	Spanish I Spanish II French I	Spanish I Spanish II French I
High School (3 sections each class)	Spanish I	Spanish I	Spanish I
Middle School (2 sections each class)	Spanish I	Spanish I	Spanish I

Findings

Thirty-three sections were analyzed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA).

University Spanish Classes

Both Spanish I and Spanish II included two sections per treatment. In an effort to pool data from the level I and II classes an analysis of variance was conducted, which revealed no significant main effect for language (F [1,6] = p>.86), and no significant language by treatment interaction (F [2,6] = .22 p >.81). Because of the small sample size, post-hoc effect sizes were calculated using Stevens' $\hat{f}$. From this sample the effect size for Spanish was $\hat{f}$ = .05 and effect size for Spanish by treatment interaction was $\hat{f}$ = .19, which are very small when compared to Cohen's effect size criteria (1988) where small effect size = .1, medium effect size = .25, and large effect size = .4. Thus, the lack of significant differences between levels reflected not only the small samples, but also small magnitude of differences in test performance. An analysis of variance for the pooled data did not reveal significant differences between treatment and controls F (2, 9) = 1.75 p >.22. Because of the small samples of classroom units used in this

study, effect sizes were calculated in addition to the statistical hypothesis test and are reported in Table 4. The difference between the strategies (MAR) and benefits (CAR) condition had an estimated effect size of .13 which compared to a small effect (Cohen, 1988). In contrast, the difference between the strategies and control group, and between the benefits and control group were large (-1.07 and -1.20). Both effect sizes favored the control group and were large, warranting further research. Table 5 presents means, grades, and standard deviations for the university classrooms.

Table 4
Effect Sizes ^f *for Spanish Classes*

	Treat 1/Treat 2	Treat 1/Control	Treat 2/ Control
University Spanish	.13	-1.07	-1.2
High School Spanish	-1	.26	1.26
Middle School Spanish	1.8	5.8	4

Table 5
Means and Standard Deviations of Pooled Spanish and French Grades for University Classes

		# of Sections	Mean Grade	Standard Deviation
Spanish I and II	Treatment 1	4	77.04	6.34
	Treatment 2	4	76.47	4.27
	Control	4	81.86	1.26
French I	Treatment 1	2	74.9	8.3
	Treatment 2	2	83.03	.90
	Control	2	84.52	1.7

University French Classes

For French I, an analysis of variance failed to reveal significant differences $F(2,3) = 2.17$ $p > .26$. (See Table 5 for means and standard deviations.) Calculated effect sizes revealed a very large difference between the strategies and control groups, favoring the control group (-1.9) and an equally large effect size difference between the benefits

and control groups, again in favor of the control class (-1.6). These effect sizes are reported in Table 6. The calculated effect size difference between the benefits (CAR) and strategies (MAR) was medium (.3).

Table 6
*Effect Sizes ^*f *for French Classes*

	Treat 1/Treat 2	Treat 1/Control	Treat 2/ Control
University French I	.3	-1.9	-1.6

High School Classes

An analysis of variance failed to reveal significant treatment differences *(F* [2,6] = 1.33 *p* >.33). Table 7 depicts means and standard deviations of grades for the high school sample. Calculated effect size differences, as reported in Table 4, were large between the strategies (MAR) and benefits (CAR), favoring the benefits (-1), and between benefits and the control group in favor of benefits (+1.26). The calculated effect size between the difference of strategies and control group was medium (.26).

Table 7
Means and Standard Deviations of Spanish and French Grades for High School

		# of Sections	Mean Grade	Standard Deviation
Spanish I	Treatment 1	3	79.21	1.5
	Treatment 2	3	82.45	.24
	Control	3	78.36	5.3

Middle School Classes

An analysis of variance revealed a significant F value (*F* [2,3] = 17.7 *p* < .02) and is reported in Table 8. Follow-up comparisons setting the familywise error rate at alpha = .10 and using Holm procedure (Holm, 1979) revealed that the strategies (MAR) sections received

significantly higher grades than the group sections. Further, the benefits (CAR) sections also significantly outperformed the group sections, but no significant differences were found between the strategies classes and the benefits classes. Table 9 presents means and standard deviations of grades for the middle school sample. Calculated effect size differences were large for all the above comparisons: strategies/control: 5.8, strategies/benefits: 1.8, and benefits/control: 4 (see Table 4). All effect sizes favored the strategies or the benefits condition.

Table 8
Analysis of Variance of Spanish for Middle School

Source	df	Mean Square	F value	*F*
Treatment	2	28.144	17.7	.021
Error	3	1.59		

Table 9
Means and Standard Deviations of Spanish for Middle School

		# of Sections	Mean Grade	Standard Deviation
	Treatment 1	2	83.61	.92
Spanish I	Treatment 2	2	81.32	1.34
	Control	2	76.28	

Summary

University Classes

At the university level, no significant difference in test performance was noted between the Spanish I and II groups, mirroring the results of Phase I of the study in which, as was mentioned earlier, no differential effect was found between learners with previous language learning experience and those without. This may provide insight into the appropriateness of learner training for students regardless of course level. These results allowed the researchers to pool Spanish I and II classes to increase the sample size. Interestingly, both French and Spanish groups at the university level behaved very similarly and showed consistent results. No statistically significant results were found for either language group. However, the data revealed large effect sizes favoring

the control group in all cases for both language groups. These results are obviously not supporting the hypothesis set forth by the researchers and are in conflict with the findings obtained in Phase I of the study which revealed a significant effect of the treatment (MAR) on students' achievement. However, the effect size difference between the MAR group and the CAR group was +.3, or medium, favoring the MAR group. This means that strategy instruction appears to have had more of an impact on French achievement than did instruction on benefits of foreign language learning. Possible explanations or confounding factors contributing to this discrepancy will be identified in the discussion section.

High School Classes

As with the university classes, no statistically significant results were found at the high school level. In contrast to the results of the university level, however, large effect sizes favored the benefits (CAR), not the control group. These effect sizes clearly indicate that although no significance was obtained, there is good reason to believe that the treatment delivered to the benefits group was not altogether benign. Indeed, effect sizes were large between the MAR and CAR group (-1), favoring the CAR group, and the difference in effect size between the CAR group and the control group was also large (+1.26), again favoring the CAR group. It appears then that instruction on the benefits of foreign language learning affected high school Spanish achievement more than did no treatment.

Middle School Classes

The results at the middle school level are completely consistent with the hypothesis regarding the effect of MAR training proposed by the researchers and consistent, too, with the results of Phase I. Indeed, the MAR group significantly outperformed the control group, and the CAR group significantly outperformed the control group as well. This supports the claim that raising students' general awareness of language learning *strategies* significantly affects their performance in the language class. No significant difference was found, however, between the performance of the strategies (MAR) and benefits (CAR) groups. This would support the hypothesis that raising students' general awareness of the *benefits* of learning a language (CAR training) affects their language achievement as well. It should be noted that the largest effect size was found contrasting the strategies with the control group. In other words, the MAR training seemed to affect the students more

than the CAR treatment when looking at effect sizes only (see Table 4). But, since there is no statistically significant difference, further investigation is obviously needed to confirm these preliminary results.

Discussion

If we were to look exclusively at the findings from the middle school component of this study, we would be very much encouraged by the discovery that results in both Phase I and Phase II consistently supported the researchers' hypothesis that consciousness raising with respect to language learning strategies produces better language learners. The reader will recall that Phase I revealed a 50-minute MAR session to significantly affect the final exam scores of university students in the experimental group. In addition, effect size results underscored these findings, with the largest effect size found in the contrast between the MAR group and the control group. However, while statistical significance favoring metacognitive awareness raising once again emerged in the present data, at least for certain age groups, there are several areas of ambiguity if not conflict that must be addressed by posing each of the following questions.

Why were statistically significant results favoring the treatment group only produced at the middle school level rather than at the university and high school levels as well?

The middle school represented the cleanest research environment for the study. The sample population consisted of an equal number of sections assigned to the strategies, benefits, and control groups, and all classes were equal in terms of both language and level of language being studied. The middle school students were also studying a foreign language for the first time, and were perhaps more open to language learning and to exploring and using strategies which older students may dismiss as simplistic and childish. An anecdotal account from a middle school teacher whose five Spanish II sections received MAR training (but whose data was not analyzed for the study) described participants as being clearly enthusiastic about the training and active in reminding classmates of various strategies for months following their MAR session. Age, therefore, which Rees-Miller (1993) identified as a possible variable, may be another factor explaining the varying success of metacognitive awareness raising.

Why were statistically significant results favoring the treatment group

produced in the university-based Phase I of the study but not in the university sections of Phase II?

While procedures and content of the MAR sessions were consistent from Phase I to Phase II, a critical difference is that the researchers themselves delivered the treatment in Phase I but hired facilitators for Phase II. This decision deprived the study of a strong element of focus and synergy generated by the first group of facilitators. By contrast, the facilitators in Phase II appeared uncomfortable with each other, less familiar with the subject matter, openly skeptical with the research team about the effectiveness of MAR training, and somewhat disorganized. Keeping this in mind, as well as the fact that the same pair of facilitators delivered the training for both languages, it is important to note the unexpected similarity in outcome for both language groups. This strongly suggests that the facilitator factor operated as a confounding variable. All these factors call into question the quality of the MAR sessions delivered at the university level and serve, at least in part, to explain the differences which emerged between the two phases. They also underscore an important pedagogical phenomenon—that effective teaching depends heavily on effective communication without which the content may well be obscured.

One would expect, moreover, that if metacognitive awareness raising were truly insufficient to raise student achievement, the data analysis would have produced no noteworthy differences between the three groups under study. However, there *are* differences, namely consistently large or very large effect sizes between the strategies and control groups and also between the benefits and control groups in both the Spanish and French sections of the study, all suggesting a "something is going on" phenomenon. "What" is at this point unclear, but the data give some indication that the delivery of the study itself, not the hypothesis, was flawed.

At the high school level another seemingly puzzling finding emerges which can possibly be explained on the basis of institutional factors, such as the language requirement. While there is no statistically significant difference in scores between students in any of the three groups, a large effect size is identified between the strategies (MAR) group and the benefits (CAR) group favoring the CAR group. In other words, students seemed to profit more from learning about *why* they study foreign languages than *how* to proceed. The high school students in the study faced a mandatory foreign language requirement, and are sometimes described as unmotivated in their language classes. The motivational CAR treatment may have provided the necessary pragmatic

as well as social incentives to apply themselves with greater effort to their language studies, resulting in higher achievement. Anecdotal reports from the CAR facilitators at the university level, as well, indicate that participants demonstrated intense interest in the content of the benefits (CAR) sessions.

The affective appeal of the training is another issue that requires some examination. Researchers had introduced the motivation-related benefits (CAR) sessions as a means to determine if the dynamic nature of the training and the affective bonding that resulted among students and between students and teachers in Phase I superceded the actual content of the training, improved their attitudes toward language learning, and ultimately caused students to learn more effectively. The large effect size between learners in the benefits group and those in the strategies group of Phase II at the middle school level suggests that substance may after all transcend style. In other words, we have additional evidence that the actual message delivered by the MAR sessions, not the power of affect, was perhaps the essential element in producing enhanced student achievement. The large effect size, but lack of statistical significance, between the strategies and benefits groups is intriguing but demands further study.

Conclusion

Throughout the data from this study we see the consistent, though perhaps not clear, role played by the social aspect of the training sessions, be it in the strategies (MAR) or benefits (CAR) components. The latter appeared again and again as having at least some effect on the language learning behavior of the participants, leading the research team to reiterate the importance of addressing the motivational and affective needs of learners. Therefore, the study served to acknowledge in yet another way the power of motivation in learning. Students are pragmatists. They benefit from knowing why they are asked to engage in study. How much more powerful might CAR training be if combined with MAR training?

Nevertheless, one cannot ignore that the soundest component of the study, namely the middle school data, reinforced the findings from Phase I of the study as to the significant effect of MAR training on student achievement. Moreover, Phase II data at the middle school level with regard to effect sizes serve as a preliminary indication that strategies training is more powerful than benefits training, though both seem to affect student performance.

A clear implication from Phase II is that a simpler design involving

the individual student rather than the class section as the unit of analysis is called for, and training across the board must be more carefully supervised and delivered. An added component involving the monitoring of classroom activity and discourse beyond the MAR or CAR sessions would lend more insight into the differential effects observed in the various groups. The findings and implications of Phase II help us understand the complex but potentially valuable links between learner training (MAR or CAR) and language performance.

References

Brown, A. L. J., Branford, R. F., & Campione, J. (1983). Learning, remembering, and understanding. In J. H. Flavell & G. M. Markman (Eds.), *Carmichael's manual of child psychology*. Vol. 1 (pp. 14-21). New York: Wiley.

Chamot, A. U., & Kupper, L. (1989). Learning strategies in foreign language instruction. *Foreign Language Annals, 22*, 13-24.

Chamot, A. U., & Kupper, L. (1990). *A study of learning strategy instruction in the foreign language classroom: Second-year report.* McLean, VA: Interstate Research Associates.

Chamot, A. U. (1993). Student responses to learning strategy instruction in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals, 26*, 308-321.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences.* Hillsdale, N J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Curtis, D. (1986). *College survival skills: The importance of listening skills*. Paper presented at the *Be Here Now* Conference on College Survival, San Francisco, CA.

Devine, T. G. (1978). Listening: What do we know after fifty years of research and theorizing? *Journal of Reading, 4*, 296-304.

Ehrman, M. E., & Oxford, R. (1987). *Adult language learning: Personality type, strategy, and style*. Paper presented at the Symposium on Second Language Learning Styles and Strategies, Center for Applied Linguistics. Washington, D.C.

Ehrman, M. E., & Oxford, R. (1989). Effects of sex differences, career choice, and psychological type on adults' language learning strategies. *Modern Language Journal, 73*, 1-13.

Ehrman, M. E., & Oxford, R. (1990). Adult learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *Modern Language Journal, 74*, 311-326.

Feyten, C. M. (1991). The power of listening ability: An overlooked dimension in language acquisition. *Modern Language*

Journal, 75, 173-180.

Flaitz, J., Feyten, C.M., Fox, S., & Mukherjee, K. (1995). Raising general awareness of language learning strategies: A little bit goes a long way. *Hispania, 78*(2), 337-348.

Fotos, S. S. (1994). Integrating grammar instruction and communicative language use through grammar consciousness-raising tasks. *TESOL Quarterly, 28*(2), 323-346.

Holm, S. (1979). A simple sequentially rejective multiple test procedure. *Scandinavian Journal of Statistics*, *6*, 65-70.

Hosenfeld, C., Arnold, V., Kirchofer, J., Laciura, J., & Wilson, L. (1981). Second language reading: A curricular sequence for teaching reading strategies. *Foreign Language Annals, 14*, 415-422.

LoCastro, V. (1994). Learning strategies and learning environments. *TESOL Quarterly, 28*(2), 409-414.

Nichols, R. G., & Stevens L.S. (1957). *Are you listening?* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Nyikos, M. (1986). *Student-generated study techniques: A systems analysis*. Paper presented at the Southwest Conference on Language Teaching, Phoenix, AZ.

Nyikos, M. (1991). Prioritizing student learning: A guide for teachers. In L. Strasheim (Ed.), *Focus on the foreign language learner: Priorities and strategies* (pp. 25-39). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook.

Nyikos, M., & Oxford, R. L. (1993). A factor analytic study of language-learning strategy use: Interpretations from information-processing theory and social psychology. *Modern Language Journal, 77*, 11-22.

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A.U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Russo, R., & Kupper, L. (1985). Learning strategy applications with students of English as a Second Language. *TESOL Quarterly, 19*(3), 557-584.

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A.U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. L. (1986). *Development and psychometric testing of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning.* ARI Technical Report 728. Alexandria, VA: US Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.

Oxford, R. L. (1989). Use of language learning strategies: A synthesis of studies with implications for language teaching. *System, 17*(2), 235-247.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every*

teacher should know. New York: Newbury House/Harper & Row.

Oxford, R. L. (1993). Language learning strategies in a nutshell: Update and ESL suggestions. *TESOL Journal*, 18-22.

Oxford, R. L. (1996). (Ed.). *Language learning strategies around the world: Crosscultural perspectives*. Richard Schmidt (Series Ed.), National Foreign Language Resource Center. Manoa: University of Hawaii Press.

Oxford, R. L., & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: Methods, findings and instructional issues. *Modern Language Journal, 73*, 404-419.

Oxford, R. L., Crookall, D., Cohen, D., Lavine, R., Nyikos, M., & Sutter,W. (1990). Strategy training for language learners: Six situational case studies and a training model. *Foreign Language Annals, 22*, 197-216.

Pressley, M., & Associates. (1990). *Cognitive strategy instruction that really improves children's academic performance*. Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.

Pressley, M., & Harris K. (1990). What we really know about strategy instruction. *Educational Leadership, 48*, 31-34.

Rankin, T. (1930). Listening ability: Its importance, measurement, and development. *Chicago Schools Journal*, 147-179.

Rees-Miller, J. (1993). A critical appraisal of learner training: Theoretical bases and teaching implications. *TESOL Quarterly, 27*(4), 679-689.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the 'good language learner' can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly, 9*, 41-51.

Russo, R., & Stewner-Manzanares, G. (1985). *The training and use of learning strategies for English as a second language in a mlitary context*. Rosslyn, VA: InterAmerica Research Associates.

Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*, 129-158.

Sharwood-Smith, M. (1981). Consciousness raising and the second language learner. *Applied Linguistics, 2*, 159-168.

Stevens, J. P. (1990). *Intermediate statistics: A modern approach.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Weinstein, C. E., & Mayer, R. E. (1986). The teaching of learning strategies. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 315-327). New York: Macmillan.

Weinstein, C. E., Goetz, E. T., & Alexander, P. A. (Eds.). (1988). *Learning and study strategies: Issues in assessment,*

instruction, and evaluation. New York: Academic Press.
Wenden, A. (1986). Incorporating learner training in the classroom. *System, 14*, 315-25.
Wenden, A., & Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies in language learning. In J. Rubin (Ed.), *Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research, history, and typology* (pp. 15-30). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Appendix 1

Strategies Handout for MAR Session:

How to Survive Spanish I or II

· Avoid heavy reliance on a dictionary.
· Be assertive. Make and take opportunities to use the language in natural communication both inside and outside of class.
· Compensate for your lack of linguistic ability by:
  occasionally using your mother tongue
  asking for help (repeat, clarify, slow down, give examples)
  using mime and gesture
  describing the concept for which you lack a word
  using hesitation fillers when you need time to think
· Don't be afraid to make mistakes.
· Evaluate your own progress.
· Forget about your age or aptitude when learning a foreign language.
· Guess when in doubt.
· Hypothesize. Before you read a grammar rule, try to formulate it yourself by analyzing the examples.
· If you don't understand, say so.
· Just be persistent.
· Keep a language diary.
· Limit your expectations to those that are reasonable and attainable.
· Be patient.
· Memorize creatively using images, rhymes, sounds, etc.
· Negotiate with your teacher when you want errors corrected.
· Open your mind and develop a better attitude toward the native speakers and their culture.
· Praise yourself in writing.
· Quit making excuses. If you are not making improvements in the foreign language, before you blame your teacher or textbook, ask yourself if you are using the strategies of a good language

learner.
· Relax before you go to class and before doing homework assignments.
· Study with a partner.
· Try not to translate in your head. Instead, try to speak spontaneously.
· Use this checklist, and refer to it periodically.
· Record new vocabulary and grammar rules in a notebook, and do it systematically.
· Wear your successes and reward them.
· Examine your own language learning strategies, problems, successes, and preferences, and talk about them with other students. Also, learn from the successes of your classmates.
· Yesterday's and before-yesterday's material should be reviewed systematically.
· Zzzzz.... Wake up. Don't "sleep" in class. Perform every class activity.

Adapted from *How To Be a Better Language Learner* by Joan Rubin and Irene Thompson (1982).

Appendix 2

Benefits Handout for CAR Session

Why Study a Foreign Language?

• Analyzing skills improve when students study a foreign language.
• Business skills plus foreign language skill make an employee more valuable in the marketplace.
• Creativity is increased with the study of a foreign language.
• Dealing with another culture enables people to gain a more profound understanding of their own culture.
• English vocabulary skills increase.
• Foreign language study creates more positive attitudes and less prejudice toward people who are culturally different.
• Graduates often cite foreign language courses as some of the most valuable courses they took in college because of the communication skills they developed in the process.
• Higher order thinking skills—like problem solving, dealing with abstract concepts, and inferencing—are increased when you study a foreign language.
• International travel is made easier and more pleasant through knowing a foreign language.
• Job mobility and chances for promotion are often attributed to

knowledge of a foreign language.
- Knowledge of a foreign language promotes understanding of the difficulty immigrants face as they attempt to learn English.
- Liberal arts training which includes foreign language study is sought more and more by prospective employers.
- Memory is enhanced through foreign language study.
- Non-gifted students' ACT scores show that they gain more from foreign language study than do gifted students.
- Overseas business and joint ventures mean fluency in another language is now practically a requirement for employment in many American corporations.
- Some personnel in the army are paid more than others if they have foreign language skill.
- Quality of English writing among students improves with foreign language study.
- Reading skill in English improves when students study a foreign language.
- SAT scores are higher for foreign language studies, particularly on the English section.
- Traveling abroad enhances cultural awareness and self-concept.
- Ugly Americanism as a national stereotype is partially based on our belief that the whole world speaks English.
- Various verbal and nonverbal tests of intelligence have shown bilinguals to outperform monolinguals.
- Working class students do just as well in foreign language study as middle class students, and there is no difference between genders or races in this area.
- Expertise in a foreign language aids cognitive development in children.
- Years spent studying a foreign language are proportionally correlated with increases in SAT scores.
- ZZZZZZzzzzz... Wake up and smell the *café*. There are lots of vocational opportunities for foreign language speakers from government service to hotel management to Peace Corps service, business, and travel occupations.

Authors

CARINE M. FEYTEN, Director, Foreign Language Education, University of South Florida, EDU 208B, Tampa, Florida 33620-5650. Email: feyten@typhoon.coedu.usf.edu. Phone #: (W): (813)974-3504, (H): (813)973-3691, Fax #: (813)974-3837. Specializations: foreign language teacher preparation, second language acquisition, language learning strategies, cross-cultural communication issues, integration of technology in education, and listening research.

JEFFRA J. FLAITZ, Director, English Language Institute, College of Education, University of South Florida, EDU 208B, Tampa, Florida 33620-5650. Email: flaitz@chuma1.cas.usf.edu. Specializations: teacher preparation, applied linguistics, language learning strategies, socio-cultural aspects of language, and cross-cultural communication.

MICHELA A. LAROCCA, Department of Educational Measurement and Research, College of Education, University of South Florida, 4202 East Fowler Avenue, EDU 162, Tampa, Florida 33620-7750. Specializations: measurement in methodology and statistics.

Applied Language Learning
1999, Vol. 10, Nos. 1 & 2, pp. 39-76

What Foreign Language Reading Recalls Reveal About The Input-to-Intake Phenomenon

David J. Shook
Georgia Institute of Technology

This study provides more information regarding the input-to-intake phenomenon by exploring data that were gathered but not analyzed in Shook (1994): reading recalls produced by subjects after reading the input passages. Two different levels of Spanish students (second- and fourth-semester) read reading passages containing one of two different target items (the Spanish present perfect verb tense or the relative pronouns que/quien[es] *) under one of three different attention conditions. Various analyses of the reading recalls produced by the learner-readers did not demonstrate that drawing attention to the target input nor language experience facilitated the processing of the items as intake, but the recalls did indicate that the more-meaningful present perfect was processed as intake more than the less-meaningful relative pronouns. Research and pedagogical implications from these results are discussed.*

Understanding the cognitive processes underlying how foreign language (FL) learners acquire the ability to communicate in the FL has been of interest to researchers and teachers of second language acquisition (SLA)/foreign language development (FLD) for a number of decades now, but it is only recently that research has appeared that examines one particular cognitive process involved in FLD: the input-to-intake phenomenon. This article follows up previous research in order to examine how the use of one particular type of task, free written reading recalls, can contribute to our knowledge of the input-to-intake phenomenon in particular, and FL cognitive development in general. Therefore, this article first defines the input-to-intake phenomenon, describes its importance in FLD, and reviews relevant research into the

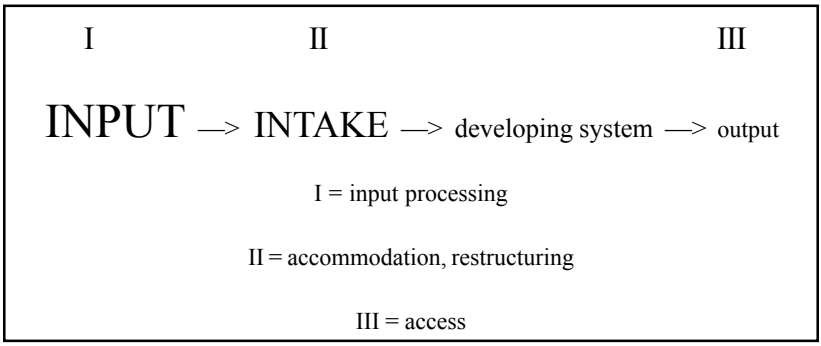
phenomenon. Next, the paper describes an empirical study designed to investigate the input-to-intake phenomenon. Finally, this article discusses relevant research and pedagogical implications resulting from the results of the present study.

The Input-to-Intake Phenomenon

Leow (1995b) provides an excellent review of the mutually-informing relationships among the fields of cognitive science, psychology, and SLA/FLD. In his article, Leow demonstrates that SLA has been the beneficiary of many pyscholinguistic studies, which find their roots in cognitive psychology, and which have provided insights into and debate regarding the roles of many of the cognitive processes thought to be involved in SLA, processes such as short-term vs. long-term memory storage, controlled vs. automatic processing, the internalization of implicit vs. explicit knowledge, consciousness, awareness, and attention, to name a few. One area of agreement among the majority of psycholinguists studying FLD is that foreign language learners have a limited capacity for processing the language input to which they are exposed (McLaughlin, Rossman, & McLeod, 1983). Such a characterization implies that foreign language learners only take in some and not all of the language to which they are exposed, due to the task demands with which the learner is faced (e.g., searching the input for vocabulary items on a listening comprehension test) and the language learning experience of the learner (e.g., the similarity of new verb forms in the input to those already learned), as well as the content, grammatical complexity, and pragmatic information surrounding the language input.

Researchers such as VanPatten (1985, 1989, 1992, 1996), Leow (1993, 1995a, 1997a), and Shook (1990, 1994) have advanced these ideas regarding FL learners' limited processing capacity in order to examine which part of all the language to which a learner is exposed, the *input*, actually is processed by the learner in some way, becoming the *intake*. In this context, intake is defined in terms of what Slobin (1979) and Peters (1985) refer to as language *extracted/segmented* by the learner, or that part of the language input that Tomlin and Villa (1994) would label as *detected* by the learner; questions of awareness, consciousness, and control aside (cf. Schmidt, 1995, and Leow, 1997a for detailed discussions of these issues), intake is that part of the language input to which the learner is exposed that he/she selects for further processing. The study of those factors contributing to whether or not certain aspects of language are attended to by the language learner has been termed by Shook (1994) the examination of the *input-to-intake phenomenon*.

Figure 1. Processes involved in SLA/FLD



Note: Based on VanPatten (1996)

VanPatten (1989, 1990, 1992, 1996) has developed a model that describes FLD from an input-processing point of view (see Figure 1). During Process I, certain structures in the input are detected/extracted/segmented in order to become the learner's intake (*input-to-intake*). In Process II, those structures made available during Process I are further singled out so that they then become part of the learner's repertoire of acquired structures (*intake-to-acquisition*). Finally, during Process III, the language learner selects from the available FL/Second Language (L2) structures in order to communicate some message in the FL/L2 (*acquisition-to-use*). In Figure 1, as one moves from left to right, the words appear smaller and smaller, graphically representing the limited capacity of language learners to process language: due to internal and external processing restraints, only part of the input becomes intake, only part of the intake becomes acquired, and only part of the acquired intake can actually be used by the language learner. All stages of this process are interdependent: by definition, if part of the input does not become intake, it cannot become acquired by the learner, and certainly that part of the language can not be used by that learner.

While a number of research designs (for example, Jourdenais, Ota, Stuffer, Boyson., & Doughty, 1995; Leeman, Arteagoitia, Fridman, & Doughty, 1995) have focused on the processing of input from a comprehension or use perspective (or, in VanPatten's terminology, an *access* perspective), a growing number of empirical studies have examined the input-to-intake phenomenon in the FL reading process. Leow (1993, 1995a) investigated the effects of simplification, type of linguistic item, and language experience on FL learners' intake of specific linguistic items when exposed to both written and aural input. Second- and fourth-semester learners of Spanish at the university level were exposed to one of four passage conditions: a simplified or unsimplified reading passage involving the present perfect verb tense, or either a

simplified or unsimplified passage with present subjunctive verbs. Pre- and post-exposure multiple-choice recognition tasks served as the basis for analysis. His results suggest that (a) simplification does not appear to have a facilitating effect on learners' intake, (b) there is no difference between learners' intake of the present perfect and present subjunctive forms, and (c) learners at different levels of language experience demonstrate a different pattern of performance while internalizing written input (Leow, 1995a, p. 87).

In a similar vein, Leow (1997b) followed up with a study of the effects of input enhancement and text length on L2 readers' comprehension of text content and processing of linguistic forms. In this case, he exposed first-year learners of Spanish to one of four conditions: a long, unmodified text; the same text with forms of the imperative bolded and underlined; a shorter version of the original text; and the shorter version with the forms of the imperative bolded and underlined. English content questions measured subjects' comprehension, while a pre- and post-exposure multiple-choice recognition task assessed input processing. The results of this study only revealed a significant effect for text length on comprehension, which Leow cites as support for using short, authentic materials to enhance reading comprehension, but not for facilitating the input-to-intake phenomenon.

Shook (1994) examined the effects of attention condition, type of linguistic item, language experience, and the context dependency of task on FL/L2 learner-readers' processing of specific grammatical information presented via written input as intake. Reading passages were designed which varied the amount of attention drawn to the Spanish present perfect and the relative pronouns *que/quien(es)*. Multiple pre- and post-exposure assessment tasks were designed in order to assess how much more grammatical information (the input) was gained (the intake) by second- and fourth-semester students of Spanish. Shook's results indicate that (a) only when FL/L2 learner-readers have their attention explicitly drawn to the grammatical items will they process them as intake; (b) they process the input for the more-meaningful present perfect before processing for the less-meaningful relative pronouns; (c) second- and fourth-semester subjects exhibit about the same gain in grammatical information; and (d) it is easier for both second- and fourth-semester subjects to recognize when to use the more-meaningful present perfect, while the ability to produce both grammatical items might depend on their language experience, the meaningfulness of the items involved, and the passage-dependency of the task.

Lee and Rodríquez (1997) undertook a study of both FL reading comprehension and input processing within the same research design. Specifically, they investigated the effects that syntactic simplifications

(+/- sentence simplification), morphology changes (+/- use of the subjunctive), and unknown vocabulary (+/- use of nonsense words) have on both reading comprehension and input processing. One hundred twenty native-English-speaking, third-semester university learners of Spanish read one of the following versions of a reading passage:

Version A = +subjunctive, +subordination, +real Spanish verbs
Version B = -subjunctive, +subordination, + real Spanish verbs
Version C = -subjunctive, -subordination, +real Spanish verbs
Version D = +subjunctive, +subordination, +real Spanish verbs
Version E = -subjunctive, +subordination, -real Spanish verbs
Version F = -subjunctive, -subordination, -real Spanish verbs

After reading the input passage, participants were asked to complete a free written recall in English (to assess comprehension) and a recognition task in which they identified from a list of possible sentences those that actually appeared in the particular passage to which they were exposed (to assess input processing). The results suggested that comprehension of the reading passage was not affected positively or negatively by the presence or absence of the subjunctive, of simplification, or of real words. As for input processing, Lee and Rodríquez found a significant interaction between lexeme and input modification; in other words, subjects who read Version E (above) of the passage had a more difficult time identifying sentences that actually appeared in the text than the readers of the other text versions presented. Lee and Rodríquez conclude, therefore, "that linguistic modifications in combination with unknown vocabulary affect the extent to which form-meaning connections are made during reading in a second language" (1997, p. 150).

The studies that examined input processing as related to the FL reading process together provide evidence that: 1. FL learners can process grammatical information from written input as intake and that 2. different levels of language experience may affect the learners' ability to process different grammatical items as intake. However, the studies utilized different means to assess the input-to-intake phenomenon. Leow (1993, 1995, 1997b) used multiple-choice recognition tasks to measure intake. However, while in the 1993 and 1995a studies there was an equal number of passage-specific items and distracters, the last study contained 15 items with no distracters. Shook (1994) employed multiple-choice sentence completion tasks (choosing the correct missing verbal or phrasal element) for recognition tasks, while the production tasks consisted of close sentences (writing the correct verb form for a given infinitive or supplying the correct word/pronoun); both recognition and production tasks contained passage-dependent as well as passage-

independent items. Finally, Lee and Rodríquez (1997) employed a recall task for comprehension assessment as well as sentence-recognition task for the assessment of input processing.

This study attempts to provide more information regarding the input-to-intake phenomenon by exploring data that was gathered but not analyzed in Shook (1994): reading recalls produced by the subjects after reading the input passages. As seen in the Lee and Rodríquez research cited above, free written reading recalls have enjoyed increasing popularity for assessing FL reading comprehension, and have been shown to be a quite reliable instrument, since they provide "a purer measure of comprehension, uncomplicated by linguistic performance and tester interference" (Bernhardt, 1991, p. 200); in addition, the recall task has been employed to examine input processing (but not the input-to-intake phenomenon, per se) by FL students in studies such as Lee (1987) and VanPatten (1990). Given that Leow (1993, 1995a) and Shook (1994) and Lee and Rodríquez (1997) employed discrete-point assessment tasks to evaluate the input-to-intake phenomenon, an analysis of the subjects' reading recalls, a global assessment task, from Shook (1994) might provide more insights into what the subjects' focused on as they segmented/extracted grammatical information from the written input as intake. (This use of the recall task is apart from that use demonstrated in the Lee and Rodríquez study.) Since this study did not involve any additional testing procedures nor changed any research question or variables, a brief review of these features of the research design follows.[1]

Research Questions and Variables

The following research questions guided the original study:

1. What effect does explicitly drawing attention to grammatical items in the input have on FL learner-readers' intake?
2. What effect does the type of grammatical item in the input have on FL learner-readers' intake?
3. What effect does target-language experience have on FL learner-readers' intake?

The following variables were examined:

1. Attention Conditions. One of the independent variables in this study was the manner in which the input was enhanced, in other words, the variation of the conditions under which the subjects focused on the grammatical items (cf. Sharwood-Smith, 1988; 1991). This variable

consisted of three levels: no attention drawn to the items, attention drawn to the items, and attention drawn to the items plus focus on forming grammatical rules. *Attention* was defined as *focusing on, noticing, having one's attention drawn to, being conscious of* the grammatical items in the input (cf. Schmidt, 1990; VanPatten, 1990).

2. Grammatical Features. Another independent variable for this study was the grammatical item that served as the linguistic input for the readers. This variable consisted of two levels: the present perfect verb tense (formed by a conjugated form of the verb *haber* plus the appropriate past participle) and the relative pronouns *que/quien(es)*. Shook (1990, 1994) states that the two structures differ primarily in that the use of the present perfect is determined by a semantic, aspectual decision on the part of the speaker/writer, while the use of the relative pronouns *que/quien(es)* in restrictive clauses is determined by a syntactic decision[2]; due to this distinction, for this study, the present perfect is deemed to carry more meaning than the relative pronoun. The question then becomes: is the more-meaningful present perfect easier to process (e.g. take in from the input, extract and/or segment) than the less-meaningful relative pronoun?

3. Language Experience. The final independent variable of this study was *language experience*, consisting of two levels of learners at the university level: second semester and fourth semester.

Methodology

Participants

The original participants were 125 undergraduate students in their second- and fourth-semester of the study of Spanish at the university level; 60 enrolled in the second-semester course and 65 in the fourth-semester course at the University of Illinois (Urbana/Champaign). However, in this study, the experimenter decided to analyze only the recalls of those participants who reported by means of a debriefing questionnaire no recollection of previous study of the present perfect, of the relative pronouns, or of either grammatical item. This was done in order to eliminate any effect from previous study on the possible segmentation/extraction of grammatical information from the input. Therefore, the results from 73 participants (38 second- and 35 fourth-semester) are reported here. All participants were native speakers of English. The participant pool included 50 male and 23 female students with a mean age of 20.19 years, distributed among the four first years of college study; an average of 1.93 years of high school study of Spanish was reported, and none of these participants reported any outside

experience with Spanish (no study/living abroad, no family members who spoke Spanish at home, and so forth).

Reading Passages

This study utilized the same reading passages that were chosen to provide the written input which presented the grammatical features to the participants in Shook (1994), one passage for each grammatical item. The passage chosen for the present perfect segment of this study was adapted from the article "Fuera de órbita" from *Semana* (10 January 1989), a Colombian magazine (see Appendix A). The passage discusses the discovery of chaotic planetary orbits in our solar system. The original "orbits" article was rewritten to include three more tokens of the present perfect verb tense; this required converting verbs from the preterit to the present perfect. After such conversion, there was a total of six instances of present perfect verbs: three each for third person singular and third person plural. In its final form, the passage contained 185 words. The passage was considered typical of the type of reading passages utilized in the basic language program in Spanish at the participants' university.

The passage chosen for the relative pronoun segment of this study was adapted from the article "Jim Thorpe, el sioux que asombró al mundo" from El País Semanal, the Sunday supplement to *El País*, a Madrid newspaper (see Appendix A). The passage was one in a series of articles that appeared in the magazine in anticipation of the 1988 Olympic Games in Seoul. The original "Thorpe" article was rewritten to convert tokens of *que* with inanimate antecedents to instances with [+human] antecedents and to others with [+human] antecedents followed by a preposition and *quien(es)*; in total, there were 3 tokens of the relative pronoun *que* and three of *quien(es)* with [+human] antecedents in the rewritten passage. In the end, there were 217 words in the passage. This article also was deemed typical of the reading passages utilized in the basic language program at the participants' university.

Before the original testing, control participants read and recalled the two reading passages; these recalls were analyzed to discover any inherent differences in terms of amount and type of information recalled. These preliminary analyses revealed no significant differences between the two reading passages.

Reading Recall Task

In conjunction with the passages, a free written recall of each passage was used to focus the participants on reading for

comprehension. The recalls were written in English, following Lee (1986a; 1986b), who suggests that recalls done in the native language of the learner allow participants to demonstrate to a better degree their comprehension of an FL/L2 text. The use of a recall task for this study gave a sense of realism and purpose to the reading task, since the participants received instructions to read in order to comprehend the passage information:

> *Read the following article through so that you understand the information presented. You will be asked to recall the information from the article, so focus on comprehending the passage.*

After reading, the participants were instructed to turn the page and then they encountered the following set of instructions:

> *Without looking back at the previous page, write in English all the information that you can remember from the article that you just read. Do not be concerned about how you write. Just try to recall as much of the information as possible.*

Testing Procedure

The original testing was carried out in the participants' regular classroom during their regularly scheduled class meetings, and was administered by the present experimenter in 10 of the 18 sections of students utilized in this study. Three class periods were necessary for the testing procedure: the second day of testing occurred two days after the first, and the third day occurred four days after the second. On each day, participants were allowed 40 minutes to complete the required tasks. On the first day of testing, each participant received a testing booklet and completed a series of pre-exposure assessment tasks (not analyzed in this study). On the second and third days of testing, each participant received a testing booklet which presented the tasks to be performed in the following order:

1. Read warm-up passage for the day (counterbalanced in presentation—all participants read both passages).
2. Recall warm-up passage.
3. Read input passage for the day (counterbalanced in presentation—all participants read both passages: half of the participants received the present perfect passage

on the second day of testing; the other half received the relative pronoun passage; both groups received the other input passage on the third day of testing).
4. Recall testing passage.
5. Post-exposure assessment tasks for the day.
6. Debriefing questionnaire on the grammatical item (participants identify whether or they remembered studying the item before).

For each group of participants, the only difference in the materials was found in the written input to which they were exposed. For the control group ("unadulterated condition"), there was no change made to the passage and no special instructions were given. For the second group ("highlighted-forms" condition) the six tokens of each grammatical item were printed in bold, uppercase letters, but there were no special instructions nor was participants' attention explicitly drawn to those items. Finally, the third group ("highlighted-forms-and-instructions" condition), also received the reading passage with the grammatical items in bold and uppercase letters (see Appendix A). However, in addition to the instructions to read the passage and to understand the information, the following instructions were included for the third condition:

> *At the same time, notice the words that appear in* ***BOLD, UPPERCASE LETTERS.*** *Try to come up with a rule for the use of those particular words.*

In order to control for group and order effects, the testing materials were randomly distributed to the test participants in each class section so that as near to equal numbers of the participants received each of the three exposure conditions. The following groupings of students resulted for this study: 21 participants received the unadulterated passage (12 second- and 9 fourth-semester participants), 30 received the highlighted-forms passage (13 second- and 17 fourth-semester participants), and 22 participants received the highlighted-forms-and-instructions passage (13 second- and 9 fourth-semester participants). The resulting participants cells can be seen in Figure 2. While the results from 73 participants formed the participant pool for this research, it needs to be noted that while 14 participants reported no previous study of the present perfect, and 34 reported no previous study of the relative pronouns, 25 of the participants reported no previous study of both grammatical items; therefore, 98 total recalls resulted from the 73 participants[3] (14 + 34+ 25 = 73 participants; 14 + 34+ 25+ 25 = 98 sets of recalls).

Figure 2: Subject Cells

Total Participants	**73**							
Language Experience	**First Year 38**				**Second Year 35**			
Attention Condition	**U 12**	**H 13**	**I 13**		**U 9**	**H 17**	**I 9**	
No Study of Only PP	**0**	**7**	**3**		**0**	**4**	**0**	**14**
No Study of Only RP	**9**	**1**	**6**		**7**	**5**	**6**	**34**
No Study of PP+	**3**	**5**	**4**		**2**	**8**	**3**	**25**
No Study of RP*	**3**	**5**	**4**		**2**	**8**	**3**	**25**
Total Sets of Recalls	**15**	**18**	**17**		**11**	**25**	**12**	**98**

Note: PP=Present Perfect; RP=Relative Pronoun; U=Unadulterated Condition; H=Highlighted-forms Condition; I=Highlighted-forms-and-instructions Condition.

* Same participants per cell. i.e., both a PP and RP set of recalls per each participant in these cells.

Scoring Procedure

In order to obtain a clear perspective on participants' comprehension of the reading passages and to assess what grammatical input became intake, if any, prior to examining the participants' recalls, it was necessary to compute the total number of idea units in each passage. For this study, an *idea unit* was defined as *an individual sentence, a semantic proposition, or a phrase.* An analysis of both passages resulted in the identification of 25 idea units in the present perfect/"orbits" passage and 28 idea units in the relative pronoun/ "Thorpe" passage. As stated earlier, each passage contained six tokens of its respective grammatical item. The participants' recalls were scored for two sets of data: 1. the total number of ideas units recalled for each passage and 2. the total number of grammatical tokens recalled for each passage. As long as the participant recalled more than 50% of the

Table 1
Passage Tokens and English Equivalents

	"Orbits"/Present Perfect Passage	
P1.	*se ha discutido*	*(the stability of the solar system)* has been discussed/debated
P2.	*ha sido ondispensable*	*(divine intervention) has been indispensable*
P3.	*se han enterado*	*(scientists)* have found out/discovered
P4.	*han encontrado*	*(scientists)* have found out/discovered *(by means of computer)*
P5.	*ha pensado*	*(Sussman)* has thought
P6.	*han tenido que cambiar*	*(the scientists)* have had to change
	"Thorpe"/Relative Pronoun Passage	
P1.	*que asombró*	*(the sioux)* who/that *(amazed the world)*
P2.	*sobre quien habló*	*(the sioux)* about whom *(everyone spoke)*
P3.	*con quienes apareció*	*(baseball players)* with whom *(Thorpe appeared)*
P4.	*que borraron*	*(the officials)* who/that *(erased his name)*
P5.	*que las recibió*	*(his daughter)* who/that *(received them)*
P6.	*de quien se comentó*	*(the man)* of/about who*(it was said)*

content of a particular unit, it was deemed correct. However, since the goal of this study was to examine whether any of the specific grammatical input became intake or not, the experimenter decided to adopt a strict criterion of acceptability for the grammatical token analysis. Such criterion meant that in order to be counted as a correct recall, the participants had to produce an English equivalent of the Spanish grammatical information, comprising of a semantically- and syntactically-correct present perfect verb phrase ("orbits" passage) and a semantically-and syntactically-correct relative pronoun or preposition and pronoun ("Thorpe" passage), as necessary.[4] The original Spanish tokens and their English equivalents appear in Table 1.

Table 2
ANOVA Table Under Strict Criterion

Source	Nparm	DF	SS	F Ratio	P Value
CO	2	2	21.091	0.7372	0.4815
IT	1	1	105.602	7.3818	0.0080
EX	1	1	12.794	0.8944	0.3469 **
CO X IT	2	2	3.376	0.1180	0.8889
CO X EX	2	2	11.225	0.3923	0.6767
IT X L	1	1	5.007	0.3500	0.5557
CO X IT X EX	2	2	1.964	0.0687	0.9337

Notes:
CO=Attention Condition EX=Learner Level of Experience
IT=Grammatical Item **=p<.01

Results

Recall of Idea Units

Of the possible 2599 total idea units that could have been recalled overall, these readers recalled 706, about 27% of the total possible, with a mean recall of 7.2 idea units from either passage. Scores ranged from 0 to 16 idea units recalled.[5]

These data were submitted to a 3X2X2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) in order to test for significant differences in the number of idea units recalled as differentiated by the three independent variables of the study and their interactions: attention condition (3 levels), grammatical item (2 levels), and language experience (2 levels). The results from this ANOVA procedure are found in Table 2. A significant effect was found for grammatical item (p = .0080); no other factor or interaction of factors approached significance. As can be seen in Table 3, the subjects who read the relative pronoun passage about Jim Thorpe recalled more idea units (mean = 8.15) than their counterparts recalled from the present perfect passage about planetary orbits (mean = 5.76). Differences in recall of idea units between those subjects reading under the different attention conditions were not significant, as was the case also for the 2 levels of language learner: no significant difference in idea units recalled between second- and fourth-semester learners.

Recall of Grammatical Tokens

The overall scores for total grammatical tokens recalled are presented in Table 4. As is noticed immediately, not a single relative

Table 3
Idea Units Recalled by Factor

By Grammatical Item	Idea Units	Participants	Mean	SD
Present Perfect	225	39	5.76	3.04
Relative Pronoun	481	59	8.15	4.13
By Attention Condition	Idea Units	Participants	Mean	SD
Unadulterated	212	26	8.19	4.39
Highlighted	305	43	7.09	3.30
Instructions	189	29	6.55	12.7
By Language Experience	Idea Units	Participants	Mean	SD
2nd Semester	336	50	7.16	3.69
4th Semester	370	48	7.70	3.90

Table 4
Grammatical Tokens Recalled--Strict Criterion

By Grammatical Item	Tokens	# of Participants	Mean	SD
Present Perfect	24	39	0.54	0.79
Relative Pronoun	0	59	0.00	0.00

pronoun token was recalled by the participants in this study. However, those who read the present perfect passage recalled 24 of the 234 possible present perfect tokens (approximately 10% of the total). The participants under the highlighted-forms condition recalled more present perfect tokens (17 of 144 total or 11.8%) than the instructions-and-highlighted-forms readers, who recalled more (5/60 or 8.3%) than the unadulterated version readers (2/30 or 6.6%), but no significant difference between groups was noted. Second-semester readers recalled 17 of 132 tokens (12.8%) while fourth-semester readers recalled 7 of 102 tokens (6.8%); these differences, likewise, did not meet statistical significance.

Table 5
ANOVA Table Under Loose Criterion

Source	Nparm	DF	SS	F Ratio	P Value
CO	2	2	2.840	1.3328	0.291
IT	1	1	15.305	14.3652	0.0003***
EX	1	1	0.002	0.0018	0.9666
CO X IT	2	2	4.770	2.2386	0.1128
CO X EX	2	2	1.132	0.5595	0.5735
IT X EX	1	1	0.314	0.2954	0.5882
CO X IT X EX	2	2	0.407	0.1912	0.8264

Notes:
CO=Attention Condition EX=Learner Level of Experience
IT=Grammatical Item ***=p<.001

Given this discrepancy in recall of grammatical tokens, the experimenter decided to expand the original analysis and determine whether the participants had recalled *any* of the information found in the idea units containing the grammatical tokens in each passage. Thus, a loose criterion of acceptability was established for each type of grammatical item: (a) for the present perfect, any phrase containing a past-tense verb, semantically related to the original present perfect verb was deemed correct and (b) for the relative pronoun, any phrase containing the general idea of the original relative clause, with or without any relative pronoun, was deemed acceptable. Overall, of the six grammatical units that could have been recalled from each passage, the participants recalled an average of 0.96 units, with scores ranging from 0 to 4 grammatical units recalled.

These data also were submitted to a 3X2X2 ANOVA, with the same factors included, and are presented in Table 5. Only a significant effect was found for grammatical item ($p = .0003$). There was no discernible difference between second- and fourth-semester participants' recalls of the idea units containing either the present perfect or the relative pronoun grammatical tokens: both recalled an average of 1 grammatical token each. In addition, no significant effect for attention

condition alone was found: while participants who received the highlighted-forms condition of the reading passage recalled more grammatical tokens than did those who received the highlighted-forms-and-instructions passage, and those who received the unadulterated versions of the reading passages recalled the fewest grammatical units, these differences did not reach statistical significance. However, while the "Thorpe" participants did recall 29 of the 354 idea units containing the relative pronoun tokens (mean = 0.49), the "orbits" participants recalled 66 of the 234 idea units containing the present perfect tokens (mean = 1.69). Those subjects who read the present perfect passage clearly recalled significantly more grammatical tokens than did those who read the relative pronoun passage.

Recall of Target and Non-Target Units

Subsequent to these first stages of statistical analysis of the data, it became apparent to the experimenter that another manner of investigating the effects of the various factors of attention condition, grammatical item, and language experience on learner-readers' intake would be to "equalize" to the extent possible the two types of input present in the passage (the *target input* as operationalized by the 6 grammatical tokens/units found in each passage as well as the *nontarget input*, the remaining idea units that did not include any of the grammatical tokens/units) and directly compare the processing of the two types of input. The "orbits" passage contained a total of 25 idea units, and the "Thorpe" passage 28 idea units, and each counted a total of 6 target tokens/units. This made for the present perfect passage having 19 nontarget units and the relative pronoun passage having 22 nontarget units. The recalls for both nontarget and target units were converted to proportions for ease of comparison.

The participants in this study recalled a mean of 16.1% of the target units, with scores ranging from 0 to 66.6%. Additionally, they recalled on average 32.8% of the nontarget units, with scores ranging from 0 to 78.9%. In order to determine what difference, if any, in recall between the two types of units there might have been, the following formula was computed:

Percentage of target units recalled - Percentage of nontarget units recalled

A positive difference would indicate that subjects recalled a higher percentage of target units than they did nontarget units; a difference of 0 would indicate equal percentage recalls of target and nontarget units;

Table 6
ANOVA Table for Difference of Units Recalled

Source	Nparm	DF	SS	F Ratio	P Value
CO	2	2	0.249	2.5345	0.0852
IT	1	1	2.123	43.2307	<.0001***
EX	1	1	0.014	0.2856	0.5944
CO X IT	2	2	0.303	3.0836	0.0509
CO X EX	2	2	0.005	0.0608	0.9411
IT X EX	1	1	0.032	0.6626	0.4179
CO X IT X EX	2	2	0.052	0.5363	0.5869

Notes:
CO=Attention Condition EX=Learner Level of Experience
IT=Grammatical Item ***p<.001

a negative difference would indicate recalling a lower percentage of target units than nontarget units. According to this analysis, overall the subjects recalled a difference of -16.6% units: in other words, the subjects overall recalled 16% fewer target units than nontarget units (individual scores ranged from 73% fewer target units to 61% more target units).

These percentage of recall scores were analyzed by a 3X2X2 ANOVA, utilizing the same factors of attention condition, target item, and language experience; the results of this ANOVA procedure are found in Table 6. Significant effects for target item ($p < .0001$) and the interaction of target item and attention condition were found ($p = .0509$). Comparisons of the mean percentages can be found in Table 7. Keeping in mind the notions;

- positive score = higher percentage recall of target units
- 0 score (more or less) = equal percentage recall of target as well as nontarget units
- negative score = higher percentage recall of nontarget units

one can surmise two phenomena from Table 7: 1. Regarding the percentage of recall in terms of target item: A significant effect for

TABLE 7
Difference of Units Recalled by Factor

By Grammatical Item		
	Mean	*SD*
Present Perfect	6%	0.04
Relative Pronoun	-32%	0.02
By Attention Condition		
	Mean	*SD*
Unadulterated	-13%	0.03
Highlighted	5%	0.04
Instructions	20%	0.05
By Grammatical Item and Attention Condition		
	Mean	*SD*
PP X U	-13%	0.10
PP X H	5%	0.04
PP X I	20%	0.07
RP X U	-32%	0.04
RP X H	-28%	0.05
RP X I	-3%	0.05

target item was found since the mean percentage recall for present perfect was 6% while the mean percentage recall for relative pronoun was -32%. The present perfect participants were somewhat more likely to recall a present perfect unit than a nontarget unit; on the other hand, the relative pronoun subjects were much more likely to recall a nontarget unit rather than a target unit. 2. Regarding the percentage of recall in terms of target item and attention condition: A significant interaction was discovered between these two factors, and can be illustrated by the mean scores shown in Table 7. The mean percentage recall for the relative pronoun subjects participants subjects were more likely to recall about 30% more nontarget units than target units, regardless of attention condition.

However, a more complicated picture arises when viewing the mean percentage recalls for the present perfect participants. Under the

highlighted-forms-and-instructions condition, the present perfect participants recalled about 20% more target units than nontarget units; under the highlighted-forms condition, they recalled about 5% more target than nontarget units; under the unadulterated condition, they recalled about 13% less target than nontarget units. Fisher's Least Significant Differences tests revealed that the highlighted-forms-and-instructions condition results were significantly different from the highlighted-forms and the unadulterated conditions; the highlighted-forms and unadulterated conditions were not significantly different from each other.

Discussion

It is quite apparent from the results of this study that reading recalls are able to add to the information that is being developed regarding the input-to-intake phenomenon in FL reading. The recalls produced by the participants in the present study provide evidence about what the learner-readers were extracting/segmenting/detecting from the written input that they received; in other words, through the analysis of the participants' reading recalls, one can gather information regarding what written input can become intake for the FL learner-reader.

At this stage, one might ask: How can it be ascertained that the present study succeeded in tapping the input-to-intake phenomenon (VanPatten's Process I in Figure 1), and not the input-to-intake-to-acquisition or the input-to-intake-to-acquisition-to use phenomena? As explained in Shook (1994), the experimental methodology utilized provided no opportunity for the long-term memory storage of the language input, a recognized, necessary part of language acquisition and therefore of language use. Since exposure to the language input and assessment of intake on a given day occurred within a 40-minute span, the procedures utilized necessarily must be characterized as capturing the input-to-intake phenomenon, and nothing beyond that. The presence of particular grammatical items in the written recalls produced by participants reporting no recollection of prior study of the items indicates that comprehension occurred. Comprehension requires that input is processed, and that the input possibly (but not necessarily) becomes intake, but comprehension does not imply acquisition or use.

The research questions that guided the original study are repeated here for ease of reference:

1. What effect does explicitly drawing attention to grammatical items in the input have on FL learner-readers' intake?

2. What effect does the type of grammatical item in the input have on FL learner-readers' intake?
3. What effect does target-language experience have on FL learner-readers' intake?

Similarly to Leow (1993, 1995a) and Shook (1994), the results from the analysis of the recalls in the present study reveal a complex interaction of the two factors of attention and grammatical item in the input-to-intake phenomenon. The following discussion will address each of the research questions in turn in light of the present results.

Attention Condition

In this study, attention condition by itself was not a major factor in recall—this is especially true for the recall of idea units overall and the strict recall of grammatical tokens. A significant interaction between grammatical item and attention condition as well as a tendency towards significance for attention condition alone in the difference in recall results were found. For those participants who read the relative pronoun passage, the factor of attention condition really did not affect their recalls, and thus did not influence what input became intake for them. For the present perfect participants, the following patterns of affect were revealed:

Analysis	Similar Recalls	Different Recalls
Loose criterion	I=H, H=U	I>U
Difference between nontarget & target		I>H>U

Note: I = highlighted-forms-and-instructions; H = highlighted forms; U = unadulterated

It would seem evident, then, from the present results that those participants who read the present perfect passage under the highlighted-forms-and-instructions condition consistently recalled as much, and sometimes more, than those under the highlighted-forms only condition, and they always recalled more than those participants under the unadulterated condition. Shook (1994) found that participants whose attention was drawn to the grammatical items gained more linguistic information about the grammatical items than the participants whose attention was not called to the items, but the type of attention called to the input was shown not to be a significant factor. These two sets of

results indicate that when FL learner-readers more actively notice the grammatical input they are reading, the more apt they are to process information about that grammatical input, and the more probable that it is that input will become intake for them.

The results from both Shook (1994) and the present study support the language learners' use of some kind of Operating Principle (OP) in processing language input. Slobin (1979) and Peters (1985) have proposed the use of OP's on the part of L1 learners which allow them to store salient chunks of the input (extraction) and later analyze these chunks (segmentation) as they build up their knowledge of the grammatical rules of their L1. For example,

> EX: COMPARE. Determine whether a newly extracted chunk of speech seems to be the same as or different from anything you have already stored (Peters, 1985, p. 1033).
> SG: STRESS. Segment off a stressed syllable of an extracted unit and store it separately (Peters, 1985, p. 1038).

VanPatten (1989, 1990, 1996) has suggested that FL/L2 learners might take advantage of similar principles for processing grammatical input as intake, and the results from Shook (1994) and the present study strengthen the possibility that FL learners make use of some type of similar principle for processing grammatical intake from written input. These might be called "Processing Principles of Attention." Shook (1994) proposed two possible principles that FL learner-readers might utilize when faced with written input that stands out in some way (i.e., highlighted, glossed, or graphically-different):

> AT: ATTEND. Pay attention to and notice anything that sticks out in any way in speech and writing.
> AT: DETECT. Pay attention to and notice anything that sticks out in any way in speech and writing, then select it for further processing (Shook, 1994, p. 80).

If such principles are indeed possible for use by FL learners, why is it the case that they did not seem to come into play for those participants who read the relative pronoun passages in the present study? The answer to this question seems to hinge on the meaningfulness of the grammatical input processed, as will be discussed in the next section.

In the present study, four aspects of the effect of grammatical item on the processing of written input as intake were revealed by means of reading recalls:

- On average, the participants who read the relative pronoun/"Thorpe" passage recalled significantly more mean idea units than those who read the present perfect/"orbits" passage.
- However, when the difference between the recalls of nontarget units versus the recalls of target units was analyzed, the present perfect participants recalled more target units (those containing the present perfect) while the relative pronoun participants recalled more nontarget units (those not containing the relative pronoun).
- When analyzed according to a strict criterion of acceptability, no participants recalled any target token from the relative pronoun passage, while the participants recalled an average of .61 target tokens from the present perfect passage.
- When analyzed according to a loose criterion of acceptability, the present perfect participants recalled significantly more target units than did the relative pronoun participants.

While the present participants recalled on average about 7 of the idea units from each reading passage, a significant effect for grammatical item was revealed: The relative pronouns participants recalled a mean of 8.15 idea units, while the present perfect participants recalled a mean of 5.76 idea units. Why were significantly more idea units recalled from the relative pronoun passage? Preliminary analyses had not discovered any significant differences in the two passages. However, in light of the present result, a post-hoc analysis has revealed one substantial difference: In the present perfect passage, 12 of the 25 idea units contain conjugated verb phrases (about 50%); in the relative pronoun passage, 21 of the 28 idea units contain conjugated verb phrases (75%). Since both reading passages were presented in paragraph form, might the participants have processed both passages according to some type of underlying assumption which influenced their processing? Riley (1993) investigated the effects of discourse structure on comprehension of short stories with early and intermediate, college-level FL students of French. By randomly assigning participants to read one of three different

structures of the same short story (chronological, flashback, "story grammar" violation structure), followed by a reading recall in English, Riley concluded that learner-readers comprehended more from a FL short story when it met the culturally-familiar chronological structure. It could be theorized that the participants in the present study approached the reading process of both passages as they would reading a story (having no other external indications to the contrary), and through relying on the "story" events to clue them to overall meaning of the passages, the present readers focused on the verbs present in the passages to cue them to "what was happening" in order to recall the passages' information. Such an explanation would account for the relative pronoun participants recalling more idea units overall than the present perfect participants.

However, more information regarding these results needs to be taken into account before the above conclusion is accepted. Tables 8, 9, 10, and 11 present the two reading passages as broken down by their respected idea units and a summary of the resulting recall structure. As can be seen in these tables, four of the six grammatical tokens appear in the top 50% of all recalls in the present perfect passage, while all six of the relative pronoun tokens occur in the bottom 16% of all recalls in the relative pronoun passage. The results of this study also demonstrate that when analyzed according to a strict criterion of acceptability, not a single target token was recalled by the relative pronoun participants; under a loose criterion of acceptability, they recalled over 2/3 fewer target units than did the present perfect participants; and they were much more likely to recall nontarget rather than target units. All of this would indicate that the readers of the relative pronoun passage did not notice (e.g., segment/extract/detect) the relative pronouns or the information carried in the phrases introduced by the relative pronouns as being "important/meaningful" enough for recalling to the extent that they did the other information in the passage. However, the readers of the present perfect passage did consider at least four of the phrases containing that particular structure to be "important/meaningful" at least 50% of the time; they recalled many more target tokens then did the relative pronouns participants; and they were slightly more likely to recall target than nontarget units. The restrictive relative clauses that appeared in the "Thorpe" passage utilized in this study, by their very definition, present information which is *subordinate* to the primary phrasal information. On the other hand, five of the six present perfect tokens in the "orbits" passage made up the primary verbal phrase of the sentence in which they appeared. It would seem plausible, therefore, that while the learner-readers may have processed the reading passages according to some culturally-familiar story structure or world knowledge

Table 8
Idea Units for Present Perfect Passage

1.	Fuera de órbita
2.	Durante años,
3.	desde el descubrimiento de Plutón hasta el presente,
4.	se HA DISCUTIDO acerca de la estabilidad del sistema solar.
5.	La interacción de los nueve planetas soprende hasta los científicos más expertos.
6.	[y el hecho de que éstos no se choquen],
7.	El mismo Newton, declaró que una continua intervención divina
8.	[después de proponer la ley de gravedad,]
9.	HA SIDO indispensable para asegurar el órden del sistema.
10.	Recientemente,
11.	en el laboratorio del Instituto Tecnológico de Massashusetts,
12.	los científicos se HAN ENTERADO de que la órbita del planeta Plutón es caótica
13.	Gerald J. Sussman y Jack Wisdom
14.	Por medio de complicadísimos cálculos
15.	determinaron el movimiento de los cinco planetas
16.	durante 845 millones de años
17.	Utilizando una computadora digital,
18.	los científicos ahora HAN ENCONTRADO que la orbita de Plutón es caótica.
19.	en un período de 20 millones de años.
20.	Desde los primeros años de observaciones,
21.	el científico Sussman HA PENSADO que todo el sistema solar es caótico
22.	y ahora tiene evidencia que sí es así.
23.	Debido a los recientes descubrimientos,
24.	los científicos HAN TENIDO que cambiar sus ideas originales en cuanto al universo.
25.	Puede ser que Newton después de todo tenía razón.

(cf. R. Ellis, 1994; Bialystok, 1994), at the same time, the "higher up" the target item in the hierarchy of "important/meaningful" idea units (which, by their very nature, contained the present perfect), the more likely it was that the participants would process those items. The present study supports VanPatten's (1996) theory that "importance/ meaningfulness" seems to be a determining condition for processing the input.

The results from Shook (1994) indicate that while participants gained information regarding the present perfect and the relative pronouns after exposure to both input passages (i.e., both were processed as intake), for the most part, more was taken in about the present perfect about the relative pronoun; in the present study, similar results occurred. Shook (1994) explained this phenomenon as an example of early-stage

Table 9
Present Perfect Idea Unit Recalled

Idea Unit	Times Recalled	Idea Unit	Times Recalled
1	0	14	4
2	4	15	15
3	7	16	11
4*	6	17	17
5	1	18*	12
6	4	19	12
7	12	20	1
8	18	21*	13
9*	12	22	6
10	9	23	1
11	22	24*	2
12*	20	25	6
13	9		

Times Recalled	Idea Unit
22	11
20	12*
18	8
17	17
15	15
13	21*
12	7,9*,18*,19
11	16
9	10,13
7	3
6	4*,22,25
4	2,4,14
2	24*
1	5,20,23
0	1

Note: * Indicates a Target Token Present

FL learners having a predilection for processing semantic/aspectual information ("more meaningful"—however that concept might be defined by early-stage learners) over syntactic information ("less meaningful"—however that concept might be defined by early-stage learners). Barry and Lazarte (1995) studied the reading recalls of adult English-speaking learners of Spanish; three different reading passages were read by the learners under three increasingly-difficult levels of syntax. They found that as the level of syntactic difficulty increased, almost no parenthetical/embedded information was recalled, and that the levels of essential information recalled dropped accordingly. This finding indicates that the learners focused on understanding the reading comprehension, only the most meaningful/important information was processed.

All of these findings agree with VanPatten's (cf. 1996) theory that language learners might rely on two different but not mutually exclusive processing strategies. At first, all conscious attention is focused on processing *meaning*; since all conscious attention is occupied, no attention is available for the processing of *linguistic form*. However, once processing for meaning becomes automatic, then and only then does conscious attention become available for processing form. Along the same lines, then, if language learners are processing for meaning first and then processing for form, it would seem logical that more-meaningful linguistic structures would be processed before less-meaningful ones. Therefore, following through from all of the input

Table 10
Idea Units for Relative Pronoun Passage

1.	Jim Thorpe, el sioux
2.	QUE asombró al mundo
3.	El silencio y la humillación no derrumbaron la leyenda de Jim Thorpe, el sioux
4.	sobre QUIEN habló todo el mundo
5.	durante los Juegos Olímpicos de 1912.
6.	Su nombre siempre se asociará a su actuación en las pruebas de pentatlón y decatlón de los Juegos en Estocolmo.
7.	Thorpe consiguió las dos medallas de oro
8.	y estableció un récord mundial de decatlón;
9.	el récord përduró 17 años.
10.	Sin embargo,
11.	dos meses después de ganae los dos títulos,
12.	un periódico publicó una fotografía de jugadores de béisbol
13.	con QUIENES apareció Thorpe,
14.	enfundado en la camiseta de un epuipo semiprofesional.
15.	Su participación en aquella Liga de verano vulneró los rígidos principios del amateurísmo.
16.	Nada impidió el castigo del Comité Olímpico Internacional:
17.	suprimió el nombre de Thorpe de las listas de campeones olímpicos
18.	y le retiró las medallas.
19.	Thorpe vivió sus últimos años abandonado y pobre,
20.	ignorado por los oficiales
21.	QUE borraron su nombre y marcas de las tablas de récordes.
22.	Murió Thorpe en la miseria en 1952.
23.	Tuvieron que pasar 32 años
24.	para que el COI devolviera las medallas de oro a su hija
25.	QUE las recibió en vísperas de los Juegos de 1984.
26.	Por fin, se restablecieron el nombre y las marcas en los libros registros olímpicos del hombre
27.	de QUIEN se comentó que era "el jugador teóricamente perfecto"
28.	y el mejor atleta del mundo.

studies mentioned above, the results from the present study add support to FL learners using another possible principle for processing FL grammatical input as intake, further refined from those presented above:

> AT: DETECT MEANING. Pay attention to and notice anything that sticks out in any way in speech and writing *that you believe you understand*, then select it for further processing.

Table 11
Relative Pronoun Idea Units Recalled

Idea Unit	Times Recalled	Idea Unit	Times Recalled	Idea Unit	Times Recalled
1	18	47	18	9,23	27
2*	1	21	19	26	22
3	1	0	20	19	21
4*	4	3	21*	12,17	19
5	36	30	22	1,11	18
6	16	27	23	6	16
7	43	34	24	14	14
8	32	10	25*	15	13
9	27	22	26	28	12
10	5	4	27*	25*	10
11	18	12	28	13*	7
12	19	18	47	10	5
13*	7	7	43	4*,27*	4
14	14	5	36	21*	3
13	15	24	34	2*,3,16	1
1	16	8	32	20	0
19	17	22	30		

Note: * Indicates a Target Token Present

Target-Language Experience

At first, this factor did not seem to be a distinguishing factor in recall, reflecting the intake, for the participants in the present study. Consistently, second- and fourth-semester learner-readers exhibited nearly identical recall of idea units and grammatical units from the reading passages utilized. The only significant difference in performance was found in the analysis of the strict recall of target tokens for the present perfect. In this segment of the study, the second-semester students outperformed the fourth-semester students (yet each group did equally bad at recalling relative pronoun grammatical tokens). Is there an explanation for these results?

The two groups of language learners studied here can be classified as still early in their language development. As early foreign language developers, they are by definition limited-capacity processors of the FL input to which they are exposed. As mentioned at the beginning of this paper, one of the many factors determining what input becomes intake is the *task demands* that a FL learner faces. Perhaps the second-semester learners, with relatively less Spanish experience, could only detect less Spanish grammatical input, and the salient present perfect was noticed by them. In the same light, the fourth-semester learners, with relatively more Spanish experience, comprehended the present perfect

better than the second-semester learners, and thus did not detect those target items as much. A post-hoc analysis, however, reveals a better explanation for the differences in these groups. For the 17 fourth-semester students, 12 did not recall any present perfect token, and the remaining five only recalled one token each. For the 22 second-semester subjects, five recalled at least two tokens each, and one of those recalled three tokens. Clearly, running these tests with more students would eliminate the strong effects found in the second-semester recalls, caused by the strong performance of a relatively small group of subjects. At this juncture, it seems better to conclude that target-language experience had no effect on intake for the subjects in this study.

This result is at odds with those found in Shook (1994), in which significant interactions between grammatical item and language experience overall and for type of task while processing written input as intake were found, and Leow (1993), who found that fourth-semester learners consistently performed better than second-semester learners on all tasks subsequent to exposure to simplified or unsimplified present perfect or subjunctive written input. No single post-hoc analysis of all the data to date has been able to explain satisfactorily these differences in performance on different tasks. However, in that conclusion might lie the key. In recognizing that both second- and fourth-semester students are still early-stage language learners, and that both *task demands* as well as *experience* with the FL may effect processing of the FL input, individualistic and idiosyncratic processing of specific FL input (the Spanish present perfect, relative pronouns, subjunctive) by specific early-stage FL learners (the particular subjects studied) in a specific processing mode (reading), evaluated via specific tasks (recognition tasks in Leow [1993;1995a], production and recognition tasks in Shook [1994], and free written recalls in the present study) should be seen as the norm, and not the exception. It is only through the compilation of many such studies, and the recognition of the norms/universals present therein, that specific conclusions regarding the input-to-intake phenomenon may be established.

The Reading Recall Task

The purpose of this study was to discover what further knowledge about the input-to-intake phenomenon might be revealed through the use of reading recalls. How can the research questions that guided the original study be addressed by the evidence gained through the free written recall task? (a) The reading recalls produced in this study do not indicate any positive or negative effect on processing for

drawing FL learner-readers' attention to grammatical items in the input; however, in conjunction with the present perfect, the recalls do demonstrate that explicit drawing of attention to such a grammatical item resulted in more of that particular input being processed as intake. This result is in agreement with that found in Shook (1994). (b) The use of reading recalls solidifies the findings from Shook (1994) that the more meaningful the grammatical item in the FL written input, the more likely it is that FL learner-readers will recall that item, which further gives evidence that grammatical information can be processed as intake. (c) No significant difference in reading recalls between second- and fourth-semester FL learners was observed; both groups were equal in terms of their ability to process some grammatical information as intake. While at odds with other intake studies (cf. Leow 1993, 1995a; Shook 1994), the results here suggest that while early-stage FL learner-readers should be able to process grammatical information from written input as intake, the idiosyncratic processing by these different levels of language learners should not be surprising as both groups are, in reality, *early-stage* language learners.

Implications of the Study

Research Implications

The present study contributes to the growing body of evidence regarding the input-to-intake phenomenon by indicating that drawing attention to the input can benefit processing, and that salience/ meaningfulness of the input is a major component in determining the extent of that benefit. However, questions still remain regarding under what differing attention conditions input processing might be maximized. In addition, the present study indicated equal performance of second- and fourth-semester learner-readers on the reading recall tasks, i.e., similar input processing, a result that differs with Leow (1993, 1995a) and Shook (1994). More research is needed in order to determine under what processing conditions language experience does indeed make a difference in the input-to-intake phenomenon. Of another concern is the issue of task. Whereas Lee and Rodríquez (1997) utilized the recall task to examine comprehension of FL written input, this study focused on using reading recalls to examine input processing, i.e., what input becomes intake. This author feels justified in using the recall task to assess the input-to-intake phenomenon, since it can shed light on to what in the text (micro- or macro-textual features) readers' attention was drawn. By itself, a single task such as the recall task may not be of

great use, but in conjunction with other assessment tasks (for example, the use of a global and a discrete-point task within the same research design), a clearer picture of processing the input as intake can be achieved. Therefore, for all input studies, research designs need to take into account how much the tasks utilized to assess processing play into the conclusions drawn regarding the input-to-intake phenomenon. Finally, this study only examined Process I from Figure 1 presented above, under what conditions certain structures in the input are detected/ extracted/segmented as intake (*input-to-intake*). Further research needs to advance the ideas from the studies cited here and continue to study how the intake is further singled out to become part of the learner's inventory of acquired structures (*intake-to-acquired*) and, consequently, how the learner selects from the acquired structures in order to communicate in the FL (*acquired-to-use*).

Pedagogical Implications

Leow (1995b) summarizes many of the implications of cognitive research in FLD for language teachers and instruction, including the issues of learners as limited capacity processors; type of linguistic items in the input; the language experience of the learners; modes of exposure to the input; the pedagogical presentation of input; formal/informal instruction/exposure to grammatical information; and task-based approaches to language learning and teaching. In basic terms, this study suggests that FL teachers need to recognize all of the above areas, but specifically, a) that some type of instruction for detecting/noticing the input often aids the processing the FL input and b) that FL teachers need to take care in designing tasks that promote input processing, that contribute positively to the input-to-intake phenomenon, and that are effective in the evaluation of input processing (cf. Terrell, 1991; VanPatten, 1992; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; Cadierno, 1995; VanPatten, 1996). Free written recalls have been shown throughout the literature to offer evidence of what input has been comprehended by FL learner-readers. The present study suggests that in conjunction with other reading tasks that facilitate the attention of the learner-readers towards extracting/segmenting the input, the free written reading recall task may serve to help FL instructors determine what input (if any) has been processed as intake.

Conclusion

N. Ellis states that one of the main endeavors of those interested in SLA/FLD is the determination of the particular involvements and interactions of the "different learning processes that may be brought to bear in the acquisition of language" (1994, pg. 7). This article contributes to this endeavor by exploring what reading recalls reveal about the input-to-intake phenomenon through an investigation of FL learner-readers written recalls after exposure to reading passages containing two different grammatical items in Spanish: the present perfect and the relative pronouns *que/quien(es)*. The results of the present study provide important insights regarding one of the many cognitive processes thought to affect language development: how FL researchers can assess what/how/when input becomes segmented/extracted/detected as intake. Such assessments of the tasks used to examine the input-to-intake phenomenon contribute to the growing recognition of the importance, not only for the language learner but also for language instruction, of the role of input processing in FLD as a language development process.

Notes

[1]The reader is directed to Shook (1994) for detailed information regarding the research variables, the methodology, and the underlying assumptions.

[2]English-speaking beginning readers of Spanish have to learn how perfective actions, i.e., ones that has taken place immediately prior to the point of orientation, are expressed in Spanish. The use of the present perfect in Spanish is one manner (among others) of expressing such an action, since the present perfect carries the meaning of an action that is seen as completed (Ramsey and Spaulding, 1956); or one that expresses "anteriority to the recalled axis of orientation" (Bull, 1965, p. 154) (cf. Real Academia Española, 1973, p. 268-269). The present perfect in Spanish is a compound structure formed by the verb *haber* and the present participle of the appropriate verb. The focus of the present study on this grammatical item was to determine whether early-stage readers of Spanish could extract/segment input indicating a semantic relationship: [perfective action = present perfect], questions of tense and concordance set aside (therefore, only the forms of the present perfect for the third person, singular and plural, were employed).

Likewise, English-speaking beginning readers of Spanish have to learn how "who/whom" is expressed in restrictive relative clauses. In Spanish, two of the possible choices are between *que* and *quien(es)*.

One "rule of thumb" for early-stage learners to follow is that *quien(es)* is used with a [+human] antecedent after a preposition (Liceras, 1986); when no preposition is present, *quien(es)* is not possible, and *que* is the most common choice (cf., Real Academia Española, 1973, p. 528-535; Bello, 1994, p. 331-339). For example, one finds the various possibilities below; phrase *d* presents an exception found mostly in oral speech (Espinosa & Wonder, 1976, p. 183).

a. *El hombre que/*quien acaba de llegarorganizó elviaje.* (The man *that/who* just arrived organized the trip.)
b. *Ese hombre, que/quien lleva traje, es guapo.* (That man, *who* wears a suit, is handsome.)
c. *Son las chicas sobre quienes/*que se escribió elartículo.* (They are the girls *about whom* the article was written.)
d. *Es el profesor de que/quien te hablé.* (He's the professor *about whom* I told you.)

Since in these cases *que* and *quien(es)* carry the same meaning, the use of one or the other relative pronoun in written input is a syntactic decision. Thus, in the present study, the focus on this grammatical item was to determine whether early-stage readers of Spanish could extract/segment input indicating a syntactic decision: [preposition—>*quien(es)*; no preposition—>*que*], questions of concordance set aside.

[3]It must be stated here that the experimenter decided not to use repeated-measures analyses in this study, which some might consider a more logical approach to take. This is due to the small-to-disapportionate number of subjects in each cell who had not studied before either of the grammatical items in question (ranging from 1/4 to almost 1/5 of particular cells [see Figure 2]) and the statistical procedures utilized. This approach considered each set of subject scores as belonging to a unique subject, which resulted in slightly inflated mean squares values, which in turn lead to some *understatement* of any overall effects. This was deemed to be a conservative approach to take in light of the subject pool available. The experimenter feels that it is better to error on the conservative side, and remains quite comfortable with the results produced.

[4]The strict criterion also follows the same level of acceptability as established in Shook, 1994.

[5]The author expresses extreme gratitude to Dr. Lewis Van Brackle, Department of Mathematics, Kennesaw State University, who

provided valuable help in running and interpreting the statistical analyses presented here.

References

Barry, S. & Lazarte, A. A. (1995). Embedded clause effects on recall: Does high prior knowledge of content domain overcome syntactic complexity in students of Spanish? *Modern Language Journal*, *79*(4), 491-504.

Bello, A. L. (1994). *Gramática de la lengua española.* Madrid: Espasa Calpe, S. A.

Bernhardt, E. B. (1991). *Reading development in a second language*: *Theoretical, empirical, and classroom perspectives*. Norwood, N. J.: Ablex.

Bialystok, E. (1994). Representation and ways of knowing: Three issues in second language acquisition. In N. Ellis (Ed.). *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 549-570). San Diego: Academic Press.

Bull, W. E. (1965). *Spanish for teachers*. New York: Ronald Press.

Cadierno, T. (1995). Formal instruction from a processing perspective: An investigation into the Spanish past tense. *Modern Language Journal,* 79(2), 179-193.

Ellis, N. (1994). Implicit and explicit language learning—An overview. In N. Ellis (Ed.). *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 1-31). San Diego: Academic Press.

Ellis, R. (1994) A theory of instructed second language acquisition. In N. Ellis (Ed.). *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 79-114). San Diego: Academic Press.

Espinosa, A. M., & Wonder, J. P. (1976). *Gramática analítica.* Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.

Jourdenais, R., Ota, M., Stauffer, S., Boyson, B., & Doughty, C. (1995). Does textual enhancement promote noticing? A think-aloud protocol analysis. In R. Schmidt (Ed.). *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 183-216). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Leeman, J., Arteagoitia, I., Fridman, B., & Doughty, C. Integrating attention to form with meaning: Focus on form in content-based Spanish instruction. In R. Schmidt (Ed.). *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 217-258). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Lightbown, P. M. & d'Anglejan, A. (1985). Some input considerations for word order in French L1 and L2 acquisition. In S. M. Gass,

& C. G. Madden (Eds.). *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 415-430). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Lee, J. F. (1986a). On the use of the recall task to measure L2 reading comprehension. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *8*(2), 201-212.

Lee, J. F. (1986b). The effects of three components of background knowledge on second language reading. *Modern Language Journal, 70*(4), 350-354.

Lee, J. F. and Rodríquez, R. B. (1997). The effects of lexemic and morphosyntactic modifications on L2 reading comprehension and input processing. In W. R. Glass and A. T. Pérez-Leroux, (Eds). *Contemporary perspectives on the acquisition of Spanish; Vol. 2: Production, Processing, and Comprehension* (pp. 135-157). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla.

Leow, R. P. (1993). To simplify or not to simplify: A look at intake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15*(3), 333-356.

Leow, R. P. (1995a). Modality and intake in second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 17*(1), 79-89.

Leow, R. P. (1995b). Teacher education and psycholinguistics: Making teachers psycholinguists. GURT 1995: *Linguistics and the education of second language teachers: Ethnolinguistic, pyscholinguistic and sociolinguistic aspects.* Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Leow, R. P. (1997a). Attention, awareness, and foreign language behavior. *Language Learning, 47*(3), 467-505.

Leow, R. P. (1997b). The effects of input enhancement and text length on adult L2 readers' comprehension and intake in second language acquisition. *Applied Language Learning, 8*(2), 151-182.

Liceras, J. (1986). *Linguistic theory and second language acquisition: The Spanish nonnative grammar of English speakers.* Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

McLaughlin, B., Rossman, T., & McLeod, B. (1983). Second language learning: an information-processing perspective. *Language Learning, 33*(2), 135-158.

Peters, A. M. (1985). Language segmentation: Operating principles for the perception and analysis of language. In D. I. Slobin (Ed.). *The cross-linguistic study of language acquisition-vol. 2: Theoretical issues* (pp. 1029-1067). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Ramsey, M. M., & Spaulding, R.K. (1954). *A textbook of modern Spanish.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Real Academia Española. (1973). *Gramática de la lengua española*

(1920 ed.). Madrid: Espasa Calpe, S. A.

Riley, G. L. (1993). A story approach to narrative text comprehension. *Modern Language Journal*, *77*(4), 417-432.

Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*, 127-158.

Schmidt, R. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In R. Schmidt, Ed., *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 1-63). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Sharwood-Smith, M. (1988). Consciousness raising and the second language learner. In W. Rutherford, & M. Sharwood-Smith (Eds.). *Grammar and second language teaching* (pp. 51-60). New York: Newbury House.

Sharwood-Smith, M. (1991). Speaking to many minds: On the relevance of different types of language information for the L2 learner. *Second Language Research, 7*, 118-132.

Shook, D. J. (1990). *The processing of grammatical structures via written input*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana/Champaign.

Shook, D. J. (1994). FL/L2 reading, grammatical information, and the input-to-intake phenomenon. *Applied Language Learning*, *5*(2), 57-93.

Slobin, D. I. (1979). *Psycholinguistics*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Terrell, T. D. (1991). The role of grammar instruction in a communicative approach. *Modern Language Journal, 75*, 52-63.

Tomlin, R. S., & Villa, V. (1994). Attention in cognitive science and second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 16*(2), 183-203.

VanPatten, B. (1985). Communicative value and information processing in L2 acquisition. In E. Judd, P. Nelson, & D. Messerschmitt (Eds.). *On TESOL '84*: *A brave new world* (pp. 89-99). Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

VanPatten, B. (1989). *Towards a model of input processing*. Paper presented at the 1989 American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, 71st Annual Meeting, San Antonio.

VanPatten, B. (1990). Attending to form and content in the input. S*tudies in Second Language Acquisition, 12,* 287-301.

VanPatten, B. (1992). Second-language-acquisition research and foreign language teaching, part 2. *ADFL Bulletin, 23*(3), 23-27.

VanPatten, B. (1996). *Input processing and grammar instruction.* Norwood, N. J.: Ablex.

VanPatten, B. & Cadierno, T. (1993). Explicit instruction and input

processing. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12*, 287-301.

Appendix A

Sample Reading Passages

Passage for the present perfect: highlighted-forms-and-instructions condition

Instructions: Read the following article through so that you understand the information presented. You will be asked to recall the information from the article, so focus on comprehending the passage. At the same time, notice the words that appear in **BOLD, UPPERCASE LETTERS.** Try to come up with a rule for the use of those particular words. When you have finished, turn to the next page.

Fuera de órbita

*Durante años, desde el descubrimiento de Plutón hasta el presente, se **HA DISCUTIDO** acerca de la estabilidad del sistema solar. La interacción de los nueve planetas y el hecho de que éstos no se choquen, soprende hasta a los científicos más expertos. El mismo Newton, después de proponer la ley de gravedad, declaró que una continua intervención divina **HA SIDO** indispensable para asegurar el órden del sistema.*

*Recientemente, en el laboratorio del Instituto Tecnológico de Massachusetts, los científicos Gerald J. Sussman y Jack Wisdom se **HAN ENCONTRADO** de que la órbita del planeta Plutón es caótica. Por medio de complicadísimos cálculos determinaron el movimiento de los cinco planetas durante 845 millones de años. Utilizando una computadora digital, los científicos ahora **HAN ENCONTRADO** que la órbita de Plutón es caótica en un período de 20 millones de años.*

*Desde los primeros años de observaciones, el científico Sussman **HA PENSADO** que todo el sistema solar es caótico y ahora tiene evidencia que sí es así. Debido a los recientes descubrimientos, los científicos **HAN TENIDO** que cambiar sus ideas originales en cuanto al universo. Puede ser que Newton después de todo ten'a razón.*

Note: The same exact passage was used for the unadulterated and the highlighted-forms conditions, except that for both of these conditions there appeared no instructions to focus on the specific grammatical features, and for the unadulterated condition the present perfect verbs were not highlighted in any way.

Passage for the relative pronouns: highlighted-forms-and-instructions condition

Instructions: Read the following article through so that you understand the information presented. You will be asked to recall the information from the article, so focus on comprehending the passage. At the same time, notice the words that appear in **BOLD, UPPERCASE LETTERS.** Try to come up with a rule for the use of those particular words. When you have finished, turn to the next page.

*Jim Thorpe, el sioux **QUE** asombró al mundo*

*El silencio y la humillación no derrumbaron la leyenda de Jim Thorpe, el sioux sobre **QUIEN** habló todo el mundo durante los Juegos Olímpicos de 1912. Su nombre siempre se asociará a su actuación en las pruebas de pentatlón y decatlón de los Juegos en Estocolmo. Thorpe consiguió las dos medallas de oro y estableció un récord mundial de decatlón; el récord perduró 17 años.*

*Sin embargo, dos meses después de ganar los dos títulos, un periódico publicó una fotografía de jugadores de béisbol con **QUIENES** apareció Thorpe, enfundado en la camiseta de un equipo semiprofesional. Su participación en aquella Liga de verano vulneró los rígidos principios del amateurismo. Nada impidió el castigo del Comité Olímpico Internacional: suprimió el nombre de Thorpe de las listas de campeones olímpicos y le retiró las medallas.*

*Thorpe vivió sus últimos años abandonado y pobre, ignorado por los oficiales **QUE** borraron su nombre y marcas de las tablas de récordes. Murió Thorpe en la miseria en 1952. Tuvieron que pasar 32 años para que el COI devolviera las medallas de oro a su hija **QUE** las recibió en vísperas de los Juegos de 1984. Por fin, se restablecieron el nombre y las marcas en los libros registros olímpicos del hombre de **QUIEN** se comentó que era "el jugador teóricamente perfecto" y el mejor atleta del mundo.*

Note: The same exact passage was used for the unadulterated and the highlighted-forms conditions, except that for both of these conditions there appeared no instructions to focus on the specific grammatical features, and for the unadulterated condition the relative pronouns were not highlighted in any way.

Author

DAVID J. SHOOK, Associate Professor of Spanish, Department of Modern Languages, Ivan Allen College, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA 30332-0375. Specializations: foreign-language reading research, input processing, teacher training, curriculum development.

Applied Language Learning
1999, Vol. 10, Nos.1 & 2, pp. 77-122

The Effects of Reading Instruction on Reading Attitude and Reading Process by Korean Students Learning English as a Second Language

Jae-Suk Suh
Korea University

This article reports on a study designed to investigate the effects of reading instruction on reading attitude and reading process by Korean students learning English as a second language. In gathering data, two different methods were used: interviewing and thinking-aloud. Interviews were conducted to determine reading attitude, while think-aloud procedures were used to examine reading process. Participants in the study were two Korean learners of ESL who had received reading instruction for an average seven years in which vocabulary and grammatical knowledge were emphasized. They focused heavily on decoding words and analyzing sentence structure.

An analysis of data was done on the basis of content analysis suggested by Merriam (1998) and Strauss and Corbin (1990). The findings of the study suggest that participants' attitude toward reading in English clearly reflects the way of their having been taught reading (heavy emphasis on memorizing vocabulary, decoding words and analyzing sentence structures for the interpretation of a text). Concerning the reading process, however, the effect of reading instruction on the use of reading strategies was less clear. Despite participants' predominant use of bottom-up processing (e.g., the subjects used reading strategies of the linguistic category most frequently without regard to types of texts as compared to strategies of other categories), this was not thought to indicate a direct, exclusive relationship between the reading strategies participants employed and

their reading instruction history since there are many confounding factors at work (e.g., language proficiency and L2 language instruction, among others) which influence the use of reading strategies.

Finally, some suggestions are presented for the teaching of reading in EFL classrooms in Korea.

From a historical viewpoint, a variety of different reading models or theories have been proposed within the field of first language reading: automatic information processing theory (e.g., LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; McLaughlin, 1987; Samuels, 1994), the interactive model (e.g., Rumelhart, 1985), the transactional model (e.g., Rosenblatt, 1978, 1994) and the sociocognitive-processing model (e.g., Ruddell & Unrau, 1994). This plethora of reading models or theories demonstrates that reading is such a complicated and multifaceted cognitive process occurring in a reader's mind that no single model or theory can completely account for it (Dubin & Bycina, 1991; Hawkins, 1991). Hence, as Clarke (1980) suggests, "reading is perhaps the most thoroughly studied and least understood process in education today" (p. 203).

With respect to second (L2) or foreign language (FL) reading, it is often claimed that L2 reading has been taught with no systematic pedagogical approach founded on a generally accepted theory of reading in L2 (Young, 1989). One of the main reasons for the lack of an organized and systematic approach to L2 reading instruction lies in the influence of first language (L1) reading research on research on L2 reading both theoretically and methodologically. That is, since L2 reading research, like other areas of L2 research, has been greatly affected by L1 reading research in terms of theoretical bases and methodology (Fitzgerald, 1995; Grabe, 1991), there is no doubt that the variety and quantity of models or theories of reading in L1 play a significant role in both building L2 reading theories and making them diversified and varied. This theoretical diversity among L2 researchers and practitioners, according to Clarke (1980), has resulted in the lack of a generally accepted theory of reading in L2 and, therefore, has had a negative effect on the development of an organized and systematic approach to teaching L2 reading. As a result, L2 in-class reading has been neglected and dealt with unsystematically and inconsistently (Bernhardt, 1991; Young, 1989).

Many researchers provide a clear picture of how reading is approached and taught in L2 classrooms. Schulz (1983) describes the approach to L2 reading instruction as follows:

> teaching reading skills in the foreign language classroom are word-oriented... Learning activities consist of reading (often aloud) simplified, structurally graded texts, using controlled vocabulary, constructed specifically for classroom instruction. Students engage in word-by-word decoding and translation, followed by comprehension questions (who, what, when, where, how, etc.). Such decoding ... often becomes the only strategy with which the learner approaches an L2 text. (p. 127). how, etc.). Such decoding ... often becomes the only strategy with which the learner approaches an L2 text. (p. 127).

Similarly, Clarke (1980) offers a detailed description of the teaching of L2 in-class reading, stating that in ESL reading tasks, teachers spend most of their time on grammar and vocabulary, and organize the class for reading instruction in three stages: (1) An introduction to the vocabulary and structure contained in a reading; (2) Reading a passage and asking comprehension questions; and (3) Follow-up discussion, teacher explanation of the passage and comprehension exercises. Young (1989) and Clarke (1980) give an account of the practice of L2 reading and further express a concern about the unsystematic and unorganized approach to teaching L2 reading:

> Existing L2 reading in many beginning courses consists of reading a simplified text which has been written to incorporate certain vocabulary and structures. Students usually approach the text by decoding and translating word for word. The comprehension tasks following the reading are usually questions of who, what, when, where, how and how many (Young, 1989, p. 759). Textbooks at the intermediate and advanced levels generally contain a wide variety of reading selections, but the tendency for exercises to focus on vocabulary and grammar ... is dominated by a beginners model, one which emphasizes language instruction rather than reading instruction or more accurately, language instruction through a medium of reading. (Clarke, 1980, p. 203)

The above descriptions of L2 in-class reading instruction suggest that: (1) Learners are not taught reading with systematic and structured

procedures and under the guidance of skillful and knowledgeable teachers who take into account learners' needs, interests, and proficiency; (2) Reading is approached invariably in only one way, namely through a bottom-up approach in which learners work passively on written words on a text, identifying the smallest units such as letters and sounds, decoding words, and comprehending a text by linearly combining the meanings of all the words in a sentence; and (3) L2 in-class reading tends to place heavy emphasis on vocabulary and grammatical knowledge of rules and structures and therefore spends considerable time on them.

In sum, due in part to the lack of a generally accepted theory of L2 reading which would provide the theoretical foundation for an organized and systematic approach to L2 reading instruction, teaching reading has been done inconsistently and unsystematically in most L2 or FL classrooms. The characteristics of existing approaches to L2 in-class reading instruction show that reading is viewed primarily as bottom-up processing and that the role of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge is emphasized in comprehension. However, despite the widespread and long-standing use of this type of L2 reading instruction, research in L2 reading has paid little attention to how such an approach to reading instruction has an effect on attitude toward reading and reading comprehension. In other words, since various teaching approaches to reading emphasize different aspects of reading (e.g., a phonics or bottom-up approach emphasizes word decoding skills; a top-down approach focuses on the development and activation of background knowledge; and an interactive approach centers on both bottom-up and top-down processing skills), the question arises as to how the way language learners are taught reading affects their attitude toward reading and their use of reading strategies.

Evidence from L1 reading research indicates that the manner in which students are taught to read greatly affects their concepts of reading and reading process (Shapiro & White, 1991; Rasinski & DeFord, 1988; Cairney, 1988; Johns & Ellis, 1976). Shapiro & White (1991) examined the impact on the reading attitudes of elementary school students of two different types of reading instruction, i.e., traditional and nontraditional. They found that students in a traditional basal reader program showed less positive attitudes toward reading than did those in a nontraditional reading program in which no direct reading instruction from basal readers was given. Also students receiving the traditional reading instruction were shown to view themselves as poor readers and perceived reading as a decoding process.

Likewise, in an effort to determine how different reading and

writing curricula affect the perception and use of literacy, Rasinski & DeFord (1988) conducted a study in which first-grade students were exposed to three different teaching approaches to reading and writing: mastery learning, traditional, and a literature-based approach. It was shown that there was considerable congruence between the methods of reading and writing instruction and students' perceptions of literacy. In other words, students in the mastery learning approach tended to perceive reading and writing as a word decoding process, while those in the literature-based approach viewed reading and writing as a means to search for meaning. Students in the traditional approach showed a perception of literacy that fell between the other two approaches.

The above finding that the type of reading instruction affects reading attitude and perceptions of the reading process is further supported by Cairney (1988) and Johns & Ellis (1976). Cairney (1988), in a study which investigated the effects of basal reader instruction on primary school students' concepts of reading, showed that students from a basal reader background placed heavy emphasis on word recognition, vocabulary and accuracy of comprehension. In the same vein, Johns & Ellis (1976) examined reading attitudes shown by elementary school children and found that most children (particularly younger children) had little understanding of the reading process and viewed reading as primarily a decoding process.

The literature on EFL reading in Korea shows a very limited number of studies available which examine how reading instruction influences attitude toward reading and the comprehension of English texts. These studies include Im (1993) and Lee (1990). Im (1993) pointed out that teaching reading in EFL classrooms in Korea over the past decades has centered on word-for-word translation and grammar lessons. Im went on to say that an effective and systematic approach to L2 reading should be based on six essential elements of reading: reading speed, skimming and scanning, logical organization, syntactic structure, vocabulary, and cultural background as well as world knowledge.

In order to compare an experimental reading approach emphasizing these six essential elements of the reading process with a traditional one focusing on vocabulary and grammar, Im (1993) carried out a study in which 120 college students were divided into an experimental group and a control group and exposed to two different approaches (experimental *vs.* traditional). Also another group of 173 college students were given a questionnaire which included 16 items investigating reading habits and attitudes toward reading. The results of the study showed that there were statistically significant differences between the experimental group and the control group in reading speed and

comprehension. That is, the experimental reading approach was more effective than the traditional one in the teaching and learning of reading comprehension. Further, the experimental reading approach was found to result in more positive attitudes toward reading than the traditional one.

Lee (1990), in a similar vein to Im (1993), argued that the teaching approach to EFL reading in Korea has spent too much time on word recognition and grammar lessons. In an attempt to identify problems in reading comprehension and examine reading process, Lee conducted a study in which middle and high school students were asked to read and translate English texts. One of the important findings of the study was that students paid the most attention to decoding every word in a sentence and tried to combine the meanings of all the words in a linear fashion for the interpretation of the whole sentence. Thus, this finding suggests that the way two students had been taught reading affects their reading processes considerably.

Given that existing approaches to L2 in-class reading instruction emphasize bottom-up processing skills and the role of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge in reading on the one hand, and that little attempt has been made to examine the effect of such reading instruction on attitudes toward reading and the reading process in L2 reading research on the other, the present paper investigated two Korean students' attitudes toward reading in English and the reading process. Students of middle and high school in Korea are taught English through the grammar-translation method. A main goal of the grammar-translation method is to enable learners to translate from the target language into their native language, and therefore vocabulary and grammar are emphasized (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). The way Korean students of EFL are taught reading is very similar to that described earlier in L2 in-class reading. To be more specific, in EFL classes in Korea, reading usually occurs when students work on a reading passage in a textbook. Prior to reading, new vocabulary items that appear in a passage are introduced and memorized. Though sometimes, individual students are given a certain amount of time to read a passage silently by themselves, most of the time, the teacher himself/herself goes through one sentence at a time in the paragraph, decoding every word, analyzing sentence structure along with the explanation of grammatical rules contained in each sentence, translating individual sentences into Korean, and checking the understanding of the paragraph by asking comprehension questions (Im, 1993; Lee, 1990). So the question of how this type of reading instruction affects reading attitudes and reading processes of Korean students merits investigation.

In order to determine if the reading instruction of Korean students affects attitude toward reading in English and reading comprehension, this study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. How do Korean students describe the reading instruction that they received?
2. How do Korean students describe the reading strategies that they used?
3. Do the reading strategies Korean students use reflect the reading instruction they received?

In gathering data, two different methods were used: interviews and think-aloud procedures. Interviews were conducted to determine reading attitude while think-aloud procedures were employed to examine the reading process during the reading of English texts. Data from both methods were analyzed on the basis of the type of content analysis suggested by Merriam (1988) and Strauss & Corbin (1990). The results of the study can provide teachers of English in Korea with an opportunity to reflect on their ways of teaching reading. If the findings of the study reflect a link between type of instruction received and types of reading strategies used, teachers will be led to realize the important role they play in forming reading attitudes, influencing the reading process, and as a result, shaping the kinds of readers students become.

Definition of Terms

Since the focus of this study is on the effect of reading instruction on attitude toward reading and reading comprehension, the study makes extensive use of terms such as reading attitude, reading strategies, and reading instruction. In education, Mueller (1986) views attitude as a psychological construct which is hypothetical, unobservable, and immeasurable directly. Cothern and Collins (1992) define attitude as "a behavioral product resulting from multiple experiences with events or ideas" (p. 84). Other researchers (e.g., Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993) take a multidimensional view of attitude and suggest that attitude is composed of three components: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. On the basis of this multidimensional view of attitude, Lewis and Teale (1980) and Teale and Lewis (1981) think of reading attitude as a multifaceted construct which consists of three components: beliefs or opinions about reading (cognitive component), evaluations or feelings about reading (affective component), and intentions to read and actual reading (behavioral or conative component).

This study uses the latter definition of reading attitude since it is thought to be comprehensive enough to capture language learners' predispositions toward reading. In addition, this definition provides a basis for developing the interview questions given to the participants in order to elicit data on attitude toward reading.

Another term employed by the study is reading strategies. In the field of second language teaching and learning, strategies are generally defined as "actions, behaviors, steps or techniques .... used by learners to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information" (Oxford, Lavine, & Crookall, 1989, p. 29). In L1 and L2 reading research, there have been many definitions of reading strategies proposed to date, though no consensus among researchers has been made yet. For the purpose of this study, reading strategies are used to mean "a deliberate action that readers take voluntarily to develop an understanding of what they read" (Pritchard, 1990, p. 275).

The final term required for clarification is reading instruction. It is often argued that in traditional L2 classrooms, learners are rarely given reading instruction, though they are frequently engaged in the activity of reading (Bernhardt, 1991). What this argument attempts to suggest is that during the practice of reading, most teachers do not instruct how to approach a text strategically (how to use reading strategies and monitor the use of them) (Anderson, 1991). Rather, they tend to use reading as a means to teach vocabulary and grammar, or reinforce them. Dubin and Bycina (1991) make this point clear, holding that "too often foreign or second language reading instruction has simply been used as a vehicle through which to teach structure and lexis of the language rather than the skill of reading" (p. 198). Though the aforementioned argument truly makes sense, it seems to be based on a narrow concept of reading instruction which focuses only on developing reading strategies or skills with no full recognition of the crucial role of such factors as vocabulary and grammar in reading performance.

In contrast, this study takes a broad stance on the notion of teaching reading. It views reading instruction as any effort or activity to help learners to learn to read and attain an understanding of what they read. In this sense, Durkin (1974) introduces a broad and useful definition of reading instruction: "anything a teacher does that leads directly or indirectly, immediately or finally, to improvement in a child's (a learner's) ability to read" (p. 3). Based on this definition, the study uses reading instruction to mean that it involves any effort made by a teacher, or any activity taking place during the practice of L2 reading in order to help learners to understand a given text (teaching reading skills & techniques, learning vocabulary, teaching grammar, analyzing structures,

and conducting activities to apply & reinforce them). As Schulz (1983) suggests, reading instruction should consider teaching readers to develop "techniques for intensive reading" by focusing on vocabulary and linguistic features such as grammatical rules & structural analysis, not to mention "techniques for extensive reading" (p. 132).

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study were two Korean students who were studying English as a second language, and were enrolled in the Intensive English Program (I.E.P.) at a major university in the mid-western region of the US. The I.E.P. program of the university which has three proficiency levels (beginning, intermediate and advanced) aims at helping nonnative speakers to improve English language skills needed for achieving their academic or vocational goals (CELT, 1994).
Both participants were all in advanced proficiency level (level 6) of the I.E.P. Throughout the study, two fictitious names, Kim and Lee, were used in order to protect participants from any possible harm as a result of study.

Both participants had been enrolled in the same college in Korea before they came to the US. The first participant, Kim, majored in history education as a junior, while the second one, Lee, studied telecommunication as a senior. They were male, and ranged in age from 25 to 28 years. They had been studying English for an average 7 years in Korea, and had knowledge of another foreign language such as German or French. An average length of their stay in the US was 6 months. An informal interview conducted during the first meeting with participants showed that they had a strong motivation to improve their English language skills, particularly conversational skills, because they came to the US at their own expense to learn English and American culture in a naturalistic setting.

Data Collection

Data were gathered by means of two different methods: interviewing and thinking-aloud. In order to determine attitude toward reading, interviews were conducted. Since the main purpose of interviewing is to find out what is on an individual person's mind—i.e., feelings, thoughts, or intentions about directly unobservable things (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993)—interviewing was thought to be an

appropriate means to provide information on beliefs, feelings about reading and actual reading behaviors. On the other hand, a think-aloud method was used to investigate the reading process. Many L2 researchers (e.g., Cohen & Hosenfeld, 1981; Robinson, 1991) advocate the use of concurrent verbal self-reports such as think-aloud procedures as a data-gathering method to examine ongoing cognitive processes involving in L2 learning and use. One of the main reasons for the widespread use of think-aloud procedures in L2 research is that since think-aloud procedures ask participants to verbally report what they are doing and thinking during a given task, information stored in short-term memory is directly accessible for verbalizations (Ericsson & Simon, 1980). So concurrent verbal self-reports are considered a valuable source of information about the mental processing (Ericsson & Simon, 1980), and think-aloud procedures have been employed as an effective research tool to tap L2 learners' ongoing cognitive processes in areas such as reading, writing and learning strategies. During interviews and think-aloud sessions, in order to reduce the cognitive burden of simultaneous translation, participants were instructed to speak Korean unless they claimed that they would feel more comfortable using English (Robinson, 1991).

An interview with each participant lasted for about an hour, and a series of questions was asked which was designed to elicit data on beliefs, feelings about reading and on actual reading behaviors. Interview questions were developed on the basis of Burke (1977) and Chi (1992) as well as Teale & Lewis' (1981) multidimensional view of reading attitude (in this view, reading attitude consists of three components such as cognitive, affective and behavioral). Throughout the interviews, though the general meaning of each question remained constant, some modifications of a few questions were made for the purpose of clarification. Interviews were audiotaped for transcription. Interview questions are given below.

1. What do you think reading is?
2. Do you like reading Korean, and how often do you read?
3. Do you like reading English, and how often do you read?
4. Do you feel comfortable reading English?
5. Who do you think is a good reader of Korean?
6. Who do you think is a good reader of English?
7. When you are reading English, and you encounter something you don't know, what do you usually do?
8. What is the most difficult thing to do for you to be a good reader of English?

9. If your friend has difficulty reading English, how would you help him/her?
10. How did your teachers teach you reading in your English class?
11. Do you think there is the difference between reading Korean and reading English? If so, why do you think so?
12. In order to be a skillful reader of English, what is the most important thing?
13. As a reader of English, what are your strong, good points?/ weak points?
14. Do you think you are a good reader? Why/why not?

Immediately after the interviews, verbal data were analyzed temporarily and roughly to see if there was more information needed and if any themes or categories emerged. As a result, a week after the first interviews, follow-up interviews were conducted to get more information on some of the above questions and on emergent categories.

On the other hand, to examine the reading process, think-aloud procedures were conducted which yielded a number of reading strategies employed during the reading of two different texts. The first text, *The Fatal Shore*, which was taken from Time magazine, was a tragic, nonfiction story, and the second one, *Sweet Promised Land*, which was written by Laxalt (1957), was a biographical story. More specifically, *The Fatal Shore* contained approximately 390 words, and dealt with a theme of a tragedy of one family. *Sweet Promised Land* included about 400 words, and was the story about a father who arrived in America for the first time, and was not accustomed to American culture.

The major differences between the two texts lie in difficulty of vocabulary and complexity of language. That is, *The Fatal Shore* contained more difficult vocabulary (e.g., words, phrases and idioms) and different types of complex sentence and complex noun phrases such as subordinate clauses and relative clauses, as compared to *Sweet Promised Land*. The selection of these two different texts was based on the assumption that participants who had received reading instruction emphasizing vocabulary and syntactic knowledge would pay more attention to decoding words and analyzing sentence structures in *The Fatal Shore* than in *Sweet Promised Land*. These two texts are illustrated in Appendix A.

Two days after the first interviews, think-aloud procedures were conducted. In order to make sure that participants knew what they were supposed to do during think-aloud sessions, they had practice sessions during which they were given a text and instructed to read it until they found star marks on it. They then were asked to stop reading

and encouraged to verbalize everything that they had done (e.g., thoughts, feelings, emotions and so on) during the reading. After completing the practices, think-aloud sessions were held with two texts, i.e., *The Fatal Shore* and *Sweet Promised Land*. Participants were given *The Fatal Shore* first, and *Sweet Promised Land* later. Each tape-recorded session took about thirty minutes, and there was a fifteen-minute break between the two sessions. During the sessions, in order to avoid the effect of the cognitive burden of simultaneous translation on reading performance (Robinson, 1991), the participants were instructed that they could use their L1 and they chose to speak in Korean.

Data Analysis

Since participants in the study used Korean during interviews and think-aloud sessions, all data audiotaped were transcribed in Korean verbatim, and then, translated into English. The English versions of transcriptions were given back to the participants to make sure that what they had said and talked about during interviews and the reading of texts was all included in transcriptions. Interview transcripts and think-aloud protocols are attached to Appendix B and C, respectively.

An analysis of data was done on the basis of the content analysis suggested by Merriam (1988) and Strauss & Corbin (1990) with the following procedures taken. For interview data, first, the transcriptions of interviews were unitized in such a way that each sentence in the transcriptions was read carefully several times with a focus on its content in order to identify units of information which were relevant to the topic of the study and could stand by itself. Second, each unit of information was put on a separate index card and coded according to situational factors (i.e., what, when, where, who, how, and so on). Third, to develop categories, units of information which represented similar concepts were grouped together through comparing one unit of information with the next one. So from the pile of units (i.e., index cards), the first card was selected, read, and placed to one side. Then, the second card was selected and read in order to determine whether its content was similar to that of the first card. If so, the second card was put with the first. However, if not, the second card was placed in a different place. Fourth, each new card was read and compared to previous cards to determine whether it was similar to one of the previous cards or whether it was different, which would represent a new category. In this way, all index cards were read and compared to one another. In the end, a set of categories emerged. These categories were reviewed to see what they were and to determine whether they overlapped or were related to one another.

Finally, each category was given a name which best represented the phenomenon of a given category.

Like the interview data, verbal self-report data from think-aloud sessions were content analyzed. First, the transcriptions of verbal self-responses, i.e., think-aloud protocols were read carefully several times with a focus on content, which resulted in the total of 89 reading strategies. Second, each reading strategy was placed on a separate index card with its key concept written down in the margin of the card. Third, from the pile of index cards, each new card was selected one after another, comparing its key concept to that of previous cards in order to determine whether it was similar or different. If similar, a new card was placed with the previous cards, and if not it was put in another place. In this way, all cards were read, and categories gradually emerged from the data. Finally, categories were reviewed and compared to one another to see if there was a category overlap. Each category then was given a name which best represented the reading strategies concerned.

Assumptions About the Topic and Trustworthiness

As mentioned earlier, students of middle and high school in Korea are taught English through the grammar-translation method, which focuses on learning vocabulary and grammatical knowledge of rules and structures. Under this method, reading instruction is given in such a way that students memorize new vocabulary prior to reading, decode words, analyze each sentence structure in a reading passage, and translate individual sentences into Korean. The participants of the study and this researcher had been taught reading exactly in this way.

Thus, the present study was undertaken with considerable optimism that the participants of the study would show beliefs and feelings about reading in English and the reading process which would reflect the way they had been taught reading during their school days. In other words, they would be likely to emphasize the crucial role of vocabulary and syntactic knowledge in the reading of English and to frequently use reading strategies which show that participants pay considerable attention to the linguistic components of a text to determine the meaning of words and individual sentence structures for interpretation.

Given these biases, several measures were taken to enhance the credibility and dependability of the findings of the study. First, data was gathered by two different methods-although they were used for different purposes (interviews were used to determine reading attitude, while a think-aloud method to examine the reading process)-data from both methods complement each other in the sense that a specific reading

attitude which participants hold would play a significant role in the use of reading strategies during reading. So the use of two different data collection methods was thought to contribute to the increase of the internal validity of the findings of the study. Second, all transcriptions were given back to participants to ensure that what they had said during interviews and what they had talked aloud during think-aloud sessions were all included. Third, emergent categories and the findings of the study were taken to participants as well as to colleagues in my department to see if they were plausible.

Findings

Reading Attitude

Beliefs, Feelings and Actual Reading Behaviors as a Function of Reading Instruction

As pointed out earlier, students of middle and high school in Korea are taught English through the grammar-translation method, which emphasizes the learning of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge. Among many possible reasons for grammatically-oriented English classrooms is the presence of a college entrance examination in which the section on English language mostly measures conscious grammatical knowledge and the ability to comprehend a variety of reading passages (Im, 1993). During the practice of reading, Korean students are usually taught reading in the following way: memorizing new vocabulary items which appear in a reading passage; decoding words and analyzing sentence structures; and translating individual sentences into Korean. The respondents of this study, Kim and Lee, made this point clear:

> *Kim:* My teachers in high school usually explained main grammatical rules and structures prior to reading, introduced new vocabulary, and interpreted a reading passage sentence by sentence with a focus on main grammatical points.
>
> *Lee:* English teachers read a text sentence by sentence, and translated it into Korean. When encountering new words, he/she told us their meanings, and wrote the words down on a blackboard with their synonyms and antonyms. Also each sentence was analyzed, and explained in detail. All these, I think, were done for the exam, i.e., college entrance exam.

Lee viewed reading as a means to cultivate one's mind and to get information for communication with others, while Kim believed reading to be a comprehension process. Further, Kim stated that "I enjoy reading Korean for fun and pleasure. I read essays, stories and novels for about 5 hours everyday." Lee thought of reading Korean as an unconscious process and read a variety of books of interest to him, such as political and philosophical books and novels. However, both respondents expressed negative feelings about reading English, i.e., discomfort and nervousness. As they stated:

> *Kim:* Usually reading of English gives me headache and makes me mentally tired. When engaging in reading of English, I feel like finishing it as soon as possible. To me, reading in English is not for a kind of behavior of learning a language, but for tests or grades (being assessed), so that I'm always nervous and uncomfortable during reading English.
>
> *Lee:* Whenever reading English, I feel nervous. I always worry about whether I can get the meaning of all words, and interpret individual sentences in a text. If I can't, I start to become nervous, and feel uncomfortable...I really wanted to read English novels. Because of the lack of vocabulary and difficult sentence structures, it always took so much time to finish one novel, which made me frustrated, nervous and even afraid of engaging in the reading of English novels.

As compared to reading in Korean where the respondents chose a variety of reading materials for fun and pleasure, they engaged in reading in English in order to study vocabulary, linguistic rules and structures, and conversational expressions. To this end, they selected specific types of reading materials, such as newspapers, magazines, and the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). Lee stated that "I used to read newspapers and Newsweek magazine for the learning of vocabulary and [sentence] structures. And I also studied the TOEFL. ... I think I focused on learning vocabulary and grammatical rules and structures rather than getting information or enjoying reading." Further, while reading such materials as newspapers and magazines, they tended to pay most of their attention to decoding words and analyzing

sentence structures. Kim said, "I read newspapers which is useful for learning vocabulary and practical expressions for everyday communication. In so doing, I usually focus on decoding words and figuring out sentence structures for interpretation, because I was so accustomed to this habit."

From the above, it follows that there are clear differences between reading Korean and reading English, pertaining to the purpose, selection of reading materials, and the way the respondents engage in reading. In other words, reading in Korean is an unconscious process in which the respondents enjoy reading for fun and pleasure with the choice of materials at will, whereas in reading of English, they intend to learn vocabulary, grammatical knowledge and conversational skills with the selection of specific types of materials. One possible explanation for these differences is that for more than 7 years, they had received reading instruction in which vocabulary and grammatical knowledge were emphasized, and they focused mainly on decoding words and analyzing sentence structures. Therefore, perhaps the way they had been taught reading plays a significant role in determining reading purpose, materials selection and actual reading process in L2 reading.

In addition, both respondents seem to have developed certain types of reading techniques in the reading of English. When encountering difficult or unknown words, the respondents said that they guessed the meaning of words, referred to a dictionary, used knowledge of etymology and contexts, or skipped them. Kim pointed out the importance of analyzing sentence structure in comprehending a text, stating that "I think analyzing sentence structure is most important in interpreting a sentence, and when I encountered complex sentence structure, I tried to figure out how it was made by analyzing it. If I can't still understand it, I read the next sentence or go back to the previous one."

Reading Instruction as Reflected in Fluent Reading, Reading Ability, and Language Differences

The tendency of respondents to place heavy emphasis on decoding words and analyzing sentence structures in reading English seems to greatly affect their concept of a skillful, fluent reader of English, their evaluation of reading ability and their view of differences between languages. First, both Kim and Lee consistently stressed the crucial role of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge in becoming a good, skillful reader of English. Kim said that "Basic grammatical rules and structures underlying sentences should be learned. Also vocabulary

should be learned and memorized as much as possible." In the same vein, Lee stated that "It is important to be exposed to a variety of sentence structures, and to practice them over and over again. Of course, to have a large vocabulary and basic grammatical knowledge of rules and structures is essential to fluent reading in English." In addition, as components of skillful, fluent reading, Kim pointed out background knowledge, high language aptitude, and speed of reading, and Lee stated that "a skillful reader of English should possess a large vocabulary and a variety of background knowledge.... and be able to read fast, catch the main idea of a text fast, and capture the meaning between lines."

Second, the respondents tended to evaluate their L2 reading ability in terms of factors such as linguistic knowledge, vocabulary, background knowledge, and speed of reading when given the question "As a reader of English, what are your strong, good points?/weak points?"

> *Kim:* I think my strong point is that I have language sense. That is, I can interpret a sentence in a variety of ways with different meanings. My weak point is that I do not have enough vocabulary and the ability to interpret idiomatic expressions for comprehension.
>
> *Lee:* I think I have a sound knowledge of grammatical rules and structures. But I can not catch the main idea of a text fast. .. I don't have appropriate background knowledge and sufficient vocabulary... I can't read fast.

Third, when asked to describe the differences between the two languages (Korean and English) which make reading in English difficult, the respondents drew on vocabulary and a variety of grammatical aspects of the language such as intonation, stress, pronunciation, word order, relative clauses and pronouns, using these as criteria for comparing the two languages. Kim stated that "I think the big difference lies in vocabulary. Only if you know a large number of vocabulary, it is possible to make meaning out of the text..... I think every language is basically the same in terms of concepts of word meaning and grammatical systems which regulate the formation of sentence, so that a good reader of Korean is also good at reading English." Lee said that the "Two languages differ in intonation, stress, pronunciation, word order, relative clauses and the usage of pronouns, which makes reading in English difficult."

It is clear that even though both respondents viewed vocabulary and linguistic knowledge as an important component of reading in English, they seemed to know that this (a heavy focus on words and sentence structures) is not an ideal way to approach an L2 reading task. Lee claimed that "I tended to focus too much on words, idioms and structures, which sometimes I think, wastes time.... I think since we learned words in isolation and with only one meaning, now I have difficulty figuring out in which contexts each word should be used appropriately. This is a bad way of learning vocabulary, because every word needs to be practiced within contexts." Kim stated that "I hope that the time I spent working on words and sentence structures could be reduced, because of it [working on words and sentence structures], I couldn't get the main idea of a text fast."

Further, Lee emphasized the role of culture in language learning, stating that "a language is related so closely to culture and everyday life, and language learners should keep this in mind in order to be a good second language reader." He expressed a strong preference for living in the US in order to become a fluent, skillful reader of English, saying that "since in the US, I feel comfortable, because I am exposed to American culture, and can have access to a variety of information, which I think is conducive to reading in English."

Similarly, Kim pointed out the importance of learning a second language in a target community, i.e., the US, stating that "I didn't realize that I had learned English passively until I came to the US."

Reading process

An analysis of think-aloud protocols identified many different types of reading strategies. These strategies were further classified into five major categories, which constitutes the reading strategy inventory in this study. During the classification, Anderson's (1991), Chi's (1992), Li & Munby's (1996), Pritchard's (1990) and Young's (1993) inventory of reading strategies served as references. An inventory of the five categories of reading strategies developed in the study is provided in Table 1 with definitions and sample responses from data.

Table 1

Inventory of Categories of Reading Strategies Used in The Fatal Shore

Linguistic:	•The respondents responded not only to linguistic components such as words phrases, idioms, sentence structures, pronunciation, spelling and tense in a sentence, but also to features of textual format like the usage of colon, semicolon, and punctuation.
Background Knowledge:	•"I'm not sure whether *would return* indicates present or past tense." •The respondents associated the contents of a current text with background knowledge such as world knowledge, personal life experiences and experiences with examinations.
Text-Based:	•"In America, when a husband moves to the other state for a job, do the husband and wife usually divorce? I can't understand this as compared to Korea." •The respondents responded to the contents of a current text through raising questions, creating/asserting their own views, and speculating/reacting effectively to text contents.
Reading Skills:	•"It seems to be a tragic story. It seems to be right." •The respondent reported reading techniques such as referring to previous sentences using contexts, rereading, reading ahead, inferring, skipping, translating into the first language and visualizing words or phrases.
Self-Monitoring:	•"I think about its meaning within the whole context, but I don't know and skip it." •The respondents expressed knowledge or showed control over their cognitive processes through monitoring, evaluating, and criticizing their reading processes or behaviors in relation to other skills of a language. •"*Leaves behind* is easy to comprehend, but in composition, it's not easy to use this expression."

On the basis of the above five categories, reading strategies used by two respondents, Kim and Lee, during the reading of English texts were classified (see Tables 2 and 3).

Table 2

Categories of Reading Strategies Used in The Fatal Shore

Category of Reading Strategy	Examples	Frequency/ Total Percentage
Linguistic	•I'm not sure whether *would return* indicates present or past tense. •What's *quarterback*? •*Dwain* and *Diane* make me confused due to the similarity in spelling. •What's the meaning of *deprived of*? •*Scatter* and *chatter* make me confused, because the latter part of them is the same. •However, there should be a dash (-) *pass* and *by*? •What is *trauma*? Is this tragedy? •*Tt* in *committed* shows the way of changing a verb from present to past tense by adding one more *t* due to the sequence of vowel + consonant. •The *oceanfront she loved* has a relative clause omitted. •*Out of control* I haven't seen many times. •I am always nervous to see the sentence containing *ever.* •Preposition in front of relative clause always makes me nervous and uncomfortable. •What does *opted* mean? •Period (.) in *ft.* makes me think that the sentence ends, but seeing the small letter coming in the next, I realized that the sentence is still continued. •Colon (:) is frequently used in newspaper and magazine •I don't know the meaning of *knocked them into water*. •I feel uncomfortable pronouncing *Diane Painter*.	24, 24/61 (39%)

	•I can't see the meaning of *not long afterward*. •*Surf* appears to be a difficult word. •I never saw the structure *deprived of what might otherwise*. •I feel uncomfortable in seeing a person's name here, because I'm not sure whether I an pronounce it accurately. •What does *wrench* mean? •What does *poetic closure* mean? •The sentence "*He was taken to an area hospital*," seems strange and somewhat difficult to interpret. Rather the sentence "*He was taken to an area hospital by a passerby*," is more grammatical and easier to understand.	
Background Knowledge	•In America, when a husband moves to the other state for a job, do the husband and wife usually divorce? I can't understand this as compared to Korea. •*Panorama* reminds me of scenery or the nature. •I thought about this year's Super Bowl game, and came to know that this story is not related to this year's game. •Because I know Pittsburgh Steelers is one of the football teams, this helps me to interpret this sentence. •I can't make many associations here. •*Carbon* reminds me of hazardous materials such as lead, and *carbon monoxide poisoning* may be a kind of poison. •*Feet* reminds me of historical events, because many kings adjusted or made new measurement systems for their countries. •*Crawl* reminds me of swimming and babies crawling.	14, 14/61 (32%)

	•This reminds me of the movie. •*Suicide* reminds me of the idiom *commit suicide* and *kill oneself* which my English teacher in high school emphasized because of their frequent appearance in exams. •*Decade* reminds me of the exam which asked "*How many years are there in a decade?*" •*Passerby* reminds me of the compound words which appeared in one of the exams. •*Swept out to* was in TOEFL. •I didn't read the whole word if it is the name of a place, because I have to save time when in the exam.	
Text-Based	•Does *Painter* indicate ex-wife of Dwain Painter or the man who paints? •The *names of places* here and *panorama* seem to be related to *suicide*. •I can't understand why high school students date and get married to each other in such and early age. •*Debbie* must be a human being. •I don't know whether they were board on a ship or standing on the ground. •I don't know whether the lady died or is alive yet. •By children I think they have children. •I think the children seem to be very sad. •It seems to be a tragic story. It seems to be right.	9, 9/61 (15%)
Reading Skills	•*Upward* is an easy word, but I can't see its image well. •I put the structure *exploded 25 ft upward* in my mind. •At first, I read the title of a text to see what it would be about. •I don't know whether the Painter committed suicide, died, or is still alive. I need to look at it further.	10, 10/61 (16%)

	•I go back to the title of a text. •*Ft.* is *feet*? I can't imagine how high 20 ft. is. •I read this again. •I translated it to Korean, but still don't understand, and skip it. •I think about its meaning within the whole context, but I don't know and skip it. •In this case, I usually read it twice.	
Self-Monitoring	•*Leaves behind* is easy to comprehend, but in composition, it's not easy to use this expression. •If *1988* is written, I understand it quite well, but when it is read, I might have a hard time comprehending it. •I can't interpret it. •It seems that I know the meanings of all words, but I don't see the main idea here.	4, 4/61 (7%)

Table 2 shows that during the reading of *The Fatal Shore*, both respondents, Kim and Lee, used reading strategies belonging to the Linguistic category more frequently than any other strategy. The total use of reading strategies in this category is 39%. A close look at the reading strategies in the Linguistic category indicates that the respondents responded to a variety of linguistic components such as words, phrases, idioms, sentence structures, pronunciation, spelling and tense in a sentence. Among these linguistic components, the one that the respondents focused mainly on was words. That is, they paid considerable attention to identifying or recognizing words.

Apart from the Linguistic category, reading strategies in other categories were also used: Background knowledge (23%), Text-based (15%), and Reading skills (16%). The use of reading strategies in these three categories shows that while the respondents focused heavily on decoding words, at the same time, they drew on their own background knowledge, interacted with text content, and used various reading techniques in order to make meaning out of a text. In addition, the respondents employed four reading strategies belonging to the Self-monitoring category, which comprises 7% of the total use of reading strategies. Reading strategies in this category are meta-cognitive ones.

Through the use of these strategies, the respondents monitored, evaluated and criticized their reading processes or behaviors in relation to other language skills such as writing and listening.

One of the interesting findings in Table 2 is that among reading strategies in the Background knowledge category, some are related to the respondents' experiences with tests and test-taking skills. The following are examples.

> •*Suicide* reminds me of the idiom *commit suicide* and *kill oneself* which my English teacher in a high school emphasized because of their frequent appearance in exams.
> •*Decade* reminds me of the exam which asked "*How many years are there in a decade?"*
> •*Passerby* reminds me of the compound words which appeared in one of the exams.
> •*Swept out to* was in TOEFL.
> •I didn't read the whole word if it is the name of a place, because I have to save time when in the exam.

One primary reason for the occurrence of the above reading strategies lies in the presence of a college entrance examination in Korea. As mentioned earlier, as far as the participant of English in the college entrance examination is concerned, the exam mostly measures conscious grammatical knowledge and the ability to comprehend a variety of reading passages in a relatively short period of time. So in order for students to get high scores in the exam, English teachers give instruction centering not only on the learning of grammatical knowledge but also on the development of test-taking skills.

Table 3
Categories of Reading Strategies Used in Sweet Promised Land

Category of Reading Strategy	Examples	Frequency/Total
Linguistic	What's the meaning of *bother?* Is it pronounced as *bather* or *bouther*? *Hear of* and *hear from* make me	2, 2/28 (7%)

	confused and nervous. *Run short* is an idiomatic expression, or not? I can't interpret the structure *the waiter stopped short* and *straight up*. •What does *through* in *made it through* mean? •*Plenty by now* I don't understand this. •the sentence "*This one's fine*," looks grammatically strange, and is this expression OK? •I guess *pop* indicates father, and if it is true, I've never seen this word meaning of a father. •I never saw the word *concernedly in my father concerned* here. •Why is it used with by instead of, *of*?	
Background Knowledge	•In the sentence "*the waiter retreated to the back of the room and stood there watching us from long distance*," the waiter appears to be sad, but service was better in the U.S. than in Korea where this case should make the waiter angry and even give an insult to the father.	2, 2/28 (7%)
Text-Based	•*Manage* reminds me of manager. •I thought John was a friend, but is a member of a family. •Father must be an idiosyncratic. •Father seems to be strict, and idiosyncratic. •Goodness for some people may result in harm to others. •Ah, I see, they were done sequentially. •Is there one more waiter there?	8, 8/28 (29%)
Reading Skills	•Why was this used with *soup and salad* here? I don't know.	4, 4/28 (14%)

Self-Monitoring	•Whenever I read this kind of story, I suppose that it would be interesting, or ridiculous and I often tend to see the end of the story. •In he took a deep drag of his cigarette and leaned forward again, I usually ignore this kind of sentences which provide background information. •I can imagine "*gestured with head*" in my mind. •*Blink* I think about it in the mind. •I usually focus on "*I am sorry*," and "*I am finished*" expressions because they are very useful for communicative purposes. •Though I know the word *frenzy*, I don't see it's meaning here, probably because I never used and practiced it in context.	2, 2/28 (7%)

As was the case with Table 2, Table 3 shows that the reading strategies which the respondents used most frequently during the reading of *Sweet Promised Land* were those in the Linguistic category. The reading strategies in this category comprised 43% of the total use of strategies, which indicates that the respondents spent considerable time working on linguistic components such as words, phrases, sentence structure and pronunciation. Other reading strategies used were those in the categories of Text-based (29%), Reading skills (14%), Background knowledge (7%), and Self-monitoring (7%). Among these categories, of particular interest is the Background knowledge category, the strategies of which were used much less frequently than those employed during the reading of *The Fatal Shore* discussed below.

The finding that both respondents used the reading strategies of the Linguistic category most frequently during the reading of both *The Fatal Shore* and *Sweet Promised Land* is interesting, and needs to be explained. As stated earlier, the differences between the two texts (*The Fatal Shore* and *Sweet Promised Land*) lie in difficulty of vocabulary and complexity of language. That is, *The Fatal Shore* contains many difficult words and idioms and different types of complex sentences and complex noun phrases, such as subordinate clauses and relative

clauses, as compared to *Sweet Promised Land*. So it was assumed that the respondents would pay more attention to decoding words and analyzing sentence structure in *The Fatal Shore* than in *Sweet Promised Land*. On the other hand, simple sentence structure and easy vocabulary in *Sweet Promised Land* should enable them to save time on decoding words and working on sentence structures and turn their attention to top-down processing.

However, this was not the case as can be seen in Table 3, showing that only two reading strategies in the Background knowledge category were used during the reading of *Sweet Promised Land*. This means that the respondents still placed a heavy focus on decoding words and analyzing sentence structure, even though there was considerable interaction (29%) with text content through raising questions and creating and asserting their own views. Among many possible explanations for the consistency in the respondents' paying more attention to words and sentence structure is the way the respondents had been taught reading. In other words, their reading instruction, which had placed heavy emphasis on the role of vocabulary and linguistic knowledge in reading tasks, would so accustom the respondents to the behavior of word decoding and structural analysis of sentences that they would come to use this reading behavior unconsciously or habitually whenever they encountered English texts.

Discussion

The Korean learners of ESL made it clear that for more than seven years, they had been taught reading in a way that they were driven to memorizing vocabulary, decoding words, and analyzing sentence structure in order to interpret English texts. With regard to attitude toward reading in L2, while they thought of reading in Korean as an unconscious process and enjoyed it for fun and pleasure, this was not the case with reading in English. That is, they viewed reading in English as a mentally painful process which resulted in discomfort and nervousness. Rather than reading for fun and pleasure through the choice of a variety of reading materials at will, they engaged in reading in English for the purpose of studying vocabulary, linguistic rules and structures, and conversational expressions by selecting specific types of materials like newspapers, magazines and the TOEFL. Further, while reading materials such as newspapers and magazines, they tended to pay most of their attention to decoding words and analyzing sentence structures.

Second, the Korean learners viewed the skillful, fluent reader

of English as one who possesses a large amount of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge, reads fast, and commands a great degree of background knowledge. Also, they evaluated their second language reading ability according to those factors such as vocabulary, linguistic knowledge, background knowledge, and speed of reading. In the same vein, they tended to see the differences between the two languages (Korean and English) in terms of vocabulary and grammatical aspects of a language such as word order, relative clause constructions, pronunciation, intonation and stress. Third, according to the Korean learners, the way they had been taught reading was not an ideal way to approach reading in L2. They pointed out that memorizing words in isolation prevented them from learning how words are used in a variety of contexts, and focusing too much attention on words made it difficult for them to capture the main idea of a text fast. They emphasized the crucial role of culture in language learning and the importance of learning a second language in the target community, expressing a strong preference for living in the US in order to become skillful, fluent readers of English.

In sum, the differences between reading Korean and reading English can be explained by the manner in which Korean learners had been taught reading where vocabulary and linguistic knowledge were highly emphasized, and they focused on decoding words and analyzing sentence structures for the interpretation of a text. Thus, the results outlined above indicate that the approach to L2 reading instruction that the two Korean learners had been exposed to for more than seven years in a classroom setting influenced the formation of their attitude toward reading in English to a great extent.

Concerning the reading process, in their reading of two English texts (*The Fatal Shore* and *Sweet Promised Land*), Korean learners used reading strategies of the Linguistic category most frequently, though they employed other reading strategies belonging to such categories as the Text-based, Reading skills, and Background knowledge. Quite often, they responded to linguistic components such as words, phrases, idioms, sentence structures, pronunciation, spelling and tense in a sentence. This clearly shows that they placed considerable attention on decoding words and analyzing sentence structures without regard to whether vocabulary was easy or difficult, and whether sentence structure was simple or complicated. One possible explanation for this lies with an approach to reading instruction where reading is viewed primarily as bottom-up processing by emphasizing the critical role of vocabulary and syntactic knowledge in a reading task.

Though the above explanation for the Korean learners'

predominant use of word-oriented/local strategies sounds plausible and cogent, one can raise the question of to what extent the reading strategies which Korean learners employed reflect the way they had been instructed to read in L2. In other words, the relationship between reading strategies and reading instruction may not be simple and straightforward since the use of reading strategies is affected by a variety of factors (e.g., vocabulary and syntactic knowledge, language proficiency, transfer of L1 reading skills to L2, type of reader (e.g., good/successful vs poor/unsuccessful reader) and L2 language instruction, among others) (Fitzgerald, 1995). So the reading strategies used by Korean learners might not be a mere reflection of their reading instruction, and it is necessary to take into account some of the factors which are most likely to influence L2 reading strategy-use with a focus on the reading strategies employed by Korean learners.

First, as mentioned earlier, it is often claimed that reading activity takes place in L2 classes, while reading instruction is rarely given (Bernhardt, 1991). This indicates that during the practice of reading, teachers do not teach readers to use reading strategies and monitor the use of them, instead, they use reading as a means to teach grammar and vocabulary or reinforce them (Dubin & Bycina, 1991). In this sense, the tendency of Korean learners to adopt local/bottom-up processing strategies (i.e., "those having to do with word-meaning, sentence syntax and text details," Carrell, 1989. p. 126) might not be a result of their reading instruction but a product of their L2 language instruction, namely the grammar-translation method that teaches grammatical rules & structure, and requires students to learn/memorize vocabulary. Thus, it is not clear whether or not there exists a direct, exclusive relationship between reading strategies used by Korean learners and their reading instruction.

On the other hand, if we take a broader concept of reading instruction, and view it as any effort made by a teacher, or any activity taking place during the practice of L2 reading in order to help learners to understand a given text (i.e., reading instruction involves teaching not only reading strategies & skills, but also vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure analysis, and any activity to apply & reinforce vocabulary and grammar), those reading strategies produced by the Korean learners can be viewed as the result of reading instruction during which they memorized vocabulary, decoded words, analyzed sentence structures, and translated individual sentences into Korean. Clearly the present study takes this broad definition of reading instruction and maintains that there is a considerable link between the reading strategies used by Korean learners and their reading instruction history.

Second, the reading strategies reported in this study show the Korean learners' predominant use of bottom-up processing strategies in L2 reading. According to research on reading strategy-use (e.g., Carrell, 1989; Clarke, 1980; Hosenfeld, 1976), good, successful readers tend to search for meaning by using global/top-down processing skills, while poor, unsuccessful readers rely heavily on local/bottom-up processing skills by focusing on word-by-word decoding and translation. In light of this evidence, the Korean learners in this study can be seen as unsuccessful readers. However, as the findings of the study show, despite a small number, the Korean learners also employed other reading strategies which successful readers are likely to use. This suggests that while they approached texts mainly through bottom-up processing skills, at the same time they employed various global/top-down processing skills by interacting with text content, drawing on background knowledge and using various reading techniques in order to make meaning out of texts (Eskey, 1986; Li & Munby, 1996). According to Vann & Abraham (1990), who investigated the strategy-use of two unsuccessful learners, unsuccessful language learners were not necessarily inactive strategy users and used strategies in a similar way to successful learners in terms of the variety and the repertoire of strategies.

Third, despite a wide recognition of the crucial role of language proficiency in the L2 reading process (Fitzgerald, 1995; Clarke, 1980), there has been no agreement among researchers on the relationship between reading strategies and language proficiency. In a study in which English-speaking learners of Spanish in four levels of proficiency (from first to fourth year) were asked to perform think-alouds on two different types of text, i.e., authentic and edited passages, Young (1993) found no difference among learners across proficiency levels in the use of reading strategies. In other words, all learners used local/word-oriented strategies in their reading of both texts, regardless of proficiency levels.

On the other hand, Cziko (1980), in order to determine how language competence affects the use of reading strategies, undertook a study in which two groups of English-speaking learners of French (one group in the intermediate level and the other in the advanced) and a group of native speakers of French as a control group were instructed to read two French texts aloud. After the completion of each text, all participants were asked to answer three comprehension questions, which were tape-recorded. The findings of the study show that the advanced group used "an interactive strategy" drawing on both graphic and contextual information to the same extent as did the native speakers of French, whereas the intermediate group relied mainly on bottom-up processing strategies centering on graphic information. In a similar vein,

Wolff (1987) proposes a hypothesis on the relationship between reading strategies and language proficiency, maintaining that "L2 learners who have acquired a certain amount of linguistic knowledge in their L2 can use bottom-up processing to a higher degree, although a predominance in favor of top-down processes will still be noticeable. Only L2 learners who have developed a high linguistic competence in their L2 will reach a harmony comparable to L1 processing." (p. 313)

Clarke (1980) demonstrated what a critical role language proficiency plays in L2 reading. In an attempt to examine transfer of L1 reading skills to L2 reading, Clarke conducted a study in which Spanish learners of ESL in a low proficiency level were asked to read both Spanish and English texts aloud. Right before this oral reading performance, the Spanish learners took Spanish cloze tests and according to their performance on them, were classified into good and poor L1 readers. The findings of the study show that while learners identified as good L1 readers focused more on semantic cues than those identified as poor readers in the reading of Spanish texts, the former produced more syntactic miscues than the latter in the reading of English texts. It was concluded that learners' limited proficiency in English prevented them from using "good reader's system" (global processing strategies), and forced them to rely on "poor reader strategies" (local processing strategies). In light of this finding, it can be assumed that, as the Korean learners were at the advanced level, they should have employed the "good reader's system" by mainly using the top-down strategy of activating background knowledge, personal experience, or world knowledge.

In sum, in light of the above mixed results, it is not clear to what extent and in what ways language proficiency affects the use of reading strategies. Except for Young (1993), researchers (i.e., Cziko, 1980; Wolff, 1987; Clarke, 1980) suggest that the Korean learners who had reached a high language proficiency would be expected to attain balanced development between bottom-up processing and top-down processing skills and to harmoniously use both processing skills in their reading of texts. Or at least, they should have focused on getting meaning out of texts by mainly employing global/top-down processing strategies.

However, as the results of the study show, this was not the case. That is, the Korean learners used a large number of word-oriented/ local strategies in reading as compared to a small number of global strategies, i.e., those belonging to the Background knowledge category. Among the many possible explanations for this heavy reliance on bottom-up processing skills is the way they had been taught reading in L2.

The examination of the reading strategies used by the Korean

learners, along with the factors influencing reading strategy-use, shows that reading strategies are not necessarily a direct reflection of how they had been taught reading. They can be a product of readers' L2 language instruction and are also affected by proficiency levels. Thus, the relationship between reading strategies and reading instruction is not simple and straightforward, as might be assumed when analyzing the data. Though there is little doubt that the reading strategies produced by the Korean learners are influenced considerably by the way they had been taught L2 reading, it is hard to assert that there exists a direct, exclusive link between the reading strategies and the Korean learners' reading instruction history.

Conclusion

The focus of this paper has been on determining how the manner in which Korean learners of ESL have been taught reading affects attitude toward reading and reading process. With regard to the effect of reading instruction on attitude toward reading in L2, the results of the study indicate that the reading instruction which the Korean learners had received for more than seven years in a classroom setting played a significant role in forming their attitudes toward reading in English (beliefs & feelings about reading and reading behaviors). That is, the Korean learners' attitudes toward reading in English reflect the way they had been taught reading, which placed great emphasis on memorizing vocabulary, decoding words and analyzing sentence structure for comprehending texts. Concerning the effect of reading instruction on reading process, however, it is less clear how well and how directly the reading strategies that the Korean learners employed reflect the way they had been instructed to read in L2. In other words, as the use of reading strategies is influenced by many factors (e.g., language proficiency, L2 language instruction, and transfer of L1 reading skills to L2, among others), the relationship between reading strategies and reading instruction becomes complicated, and reading strategies may not necessarily be a direct result of how readers were taught reading. With the above confounding factors taken into consideration, the reading strategies that the Korean learners used to process English texts are not conclusive enough to make a direct, exclusive connection between reading strategies and the learners' reading instruction history.

Despite the absence of a direct link between reading strategies and reading instruction, as a whole, the results of the study support the previous findings of Shapiro & White (1991), Rasinski & DeFord (1988), Cairney (1988), Johns & Ellis (1976), Im (1993) and Lee (1990), which

suggest that the manner in which students are taught reading has a close relationship with the views and conceptions of reading they hold and with the reading processes they undergo. Therefore, teachers of English in Korea should realize how powerful the way in which they teach reading may be in forming reading attitudes, influencing reading processes, and, as a result, shaping the kinds of readers students become.

As for the implications for the teaching of reading in EFL classrooms in Korea, the results of the study show that the Korean learners had great difficulty figuring out how words are used in various contexts and capturing the main idea of a text fast. Also they used reading strategies of the Linguistic category most frequently without regard to types of texts, as compared to strategies of other categories. All of these may result from a heavy focus on words and grammar (a bottom-up approach) in reading instruction. New vocabulary should be presented with reference to contexts and meaning. More important, Korean students should be encouraged to use a top-down approach during reading. That is, teachers need to spend less time working on words and grammar and to devote more time to providing relevant background information in the prereading stage. In this way, students will gradually become accustomed to drawing on background knowledge and get the overall meaning of a text much faster than before while paying a fair amount of attention to words and grammar. As a result, they will attain balanced development between bottom-up processing skills and top-down processing skills.

This study has several weaknesses. First, like other studies conducted in a qualitative way, the generalizability of the findings of the study is very limited. Because the study centered on participants with only one L1 background (Korean), it is not clear to what extent the findings of the study can be transferable to ESL/EFL learners with other L1 backgrounds who had been taught reading in a similar way to Korean students. Second, the study did not consider the gender of the participants, which might influence the formation of reading attitude and the use of reading strategies in a certain way under the same reading instruction. Third, since the study examined only one type of reading instruction, i.e., a bottom-up approach which focuses on memorizing vocabulary, decoding words and analyzing sentence structures, it is not clear how other types of reading instruction such as the top-down approach, which emphasizes the use of background knowledge, or the interactive approach, which encourages readers to use both bottom-up and top-down processing skills, would affect attitude toward reading and reading process. Further research needs to be done to investigate the effects of these other types of reading instruction on L2 learners'

attitudes toward reading and reading comprehension. In so doing, the relationship between the type of reading instruction and reading attitude on the one hand and reading process on the other can be better understood in second language reading contexts.

References

Anderson, N. (1991). Individual differences in strategy use in second language reading and testing. *Modern Language Journal, 75*, 460-472.

Bagozzi, R. & Burnkrant, R. (1979). Attitude organization and the attitude-behavior relationship. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37*, 913-929.

Bernhardt, E. (1991). *Reading development in a second language: Theoretical, empirical & classroom perspectives*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Burke, C. (1977). The Burke reading interview (1977 version). Unpublished manuscript. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University.

Cairney, T. (1988). The purpose of basales: What children think. *Reading Teacher, 41*, 420-428.

Carrell, P. (1989). Metacognitive awareness and second language reading. *Modern Language Journal, 73*, 121-134.

CELT (The Center for English Language Training). (1994). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University.

Chi, F. M. (1992). Reading as connections: a study of Taiwanese readers' responses to two English short stories (second language reading, reading comprehension, mental connections). Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University.

Clarke, M. (1980). The short circuit hypothesis of ESL reading—or when language competence interferes with reading performance. *Modern Language Journal, 64*, 203-209.

Cohen, A. & Hosenfeld, C. (1981). Some uses of mentalistic data in second language research. *Language Learning, 31*, 285-313.

Cothern, N. & Collins, M. (1992). An exploration: Attitude acquisition and reading instruction. *Reading Research and Instruction, 31*, 84-97.

Cziko, G. (1980). Language competence and reading strategies: a comparison of first- and second-language oral reading errors. *Language Learning, 30*, 101-116.

Dubin, F. & Bycina, D. (1991). Academic reading and the ESL/EFL teacher. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp.195-215). Heinle & Heinle.

Durkin, D. (1974). *Teaching them to read*. Boston. MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Eagly, A., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Ericsson, K. & Simon, H. (1980). Verbal reports as data. *Psychological Review, 87*, 215-251.

Eskey, D. (1986). Theoretical foundations. In F. Dubin, D. Eskey, & W. Grabe (Eds.), *Teaching second language reading for academic purposes* (pp. 3-23). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Fitzgerald, J. (1995). English-as-a-second-language learners' cognitive reading processes: a review of research in the United States. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 65*, 145-190.

Fraenkel, J. & Wallen, N. (1993). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. McGraw-Hill.

Grabe, W. (1991). Current developments in second language reading research. *TESOL Quarterly, 25*, 375-406.

Hawkins, B. (1991). Teaching children to read in a second language. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 169-184). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Hosenfeld, C. (1976). A preliminary investigation of the reading strategies of successful and nonsuccessful second language learners. *System, 5*, 110-123.

Im, Byung-Bin. (1993). An effective teaching & learning approach to improve EFL reading comprehension by exercising faster reading and facilitating to comprehend written texts. *Kongju University Monograph Collection, 31*, 51-77.

Johns, J., & Ellis, D. (1976). Reading: children tell it like it is. *Reading World, 16*, 115-128.

LaBerge, D., & Samuels, S. (1974). Toward a theory of automatic information processing in reading. *Cognitive Psychology, 6*, 293-323.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1986). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Laxalt, R. (1957). *Sweet promised land*. Reno, NV: University of Nevada Press.

Lee, Sang-Ok. (1990). A teaching method for improvement of English reading comprehension ability. *English Teaching,10*, 137-149.

Lewis, R. & Teale, W. (1980). Another look at secondary school students' attitudes toward reading. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 12*, 187-201.

Li, S., & Munby, H. (1996). Metacognitive strategies in second language academic reading: A qualitative investigation. *English for*

Specific Purposes, 15, 199-216.

McLaughlin, B. (1987). Reading in a second language: Studies with adult and child learners. In S. Goldman & H. Trueba (Eds.), *Becoming literate in English as a second language* (pp. 57-70). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Merriam, S. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mueller, D. (1986). *Measuring social attitudes: A handbook for researchers and practitioners*. NY: Teachers College Press.

Oxford, R., Lavine, R., & Crookall, D. (1989). Language learning strategies, the communicative approach and their classroom implications. *Foreign Language Annals, 22*, 29-39.

Pritchard, R. (1990). The effects of cultural schemata on reading processing strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly, 25*, 273-295.

Rasinski, T., & DeFord, D. (1988). First graders' conceptions of literacy: A matter of schooling. *Theory Into Practice, 27*, 53-61.

Robinson, M. (1991). Introspective methodology in interlanguage pragmatics research. In G. Kasper (Ed.), *Pragmatics of Japanese as native and target language (Technical Report #3,* pp. 27-82). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii at Manoa, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Rosenblatt, L. (1978). *The reader, the text, the poem: The transactional theory of the literary work.* Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

Rosenblatt, L. (1994). The transactional theory of reading and writing. In R. Ruddell, M. Ruddell, & H. Singer (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (pp. 1057-1092). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Ruddell, R., & Unrau, N. (1994). Reading as a meaning-construction process: The reader, the text, and the teacher. In R. Ruddell, M. Ruddell, & H. Singer (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (pp. 996-1056). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Rumelhart, D. (1985). Toward an interactive model of reading. In H. Singer & R. Ruddell (Eds.), *Theoretical models and process of reading* (pp. 722-750). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Samuels, S. (1994). Toward a theory of automatic information processing in reading, revisited. In R. Ruddell, M. Ruddell, & H. Singer (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (pp. 816-837). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Schulz, R. (1983). From word to meaning: Foreign language reading instruction after the elementary course. *Modern Language Journal, 67*, 127-134.

Shapiro, J., & White, W. (1991). Reading attitudes and perceptions in traditional and nontraditional reading programs. *Reading Research and Instruction, 30*, 52-66.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Teale, W., & Lewis, R. (1981). The nature and measurement of secondary school students' attitudes toward reading. *Reading Horizons, 21*, 94-102.

The Time. (1995, Feb 13). *The Fatal Shore*.

Vann, R., & Abraham, R. (1990). Strategies of unsuccessful language learners. *TESOL Quarterly, 24*, 177-198.

Wolff, D. (1987). Some assumptions about second language text comprehension. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 9*, 307-326.

Young, D. (1989). A systematic approach to foreign language reading instruction: what does the research suggest? *Hispania, 72*, 755-762.

Young, D. (1993). Processing strategies of foreign language readers: authentic and edited input. *Foreign Language Annals, 26*, 451-468.

Appendix A

Text 1: The Fatal Shore

Nature intervenes as a family attempts to mourn

Whenever she visited her daughter Debbie in California, Diane Painter, 52, would return to the coastline around Mendocino, about 130 miles north of San Francisco. With its panorama of sky and water, so different from the views near her home in a Pittsburgh suburb, it was a favorite spot for Painter, the ex-wife of Dwain Painter, quarterback coach of the San Diego Chargers. So after she committed suicide on January 15, it was to the same stretch of coastline that her children-Debbie, 32, and Doug, 23-brought her ashes.

It was an attempt at poetic closure in the wake of an All-American family trauma. Pittsburgh-area natives, Dwain and Diane Painter began dating in high school. After marrying in 1962, they spent three decades moving around the country while he pursued a career as

a football coach. Diane was glad to come home when he got a job in 1988 with the Pittsburgh Steelers. Four years later, when he took another job with the Indianapolis Colts and she opted to remain in Pittsburgh, they divorced.

Dwain Painter moved on again, to San Diego. When the Chargers won their league championship, Diane Painter felt deprived of what might otherwise have been a pinnacle of her life. According to her father, she called her mother and said, "I'm the one who should be going to the Super Bowl, not his girlfriend." Not long afterward she went to the garage, started the car and died from carbon-monoxide poisoning.

The Painter children decided to go alone last Thursday to scatter their mother's ashes around the oceanfront she loved. It was a mistake, and it wrenched their quiet memorial out of control. Despite warnings of rough weather, they chose a point of land well out to sea and only 20 feet above the ocean. That wasn't enough to protect them from the huge wave that exploded 25 feet upward and knocked them into the water.

Doug Painter managed to crawl back to safety, but then returned to the water to help his sister. After nearly an hour in which the pair were battered by surf, he climbed out again over sharp rocks that sliced his knees, hands and feet. Naked and bleeding, he was taken by a passerby to an area hospital. But one tragedy compounding another, Debbie had been swept out to sea. On Friday police found her body about a mile up the coast. She leaves behind a husband and an 18-month-old son.

Text 2: Sweet Promised Land

We made it through the soup and the salad without incident. It began when the waiter came to take away our salad plates and put on others for the main course. He collected John's and mine, and then reached for my father's. But he could not lift it, because my father was holding it to the table with both hands.

"I'm sorry," said the waiter. "I thought you were finished."

"I am finished," said my father.

"Oh," said the waiter, and again reached for the salad plate. My father held on.

"May I take your plate, sir?" said the waiter.

"No," said my father mildly.

The waiter stood in confused silence for a moment. "But I have to put another plate there, sir."

My father shook his head. “It's all right,” he said. “Don't go to any bother.”

The waiter blinked and then smiled weakly. “Oh, it's no bother at all,” he said, and again reached for the plate.

This time, my father put his hands over the plate to protect it. The waiter stopped short and straightened up. He looked at us in something akin to frenzy, and John gestured with his head. The waiter retreated to the back of the room and stood there watching us from long distance. He was pale and he still had a plate in his hands.

“Pop,” said John, “Why don’t you give him your plate?”

My father shrugged. “It’s clean enough,” he said.

This time John blinked. “I don't understand what you mean.”

“They shouldn't waste a plate,” said my father. “This one’s fine.”

John regarded my father for a long moment. “It’s really no bother,” he said. “They've got a washer back there that does all the work.”

“Well, they might run short,” my father said.

“I’m telling you, Pop,” said John. “There's no danger.” He took a deep drag of his cigarette and leaned forward again. “Pop,” he said, “You're going to get that waiter in trouble.”

“What?” said my father concernedly.

“It’s this way,” said John. “They're supposed to put a new plate on for each course. That’s the way the management wants it. If the waiter doesn’t do it and one of the managers sees him, he gets fired on the spot.”

“I never heard of such a thing,” my father said.

“It's true,” said John. “That waiter's probably worried plenty by now.”

“Well hell,” said my father. “Tell him to take it then.”

Appendix B

Transcription of Interviews

1. *What do you think reading is?*

Kim: Reading is easier than listening comprehension. Reading has to do with comprehension.

Lee: Reading is a means to cultivate one’s mind, gratify one’s thirst for knowledge and acquire information for communication with others.

2. *Do you like reading in Korean, and how often do you read?*

Kim: I enjoy reading in Korean for fun and pleasure. I read essays, stories and novels for about five hours everyday.
Lee: I like to read books about philosophy and politics and novels. I usually read them average five hours a day.

3. *Do you like reading in English, and how often do you read?*
Kim: In high school day, I tried to read many short stories, but could never finish them, because there were so many difficult words and expressions which I had not studied. Now I read newspapers which is useful for learning vocabulary and practical expressions for everyday communication. In so doing, I usually focus on decoding words and figuring out sentence structures for interpretation, because I was so accustomed to this habit.
Lee: I really wanted to read English novels. Because of the lack of vocabulary and difficult sentence structures, it always took so much time to finish one novel, which made me frustrated, nervous and even afraid of engaging in the reading of English novels. Instead, I used to read newspapers and the Newsweek magazine for the learning of vocabulary and structures. And I also studied the TOEFL. I engaged in reading in English about five hours a day. I think I focused on learning vocabulary and grammatical rules and structures rather than getting information or enjoying reading.

4. *Do you feel comfortable in reading in English?*
Kim: Usually reading English gives me a headache and makes me mentally tired. When engaging in reading of English, I feel like finishing it as soon as possible. To me, reading in English is not for a kind of behavior of learning a language, but for tests, or grades (being assessed), so that I'm always nervous and uncomfortable during reading in English. And I have a habit of underlying each word and sentence during reading. I didn't realize that I had learned English passively until I came to the U.S.
Lee: Whenever reading in English, I feel nervous. I always worry about whether I can get the meanings of all words, and interpret individual sentences in a text. If I can't, I start to become nervous and feel uncomfortable. However, since in the U.S., I feel comfortable, because I am exposed to American culture and can have access to a variety of information, which I think is conducive to reading in English. I think a language is related so closely to culture and everyday life, and language learners should keep this in mind in order to be a good, second language reader.

5. *Who do you think is a good reader of Korean?*
6. *Who do you think is a good reader of English?*

Kim: A good reader of Korean is one who has high language aptitude and plentiful imagination. I think every language is basically the same in terms of concepts of word meaning and grammatical systems which regulate the formation of sentence, so that a good reader of Korean is also good at reading of English. A good reader of English is one who has a large number of vocabulary, plentiful experience of reading, and high language aptitude and who reads fast.

Lee: I know how to read in Korean unconsciously, but I have great difficulty figuring out where I should stop in a long, complex sentence, and knowing vocabulary.

7. *When you are reading in English, and you encounter something you don't know, what do you usually do?*

Kim: I studied etymology when I was a freshman, and I used this knowledge to guess the meaning of words. Also I use contexts. I think analyzing sentence structure is most important in interpreting a sentence, and when I encountered complex sentence structure, I tried to figure out how it was made by analyzing it. If I can't still understand it, I read the next sentence or go back to the previous one.

Lee: When I saw difficult words, I usually referred to a dictionary. Facing complex, difficult sentence structures, I consulted other students. If they did not know, I skipped them.

8. *What is the most difficult thing to do for you to be a good reader of English?*

Kim: Language aptitude and vocabulary are important. Because language aptitude is determined innately, I can't do much about it. But learning vocabulary should be done to be a good reader.

Lee: Two languages differ in intonation, stress and word order, which makes reading in English difficult. A good reader of English should possess a larger number of vocabulary and a variety of background knowledge.

9. *If your friend has difficulty reading of English, how would you help him/her?*

Kim: I would suggest that basic grammatical rules and structures underlying sentences should be learned. Also vocabulary should be learned and memorized as many as possible. Finally, feeling comfortable and avoiding strict interpretation of every sentence is important.

Lee: I would tell him/her that it is important to be exposed to a variety

of sentence structures, and to practice them over and over again. Of course, to have a large number of vocabulary and basic grammatical knowledge of rules and structures is essential to fluent reading in English. English is a language which we should be continually exposed to and practice. In this sense, I would recommend him/her to go to the U.S. so that he/she can have access to and learn a real language through contacting with native speakers, newspapers, TV, and so on, which is conducive to increasing speaking and listening skills, which in turn, is good for reading skill.

10. *How did your teachers teach you reading in your English class?*
Kim: My teachers in high school usually explained main grammatical rules and structures prior to reading, introduced new vocabulary, and interpreted a reading passage sentence by sentence with a focus on main grammatical points.
Lee: English teachers read a text sentence by sentence, and translated it into Korean. When encountering new words, he/she told us their meanings, and wrote the words down on a blackboard with their synonyms and antonyms. Also each sentence was analyzed, and explained in detail. All these, I think, were done for the exam, i.e., college entrance exam. I think since we learned words in isolation and with only one meaning, now I have difficulty figuring out in which contexts each word should be used appropriately. This is a bad way of learning vocabulary, because every word needs to be practiced within contexts.

11. *Do you think there is the difference between reading of Korean and reading of English? If so, why do you think so?*
Kim: I think the big difference lies in vocabulary. Only if you know a large number of vocabulary, it is possible to make meaning out of the text.
Lee: The fact that every English word has many different meanings makes reading of English difficult and burdensome. And there are so many slangs used in specific areas like politics, business .... Idioms are also a factor to make reading burdensome. Since I usually learned one meaning for one word without contexts, now I have hard time figuring out other meaning of a same word in different contexts. Also two languages differ in intonation, stress, pronunciation, word order, relative clause constructions and the usage of pronouns, which makes reading in English difficult.

12. *In order to be a skillful reader of English, what is the most important thing?*

Kim: A skillful reader of English is one who reads fast, and who has high language aptitude and the ability to determine the difference between sentences which are related to main idea of the text and those which are not.
Lee: A skillful reader should possess a large number of vocabulary and a variety of background knowledge. Also a skillful reader should be able to read fast, catch the main idea of a text, and capture the meaning between lines.

13. *As a reader of English, what is your strong, good points?/ weak points?*
Kim: I think my strong point is that I have language sense. That is, I can interpret a sentence in a variety of ways with different meanings. My weak point is that I do not have enough vocabulary and the ability to interpret idiomatic expressions for comprehension.
Lee: I think I have a sound knowledge of grammatical rules and structures. But I can not catch the main idea of a text fast. I don't have appropriate background knowledge and sufficient vocabulary. Also I can't read fast.

14. *Do you think you are a good reader? Why/why not?*
Kim: I don't think I am a good reader. I want to feel comfortable when I am reading. I hope that the time I spend on working on words and sentence structures should be reduced, because of it (e.g. working on words and sentence structures), I couldn't get the main idea of a text fast.
Lee: I can not read fast. I tend to focus too much attention on words, idioms and structures, which sometimes I think, wastes time.

Appendix C

Think-aloud Protocol for Kim during The Fatal Shore

I'm not sure whether *would return* indicates present tense or past. I am always nervous to see the sentence containing *ever*. Colon (:) is used frequently in newspaper and magazine. I didn't read the whole word if it is the name of a place, because I have to save time when in the exam. *Panorama* reminds me of scenery or the nature. Does *Painter* indicate ex-wife of Dwain Painter, or the man who paints? What's *quarterback*? I don't know whether Painter committed suicide, died, or still alive. I need to look at further. The names of places here

and *panorama* seem to be related to suicide.

Because I know Pittsburgh steelers is one of the football teams, this helps me to interpret this sentence. What is *trauma*? Is it tragedy? *Decade* reminds me of the examination which asked *How many years are there in a decade?* In America, when a husband moves to the other state for a job, do the husband and wife usually divorce? I can't understand this as compared to Korea. If *1988* is written, I understand it quite well, but when it is read, I might have hard time comprehending it.

Dwain and Daine make me confused due to the similarity in spelling. I thought about this year's Super Bowl game, and came to know that this story is not related to this year's game. What's the meaning of *deprived of? Carbon* reminds me of hazardous materials such as lead, and *carbon-monoxide poisoning* may be a kind of poison.

Scatter and *chatter* make me confused, because the latter part of them are the same. In this case, I usually read it twice. *The oceanfront she loved* has a relative clause omitted. *Out of control* I haven't seen many times. The *"."* in "ft." makes me think that the sentence ends, but seeing the small letter coming in the next, I realized that the sentence is still continued. By children I think they have children.

I don't know whether they were board on a ship or standing on the ground. I think children are very sad. *Feet* reminds me of historical events, because many kings adjusted or made new measurement system for their countries. Also it relates to mile and inch. *Passerby* reminds me of the compound words which appeared in one of the exams. However, there should be a dash (-) between pass and by? *Leaves behind* is easy to comprehend, but in composition it's not easy to use this expression. Debbie must be a human being. *Crawl* reminds me of swimming, and baby's crawling.

Think aloud Protocol for Lee during The Fatal Shore

At first, I read the title of a text to see what it would be about. I feel uncomfortable in seeing person's name here, because I am not sure whether I can pronounce it accurately. It seems that I know the meanings of all words, but I don't see the main idea here. *Tt* in *committed* shows the way of changing a verb from present to past tense by adding one more *t* due to the sequence of vowel + consonant. *Suicide* reminds me of the idiom *commit suicide* and *kill oneself* which my English teacher in the high school emphasized because of their frequent appearance in the exams.

What does *poetic closure* mean? I translated it into Korean,

but still don't understand it, and skipped it. What does *opted* mean? I read this again. I can't understand why high school students date and get married each other in such an early age.

I feel uncomfortable in pronouncing *Diane Painter*. I never saw the structure *deprived of what might otherwise*. I can't interpret it. I can't see the meaning of *not long afterward*. I don't know whether the lady died, or alive yet. I can't make many associations here.

What does *wrench* mean? I think about its meaning within the whole context, but I don't know, so skipped it. *Ft* is *feet*? I couldn't feel how high 20 ft. is. I put the structure *exploded 25 ft. upward* in my mind. I don't know the meaning of *knocked them into water*. *Upward* is easy word, but I can't see its image well.

I thought about the whole context of a text and it seems to be a tragedy, judging from the title of a text. It seems to be right. *Surf* appeared to be a difficult word. The sentence *He was taken by a passerby to an area hospital* seems to be strange, and somewhat difficult to interpret. Rather the sentence *He was taken to an area hospital by a passerby* is more grammatical and easier to understand. This reminds me of the movie. Prepositions in front of relative clauses always make me nervous and uncomfortable. *Swept out to* was in Toefl.

Think aloud Protocol for Kim during Sweet Promised Land

Whenever I read this kind of story, I suppose that it would be interesting, or ridiculous, and I often tend to see the end of the story. I usually focus on *I am sorry* and *I am finished* expressions because they are very useful for communicative purposes. In *When the waiter came to take away our salad plates and put on others for the main course*, I don't know whether two actions by the waiter were done simultaneously or sequentially. Is there one more waiter there? Ah, I see, they were done sequentially. Father must be an idiosyncratic.

I thought John was a friend, but is a member of a family. I guess *pop* indicates father, and if it is true, I've never seen this word meaning *a father*. Goodness for some people may result in harm to others. In *He took a deep drag of his cigarette and leaned forward again*, I usually ignore this kind of sentences which provide background information. *Manage* reminds me of manager. *Hear of* and *hear from* make me confused and nervous.

Think-aloud Protocol for Lee during Sweet Promised Land

What does *through* in *made it through* mean? Why was this

used with *soup and salad* here? I don't know. What does *holding it* mean? What's the meaning of *bother*? Is it pronounced as *bather*, or *bouther*? *Salad* makes me think that they have dinner.

Plenty by now, I don't understand this. Why is it used with *by* instead of *of*? I never saw the word *concernedly* in *my father concerned* here. I can imagine *gestured with head* in my mind. I can't interpret the structure *the waiter stopped short and straight up*. Though I know the word *frenzy*, I don't see its meaning here, probably because I never used and practiced it in a context. *Blink*, I think about it in the mind. The sentence *This one's fine* looks grammatically strange, and is this expression OK? Father seems to be strict, and an idiosyncratic. *Run short* is an idiomatic expression or not? In *the waiter retreated to the back of the room and stood there watching us from long distance*, waiter appears to be sad, but service was better in the U.S. than in Korea where this case should make the waiter angry, and even give an insult to the father.

Author

JAE SUK-SUH, Korea University, Part-Time Lecturer, Mokdong Apt # 113-108, Yangcheon Gu, Seoul, Korea. Specializations: second/foreign language reading, interlanguage pragmatics, assessment.

General Information

Calendar of Events

1999

27-30 December, *Modern Language Association of America*, Chicago. Information MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981, Fax (212)477-9863, Email [convention@mla.org].

27-30 December, *North American Association of Teachers of Czech*, Chicago. Information Masako Ueda, Box E, Dept. of Slavic Languages, Brown University, Providence, RI 02912; (401)863-3933, Fax (401)863-7330, Email [masako_ueda@brown.edu].

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & East European Languages and American Council of Teachers of Russian*, Chicago. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520)885-2663, Email [aatseel@compuserve.com], URL [http://clover.slavic.pitt.edu/~aatseel/].

2000

24-26 February, *Southern Conference on Language Teaching with Alabama Association of Foreign Language Teachers*, Birmingham. Information Lynne McClendon, SCOLT Executive Director, 165 Lazy Laurel Chase, Roswell, GA 30076; (770)992-1256, Fax (770)992-3464, Email [lynnemcc@mindspring.com].

10-13 March, *Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, cruise. Information CSCTFL, Diane Ging, PO Box 21531, Columbus, OH 43221-0531; (614)529-0109, Fax (614)529-0321, Email [dging@iqaynet.net].

11-14 March, *American Association of Applied Linguistics*, Vancouver. Information AAAL, PO Box 21686, Eagan, MN 55121-0686; (612)953-0805, Fax (612)431-8404, Email [aaaloffice@aaal.org].

14-18 March, *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, Vancouver. Information TESOL, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 3000, Alexandria, VA 22314-2751; (703)836-0774, Fax (703)836-7864, Email [conv@tesol.edu], URL [www.tesol.edu].

13-15 April, *Pacific Northwest Council for Languages*, Missoula. Information PNCFL, Email [rverzasconi@uswest.net].

13-16 April, *Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Washington. Information Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, PO Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717)245-1977, Fax (717)245-1976, Email [nectfl@dickinson.edu], URL [www.dickinson.edu/nectfl].

4-6 May, *Balkan and South Slavic Linguistics, Literature and Folklore*, Lawrence KS. Information Marc L. Greenberg, Dept. of Slavic Languages and Literatures, 2134 Wescoe Hall, Lawrence, KS 66045-2174; Fax (785)864-4298, Email [m-greenberg@ukans.edu].

4-6 June, *National Association of Professors of Hebrew*, Chicago. Information NAPH, 1346 Van Hise Hall, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53706; (608)262-3204, Email [naph@macc.wisc.edu].

17-20 July, *American Association of Teachers of French*, Paris. Information Jayne Abrate, AATF, Mailcode 4510, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901-4510; (618)453-5731, Fax (618)453-5733, Email [abrate@siu.edu], URL [http://aatf.utsa.edu/].

22-26 July, *Federation Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes*, Paris. Information FIPLV, Universite Rene Descartes Paris V, 45 rue des Saints Peres, 75006 Paris; Email [fiplv2000@citi2.fr].

1-5 August, *American Association of Teachers of Spanish & Portuguese*, San Juan. Information AATSP, Butler-Hancock Hall #210, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, Co 80639; (970)351-1090, Fax (970)351-1095, Email [lsandste@bentley.unco.edu].

August, *American Association of Teachers of Korean*, Stanford University, California.

2-4 November, *Foreign Language Association of North Carolina*, High Point, NC. Information Debra S. Martin, FLANC Executive Director, PO Box 19153, High Point, NC 28815; (828)686-4985, Fax (828)686-3600, Email [martintl@interpath.com].

9-12 November, *American Association for the Advancement of Slavic Studies*, Denver. Information AAASS; Email [walker@core-mail.fas.harvard.edu].

15-16 November, *National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages*, Boston. Information Loretta Williams, Plano ISD, 150 Sunset, Plano TX 75094; (972)519-8196, fax (972)519-8035, Email [lwillia@pisd.edu].

16-19 November, *American Association of Teachers of Turkish Languages with Middle East Studies Association*, Orlando. Information AATT, 110 Jones Hall, Princeton University, Princeton NJ 08544-1008; (609)258-1435, Fax (609)258-1242, Email [ehgilson@princeton.edu].

17-19 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Boston. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914)963-8830, Fax (914)963-1275, Email [actflhq@aol.com], URL [http://www.actfl.org].

17-19 November, *American Association of Teachers of German*, Boston. Information AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (609)795-5553, Fax (609)795-9398, Email [aatg@bellatlantic.net].

27-30 December, *Modern Language Association of America*, Washington, D.C. Information MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Fax (212)477-9863, Email [convention@mla.org].

27-30 December, *North American Association of Teachers of Czech*, Washington, D.C. Information Masako Ueda, Box E, Dept. of Slavic Languages, Brown University, Providence, RI 02912; (401)863-3933, Fax (401)863-7330, Email [masako_ueda@brown.edu].

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & East European Languages and American Counsel of Teachers of Russian*, Washington, D.C. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520)885-2663, Email [aatseel@compuserve.com], URL [http://clover.slavic.pitt.edu/~aatseel/].

2001

24-27 February, *American Association of Applied Linguistics*, St. Louis. Information AAAL, PO Box 21686, Eagan, MN 55121-0686; (612)953-0805, Fax (612)431-8404, Email [aaaloffice@aaal.org], URL [http://www.aaal.org].

27 February - 3 March, *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, St. Louis. Information TESOL, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314-2751; (703)836-0774, Fax (703)836-7864, Email [conv@tesol.edu], URL [www.tesol.edu].

19-22 April, *Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, New York. Information Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, PO Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717)245-1977, Fax (717)245-1976, Email [nectfl@dickinson.edu], URL [www.dickinson.edu/nectfl].

14-15 November, *National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages*, Washington, D.C. Information Loretta Williams, Plano ISD, 150 Sunset, Plano, TX 75094; (972)519-8035, Email [lwillia@pisd.edu].

16-18 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Washington, D.C. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914)963-8830, Fax (914)963-1275, Email [actflhq@aol.com], URL [http://www.actfl.org].

17-20 November, *American Association of Teachers of Turkish Languages with Middle East Studies Association*, San Francisco. Information AATT, 110 Jones Hall, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544-1008; (609)258-1435, Fax (609)258-1242, Email [ehgilson@princeton.edu].

16-18 November, *American Association of Teachers of German*, Washington, D.C. Information AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (609)795-5553, Fax (609)795-9398, Email [aatg@bellatlantic.net].

27-30 December, *Modern Language Association of America*, TBA. Information MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Fax (212)477-9863, Email [convention@mla.org].

27-30 December, *North American Association of Teachers of Czech*, TBA. Information Masako Ueda, Box E, Dept. of Slavic Languages, Brown University, Providence, RI 02912; (401)863-3933, Fax (401)863-7330, Email [masako_ueda@brown.edu].

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & East European Languages and American Counsel of Teachers of Russian*, TBA. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520)885-2663, Email [aatseel@compuserve.com], URL [http://clover.slavic.pitt.edu/~aatseel/].

2002

6-9 April, *American Association of Applied Linguistics*, Salt Lake City. Information AAAL, PO Box 21686, Eagan, MN 55121-0686; (612)953-0805, Fax (612)431-8404, Email [aaaloffice@aaal.org], URL [http://www.aaal.org].

2-5 May, *Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, New York. Information Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, PO Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717)245-1977, Fax (717)2451976, Email [nectfl@dickinson.edu], URL [www.dickinson.edu/nectfl].

22-24 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Salt Lake City. Information ACTFL, 6 Execu tive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914)963-8830, Fax (914)963-1275, Email [actflhq@aol.com], URL [http://www.actfl.org].

23-26 November, *American Association of Teachers of Turkish Languages with Middle East Studies Association*, Wash ington. Information AATT, 110 Jones Hall, Princeton Univer sity, Princeton, NJ 08544-1008; (609)258-1435, Fax (609)258-1242, Email [ehgilson@princeton.edu].

27-30 December, *Modern Language Association of America*, TBA. Information MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6891; Fax (212)477-9863, Email [convention@mla.org].

27-30 December, *North American Association of Teachers of Czech*, TBA. Information Masako Ueda, Box E, Dept. of Slavic Languages, Brown University, Providence, RI 02912; (401)863-3933, Fax (401)863-7330, Email [masako_ueda@brown.edu].

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & East European Languages and American Counsel of Teachers of Russian*, TBA. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520)885-2663, Email [aatseel@compuserve.com], URL [http://clover.slavic.pitt.edu/~aatseel/].

Information for Contributors

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of *Applied Language Learning* (*ALL*) is to increase and promote professional communication within the Defense Language Program and academic communities on adult language learning for functional purposes.

Submission of Manuscripts

The Editor encourages the submission of research and review manuscripts from such disciplines as: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, and social sciences; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Research Article

Divide your manuscript into the following sections:

- Abstract
- Introduction
- Method
- Results
- Discussion
- Conclusion
- Appendices
- Notes
- References
- Acknowledgements
- Author

Abstract
Identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings in an abstract of not more than 200 words.

Introduction
In a few paragraphs, state the purpose of the study and relate it to the hypothesis and the experimental design. Point out the theoretical implications of the study and relate them to previous work in the area.

Next, under the subsection *Literature Review,* discuss work that had a direct impact on your study. Cite only research pertinent to a specific issue and avoid references with only tangential or general significance. Emphasize pertinent findings and relevant methodological issues. Provide the logical continuity between previous and present work. Whenever appropriate, treat controversial issues fairly. You may state that certain studies support one conclusion and others challenge or contradict it.

Method

Describe how you conducted the study. Give a brief synopsis of the method. Next develop the subsections pertaining to the *participants,* the *materials,* and the *procedure.*

Participants. Identify the number and type of participants. Specify how they were selected and how many participated in each experiment. Provide major demographic characteristics such as age, sex, geographic location, and institutional affiliation. Identify the number of experiment dropouts and the reasons they did not continue.

Materials. Describe briefly the materials used and their function in the experiment.

Procedure. Describe each step in the conduct of the research. Include the instructions to the participants, the formation of the groups, and the specific experimental manipulations.

Results

First state the results. Next describe them in sufficient detail to justify the findings. Mention all relevant results, including those that run counter to the hypothesis.

Tables and figures. Prepare tables to present exact values. Use tables sparingly. Sometimes you can present data more efficiently in a few sentences than in a table. Avoid developing tables for information already presented in other places. Prepare figures to illustrate key interactions, major interdependencies, and general comparisons. Indicate to the reader what to look for in tables and figures.

Discussion

Express your support or nonsupport for the original hypothesis. Next examine, interpret, and qualify the results and draw inferences from them. Do not repeat old statements: Create new statements that further contribute to your position and to readers understanding of it.

Conclusion

Succinctly describe the contribution of the study to the field. State how it has helped to resolve the original problem. Identify conclusions and theoretical implications that can be drawn from your study.

Appendices
Place detailed information (for example, a table, lists of words, or a sample of a questionnaire) that would be distracting to read in the main body of the article in the appendices.

Notes
Use them for substantive information only, and number them serially throughout the manuscript. They all should be listed on a separate page entitled *Notes*.

References
Submit on a separate page of the manuscript a list of references with the centered heading: *References*. Arrange the entries alphabetically by surname of authors. Review the format for bibliographic entries of references in the following sample:

> Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, *16* (1), 93-95.
> Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

List all works cited in the manuscripts in *References*, and conversely, cite all works included in *References* in the manuscript. Include in reference citations in the text of the manuscript the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the materials that you are quoting originally appeared, e.g., (Jones, 1982, pp. 235-238).

Acknowledgments
Identify colleagues who contributed to the study and assisted you in the writing process.

Author
Type the title of the article and the author's name on a separate page to ensure anonymity in the review process. Prepare an autobiographical note indicating: full name, position, department, institution, mailing address, and specialization(s). Example follows:

> JANE C. DOE, Assistant Professor, Foreign Language Education, University of America, 226 N. Madison St, Madison, WI 55306. Specializations: foreign language acquisition, curriculum studies.

Review Article

It should describe, discuss, and evaluate several publications that fall into a topical category in foreign language education. The relative significance of the publications in the context of teaching realms should be pointed out. A review article should be 15 to 20

double-spaced pages.

Review

Submit reviews of textbooks, scholarly works on foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, video tapes, and other non-print materials. Point out both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered. In the three to five double-spaced pages of the manuscript, give a clear but brief statement of the work's content and a critical assessment of its contribution to the profession. Keep quotations short. Do not send reviews that are merely descriptive.

Manuscripts are accepted for consideration with the understanding that they are original material and are not being considered for publication elsewhere.

Specifications for Manuscripts

All editorial correspondence, including manuscripts for publication should be sent to:

Applied Language Learning
ATFL-AP-AJ
ATTN: Editor (Dr. L. Woytak)
Defense Language Institute
Foreign Language Center
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006

Manuscripts should be typed on one side only on 8-1/2 x 11 inch paper, double-spaced, with ample margins. Subheads should be used at reasonable intervals. Typescripts should typically run from 10 to 30 pages.

All material submitted for publication should conform to the style of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (4th Ed., 1994) available from the American Psychological Association, P. O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784.

Review Process

Manuscripts will be acknowledged by the editor upon receipt and subsequently sent to at least two reviewers whose area of expertise includes the subject of the manuscript. *Applied Language Learning* uses the blind review system. The names of reviewers will be published in the journal annually.

Specifications for Floppy Disks

Preferably use Windows-based software. Format manuscripts produced on one of the DOS-based or Macintosh systems, as an ASQII file at double density, if possible. Please name the software used. MS Word or text documents preferred.

Copyright

Notes

PIN: 077 404-000

d Language Learning
se Language Institute
n Languge Center
io of Monterey, CA 93944-5006

99-1&2
States Army
77 404-000
ed for public release;
tion is unlimited.