Korea TESOL Journal

KOTESOL

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Korea TESOL Journal
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Korea TESOL Journal, a refereed journal, welcomes previously unpublished practical and theoretical articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language. Areas of interest include:

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Inquiries/Manuscripts to:

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About KOTESOL

Korea TESOL: Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KOTESOL) is a professional organization of teachers of English whose main goal is to assist its members in their self-development and to contribute to the improvement of ELT in Korea. KOTESOL also serves as a network for teachers to connect with others in the ELT community and as a source of information for ELT resource materials and events in Korea and abroad.

Korea TESOL is proud to be an affiliate of TESOL Inc., an international education association of more than 15,000 members with headquarters in Alexandria, Virginia, USA, as well as IATEFL, an international education association of over 3,500 members with headquarters in Canterbury, Kent, UK.

Korea TESOL was established in October 1992, when the Association of English Teachers in Korea joined with the Korea Association of Teachers of English. As stated in the Constitution and Bylaws, "Korea TESOL is a not-for-profit organization established to promote scholarship, disseminate information, and facilitate cross-cultural understanding among persons associated with the teaching and learning of English in Korea. In pursuing these goals KOTESOL shall cooperate in appropriate ways with other groups having similar concerns."

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The membership of KOTESOL includes English teachers for all levels, as well as teachers-in-training, administrators, researchers, materials writers, curriculum developers, and other interested persons. Approximately 40% of the members are Korean.

KOTESOL has nine chapters: Seoul, Gangwon, Suwon-Gyeonggi, Cheongju, Daejeon-Chungnam, Daegu-Gyeongbuk, Busan-Gyeongnam, Gwangju-Jeonnam, and North Jeolla, as well as international members. Members of KOTESOL are from all points of Korea and the globe, thus providing KOTESOL members the benefits of a multi-cultural membership.

Visit **www.kotesol.org** for membership information.

Learner Recognition of Recasts: A Study of the Interaction of Korean Learners of English with Native Interlocutors

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ABSTRACT

Over the past two decades, researchers in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) have become increasingly interested in the role of interactional feedback occurring during negotiated interaction. Among feedback maneuvers, recasts have been extensively investigated owing to their capacity to simultaneously provide positive and negative evidence, which allegedly serves as a stimulus of learner *noticing the gap*. However, some researchers have claimed that recasts may be too implicit to be noticed as correction and to trigger learner noticing of gaps: to learners, the modifications in recasts may be imperceptible, or perceived as merely an alternative to their own utterances. This article presents an empirical study exploring whether learners actually recognized recasts provided to three targeted linguistic features (third person -*s*, plural -*s*, and locative prepositions) in native speaker/non-native speaker (NS/NNS) dyads. In addition, the extent to which learners recognized the gaps between the recasts and the trigger utterances was examined. Twenty Korean adult learners of English and two native speakers participated in the present study. The NNSs received recasts on their non-target-like use of the three targeted features in interaction with a NS during information gap tasks. Their recognition was documented through stimulated recall protocols. The results showed that, to a considerable extent, learners recognized recasts as correction and that recasts resulted in recognizing of gaps. It was also found that the accuracy of recognition was related to the communicative value of the targeted linguistic feature.

INTRODUCTION

The role of conversational interaction in second language acquisition (SLA) has been extensively investigated for the past two decades. Long (1996), in his updated version of the Interaction Hypothesis, proposes that negotiation work occurring during interaction "facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (pp. 451-452). Similarly, Gass (1997) and Pica (1994) contend that two speakers' negotiation to arrive at mutual understanding of each other's utterances eventually provides learners with opportunities to understand and use language that was previously incomprehensible. Such claims have been corroborated by various empirical studies exploring the role of conversational interaction in comprehension, production, and development in second language (L2) learning (e.g., Ellis, Tanaka, & Yamazaki, 1994; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Mackey, 1999).

Along with the increasing interest in negotiated interaction, considerable concern has been directed toward isolating a role for interactional feedback elicited during negotiated interaction (e.g., Mackey & Philp, 1998; Oliver, 1995, 2000). Some negotiation strategies (e.g., recasts, confirmation checks, and clarification requests), deployed to prevent communication breakdown, constitute a type of interactional feedback (Long, 1996).

Among feedback maneuvers, recent SLA literature has witnessed a proliferation of studies on *corrective recasts*, which can be defined as "a reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterances in which one or more non-target-like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items is/are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s)" (Long, 2006, p. 77). Spurred by theoretical (e.g., the Interaction Hypothesis) and pedagogical concerns (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Han 2002a; Harley & Swain, 1984; Lightbown & Spada, 1990), researchers have studied corrective recasts by (a) describing recasts as they occur in classrooms and (b) experimenting with the role of recasts in L2 learning in laboratory settings (e.g., Han, 2002b; Iwashita, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002). These studies have helped us to understand that the efficacy of recasts as a vehicle for corrective feedback relies largely on their

interaction with learner external (e.g., contexts and linguistic content) and internal (e.g., developmental readiness and working memory capacity) factors (see Long 2006; Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada, 2001).

While these types of studies have dominated in L2 research, some researchers have begun to attend to another avenue of research - learner cognitive reaction to recasts (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000; Philp, 2003; Roberts, 1995). This movement reflects some issues surrounding the psychological benefits of recasts. On the theoretical front, the capability of recasts to provide positive evidence (i.e., models) following the learner's non-target-like utterance is appreciated since "the *contingency* of recasts on deviant learner output means that the incorrect and correct utterances are juxtaposed" (Long, 2006, p. 78), allegedly leading the learner to compare the two forms and to find the contrast, so-called *noticing the gap*[1] (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). Long (2006) also adds that the positive evidence supplied in recasts is more salient than pure models since the juxtaposition of the correct and incorrect utterance can effectively highlight the different elements. The enhanced salience allows the learner to compare the target form with the erroneous utterance, which may eventually lead him/her to reject the latter in favor of the former.

However, some researchers have cast doubt on the role of recasts in triggering learner noticing the gap. This doubt is in part ascribed to the unobtrusive nature of recasts. Recasts are classified among the least direct forms of negative feedback, falling at the unobtrusive end on the explicitness continuum (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Sharwood Smith, 1993[2]). It has been argued that recasts may be too implicit to be noticed as correction and to trigger learner noticing of gaps. Long (1996) also acknowledges that recasts are ambiguous in that it is often difficult for NNSs to determine "whether a NS response is a model of the correct way or just a different way of saying the same thing" (p. 449). Thus, to learners, the modifications in recasts may be imperceptible, or perceived as merely an alterative to their own utterances.

Accordingly, the implicit nature of recasts and their ambiguity might reduce the likelihood that learners attend to problematic linguistic features (Chaudron, 1977; Fanselow, 1977; Netten, 1991). Moreover, it seems possible that learners misconstrue the feedback provider intent behind the recasts (i.e., the focus of recasts) (Han,

2001; Kim & Han, in press, Lyster 1998a, Mackey et al., 2000). In particular, in contexts where learners' primary focus is on meaning or content, they may not be able to process the reformulated forms as correction while they attend mainly to meaning (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). For this reason, the learner is more likely to interpret recasts as responses to the content of his own utterance. This argument is in line with VanPatten's (1990) finding from an experimental study which found that L2 beginning learners found it difficult to attend to form while attending to meaning. This study suggests that "when learners' focal attention is on meaning, voluntary attention to form is highly limited" (Han, 2002b, p. 550). Morris and Tarone (2003) also point out that recasts may be too vague to be perceived as correction and to promote noticing of gaps, since recasts "as repetitions of a speaker's utterance ... may be interpreted as focused on meaning or form or both" (p. 326).

As noted before, although some studies have been conducted to examine learner perception of recasts, this strand of research is still scant, and in fact began quite recently. The present study, as an attempt to explore these issues, aims to contribute to the on-going discussion on learner perception of recasts by reporting and discussing an empirical study which examined learner recognition of recasts in NS-NNS dyads. In the section that follows, a brief overview of the existing research on learner perception of feedback will be offered. Then, the procedures, results, and discussion of the key findings will be reported.

RESEARCH ON LEARNER PERCEPTION[3] OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

As a preliminary step, Roberts (1995) sought to examine to what extent learners at beginning levels of Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) actually noticed a teacher's provision of feedback (including recasts) and understood the nature of the feedback. Following Schmidt's (1990, 1995, 2001) Noticing Hypothesis, it was hypothesized that "the efficacy of error correction is directly related to the condition that the L2 learner not only recognizes that he/she is being corrected, but understands the nature of correction" (Roberts, 1995, p. 167). Roberts videotaped an entire fifty-minute class and

transcribed it. Several days after the class, three volunteer students were asked to view the tape in isolation and note down the meter reading every time they thought that the teacher had corrected someone. It was found that of a total of 92 corrections, 32 instances (35%) on average were identified as correction and only 19 instances (21%) were correctly understood. Where recasts were concerned, the learners were able to track 38% of recasts (25 out of 65) and to accurately understand the nature of correction 25% of the time (16 out of 65). Roberts, on the whole, concludes that "students are only aware of corrective activity in the classroom a fraction of the time and even when they are, it is not likely that they understand the nature of the error in many instances" (p. 180).

Mackey, Gass, and McDonough (2000) also carried out a direct exploration of learner perception of interactional corrective feedback, motivated by the Interaction Hypothesis (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996), in particular, the claim that negotiated interaction directs learners' attention to particular aspects of language. They were specifically concerned with "the extent to which learners do in fact recognize or perceive (a) feedback provided through interaction and (b) the target of the feedback, that is, what feedback is being provided about" (p. 477). Ten learners of English as a second language (ESL) and seven learners of Italian as a foreign language (IFL) separately participated in task-based dyadic interactions between NNSs and NSs (or near-native speakers). The interactions were videotaped and the participants were interviewed immediately after the dyadic task. While being interviewed, the participants watched the videotape and were asked to recall what they had been thinking at the moment the NSs provided feedback.

For ESL learners, the type of feedback provided by the NS interlocutors was primarily morphosyntactic (47%) or phonological (41.5%), and fewer feedback episodes concerned lexis (10.5%). With regard to learners' perception, while they correctly identified lexical and phonological feedback (83.3% and 60%, respectively), they generally did not recognize the target of morphosyntactic feedback (13%). Morphosyntactic feedback was often considered feedback provided to semantic content (38%). For IFL learners, the type of feedback provided by the Italian interviewer was primarily lexical (66%) followed by morphosyntactic (31.5%) and phonological (18%). Where learner perception was concerned, lexical feedback was

correctly identified most frequently (66%), with morphosyntactic and phonological errors less so (24% and 21.4%, respectively). Learners interpreted morphosyntactic and phonological feedback as lexical feedback (44% and 43%, respectively).

These findings showed a discrepancy between the linguistic content of the feedback and learner perception thereof as reported in Roberts (1995), and this discrepancy occurred also with respect to the linguistic target of the feedback. Furthermore, post-hoc analyses of data from the ESL learners showed that morphosyntactic errors mostly invited recasts (75%), though they nonetheless elicited a low rate of accurate perception (12%). This result leads the researchers to hypothesize that "using recasts to provide morphosyntactic feedback may have been suboptimal" (p. 493).

As opposed to the findings from Roberts (1995) and Mackey et al. (2000), Philp (2003) reported that learners noticed over 60-70% of recasts in her experimental research. Thirty-three adult ESL learners took part in five sessions of dyadic task-based interaction with native interlocutors. While engaging in the tasks, the NS provided recasts in response to any non-target-like utterance, particularly the target form (question formation). Following the recast, the NS knocked on the table twice, signaling the NSS to repeat the last thing he/she heard prior to that sound (recast), as illustrated below.

> NNS: Why he is very unhappy?
> NS: Why is he very unhappy? [two knocks]
> NNS: Yeah why is very unhappy?
>
> (Philp, 2003, p. 108)

Noticing was operationalized as learners' ability to repeat recasts verbatim immediately after a recall cue (two knocks) during interaction. Results showed that although learners noticed 60-70% of recasts, accurate recall was constrained by the level of the learner: "In terms of acquisition of question forms, recasts may be of more or less potential benefit to the learner according to how well the recasts matches the learner's readiness to acquire the form" (p. 117; see also Mackey & Philp, 1998). In addition, learner noticing was found to be determined by the length and number of changes in the recast - recasts which were shorter and closer to the NS's original non-target-like utterance were more accurately recalled. This finding suggests that

learners' noticing seems to be limited by their own cognitive resources, such as their current interlanguage level and attentional capacity.

To sum up the existing research, the studies show that recasts may not be very effective in triggering learner cognitive comparison and noticing of gaps, contrary to the theoretical claims. Roberts (1995) and Mackey et al. (2000) also found a potential mismatch between the intent and interpretation of recasts. Moreover, some factors such as linguistic content and interaction context were found to modulate learners' perception of feedback. In addition to these external factors, learner internal factors - current interlanguage knowledge and working memory capacity - were considered significant modulating variables that may affect the extent of learner noticing of gaps (Philp, 2003).

The existing studies have, therefore, afforded some important insights into learner perception of corrective feedback/recasts. However, obviously, this strand of research is limited in both breadth and depth. The present study, as an effort to broaden our understanding of learner perception of recasts, concerns two issues: (a) a learner's accurate interpretation of a NS's corrective intent, and (b) a learner's ability to recognize gaps between a NS's recasts and the trigger utterances. With regard to the latter issue, the relation between the nature of the targeted feature and learner recognition of the gap was also examined. This reflects the studies of the relation of linguistic content with learner noticing in corrective feedback/recasts (Mackey et al., 2000).

THE STUDY

Research Questions

Guided by the above considerations, the following research questions were formulated:

1. To what extent do learners recognize recasts as correction provided during interaction with a native-speaking interlocutor?
2. To what extent does learner recognition of a recast entail recognition of a gap?
3. Is the nature of the targeted linguistic feature related to learner recognition of a recast/gap?

Methods

Participants

NNS

Twenty adult Korean learners of English (5 males, 15 females) from four different intermediate classes participated in the present study. All of them were enrolled in an English program at a university in the US and assigned to the intermediate level based on the program's placement test. All participants had studied English in an instructional setting for at least six years in Korea.

NS

Two native speakers of English participated in this study. Both of them hold a master's degree in TESOL and have had several years of experience teaching ESL. They were familiar with recasts and practiced recasts as correction in their teaching. During the period of the study, they were instructed to provide recasts on learners' non-target-like utterances, and to focus on three targeted linguistic features: 3rd person *-s*, plural *-s*, and locative prepositions.

Recasts

Recasts can be delivered in different ways (see Lyster, 1998). In the current study, in order to avoid a potential effect from the type of recasts on learner recognition (Kim & Han, in press; Lyster, 1998), the types of recasts were controlled: the native speaker participants were instructed to provide recasts without adding or asking further information or questions (i.e., only isolated recasts in Lyster's definition). In other words, the NSs were told not to continue a topic after providing recasts.

Linguistic Features

As mentioned in the research questions, the current study aimed to investigate how the qualities of particular linguistic features were differently related to learner recognition of gaps attributed to recasts. In order to examine this, three linguistic features known to be different in *communicative value* were chosen: English 3rd person *-s*, plural *-s*, and locative prepositions. Communicative value is defined as "the relative contribution a form makes to the referential meaning of an

utterance and is based on the presence or absence of two features: inherent semantic value and redundancy within the sentence-utterance" (VanPatten, 1996, p. 24). It is conceived of as a factor which affects the salience of a linguistic feature (Slobin, 1973; VanPatten, 1996). If a form has inherent semantic value and is not redundant, the form has high communicative value. Conversely, a form which has semantic value but is formally redundant has low communicative value.

Third person -*s* is considered to have low communicative value: This feature certainly has semantic content in that it encodes the semantic notion of third person singular and the temporal frame within which the action occurs. However, the co-occurrence of lexical items (e.g., *he, everyday*) that express the same meanings makes this feature redundant. Furthermore, syntactically, the English canonical subject-verb word order renders the -*s* redundant since the notion of "third person singular" is already carried by the subject. Compared to 3rd person -*s*, plural -*s* is considered to have higher communicative value, although co-occurring lexical items (e.g., *three, many*) oftentimes render plural -*s* redundant. Locative prepositions have the highest communicative value: They present high semantic content and an absence of redundancy. This is especially true in this study, since they are a key clue for the participants to solve the problems in the given tasks. Thus, their inherently high communicative value might actually be enhanced in this case.

Tasks

Five different information gap tasks were carried out in each dyad. One of them was designed for the purpose of helping the participants familiarize themselves with information gap tasks, recasts, and interaction with a NS interlocutor. Also, it was hoped that learners' developmental readiness for the targeted features could be examined through the task. Hence, the data collected from that task was not included for analysis. Two tasks were designed to elicit "3rd person -*s*," and the other two tasks were designed to elicit "locative prepositions" (e.g., *in*, *at*, *on*, *below*, *beneath*, *under*, and *next*) and "plural -*s*." The tasks were adapted from *Keep Talking* (Klippel, 1984) and *Fifty-Fifty: A Basic Course in Communicative English* (Wilson & Barnard, 1992).

Procedures

All participants individually met a NS interlocutor and the researcher two times. On the first day of the individual meetings, each participant completed a questionnaire including their personal information. After that, the participant engaged in the first task with a NS interlocutor. While interacting, the NS provided recasts on the participant's non-target-like utterances, and the interaction was audiotaped and videotaped. Sixteen out of twenty participants showed their ability to use the three targeted linguistic features although they were not able to correctly use each feature consistently. The other four participants showed the emergence of one or two targeted features.

On the second day, each participant interacted with the NS, engaging in the four tasks. Each participant was provided recasts on their non-target-like use of not only the targeted linguistic features but also other features. However, the focus of the NS's feedback was mostly on the targeted linguistic features. In the second and fourth tasks, the participants received picture stories of two fictional characters' (John's and Harry's) daily routines which were arranged in order. The NS had the same pictures as the learner, but not in order. The participants were instructed to explain John's/Harry's daily routines to the NS interlocutor to help him/her to put the pictures in order. In order to encourage the participants to use simple present tense, an example sentence of the first picture of each story was given (e.g., He wakes up at 7:15). In the third and fifth tasks, the participants received pictures of John's and Harry's rooms while the NS had incomplete pictures of the rooms, missing some objects. The participants were instructed to explain the location of the objects missing from the NS picture to help the NS complete the same picture the participants had. The instructions for all tasks were given in both oral and written forms. The interactions lasted 40 minutes, on average. All of the interactions were audiotaped and videotaped.

Immediately after each interaction was completed, the videotape was rewound and played for the participant. While the researcher and the participant watched the videotape together, the researcher paused the tape after each recast episode, and then asked the participant to recall what s/he was thinking at the time the feedback was given. As a distracter, the same question was asked after an episode irrelevant to recast moves. Also, the participant was encouraged to pause the tape at any time if s/he wanted to add his/her thoughts at any

particular point during the interactions. The interview was conducted in Korean in order to make sure that the participants' recalls would not be obscured by their lack of English speaking ability. On average, it took 65 minutes to finish each recall session. The procedure was audiotaped.

Coding

The data, consisting of transcripts of recast episodes and the participants' recall comments, were coded as follows.

Recasts

A recast is operationalized as a native interlocutor's isolated rephrasing of a participant's erroneous utterance into a more target-like utterance. A recast episode, following Nabei and Swain (2002), contains a sequence of one or more turns, involving at least one recast. It begins with a non-target-like utterance which is recast by a native interlocutor, and ends with a student's response to the recast or topic continuation.

Error Types

The recast episodes were classified into three categories according to the targeted linguistic features.

3rd person -*s*
He *drive* his car.
He *shower* at seven-thirty.

Plural -*s*
There is a pair of *slipper*.
There are *cup*.

Prepositions
There are two bookcases *on* the corner.

Stimulated Recall

The participants' recall comments on recasts were first classified into three types: No Recognition of Recast (NRR), Recognition of Recast (RR), and No Comment (NC). Recognition, in this study, is

defined as isomorphic with noticing at the level of awareness. Following Schmidt (1990, 1995, 2001), recognition is operationalized as interpretative comments on the native interlocutor's response to the participant's utterance.

The No Recognition of Recast category contains instances of the participant failing to recognize recasts as correction as well as cases in which the participant made irrelevant comments. As in (1), the participant did not recognize the feedback on his non-target-like use of "3rd person -*s*." He thought that the NS might not understand him clearly because of his pronunciation.

(1)   No Recognition of Recast
        NNS: He leave his company with his coworker.
        NS: He leaves his company with his coworker?
        NNS: Yes, with his coworker. Oh, two.
        (Recall: I think he wanted to confirm if I said "with coworker." My pronunciation is so bad. So, he might not understand me.)

The category of Recognition of Recasts refers to those cases in which the participant recognized recasts as correction. This category was divided into two sub-groups: No Recognition of Gap and Recognition of Gap. The term *gap* denotes the difference between a recast and its trigger utterance. No Recognition of Gap refers to the instance where the participant recognized a recast as correction, but he/she could not identify the locus of the problem in his/her own utterance, hence failing to recognize the gap between the correction and his/her own utterance. As illustrated in (2), the NNS made an error not on the use of "plural -*s*" but on the use of "preposition *on*." She recognized that the NS provided correction to her error, but she failed to recognize the real problem that caused the recast.

(2)   No Recognition of Gaps

        NNS: The wall, wall is two pictures.
        NS: On the wall, there are two pictures?
        NNS: Yes, there are two pictures.
        (Recall: I was wrong. I think I said "picture." But I was supposed to use plurals here, right?)

Recognition of Gap includes the case in which the participant not only recognized a recast as correction but also recognized the difference between the correction and his/her own utterance, as illustrated in (3).

(3)   Recognition of Gaps
        NNS: On the table, two glass.
        NS: Two glasses.
        NNS: Yes, two glasses
        (Recall: I said "two glass." I need to say "glasses.")

The last category, No Comment, contains the comments that express inability to recall anything related to a particular recast such as "I don't know" and "I don't remember."

RESULTS

There were 432 recast episodes related to the targeted linguistic features in the 20 NS-NNS dyads. Detailed results are organized and reported below according to the research questions.

The Extent of Learner Recognition of Recasts and Gaps

Of the 432 recast episodes the participants recognized 250 (58%) recasts as correction to their errors while 134 (31%) feedback episodes were merely recognized as communicative moves such as confirmation checks. The remaining 48 (11%) recasts were coded as no comment (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. RECOGNITION OF RECASTS

	RR	NRR	NC	Total
Number	250	134	48	432
Percentage	58%	31%	11%	100%

Note. RR=Recognition of Recast; NRR=No Recognition of Recasts; NC=No Comment

As Table 2 shows, when recognition of gaps were analyzed, the

participants recognized the gaps 42% (183 out of 432) of the time. Cases where participants recognized recasts as correction, but failed to recognize the gap between their utterances and the recasts, were observed 16% (67 out of 432) of the time.

TABLE 2. RECOGNITION OF GAPS

	RG	NRG	NRR	NC	Total
Number	183	67	134	48	432
Percentage	42%	16%	31%	11%	100%

Note. RG=Recognition of Gap; NRG=No Recognition of Gap; NRR=No Recognition of Recasts; NC=No Comment

Learner Recognition vis-a-vis Linguistic Features

The distribution of the 432 recasts vis-à-vis the three linguistic features is as follows: 3rd person -*s*, 130 (30%); plural -*s*, 109 (25%); prepositions, 193 (45%), as Table 3 shows. To examine the participants' recognition of the targeted features, the cases of RG, NRG, NRR, and NC were counted for each linguistic feature.

As illustrated in Table 4 and Figure 1, recasts which focused on 3rd person -*s* elicited Recognition of Gap 27% of the time, plural -*s*, 50% of the time, and locative prepositions, 49% of the time. The participants recognized recasts as correction, but failed to recognize gaps 21% of the time for recasts on 3rd person -*s*, 10% for plural -*s*, and 49% for prepositions. As for the cases where the participants did not consider recasts as correction, 38% of recasts on 3rd person -*s* displayed NRR, 26% for plural -*s* and 29% for prepositions. The result of a chi-square test proved a relation between learner recognition and the targeted linguistic features ($\chi^2 = 3.879$, df = 4, p = .424, and Cramer's V= .071). However, as the value of significance and Cramer's V show, the relation seemed not very strong.

TABLE 3. NUMBER OF RECASTS ON THE TARGETED LINGUISTIC FEATURES

3rd person -*s*	Plural -*s*	Prepositions	Total
130 (30%)	109 (25%)	193 (45%)	432

TABLE 4. RECOGNITION OF RECASTS VIS-À-VIS LINGUISTIC FEATURES

	RG	NRG	NRR	NC	Total
3rd person -s	35 (27%)	27 (21%)	49 (38%)	19 (14%)	130
Plural -s	54 (50%)	11 (10%)	29 (26%)	15 (14%)	109
Prepositions	94 (49%)	29 (15%)	56 (29%)	14 (7%)	193
Total	183	67	134	48	432

Note. RG=Recognition of Gap; NRG=No Recognition of Gap; NRR=No Recognition of Gap; NC=No Comment
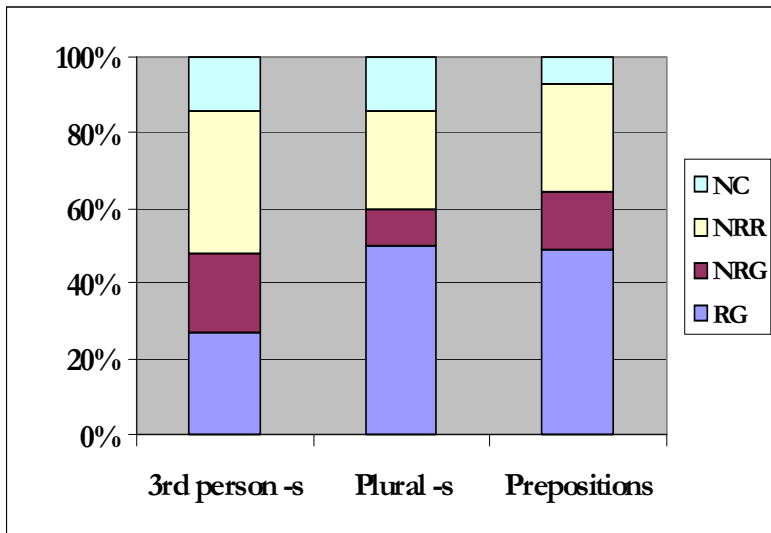
FIGURE 1. RECOGNITION OF RECASTS VIS-A-VIS LINGUISTIC FEATURES

DISCUSSION

Recognition of Recasts

This study found that, during the NS-NNS interactions, 58% (250 out of 432) of recasts provided to the participants' errors on the targeted linguistic features led them to recognize the didactic purpose of the recasts. Moreover, the recasts triggered recognition of the gap

42% of the time. This is relatively higher than the findings from Roberts (1995), but lower compared to Philip's (2003) finding. Roberts (1995) reported that, in his study, the students noticed 38% of recasts (i.e., recognition of recasts), and understood the nature of 25% of recasts (i.e., recognition of gaps). On the other hand, Philp reported 60-70% of recasts led to noticing the gap. In terms of the linguistic content of recasts, two morphosyntactic features targeted in this study (3rd person -*s* and plural -*s*) were relatively accurately recognized compared to Mackey et al.'s (2000) study. In their study on learners' perception about feedback, most of the feedback on morphosyntax was rarely perceived as being about morphosyntax: The learners' accurate perception of the morphosyntactic problems that elicited feedback during interaction was quite low (13% in ESL; 24% in IFL).

The differences among the findings can be accounted for by the range of learner errors targeted. In the Mackey et al. and Roberts studies, feedback was provided to a wide range of learner error types, while this study mostly targeted three grammatical features and Philp focused on English question formations. This explanation can be supported by the claim that the focus of feedback needs to be limited to be effective (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998, Doughty, 2001; Han, 2002b). Also, it should be noted that, in the current study, recasts were only provided in an isolated form. Although it was not noted what types of recasts were actually provided in the other studies, the controlled use of recast type in this study might have affected the outcome.

Another interesting finding observed in the case of Recognition of Gaps was that the participants tended to look for the information they wanted to know in the input afforded by the NS's feedback. An example follows:

(4)   NNS: There is a sofa, uh ... down side, not under ...
       NS: Below the window, there is a sofa.
       NNS: Yes, below the window.
       (*Recall: I was not sure which preposition I should use here. So, I expected to hear something from him.*)

As her recall explained in the above example, the participant realized that she could not say what she wanted to express precisely in the target language (TL). In other words, she noticed a "hole" in

her interlanguage (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Swain (1998) suggests that such "noticing the hole" may be an important stimulus for noticing the gap. This phenomenon was observed 12 times (7%) in the participants' comments. This low frequency of observation may not offer any evidence supporting the relation between "noticing the hole" and "noticing the gap"; however, this preliminary finding suggests that "noticing the hole" may result in learner-generated attention to certain forms (Williams, 2001), which may lead learners to actively search for information they need in input, in this case, in feedback.

Another interesting finding involving learner-generated attention was observed while examining instances of No Recognition of Gap: 16% of recasts were recognized as correction yet did not lead to recognition of gaps. While the previous finding shows a facilitative role for learner-generated attention, this shows the inhibitory consequence of learner-generated attention on further processing (i.e., orientation in Tomlin & Villa, 1998). An example follows:

(5) NNS: Trash, uh, garbage, no trash can, uh ... newspaper.
     NS: There is one newspaper **in** the trash can.
     NNS: There is one newspaper.
     (Recall: I should have said "there is." Again, I did not use "there is.")

In this example, the NNS only noticed her errors in omitting the subject and verb *there is* without recognizing her errors in omitting the preposition *in*. As her recall showed, she made the same error (omitting *there is/there are*) several times before this episode. Her high consciousness of making errors with *there is/are* seemed to keep her from recognizing the preposition errors, even with the NS's emphasis on prepositions (i.e., heightening his intonation). Such instances were observed a few times more after this episode in her recall comments. Her self-generated attention to the error with *there is/are* might have prevented her from paying attention to the recasts on prepositions. This can be deemed an instance in which a mismatch takes place between externally generated salience by feedback providers and internally generated salience by learners (Sharwood Smith, 1991).

While the participants noticed the didactic purpose of more than half the recasts, they did not recognize 31% (134 out of 432) of recasts as correction. For the purpose of finding out a possible cause

of No Recognition of Recasts, such recast episodes were further analyzed. It was found that, in approximately half of the cases of No Recognition of Recasts, the participants made extra efforts to explain the pictures, and they recalled that they had a difficult time explaining the pictures to the NNS. One of the examples of this case follows:

(6)   NNS: Higher and down, uh the other picture is higher ... uh, in right, uh ... higher the other pictures. Left picture in left is low.

NS: The picture **on** the right is higher than the picture **on** the left?

NNS: No, uh ... Yes. Yes. Higher picture is draw and sun and mountains.

(Recall: I had really hard time explaining the location of the two pictures. I thought he did not understand my explanation)

As her recall shows, it seemed difficult for her to convey her meaning in this interaction, which might have resulted in her paying attention to meaning rather than form. In this process, it appeared that she was more likely to recognize the NS's response as feedback on meaning than correction on her error. This finding is congruent with VanPatten's (1990) claim that conscious attention to meaning in the input competes with conscious attention to form, in particular, in the case of early stage learners. Dual processing (i.e., focusing on meaning and form simultaneously) may be too much of a load for the early stage, for learners with limited attentional capacities.

Recognition and Linguistic Features

The finding that the participants showed more sensitivity to recasts on plural -*s* and prepositions than 3rd person -*s* suggests that recasts on plural -s and prepositions were more noticeable than those on 3rd person -*s*. This outcome is congruent with the claim made in the L2 literature with regard to the relation between communicative value and salience. VanPatten (1996) proposed that "it is the relative communicative value of a grammatical form that plays a major role in determining the learner's attention to it during input processing and the likelihood of its becoming detected and thus part of intake" (p. 24).

The findings on learner recognition and linguistic features in this study are only suggestive, but the study in part evidenced what has been theorized in the SLA literature. Given the consensus that a certain level of learners' attention is needed for SLA, recently, the literature has been focusing more on the different levels of attention required depending on other factors such as linguistic domains/features (e.g., Gass, Svetics, & Lemelin, 2003; Simard & Wong, 2001). In this regard, many SLA researchers claim that the extent of learners' noticing may be dependent on linguistic features (e.g., DeKeyser, 1995). VanPatten (1994), for instance, suggests that "different aspects of language are processed and stored differentially" (p. 31). Schmidt (1995) more directly states that the degree of required attention for learning varies with the aspects of language involved. Nevertheless, there appears to be a lack of research on the effect of learners' attention to form afforded by recasts on different linguistic domains/features (Long et al., 1998). Such studies would be valuable in that they could provide a more concrete picture of the role of recasts in SLA.

LIMITATIONS

In hindsight, the design of the study suffered a number of weaknesses. The obvious ones are the small size and subsequent lack of control for individual difference among the participants. However, a more central problem might be found in the methodology itself.

Following Schmidt's notion of "noticing," in the present study, the participants' recognition of recasts was operationalized as their ability to give a verbal report. The participants' recognition of recasts and gaps were, therefore, measured only by their reports in the stimulated recall session. Admittedly, this raises complicated methodological and interpretive issues (Gass & Mackey, 2000). There is no guarantee that the participants' verbal reports are consistent with their actual thoughts at the moment the recasts occurred. The participants might have reported their thoughts at the moment they were watching the tapes rather than the moment the recasts were provided. By the same token, given that learners' awareness is momentary and fleeting, what was noticed might not have been fully verbalized: The participants might have recognized more than what they reported, and they might not

have been able to report because of their limited memory capacity (Mackey et al., 2002) or due to a simple lack of propensity to articulate their experience. The absence of reports of recognition does not mean the recasts were not recognized or vice versa. In order to achieve validity and reliability of research, it seems crucial to develop and employ additional measures in future studies (Mackey, 2006).

In addition, most studies on learner noticing and feedback, including the current study, have been conducted in laboratory settings in which feedback is consistently and intensively provided to pre-selected linguistic features. Also, learners can get individualized attention from feedback providers. However, considering none of these conditions seem to be characteristics of feedback provided in classrooms, the findings from this study may not be applicable to intact L2 classrooms (Nicholas et al., 2002).

CONCLUSION

The present study addresses questions regarding learner recognition of recasts and gaps involving 3rd person -s, plural -s, and prepositions in NS-NNS dyads. To summarize, to a considerable extent the participants recognized recasts as correction and successfully recognized the gaps between their output and the input afforded in the recasts. With regard to the targeted linguistic features, the form with the high communicative value appeared to be more noticeable, as VanPatten (1996) proposed.

This study also raises some issues related to learner recognition of recasts and gaps. First and foremost, it was revealed that externally generated focus on form by the NS was not always consistent with internally generated focus on form by the participants. For corrective feedback to be effective in L2 learning, it is critical for learners to recognize which of their linguistic problems elicited the feedback (Carroll, 2002; Han, 2001; Long, 1996; see Leeman, 2003 for a contrasting view). This gives us a reason to consider the potential "mismatch" in the provision of feedback, especially, in classrooms where a wide range of features are corrected.

In addition, as evidenced in this present study, when the participants' attention was drawn to meaning, they had difficulty noticing the gap between their output and the input provided in the

context of feedback. This finding suggests that the level of difficulty and semantic complexity of tasks learners are engaged in may also effect learners' noticing of feedback, which may in turn impinge on their noticing of gaps. As a result, adjusting the semantic loads required by tasks to the level learners are able to handle seems to be important. Further research on the potential relation between tasks and learner noticing also seems warranted, considering the frequent use of communicative tasks in L2 classrooms.

ENDNOTES

1. Noticing the gap has been considered an essential step for restructuring learner interlanguage toward more target-like norms (Ellis, 1991; Gass, 1997; Schmidt & Frota, 1986).
2. In Sharwood Smith's (1993) characterization of negative input enhancement, recasts are placed at the lower end of the elaboration continuum.
3. In the L2 literature, the term 'perception' is used broadly and loosely, subsuming other terms such as noticing, awareness, understanding, and interpretation in relation to corrective feedback.

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Strategic Reading Awareness of Bilingual College Students in an EFL Learning Context

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates metacognitive awareness of reading strategies of college EFL students when reading academic materials in English. It also examines the relationship between the use of reading strategies and the individual variables of English proficiency and self-rated reading proficiency. Using the *Survey of Reading Strategies* (SORS, Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002), data were collected from bilingual Korean-Chinese university students living in China. Results of the study revealed that the bilingual students showed a wide range of metacognitive awareness of reading strategies and reported a moderate to high use of strategies. Problem-solving (cognitive) strategies were most used by the participants, followed by global (metacognitive) strategies and support strategies. An ANOVA test revealed linear relationships between reading strategy use and English proficiency and self-perceived reading proficiency; those students who reported earning higher grades in an English language class, and who rated themselves as advanced readers reported using more reading strategies than those with lower reported grades in English, and showed higher levels of metacognitive awareness of reading strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Many studies in second or foreign language reading have investigated how second or foreign language readers deal with texts when

reading in the target language (Block, 1986; Hosenfeld, 1987; Jimenez, 1997; Jimenez, Garcia, & Pearson, 1996; Lau & Chan, 2003; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). While the cognitive processes involved in reading comprehension in a second or foreign language are equivalent to those in the first language (Cummins, 1991), constructing meaning in the second language is more demanding (Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Fitzgerald, 1995; Wright, 1997). While second language (L2) readers may use the same reading strategies in their L2 that they use in their first language reading (Cziko, 1978; Feng & Mokhtari, 1998; Jimenez, et al., 1996; Van Wijnendaele, 1998; Wagner, 1993), they generally face more difficulties in L2 reading because of weaker linguistic skills, limited vocabulary, and different cultural backgrounds, all of which impede comprehension. Consequentially, L2 readers' reading strategy use differs from that of native readers (Alderson, 1984; Block, 1992; Cziko, 1978; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001).

In addition, the language learning processes of bilinguals differ from those of monolinguals because of their amplified experience in language learning. One example is bilinguals' superiority over monolinguals with effective strategy application during language learning and use (Durgunoglu, Mir, & Arino-Marti, 2002; Nayak, Hansen, Krueger, & McLaughlin, 1990; Purdie & Oliver, 1999; Wharton, 2000). The Korean-Chinese university students in the current study are bilingual in Korean and Chinese, and because of their cultural background have learned both formally and informally to read and write in these two languages from a very early age. Their bilingualism is a result of language acquisition and language learning contexts, and their experience has included explicit and implicit training in how to employ strategies when constructing meaning from print (Hong & Leavell, 2006).

The agreement to establish formal diplomatic relations between China and Korea in 1992 has brought numerous cultural, educational, and social changes to both Korea and the Korean Autonomous Prefecture in China. Especially pertinent to this study, more and more Korean students have taken opportunities to attend universities in China, and more and more Korean-Chinese students have enrolled in universities or colleges in Korea for their higher education. The increasing number of Korean-Chinese students studying in Korea has focused the attention of teachers and researchers on the particular

needs of the Korean-Chinese students. It is very important for English instructors at Korean universities to be aware of possible differences in the thinking and learning behaviors of these students in order to assist them to be successful in learning and using English. Such attention to student needs can also lead to more successful academic and social adjustment in Korea.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

It is generally accepted that readers employ some strategies (e.g., skimming text, decoding words and phrases, predicting, constructing meaning, and analyzing sentence structure) when constructing meaning from text regardless of their reading ability or language proficiency level. According to Paris, Lipson, and Wixson (1983), strategies are "deliberate actions" (p. 295) taken to reach specific task goals or objectives. Reading strategies are more specifically defined as the deliberate conscious procedures used by readers to enhance reading comprehension (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Carrell, Gajdusek, and Wise (1998) also identified reading strategies as "the ways readers manage interactions with written text for effective reading comprehension" (p. 97). Carrell (1998) argued that such reading strategies allow "readers to elaborate, organize, and evaluate information derived from text" (p. 4). Orchestrating strategic thinking while reading directly impacts the degree and quality of the reader's comprehension.

Utilizing the right strategy at the right time and in the appropriate context is more important than just knowing existing strategies (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004; Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1983). This is where readers' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies comes in. Metacognition is often referred to as knowledge the reader possesses about his or her cognition during reading, which helps readers to monitor their reading processes and enables them to consciously change or adjust their strategic approach to the reading as needed to improve their understanding (Carrell, et al., 1998; Paris, et al., 1983). Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) have defined such metacognitive awareness as "deliberate conscious procedures used by readers to enhance reading comprehension" (p. 433). They furthermore stated that metacognitive awareness reflects advanced comprehension monitoring

techniques. Such awareness is an essential element for proficient strategic reading, and thus, learning and comprehension (Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989; Kern, 1989). Metacognitive awareness and strategic control during reading comprehension often signify a primary distinction between expert and novice readers (Carell et al., 1998). Students can positively impact their learning by becoming aware of and monitoring their thinking as they read, write, and solve problems.

Studies of L2 readers' metacognitive awareness and their use of reading strategies have shown that more successful readers exhibited more skillful application of strategies, indicating a positive relationship between L1 reading and the level of English proficiency (Block, 1986, 1992; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002, 2004; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002; Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001). Similar to proficient L1 readers, proficient L2 readers tend not only to be aware of what they are reading and possess greater metacognitive knowledge about reading, but also to employ strategies more appropriately and effectively than less proficient readers (Paris & Winograd, 1990; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Studies which examined the relationship between reading strategy use and self-rated reading proficiency have also reported higher use of reading strategies by readers who perceive themselves as high in reading ability (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001).

L2 readers have been shown to apply strategic thinking in their target language in ways that enhance their reading comprehension and assist them in facilitating the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information (Garner, 1980; Jimenez et al., 1996; Kletzien, 1991).

To date, the majority of studies on readers' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies have examined monolinguals' or ESL readers' awareness and use of strategies. Little is known about metacognitive awareness of reading strategies in bilingual college readers learning English as a   foreign language (EFL). To fill this gap in the literature, the study reported here investigated the use and metacognitive awareness of reading strategies of bilingual Korean-Chinese university students in an EFL context, a previously unexplored area. The influence of factors such as English proficiency and self-rated reading proficiency on choice and metacognitive awareness of reading strategies was also studied. The research questions guiding this study were:

1) What are the reading strategies bilingual Korean-Chinese university learners use when reading academic materials in English?
2) Is there a relationship between learner's reading strategy use and their English proficiency and self-rated reading proficiency?

METHOD

Participants

The participants in the current study were 106 bilingual Korean-Chinese university students attending a university located in the northeastern part of China, near the North Korean and Russian borders. The majority of students enrolled at the university are bilingual Korean-Chinese (over 90%), and the language of instruction is Korean. The participants were undergraduate students majoring in various disciplines: Social Science, Humanities, Engineering, and Natural Science. The students ranged from freshmen to seniors and included 47 males (44%) and 59 females (56%) with a mean age of 22. Among the participants, almost 60% (63) reported that they had studied English for at least 4 years. Most participants attended Korean ethnic schools (run by the Korean Autonomous Prefecture) at all levels (primary, middle, and high school) before they came to the university.

All participants acquired Korean at home as their mother language. Their informal Chinese (second language) education was also begun by their parents before the participants entered elementary school. Formal classroom-based Chinese language education began in second grade and continued throughout secondary school. Participants reported daily use of Korean and Chinese and nearly equal oral fluency and literacy in both languages (Table 1). In general, the participants rated their reading proficiency in Chinese, Korean, or English as higher than their overall communicative proficiency in that same language. This higher competence in L2 reading over the other language skills of speaking, writing, and listening is common to most foreign language learners due to the emphasis on reading comprehension in most EFL curricula (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. SELF-RATED LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND READING PROFICIENCY

		Beginning		Intermediate		Advanced	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Korean	Overall	5	4.7	13	12.3	88	83.0
	Reading	5	4.7	10	9.4	91	85.9
Chinese	Overall	4	3.8	58	54.7	44	41.5
	Reading	3	2.8	42	39.6	61	57.5
English	Overall	60	56.6	43	40.6	3	2.8
	Reading	45	42.5	52	49.0	9	8.5

N=106

Instruments

The 30-item Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002) was administered to measure the metacognitive awareness of reading strategies of bilingual EFL university students when reading an expository text. The SORS is a self-report instrument that uses a five-point Likert scale to assess strategy use in three areas: Global Reading strategies, Problem-Solving strategies, and Support strategies. Global Reading strategies (13 items) are intentional and well-planned techniques for monitoring or managing reading, such as having a purpose in mind before reading, and previewing elements of the text such as length, organization, tables, and/or figures. Problem-Solving strategies (8 items) involve localized and focused actions like working directly with context to understand textual information, for example, adjusting reading rate, predicting meaning, and rereading the text. Support strategies (9 items) refer to basic support techniques to improve reading comprehension, such as using a dictionary, taking notes, underlining, or highlighting textual information.

The SORS uses a five-point Likert-type scale to rate each participant's strategy use. The scale ranges from 1 to 5 (1 = I never or almost never do this, 2 = I do this only occasionally, 3 = I sometimes do this, 4 = I usually do this, and 5 = I always or almost always do this). The average scores for reading strategies on the SORS were interpreted based on the reporting scale established by Oxford (1990).

Slight changes and modifications were made to the wording on two

SORS items to make the instruments specific to the participants: under Support strategies, in item 8 "my mother tongue" was changed to "Korean or Chinese;" under Support strategies, item 9 "my native language" was changed to "Korean or Chinese." Other studies using the SORS as an instrument have reported relatively high reliability coefficients (as determined by Cronbach's alpha): for example, .89 with a sample of 302 native English-speakers and ESL college students (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). This study data yielded a high reliability coefficient of .91. See Table 3 for the SORS.

An individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) was designed by the researchers to collect individual background information and learning experiences of the participants, such as age, gender, academic major, use of language at home or with friends, and self-rated reading proficiency in English. (See Appendix for a copy of this instrument.) As a global indicator of English proficiency, participants were asked to report their final grade from an English language course taken the previous semester. Both questionnaires were translated into Korean to minimize any possible errors from misunderstanding and to ensure greater accuracy of results.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

The SORS was distributed to the 106 students during one class period by the course instructors, who gave a brief explanation of the purpose and nature of the study. The participants were asked to read each SORS statement and report their use of reading strategies by circling the appropriate number listed under each statement. The students were informed that they were free not to participate without incurring any penalty, and that the researchers were interested in their honest response to the items. Confidentiality procedures and how students could access study results were explained. After the completion of the instrument, the questionnaires were collected by the class instructor and given to the researcher for data analysis.

In order to analyze the collected data, several statistical techniques were used: Descriptive statistics (frequencies, means, and standard deviations) for summarizing demographic information and reading strategy use, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) for exploring any statistically significant differences in reading strategy use as a function of English proficiency and self-rated reading proficiency.

RESULTS

Overall Strategy Use

Descriptive statistics for overall strategy use by all participants are presented in Table 2. Overall reported strategy use for all participants fell within the medium range (M=3.31). Problem-Solving (cognitive) strategies were most used (M=3.57), followed by Global Reading (metacognitive) strategies (M=3.19) and Support strategies (M=3.17). The ANOVA test revealed a statistically significant difference in strategy use among the three categories of strategies (F=12.42, p<0.01). The Scheffe post-hoc test showed a significant difference favoring Problem-Solving strategy use over both Global Reading and Support strategy use (see Table 2).

TABLE 2. SUMMARY OF OVERALL STRATEGY USE AND F-TESTS FOR MEAN DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE THREE STRATEGY CATEGORIES

Variable	M	S.D.	Rank	F	Sig.	Difference*
Global	3.19	0.66	2			
Problem-Solving	3.57	0.70	1	12.42	0.00	PS>GS,SS
Support	3.17	0.63	3			
Total	3.31	0.69				

Note. Global=Global Reading strategies, Problem-Solving=Problem-Solving strategies, S=Support strategies
*p<0.05 (Scheffe post-hoc test)

To get a clearer sense of specific strategy use as reported by participants, Table 3 shows mean scores and standard deviations of individual SORS items in descending order from most preferred to least preferred. The most preferred item (M=3.75) was under Problem-Solving strategies (PS), "I try to get back on track when I lose concentration" followed by on of the Support strategies (SS), "When reading, I think about information in English and Korean or Chinese" (M=3.74). The least used strategy was Support strategies (SS), "I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read"

(*M*=2.44). As shown in the table, among 30 strategies, 11 strategies (37%) fell   within the high usage range (*above* 3.5), whereas 18 strategies (60%) within the range of medium usage (between 2.5 and 3.49). The remaining strategy fell in the low usage group (under 2.5). Table 3 also demonstrates the students' greater preference for Problem-Solving strategies by showing 7 of the 8 Problem-Solving strategies among the top 10 most-used strategies.

TABLE 3. PREFERENCES OF READING STRATEGIES OF BILINGUAL KOREAN CHINESE STUDENTS

Rank	Item	Description	M	SD
1	PS2	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	3.75	1.07
2	SS9	When reading, I think about information in English and Korean or Chinese	3.74	1.03
3	PS7	When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.	3.73	0.98
4	PS4	When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	3.67	1.08
5	SS4	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	3.65	1.14
6	PS3	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	3.63	1.06
7	PS1	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading.	3.58	1.06
8	PS8	When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	3.55	0.95
9	PS5	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	3.54	1.01
10	GS8	I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	3.53	0.99
11	SS3	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	3.53	1.12
12	GS7	I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	3.40	1.21
13	GS12	I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read.	3.39	1.05

Rank	Item	Description	M	SD
14	GS13	I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	3.39	1.08
15	SS6	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.	3.29	1.18
16	GS6	When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	3.28	1.14
17	GS11	I check my understanding when I come across new information.	3.26	1.07
18	GS9	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	3.25	1.07
19	SS8	When reading, I translate from English into Korean or Chinese.	3.16	1.13
20	GS3	I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.	3.15	1.12
21	GS5	I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.	3.14	1.14
22	PS6	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	3.11	1.17
23	GS2	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	3.10	1.04
24	SS7	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	3.07	0.98
25	GS1	I have a purpose in mind when I read.	2.98	1.07
26	SS2	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	2.92	1.32
27	GS4	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	2.85	1.21
28	GS10	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	2.75	1.17
29	SS5	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	2.75	1.11
30	SS1	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	2.44	1.14

Note. GS=Global Reading strategies, PS=Problem-Solving strategies, SS=Support strategies

Strategy Use by English Proficiency

Concerning overall reported use of reading strategies when grouped by English proficiency (as measured by their final grades of an English course), the ANOVA test revealed a positive linear relationship between English proficiency and reading strategy use ($F=13.76$, $p<0.01$; see Table 4). Students with A or B grades in English reported more frequent use of reading strategies in all three groups than those with grades of D or F. A Scheffe post-hoc test revealed that students who marked A as their grade in English tended to use more Global Reading strategies than students who scored D or F grades. Students with A or B grades reported higher use of Problem-Solving strategies than those with D or F grades. Students who marked A as their grade also showed greater use of Problem-Solving strategies than students with B or C grades. No statistically significant differences in reported use of Support strategies were found.

TABLE 4. SUMMARY OF VARIATION IN USE OF READING STRATEGIES FOR ENGLISH PROFICIENCY*

	A (n=32)		B (n=41)		C (n=24)		D/ F (n=9)		F	Sig.	Difference**
Variable	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Global	3.42	0.54	3.20	0.59	3.10	0.70	2.57	0.89	4.46	0.01	A >D/F
Problem-Solving	4.03	0.52	3.56	0.56	3.29	0.69	2.78	0.79	12.96	0.00	A,B>D/F A>B,C
Support	3.22	0.60	3.23	0.54	3.18	0.63	2.70	0.93	1.92	0.13	--
Total	3.55	0.65	3.33	0.58	3.19	0.67	2.69	0.84	13.76	0.00	A,B,C>D/F A>C

Note. Global=Global reading strategies, Problem-Solving=Problem-Solving strategies, Support=Support strategies
*Measured by final grades in an English course
**$p<0.05$ (Scheffe post-hoc test)

Strategy Use by Self-Rated Reading Proficiency

Students who reported their reading proficiency as either advanced or

intermediate used more strategies than students at a beginning level. Table 5 shows a statistically significant difference in overall use of reading strategies ($F=6.35$, $p<0.01$), indicating more frequent use of reading strategies by advanced or intermediate students. Problem-Solving strategies were reported as being used more by students who thought they were advanced in English reading ($F=4.04$, $p=0.02$). There were no statistically significant differences among the students in reported use of Global Reading strategies and Support strategies.

TABLE 5. SUMMARY OF VARIATION IN USE OF READING STRATEGIES FOR SELF-RATED READING PROFICIENCY

Variable	Beginning (n=45)		Intermediate (n=52)		Advanced (n=9)		F	Sig.	Difference*
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Global	3.04	0.74	3.30	0.58	3.31	0.62	2.07	0.13	--
Problem-Solving	3.37	0.71	3.68	0.66	3.95	0.59	4.04	0.02	A>B
Support	3.08	0.69	3.21	0.53	3.41	0.74	1.29	0.28	--
Total	3.16	0.73	3.40	0.63	3.55	0.69	6.35	0.00	A, I >B

Note. Global= Global Reading strategies, Problem-Solving= Problem-Solving strategies, Support= Support strategies
*$p<0.05$ (Scheffe post-hoc test)

DISCUSSION

This study explored reported reading strategy use by bilingual Korean-Chinese university students when reading academic materials in English in an EFL setting. Participants showed moderate to high overall strategy use within three categories of reading strategies. These findings are consistent with those of Jimenez, Garcia, and Pearson (1995, 1996) who found that bilingual Spanish-English middle school students reported high levels of knowledge and awareness of metacognitive reading strategies. Jimenez et al. concluded that reading expertise in their

participants' first language informed their cognitive decision-making in their second language as well. The current study provides evidence in support of enhanced strategic reading awareness for learners who are already literate in more than one language and learning an additional language.

Extant literature on L2 reading has shown the close link between L2 readers' L1 reading proficiency and their level of proficiency in the target language. Studies have found that readers with higher L2 proficiency reported more frequent use of reading strategies and greater metacognitive awareness of reading strategies than did readers with lower L2 proficiency (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002; Phakiti, 2003; Sheorey & Moktari, 2001; Song, 1998). Other studies of individuals identifying themselves as bi-literate have shown that reading skills and strategies can be transferable from one language to another (Jimenez et al., 1995; Krashen, 1996; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004). This seems to be true for the current study as participants who rated their reading abilities in Korean and Chinese as advanced (86% and 58% of students respectively) had higher strategy use in English.

Problem-Solving (cognitive) strategies were the most frequently reported as used by participants. The use of strategies such as paying close attention to text, re-reading for better understanding, and getting back on track when losing concentration, are typical techniques used by readers to comprehend text and to enhance their reading comprehension (Baker & Brown, 1984; Palinscar & Brown, 1984). A study of multiliterate Moroccan university students learning English also reported higher use of Problem-Solving strategies by the Moroccan students than by monolinguals (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004). While active engagement with text is one hallmark that typically distinguishes a better reader from a poorer one, the amount of conscious awareness applied to such strategy application tends to decrease with increased reading ability. This suggests that   although bilingual Korean-Chinese may have expertise in orchestrating learning a new language or reading in two languages (Hong-Nam & Leavell, in review), as EFL readers they are still at a stage in their reading development where they are highly dependent on text cues during meaning construction. This is due to limits to their English

vocabulary.

There was a positive linear relationship between overall use of reading strategies and readers' self-perceived reading ability. Looking at the differences in use of the three categories of reading strategies, Problem-Solving strategies were used more by advanced students, while no significant   differences were found in the use of Global Reading strategies and Support strategies, regardless of the level of the students' self-perceived reading abilities. Again, it may be that while some students can be categorized as more advanced in their reading abilities in English than others, they have still not achieved a degree of fluency in their English reading that leaves enough cognitive energy for more Global Reading strategies to be utilized frequently or effectively. Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) reported similar findings in their comparative study of ESL and native English-speaking college readers.

Overall, the bilingual Korean-Chinese college students in this study reported knowing about and using strategies at all three levels during academic reading in English. Whether this application of strategies was due to strategy instruction in ESL classes or to a more natural process of transferring strategic knowledge from their heritage (Korean) and second (Chinese) language to the target language, English, cannot be proven based on the findings of the study reported here. However, there was definitely a link between strategy use and reading proficiency.

Because many Korean-Chinese students, especially those pursuing higher education in Korea, will face the challenge of acquiring English for Academic Purposes, teachers in Korea might consider investigating and supporting Korean-Chinese students in building awareness of and effect-tive use of reading strategies in order to enhance comprehension. It is important for teachers and researchers in Korea and China to identify the reading strategies of bilingual Korean-Chinese readers and sensitize them to those reading strategies in order to promote an enhanced active engagement with text which includes greater metacognitive processing and monitoring. Such instruction can help Korean-Chinese to be autonomous readers and successful academically.

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APPENDIX: INDIVIDUAL BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE (IBQ)

Please choose (only one) or write the answer that is most appropriate to you after reading each statement.

1. Age _____ 2. Sex: Male _____ Female _____
3. Academic year: Freshman ___ Sophomore ___ Junior ___ Senior ___
4. Major field of study:
   (1) Social Science   (2) Humanities   (3) Engineering   (4) Science
5. Language(s) you usually speak at home: _____
6. Language(s) you usually speak with your friends: _____
7. How long have you been studying English in a formal setting (school)?
   _____

8. What is the main reason for taking English courses at school?
   (1) To get a grade (required course or easy credit)
   (2) For future career and education
   (3) Interested in English language and culture
   (4) Other   _____

9. Please list an English course taken last semester and the final grade.
   _____

10. Please mark (✓) Elementary, Middle, and High schools you attended.

11. Please rate (✓) yourself in overall proficiency level and reading proficiency in English, Korean, and Chinese.

	Korean		Chinese		English	
	Overall	Reading	Overall	Reading	Overall	Reading
Beginning						
Intermediate						
Advanced						

	Elementary school	Middle school	High school
Korean ethnic school			
Chinese ethnic school			

L2 Working Memory and L2 Reading Skill

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ABSTRACT

This paper, a partial replication and extension of Harrington and Sawyer's (1992) study, investigates individual working memory capacity differences among advanced second language (L2) learners of English in relationship to their reading skill. The study found that L2 learners with larger L2 working memory capacity outperformed those with lesser capacity on measures of reading skill. The study also suggests the importance of L1 working memory capacity as a predictor of success in L2 learning. Indeed, L2 working memory capacity is a critical indicator of individual differences in L2 reading skills and deserving of further investigation of its pedagogical applicability.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been considerable interest in the contribution of working memory to language development (Gathercole & Baddeley, 1993; Gathercole, 1994). Working memory capacity refers to the ability of "immediate memory processes" involving both the simultaneous storage and processing of information (Harrington & Sawyer, 1992, p. 26). While this notion is often taken for granted, working memory is indeed closely involved in a broad range of our daily cognitive activities such as memorizing simple digits, following lengthy directions or conversations, and solving multistep math problems. It is frequently asserted that the comprehension of both written and spoken language depends on some form of working memory (Baddeley, 1986) since the comprehension of language involves both processing and storage. Functional deficits of working memory have been reported to cause significant problems in listening

or speaking, and especially in reading (Andrade, 2001; Baddeley, 1986). The construct of working memory capacity has thus been invoked to explain and measure individual differences in reading comprehension (Daneman & Tardif, 1987), which requires higher order cognitive skills.

The present study is a partial replication and extension of Harrington and Sawyer's (1992) study, which investigated individual working memory capacity differences among advanced L2 learners of English in relation to their reading comprehension. First, I will address theoretical issues involving the structure and functions of working memory in relation to processing in reading. The reading span test designed to measure working memory capacity will also be discussed. Then, I will describe the methodology and procedures used in three experiments, and this will be followed by a discussion of the results. I will conclude by assessing the limitations of the present study as well as the theoretical and practical implications of the results related to working memory and reading comprehension for second language acquisition (SLA) pedagogy.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In terms of interactive models of language processing, clear differences have been observed between skilled and unskilled L2 readers (Rumelhart, 1977). Skilled readers automatically use the bottom-up (i.e., text-driven) processes to a greater degree, which allows the readers to allocate more resources to top-down (i.e., concept-driven) processes (Shiffrin, & Schneider, 1977). The initial process of accurate, rapid, and automatic recognition of words frees up the reader's mind so that attention can be devoted to other simultaneous processes involving higher order knowledge structures (schemata) and meta-cognitive abilities (Day & Bamford, 1998; Harrington & Sawyer, 1992). Perfetti (1985) believed that since these processes take place partly within a limited-resource processing mechanism (McLeod & McLaughlin, 1986; McLaughlin & Heredia, 1996), also called working memory, an inefficient lexical access, which is slow and demanding, makes it more difficult for a reader to hold propositions in working memory (Just & Carpenter, 1980; Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978). In other words, if the reader fails to hold

the clause or sentence in working memory long enough to construct meaning, his or her comprehension can consequently be severely disrupted (Day & Bamford, 1998). Therefore, some researchers have claimed that working memory capacity is the primary source of individual difference in cognitive abilities outside of domain-specific knowledge variations (Baddeley, 1986; Baddeley & Hitch, 1974; Kyllonen & Christal, 1990). Greater working memory size may be an advantage in foreign language learning (Skehan, 1989). The role of a limited-capacity memory is evidenced in the three stages of information processing: input, central processing, and output. The limitation of working memory places a fundamental constraint on how the input is handled in language learning (Skehan, 1998). It is assumed that good readers have more efficient skills, which allow more capacity to be devoted to the storage of partial products of the reading task. That is, the more efficient processes of the good reader could be functionally equivalent to a larger storage capacity. On the other hand, the poor readers' less efficient processes would appear as equivalent to a smaller storage capacity. The "trade-off between active processing and storage" in working memory (Daneman & Carpenter, 1980, p. 451) has been viewed as a potential source of individual differences in reading skill (e.g., Baddeley, Logie, Nimmo-Smith, & Brereton, 1985; Daneman & Carpenter, 1983; Daneman & Merikle, 1996; Engle, Cantor, & Carullo, 1992; Mackey, Philp, Egi, Fujii, & Tarcumu, 2002; Turner & Engle, 1989).

Relating individual differences in working memory capacity to reading abilities requires that we be able to measure each individual's working memory capacity. Empirical support for the role of working memory in skilled reading has come from several correlational studies in which working memory capacity is assessed by variants of the reading span test. This is a test devised by Daneman and Carpenter (1980) to tax both the processing and storage functions of working memory rather than just the storage functions, as traditional digit span and word span tests do. In the reading span test, participants were given increasingly longer sets of unrelated sentences to read aloud. At the end of each set, they attempted to recall the final word of each sentence in the set. The number of sentence-final words recalled was assumed to reflect the efficiency with which the individual could process and comprehend the sentences. A wealth of studies to date in both first language (L1) and L2 have identified close links between

this reading span measure of working memory and individual differences in reading comprehension (e.g., Daneman & Carpenter, 1980, 1983; Daneman & Merikle, 1996; Harrington & Sawyer, 1992; Osaka & Osaka, 1992; Osaka, Osaka, & Groner, 1993; Masson & Miller, 1983; Miyake & Friedman, 1998).

Notably, Harrington and Sawyer's (1992) study has drawn tremendous attention for its pioneering role in the research addressing L2 working memory issues. Harrington and Sawyer found that individual differences in L2 reading skill are highly correlated with L2 working memory span, at least among relatively advanced adult L2 learners. It was also shown that there is a moderate correlation between L1 and L2 working memory (r = .39, p < .005). Given the scarcity of relevant studies in the field, Harrington and Sawyer's study deserves more replications with more refined methodological approaches as well as with participants from various backgrounds. The current study was undertaken in order to determine whether the findings of previous studies can be replicated with a similar methodology and with L2 learners in different L1-L2 constellations.

EXPERIMENT 1

The purpose of this study is, therefore, to test the extent to which differences in L2 reading skill can reliably be related to differences in L2 working memory capacity. The first experiment attempts to answer this research question by employing the reading span test. While Harrington and Sawyer's (1992) study examined the reading skills of Japanese learners of English, the current research assesses the reading comprehension of Korean English learners. The simple span tests (i.e., digit span test and word span test) are also included in the study in order to provide a form of discriminant validity for the reading span test as a measure of active storage (Daneman & Carpenter, 1980), as well as to ensure that the results from the reading span were not due to the L2 participants being unable to perform the task because of limited English proficiency. In addition, as the study attempts to identify differences in the ability to process linguistic information and not linguistic knowledge *per se* (Harrington & Sawyer, 1992), only intermediate-advanced L2 learners were included in the research. The two hypotheses linked to the research question are:

Hypothesis 1. Higher-level L2 readers have larger L2 working memory capacity.

Hypothesis 2. Lower-level L2 readers have smaller L2 working memory capacity.

Method of Experiment 1

Participants

Seventeen students at the University of Hawaii at Manoa whose L1 was Korean participated in this study. Fifteen were enrolled in graduate programs and two were undergraduate students. With three exceptions, the participants were all female and ranged from 23 to 41 years of age ($M = 25.88$). They came from a variety of academic backgrounds, including linguistics, second language studies (SLS), Asian studies, anthropology, and biology. The participants' reported CBT TOEFL scores ranged from 230 (PBT = 570) to 267 (PBT = 630), with an average of 254 (PBT = 612).

Materials

Materials for the study consisted of a battery of memory tests in both Korean and English, and a set of measures indexing L2 reading proficiency. Three memory tests were used: digit span, word span, and reading span. Both the Korean and English digit span tests consisted of six sets of two strings of random digits, for a total of 78 digits. The shortest set consisted of two four-digit strings. The length of each string increased by one digit per set, with the last set comprising two nine-digit strings (Miller, 1956). The digits were presented one by one, which made it impossible for the participants to chunk the numbers in order to remember them. Second, the Korean and English word span tests involved a total of 50 words, which were unrelated simple nouns, in five sets of two strings of words. The shortest set consisted of two three-word strings. The length of each string increased by one word per set, with the last set being composed of two seven-word strings. Finally, the L1 and L2 reading span tests each consisted of 28 sentences. Each sentence was 10-12 words in length, consisted of simple, active words, and ended with a different word. The sentences were presented in sets of increasing size, starting with two sentences per set and extending to up to five sentences per set. A grammaticality

judgment task was incorporated in the L2 reading span test to ensure that the participants were reading and processing for meaning without focusing only on the retention of recall items. Of the entire test set, half of the sentences were grammatically correct and half were not. Grammatically correct sentences made sense semantically and syntactically (e.g., *The season that people often associate with love is spring*); ungrammatical sentences were generated by reversing the last four to six preterminal words (e.g., *The woman screamed and slapped man the old in the face*).

Procedure

Each of the three sets of memory tests was administered individually and introduced to the participants with detailed instructions. In the digit and word span tests, each participant would listen to the tape and at each prompt, write down on the answer sheet what he or she could recall. For the reading span test, the test sentences were presented on 5×7.5-inch index cards, with one sentence per card. The participants were asked to read the sentences aloud, and at the end of each set of sentences, they were presented with a prompt to recall the sentence-final word for each sentence in the set. When the cue card was presented, the participant wrote down the sentence-final words on the answer sheet. The three memory tests were later scored, based on key answers, and included in the analysis. Each correct answer was counted as one point. The L2 English reading comprehension measures consisted of the TOEFL grammar (M = 25.88, SD = 2.05) and reading scores (M = 26.53, SD = 2.23), which were obtained from each participant after performing the memory tests.

Results of Experiment 1

Table 1 presents correlations between L2 memory span and L2 reading scores. The results show a fairly strong correlation between the TOEFL reading score and the reading span measure (r = .68, N = 17, $p < .01$). This finding is comparable to those obtained in earlier studies with L1 participants (e.g., Daneman & Carpenter, 1980, 1983; Daneman & Merikle, 1996; Tuner & Engle, 1989) as well as with L2 participants (e.g., Harrington & Sawyer, 1992; Osaka & Osaka, 1992; Osaka, Osaka, & Groner, 1993).

TABLE 1. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN L2 MEMORY SPAN AND L2 READING SCORES

	L2 Reading Scores	
L2 Memory Span Scores	TOEFL2 (G + W)	TOEFL3 (Reading)
Digit	.19	.38
Word	.56*	.39
Reading	.48	.68*

Note. N=17, *p* < .01.

On the other hand, while the original study showed quite a significant correlation between TOEFL grammar and L2 reading span (r = .57), the present study has a moderate-to-strong relationship between the two measures (r = .48). It is therefore presumed that the inclusion of participants' writing scores in the TOEFL grammar scores would have adversely affected the correlational relationships between the L2 memory span measures and the TOEFL grammar score. Table 2 presents correlations between L1 and L2 memory span measures.

TABLE 2. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN L1 AND L2 MEMORY SPAN MEASURES

	Digit		Word		Reading	
Memory Span	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Digit						
L1						
L2	.47*					
Word						
L1	.66**	.10				
L2	.47*	.53*	.51*			
Reading						
L1	.53*	.36	.49*	.20		
L2	.35	.27	.18	.25	.57**	

Note. N=17, *p* < .05, **p* < .01.

While both the English digit and word span measures do not demonstrate any significant correlation with the English reading span measures (r = .27 and .25, respectively), the Korean simple span measures are fairly strongly correlated with the Korean reading span test (r = .53 and .49, N = 17, respectively; p < .05). This result is

rather striking because these positive relationships between L1 digit and word spans and L1 reading span were not found in previous studies (e.g., Daneman & Carpenter, 1980; Harrington & Sawyer, 1992). The strong correlation between the L1 simple spans and the L1 reading span might reflect the participant's efficiency in processing due to his or her familiarity with the native language, which would allow allocation of more storage capacity in performing the L1 memory span tests.

The correlations between simple span measures are strong in both languages. For the Korean digit and word span tests, the correlation is significant ($r = .66$). The correlation between L2 simple span tests also seems to be strong ($r = .53$, $N = 17$, $p < .05$). When the correlation is made across the two languages, each L1 simple span measure correlates, though less strongly, with L2 simple spans: Korean digit and English digit ($r = .47$, $N = 17$, $p < .05$); and Korean word and English word ($r = .51$, $N = 17$, $p < .05$). Finally, a high correlation between the Korean reading span and the English reading span is quite noteworthy ($r = .57$, $N = 17$, $p < .01$).

In sum, hypotheses 1 and 2, which hypothesized that there would be a positive relationship between L2 reading skills and L2 working memory capacity, were thus confirmed, as evidenced by the correlational results.

EXPERIMENT 2

The findings in Experiment 1 are significant in that they show a potential predictive power of L2 working memory for L2 reading skills. The critical roles of L1 digit, word, and reading spans in indicating the corresponding L2 simple spans and reading span are another key finding. Given the salient findings in the previous experiment, the current study was further extended into Experiment 2 with the goal of exploring the performance of participants with diverse L1 backgrounds. Since the participants in this sample were of varying L1 backgrounds, only L2 measures were employed. A research question and two hypotheses equivalent to those for Experiment 1 were generated.

Method of Experiment 2

Participants and Materials

The participants in the study were 27 high-proficiency non-native speakers of English. Twenty-five were graduate and two were undergraduate students at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. With five exceptions, the participants were females whose first languages were mostly Korean, Japanese, and Chinese, ranging from 23 to 41 years old (M = 30.26). They came from a variety of academic backgrounds, including linguistics, SLS, Asian studies, anthropology, MBA, computer science, and biology. The participants' reported CBT TOEFL scores ranged from 230 (PBT = 570) to 300 (PBT = 677), with an average of 262 (PBT = 624). The battery of memory tests for L2 English and the set of measures indexing L2 reading proficiency employed in Experiment 1 were used to conduct Experiment 2.

Procedure

A procedure similar to that in Experiment 1 was followed, except that only L2 memory span tests were carried out. After the individual administration of three sets of memory tests, digit and word span being auditory while reading span was visual, each participant reported his or her TOEFL grammar (M = 26.3, SD = 2.1) and reading scores (M = 27.3, SD = 2.2) either immediately following the testing or later via email.

Results of Experiment 2

Table 3 presents correlations between L2 memory span scores and L2 reading measures. The digit and word span measures, in general, did not correlate significantly with the TOEFL grammar and writing measures, the magnitude of correlations ranging from .27 to .31. By contrast, the TOEFL reading score showed a strong correlation with the L2 reading span measure as predicted (r = .59, N = 27, p < .01). This result is also consistent with previous findings both in L1 and L2 studies.

TABLE 3. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN L2 MEMORY AND L2 READING SCORES

Memory Span Scores	Reading Scores	
	TOEFL2 (G + W)	TOEFL3 (Reading)
Digit	.28	.34
Word	.31	.37
Reading	.27	.59*

Note. N=27, *p* < .01.

Table 4 summarizes correlations between L2 memory span measures. The correlation between digit span and word span measure reaches significance ($r = .56$, $N = 27$, $p < .01$). However, the correlations of the digit and word spans with the reading span are weak-to-moderate ($r = .35$ and $.19$, respectively).

TABLE 4. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN L2 MEMORY SPAN SCORES

Memory Span Scores	Memory Span Scores		
	Digit	Word	Reading
Digit	-	-	-
Word	.56*	-	-
Reading	.35	.19	-

Note. N=27, *p* < .01.

EXPERIMENT 3

The findings in Experiment 2 supported the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between L2 reading comprehension proficiency and L2 working memory capacity, as evidenced by the results of the reading span test. On the other hand, the performance on the digit and word span measures turned out to bear little relationship to reading skills. The results are thus in agreement with those of Harrington and Sawyer (1992), suggesting that L2 working memory capacity would be reflective of L2 reading skills, whereas simple L2 digit and word spans would not. However, there remains a question as to whether the lack of correlation could be due to the difference in mode of presentation between the simple span tests and

the reading span test. That is, in the present study, the simple spans were presented orally whereas the reading span test, naturally, was visual. It may be argued that the difference between listening and reading comprehension skills would affect the disparity between the simple span and the reading span measures. Furthermore, it seems likely that the auditory simple span tests will have little to do with reading proficiency, which is clearly based on decoding and interpreting visual materials. Experiment 3 was thus extended to overcome the methodological limitation of the previous study and answer the question, "to what extent does this difference in mode of presentation (auditory vs. visual) influence the results of memory span tests?" In this experiment, two visual simple span tests were devised and performed with the purpose of minimizing the methodological gap between the simple span tests and the reading span test. The following hypotheses were formulated on the basis of the research question.

Hypothesis 1. Higher-level L2 listeners have larger auditory memory span.
Hypothesis 2. Lower-level L2 listeners have smaller auditory memory span.
Hypothesis 3. Higher-level L2 readers have larger visual memory span.
Hypothesis 4. Lower-level L2 readers have smaller visual memory span.

Method of Experiment 3

Participants and Materials

The 27 participants who participated in Experiment 2 also acted as subjects for the following experiment. Materials consisted of a set of memory tests similar to the two simple span tasks employed in Experiment 2. The digit span test consisted of six sets of two strings of random digits, totaling 78 digits. The shortest set consisted of two four-digit strings. The length of each string increased by one digit per set, the last set comprising two nine-digit strings. The word span test consisted of five sets of two strings of unrelated simple nouns. The shortest set consisted of two three-word strings. The length of each successive string increased by one word per set, with the last set comprising two seven-word strings.

Procedure

The two visual simple span tests were each performed as individual administrations. The digit span test was presented on 5×7.5-inch index cards, one string of digits per card. The participants read the string of digits aloud from index cards placed one at a time in front of them. When the cue card was presented, they wrote down what they could recall on the answer sheet. The reading span test was carried out in a similar manner to the digit span test. Unlike in the digit span test, however, the participants were encouraged to recall the words without concern for the order of presentation and spelling. The participants' TOEFL listening score (M = 25.8, SD = 2.35) as a measure of L2 listening comprehension was obtained and included in the analysis so that it can be compared with the results on the performance of auditory simple span tests performed in Experiment 2.

Results of Experiment 3

The results obtained in Experiment 2 were integrated into the analysis of Experiment 3 to investigate the relations among the variables. Table 5 presents descriptive statistics for the L2 digit and word span tests. Notably, in terms of the difference in the means, due to the differing mode of presentation, the digit span test performance was much superior visually to the word span test. In the visual digit span test, both minimum and maximum scores were higher than in the auditory one, with one participant recording a perfect score. A t test for dependent means yielded a significant difference between the auditory and visual digit spans (t = 12.42, N = 27, p < .01) and between the auditory and visual word spans (t = 3.27, N = 27, p < .01).

TABLE 5. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR L2 SIMPLE SPAN TESTS

Memory Span	Mode of Presentation	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Digit	Auditory	59.81	6.56	46	72
	Visual	73.85	3.64	64	78
Word	Auditory	41.41	2.82	36	47
	Visual	43.22	3.54	35	49

Table 6 presents correlations between memory span measures and TOEFL scores. Hypotheses 1 and 2 posited a positive relationship between the scores in the L2 auditory simple span tests and L2 listening comprehension measure. The results support these hypotheses: The correlations between the auditory digit and word span measures and the TOEFL listening score were moderate to strong (r = .37-.48). In particular, the digit span score exhibited a stronger correlation with the TOEFL listening measure than the word span score did. Lastly, the correlation between the reading span measure and the TOEFL reading score (r = .59, p < .01) was even higher than those between the visual digit or word spans and the TOEFL reading score (r = .54 and .52, respectively). To sum up, Hypotheses 3 and 4, which posited a positive relationship between L2 reading skills and visual memory spans, were also supported by the strong correlations.

TABLE 6. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEMORY SPAN MEASURES AND TOEFL SCORES

Memory Span Tests		TOEFL Scores		
		Listening	Grammar	Reading
Auditory	Digit	.48**	.28	.34*
	Word	.37*	.31	.37*
Visual	Digit	.27	.24	.54**
	Word	16	.47**	.52**
Reading		.19	.27	.59**

Note. N=27, *p < .05, **p < .01.

Correlations between the memory spans measured by employing different modes of presentation are presented in Table 7. As was the case for the correlation across the auditory simple spans in Experiment 2 (r = .56), the correlation between visual digit span and visual word span is very strong (r = .77). Also, the visual simple spans show a stronger relationship with the reading span than the auditory simple spans do. Except for the weak correlation between the auditory word span and the reading span measure (r = .19), the results suggest that there is a fairly high correlation between auditory and visual memory for simple span materials and a moderate correlation between simple auditory and visual memory spans, and reading span. These findings are somewhat comparable with Daneman and Carpenter's (1980)

findings with L1 participants, as well as with Harrington and Sawyer's (1992) with L2 participants.

Table 7. Correlations between L2 Memory Span Scores (Auditory vs. Visual)

Memory Span Tests		Memory Span Tests				Reading
		Auditory		Visual		
		Digit	Word	Digit	Word	
Auditory	Digit	-	-	-	-	-
	Word	.56**	-	-	-	-
Visual	Digit	.48**	.49**	-	-	-
	Word	.53**	.63**	.77**	-	-
Reading		.35*	.19	.43*	.41*	-

Note. N=27, *p* < .05, **p* < .01.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Theoretical and Pedagogical Implications

The findings in the present study have remarkable implications for L2 working memory capacity in relationship to L2 proficiency. First, in general terms, the crucial role of L2 working memory as an index of individual differences in processing capacity justifies its use as a salient indicator of L2 aptitude (Robinson, 2002; Sawyer & Ranta, 2001). Indeed, language aptitude is a highly important factor in foreign language learning, whatever other factors may be of significance (Carroll, 1981). Carroll (1990) claims that foreign language aptitude consists of four subcomponents: "phonetic coding ability, grammatical sensitivity, memory abilities, and inductive language learning ability" (p. 14). Given this view, one can consider working memory capacity to be a component of language aptitude itself, clarifying its relationship to the SLA process.

Second, working memory capacity can play a critical role in explaining L2 development across individuals and ages based on processing capacity limitations. In respect of the transfer of reading comprehension skills from L1 to L2, Walter (2004) suggested that transfer is closely linked to the development of verbal working

memory in L2. Working memory theory might be able to provide an alternative means to account for the developmental stages in SLA, independent of particular linguistic structures, as exemplified by reading span.

Lastly, from a pedagogical standpoint, the construct of working memory capacity makes substantial contributions to the theory of L2 learning and instruction. Knowledge of the notion of working memory will prove conducive to enriching teachers' reading instruction by providing critical insights into the overall processes of L2 reading, general strategies for presenting information to students, and ways to encourage students to engage in reading. For instance, as an important monitor as well as facilitator in students' language learning, a teacher might be able to develop beneficial strategies for the students' effective use of working memory in receiving, storing, integrating, retrieving, and using the L2 input. In addition, the reading span test has the potential to provide an alternate reading skill assessment, which is relatively quick and easy to administer (Harrington & Sawyer, 1992).

Limitations, and Suggestions for Future Research

Despite these significant implications, by simply relying on bivariate correlations between L2 working memory capacity and L2 reading skills, this study fails to establish a clear direction of influence between the two variables. The limited number of participants involved also appears to be a weakness. The limitations of this current study call for future research, involving more systematic and refined methodology and analytic perspectives.

First, concerning the design of methods, there is a need for future research to employ a computer-based test to control the processing time per participant when presenting the memory tests. Also, in order to obtain more authentic data demonstrating the participants' current L2 reading and grammar skills, alternate methods such as on-the-spot reading and grammar tests should be devised, instead of relying on reported TOEFL scores. This would reduce the error variance in the correlations with the memory span tests. Most importantly, a scoring scale for the memory span tests needs to be devised in order to measure the participants' memory spans in a more accurate manner. The present study added the total correct answers for the memory span

scoring, which seems to be fairly problematic in representing the participants' individual memory spans. A better methodological design should be devised to strengthen the findings in this area.

Second, it would be stimulating to do a similar study comparing children and adult L2 learners, in order to determine to what extent the differences in L2 proficiency are related to L2 working memory capacity. Baddeley (1986) argued that "aging may be an interesting and productive variable to study within the context of working memory" (p. 19). In fact, most L1 studies have found that working memory declines with age. For instance, Salthouse (1991) suggested that the slowing speed of processing information may underlie the decline in capacity of working memory with age. Therefore, the study of age-related changes in sentence comprehension would provide indirect evidence on the effect of changes in L2 working memory capacity on syntactic processing in L2 sentence comprehension tasks (see Phillips & Hamilton (2001) for a detailed discussion of the adult aging research on the working memory model).

Finally, a longitudinal study that measures development of L2 working memory capacity across time would be worthwhile; it would overcome the limitations of simple bivariate correlational studies based on cross sectional development as a variable and shed some new light on precisely how and when working memory capacity limits the L2 comprehension processes.

In conclusion, L2 working memory is of significant importance for clarifying L2 reading processing, because it interacts with the basic cognitive systems assumed to underlie L2 learning. Therefore, a deeper understanding of the reading process and how students learn to read an L2 would offer "a stronger theoretical rationale for L2 reading programs and instructional approaches" (Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 11). Given the inherently complex- and variable-ridden phenomena in this field, as more studies are replicated and extended, the clearer our understanding of the mysterious nature of L2 teaching and learning will be.

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Does Grammar Teaching and Feedback Promote EFL Learning?

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports on a case study that looked into how an EFL teacher dealt with grammar and feedback when interacting with a particular pre-intermediate EFL group of 11 learners. This study aimed to investigate whether grammar teaching should be taught implicitly or explicitly in EFL classes and whether feedback may be profitable and promote learning. The results reveal that focusing on grammar and on interactive feedback seem to contribute to second language development.

INTRODUCTION

This paper reports on a case study that investigated, by means of qualitative research, how a group of 11 Brazilian learners dealt with grammar,[1] in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL)[2] classroom. More specifically, this study investigated how Foreign Language (FL) grammar was taught as well as learned through interaction between the teacher and the learners with the goal of understanding how grammatical instruction was negotiated by classroom participants (Anton, 1999; Bergsleithner, 2002; Donato & Adair-Hauck, 1992; Donato, 1994; Ellis, 1994; Kennedy, 1996; Mitchell & Myles, 1998). Thus, the literature search section raises two main issues related to grammar teaching: (a) The use of implicit or explicit grammar instruction, and (b) the use of feedback with the purpose of focusing on second language (L2) formal linguistic aspects. The data analysis section discusses both issues. This discussion is important for the EFL teaching field because it examines how to teach grammar and how to give feedback in EFL classes. In the final section, pedagogical

implications, limitations of this study, and suggestions for further research are presented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A polemical and controversial issue regarding instruction is whether formal instruction can lead to language improvement and whether grammar is best taught implicitly or explicitly (Bergsleithner, 2002; Borg, 1999a; Doughty, 1991, 2001; Ellis, 1993, 1994, 1997; Robinson, 1995; Seliger, 1977). In the Second Language Pedagogy (SLP) field, English language teaching has been an object of investigation by educators and researchers for many years. When *TESOL Quarterly* first started publication in 1967, the teaching of grammar was a central issue in Second Language Pedagogy.

Since then, the role of explicit language instruction in language classrooms has been the major difference between the methodological approaches, that is, the main difference lies in the way they deal with grammar. Language Pedagogy approaches have developed different ways of teaching grammar in language classes in the last decades (Bergsleithner, 2002; Borg, 1999a; Celce-Murcia, 1992). However, after the arrival of the innovative Communicative Approach, in which the main goal was communication during L2 or FL learning, the need for form-focused instruction (Spada, 1997) re-emerged in language classes due to the need to make learners aware of L2 formal aspects (Fotos & Ellis, 1991; Fotos, 1994; Spada, 1997; Swain, 1998). Spada (1997, p. 73) claims that form-focused instruction describes "any pedagogical effort to draw learners' attention to form, either implicitly or explicitly."

For Ellis (1994), there are two ways to achieve such instruction. The first is through activities that require both communication and attention to form, and the second is through corrective feedback during performance of communicative activities. In an implicit approach, learners are required to induce rules from examples, whereas in an explicit approach, they are given rules and then required to practice. Ellis (1994) states that there are advantages to explicit instruction and that adults retain the knowledge of a rule better if it is presented explicitly. This view is corroborated by Seliger (1977), who shows that some features are better suited to an explicit approach while others are

better suited to an implicit approach. The efficacy of these two kinds of instruction may depend upon the linguistic feature being taught, the complexity of the feature, the level of language proficiency participants have, and the individual differences they have in language learning preferences and experience as well (Robinson, 1995, 2001, 2002).

Using Feedback With the Purpose of Form Focusing on L2 Formal Aspects

According to Swain (1995), a communicative-oriented environment is not the only essential condition for L2 acquisition.[3] For him, an efficient way to improve learners' performance is by giving them instruction while classroom activities are performed in EFL classes. Therefore, by means of instruction, teachers can lead learners to reprocess their output, thus, developing their interlanguage (Swain, 1995, 1998).

Still, Swain (1995) also suggests that feedback is a helpful strategy to improve L2 performance and that explicit feedback identifies the exact location and nature of an error. Some authors (such as Lyster, 1998; Roberts, 1995, based on Long, 1977) classify teacher correction types into the following categories: (a) *explicit correction,* in which teachers supply the correct form, indicating that the learner's utterance is incorrect; (b) *recasts*, in which teachers reformulate all or part of the student's utterances; (c) *elicitation*, in which teachers elicit a reformulation; (d) *metalinguistic clues*, in which teachers provide comments or any information related to the accuracy of the learner's sentence; (e) *clarification requests*, in which teachers ask learners to repeat their utterances; (f) *repetition*, in which teachers repeat the learners' ill-formed utterance, using intonation to highlight the error; and (g) *cues*, in which teachers cue learners to repeat their utterances (see more detailed information on these categories in the Data Analysis section). Following these authors' rationale, feedback is used in EFL classes mainly with the purpose of focusing on L2 formal aspects (see the episode transcripts in the Data Analysis section below).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The general objective of this case study was to investigate whether grammar teaching and feedback promote L2 learning in a particular group. More specifically, the research questions that guided and motivated this case study are as follows:

> (1) Should grammar be taught implicitly or explicitly in EFL classes? More specifically: (a) How do the teacher and the learners deal with formal linguistic aspects during the process of grammar teaching/learning in the EFL classes? (b) What discourse elements were used by the teacher during negotiation of grammar? (c) What consciousness-raising mechanisms were identified in the episodes? (2) Will grammar feedback be profitable and promote learning in EFL classes? More specifically: What kinds of feedback does the teacher use?

METHOD

This study has been influenced by ethnographic research in the language classroom. Ethnographic research tries to examine the classroom, through non-controlled and naturalistic observation (Chaudron, 1988). In other words, it follows the qualitative or interpretative research paradigm (Van Lier, 1988). In addition, a qualitative study is more holistic and tries to understand human behavior, as well as recognizes that veracity depends on the observer and that knowledge is relative (Nunan, 1991).

Context and Subjects of Research

The subjects of this research were an English teacher and a group of 11 Brazilian participants (3 male and 8 female) at the adult preintermediate level of English (English IV) in the Extracurricular Language Course, at the *Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina* (UFSC) in Florianopolis, SC, Brazil. The teachers in the Extracurricular Language Course are usually M.A. or Ph.D. students from the Applied Linguistics, Linguistics, and English Literature programs at UFSC. The book used in the course is from the *New Interchange* series (Richards, 1990).

The Teacher

The teacher observed was very committed to his students and involved with his teaching and with the program of the course. He was an M.A. student at UFSC. This teacher reported, in a personal conversation, that he usually tries to teach communicative classes, although he believes that explicit grammar instruction is crucial in particular situations, in which negotiation of form, meaning, and function are required to facilitate L2 learning. According to him, it is the teacher's role to perceive such situations in each particular group and learner as well.

The Participants

This particular group of 11 participants was very interested in the course and always participated in classroom activities. They had a very good relationship with their teacher, and because of that, they seemed to feel comfortable asking the teacher about grammar, vocabulary, phonetics, and other linguistic aspects of the L2. The language proficiency level of the class was considered average, with one student repeating the course. Most of the students were reported by the teacher to be good and only one to be very weak.

The Researcher's Role and Identity

The researcher's role in this investigation was that of a participant observer, a person who can suspend judgment and acquire insider knowledge of the teaching and learning processes (Frank, 1999, p. xi). The research aim was to observe pedagogical strategies of formal instruction in EFL classrooms. Both the teacher and the learners were aware of the researcher's identity, but only the teacher was informed of the topic of this investigation, in order not to inhibit students when they were interacting and dealing with form through dialogic talk[4] (Donato & Adair-Hauck, 1992, Donato, 1994).

Data Collection

Data were collected in a classroom over a three-month period. The study was carried out within an ethnographic framework involving the

researcher's observation, note-taking, and audio- and video-recordings of the 90-minute classes.

DATA ANALYSIS

This section reports on two analyses. First, some discursive elements observed in the teacher's speech while negotiating grammar with learners, and second, some kinds of feedback used by the teacher. Concerning the former, the teacher used discursive elements in order to help learners to be aware of linguistic aspects in a particular context. In the following examples, some of those elements, such as e*xplicit terminology*, *question keys and statements,* and *self-repetition and statements*, will be shown. The second analysis will show different kinds of feedback used by this teacher in this particular group as well as display some examples for each type. The transcript conventions used in the episodes are presented in Appendix 1. The letters "T" and "S" are respectively used to identify who the teacher and the students are in the episodes. Note that S1 means the first student that interacts with the teacher in each particular episode, and thus S2 is the second, and S3 is the third, and so on. This coding system means that S1, S2, etc. are not necessarily the same participant across different episodes.

Explicit Terminology

The following example shows an episode in which the teacher and the learners were discussing the use of adjectives ending with -*ed* and with -*ing*. In this episode the teacher used terminology as a strategy to talk about grammar in an easier and familiar way. Borg (1999b, p. 97) argues in favor of terminology, saying that "grammatical terminology has an important role to play in classroom discourse, particularly in enabling students to communicate with teachers about language."

> *Episode 1. The difference between adjectives with "-ed" and with "-ing"*
> 1. S1: how do I know when -*ed* is an adjective?
> 2. T: ok + let's start by the title + I think they are going to help you + what's
> 3. an adjective? it's a word or it's a quality that you use to

    differentiate the nouns + red

4. card + green card ++ participle is related to verbs + so here we are going to see

5. adjectives that are derived from verbs + that's why they are participles + we have

6. seen a lot of times the past participle which the verb is used with the present perfect

7. remember? so we have two kind of participles + present participle and past participle

8. + and here we have present participles as verbs ending in *-ing* and past participles

9. ending in *-ed* + right? this means that from the most of the verbs we can transform

10. them in adjectives + we have this in Portuguese too but in English for example we

11. have the verb to bore right? even if you don't know the meaning + bore plus *-ing* is?

12. ((writing it down on the board))

13. Ss: boring

14. T: ah boring! you know right? ok bore plus *-ed*

15. Ss: bored

16. T: great so we see that from the verb we derive two adjectives + what's the

17. difference between boring and bored?

18. S2: external in the past in the past

19. S1: things are boring

20. T: boring yes we use the *-ing* form when the adjective is internal + for example ++ the

21. English class is boring + I know that you don't agree but it is the example

22. Ss: ((laughs))

23. T: I am bored!

    In Episode 1, we can see that after S1 asks the teacher about the adjective ending in *-ed* (line 1), the teacher explicitly gives a long grammar explanation, focusing on the specific linguistic aspect without much interaction between him and his students in order to show them that some adjectives are derived from verbs. Then, the teacher and the learners start interacting and focusing on grammar in lines 13-23. In line 16, the teacher calls their attention to form by telling the students where both adjectives derive from. By means of a question, in lines 16 and 17, the teacher tries to keep learners motivated in this task.

Finally, he leads them to construct another form for another meaning, in lines 17-20.

Keys and Statements

The following grammar-instructional episode will illustrate that the teacher used some keys and statements in his explanation in order to help his students understand the construction of the following grammar point more easily. When teachers use questions as keys, these questions can be seen as essentially supportive elements which can trigger comprehension in learners (Kennedy, 1996). In this way, teachers try to create real-life situations in which learners need to be aware of the relationship between grammar, meaning, and function. For Kennedy (1996), teachers should not give ready answers in order to lead their learners to higher levels of competence. Episode 2 presents different ways the teacher can support learners and interact with them by negotiating form and meaning as well.

> *Episode 2. Modal May/negative*
> 1. T: let's go to the review now + now I'm open for your questions + your doubts +
> 2. S1: why I cannot say: maybe it means you don't may?
> 3. T: you DON'T may? ok + let's start on the beginning + uh + don't means DO NOT +
> 4. and than you have may and you have fish + right? ok + what's the auxiliary verb in
> 5. don't may fish?
> 6. S1: do
> 7. S2: may
> 8. T: do? may? remember that all modals are also auxiliary verbs + remember that? they
> 9. are modal auxiliary verbs ++ and than we have a DO real auxiliary verb + the fact is +
> 10. the point is + you never have in this situation + a modal with another auxiliary verb
> 11. S1: No? Hmmm + OK...
> 12. T: the negative comes from the auxiliary + that's why may not fish, ok?

In Episode 2, the teacher focuses on grammar terminology, but through a dialogic instruction, in which an explanation is embodied in

a discursive negotiation between him and his students (Donato & Adair-Hauck, 1992). Then, S1 has a doubt about the negative form of *may* (line 2). The teacher explains the meaning of *don't* and *may* as an auxiliary verb (lines 3-10). Afterward, the teacher asks a question in order to make the learners reflect about the *modal verbs* form and function in the utterance (lines 4 and 5). After that, he shows them that they cannot use two auxiliary verbs in the same clause (line 10). In some situations, the teacher uses focal statements, such as repetition of a word or of the whole sentences (e.g., line 3), and higher intonation or stress on certain words (in lines 3, 9). These language devices are very relevant to the learning process, especially when the teacher uses them to call learners' attention to certain points of the explanation. Thus, learners' consciousness-raising could make them capable of recognizing important features of input and further transform input into intake.

Self-Repetition and Statements

The following episode shows how the teacher and the learners deal with grammar when they focus on *If*-clauses. In this episode, the teacher tries to show learners the relationship between the clauses and the correspondent verb tense by using examples and repeating several times the idea of present, past, or future.

Episode 3. Grammar Focus: If-clauses
1. T: what do you have here + present, past or future?
2. Ss: present
3. T: yeah + f I find $ 750,000 today + I will return tomorrow + present and future, ok?
4. T: what would you do if you found money on the street?
5. S1: I would take it to the police
6. T: GOOD! so + did you take the idea? + remember the beginning of the semester + I
7. started explaining the if clauses + let's refresh your mind + if I found $750? + again
8. you have two clauses + this sentence here + present + past + or future?
9. Ss: ((nobody answered))
10. T: look at the verb ((pointing to the verb on the board and underling it)) ++ present

11. past or future?
12. Ss: past
13. T: ok + past + I wouldn't return ++ what tense?
14. Ss: future
15. S2: past
16. T: the idea is the future + right? if I find the money + I will return it ++ if I found the
17. money + I would return it
18. T: Another example, what would you do if you get zero?
19. S1: I will cry
20. T: you will cry? Good! and if you got a zero?
21. S1: I will cry ++
22. S3: I would cry
23. T: very good! You would cry! me too!

In Episode 3, learners participate, although they do not say much. They try to define the verbal tense as present, past, or future. However, they do not yet build sentences applying the tenses, probably because of the degree of difficulty. Thus, the teacher uses self-repetition and statements as a strategy to help them. This help provides the learners the support they need to carry on speaking in English, especially when they have to use a complex grammar structure (Kennedy, 1996). Then, in order to help learners understand the idea of present and past, the teacher focuses on the specific form and function, making them reflect on the real and hypothetical situations (lines 16-21), according to the verb tense.

The next episodes will show the feedback types used by this teacher.

Feedback Types in Dialogic Interaction

The kinds of feedback given by the teacher in some episodes were analyzed in order to see how the teacher gives feedback when he and his learners negotiated form and meaning. The results about feedback types presented in this section are based on the categories of corrective feedback suggested by Lyster (1998) and by Roberts (1995), both authors based on Long (1977), in response to learners' errors. In order to facilitate the understanding of the different kinds of feedback used in this study, this section presents examples of error correction given by this particular teacher to this particular group.

Explicit Correction

Explicit correction is the manner in which a teacher shows the inaccuracy of a learner's utterance by supplying its correct form. An example of this can be seen in the following episode.

> *Episode 4. Explicit Correction*
> 1. T: let's correct this sentence + I was commuting to work when I lived out of town
> 2. you have to use suburbs instead of out of town
> 3. S1: what is the preposition to use here?
> 4. T: in
> 5. S1: in a
> 6. T: in a NO + in THE + in the suburbs

In this example, the teacher gives explicit grammar feedback to S1, as can be seen on lines 2 and 6. The teacher's intention with this explanation was probably to help S1 not make this error again, although explicit correction may not be profitable for some learners who do not learn through explicit correction.

Recast

In some situations, the teacher used recasts, although, according to Lyster (1998), the recast is the least effective form of feedback, as recasts are mere reformulation of learners' utterances. Thus, the learners may be unaware of the feedback's focus when corrected by means of recasts. The following episodes give examples of recasts.

> *Episode 5: Recast Example One*
> S1: the dreams is important
> T: the dreams are important
>
> *Episode 6: Recast Example Two*
> S1: you don't can't
> T: you CAN'T

As can be observed, the teacher responds to S1 by correcting the verb which agrees with the subject, immediately showing him that the subject-verb agreement was used incorrectly (*Episode 5*). In *Episode 6*, the teacher gave S1 a reformulation removing the incorrect "don't."

Elicitation

Elicitation is the type of feedback by which teachers elicit a reformulation of learners' utterances and is very profitable for skill and knowledge development because it leads learners to reflect consciously about the errors they have make. The following example reveals the teacher's concern for giving learners a different way to interact in order to build up their awareness of linguistic aspects. In the two examples that follow, the teacher seems to make learners aware of a grammatical rule. The first example is about the use of main verbs after a modal verb while the second example is about the correct agreement between the subject and the *be*-verb. He is adopting a dialogic kind of instruction (Donato, 1994) in order to encourage learners to participate and negotiate grammar aspects in the classroom as well as to make learners aware of some formal linguistic aspects (Ellis, 1994; Fotos, 1994).

Episode 7. Elicitation One
  1. S1: maybe it means you may not to fish here
  2. T: maybe it means?
  3. S1: you may not
  4. T: fish here + is it correct?
  5. S2: is not to fish?
  6. T: let's see + maybe it means you may not fish here + that's
           the question + is it fish or to fish?
  7. S1: fish
  8. T: fish or to fish?
  9. Ss: fish
10. T: Good! Excellent!

Episode 8.   Elicitation Two
1. T: what were you doing Saturday night?
2. S1: I were visiting my friends
3. T: you were what?
4. S1: I was visiting my friends
5. T: Great! Very good!

Metalinguistic Clue

According to Lyster (1998), and Roberts (1995), metalinguistic clues are comments or any information provided by the teacher which relates to the accuracy of the learner's utterances. In this study, metalinguistic clue was the strategy most often used by the teacher,

which suggests that he worries about learners' awareness of how language works, in other words, how form, meaning, and function are related to each other. Also, he seems to believe that metalinguistic knowledge[5] may contribute to a better understanding of grammar use. In the following episode, the teacher helps S1 to be aware of where his mistake is, showing him that he forgot the subject of the sentence.

> *Episode 9. Metalinguistic Clue*
> 1. S1: ok + now remember + can't go above the speed limit
> 2. T: repeat + you forgot to say the subject + can you repeat? Use the subject now!
> 3. S1: you can't
> 4. T: good: + go on + repeat the whole sentence now

Clarification Request

This strategy often uses facial expressions or body gestures (Lyster, 1998) and aims to elicit modified output from the learner by means of requesting clarification. Many times, the teacher approached the learner who made the mistake in order to scaffold him at the moment the learner was trying to reconstruct the utterance, thereby making him aware of the correct form. Episode 10 presents a clarification request.

> *Episode 10. Clarification Request*
> 1. T: what were you doing when the plane crashed?
> 2. S1: I watched TV
> 3. T: you WHAT? ((facial expression showing something is incorrect))
> 4. S1: I was watched TV
> 5. T: YOU WERE WATCHED? ((facial expression again))
> 6. S1: I was saw the TV
> 7. T: I was watching TV ++ you have to use the verb in the gerund with *-ing* to indicate
> 8. an action you were doing when the plane crashed, ok?

In Episode 10, the teacher led S1 to perceive his mistake by using higher intonation and facial expressions. In lines 3 and 5, the teacher's higher intonation (with capital letters) acts as an indicator that S1's answer is incorrect. S1 reconstructs his sentences in a different way in lines 4 and 6. Finally, in lines 7 and 8, the teacher shows him the correct form of the verb in a sentence in order to control S1's

frustration.

Repetition

The teacher repeats the student error to elicit learner noticing and output modification. In the following episode, S1 tried to self-repair his mistake, which the teacher indicated through a stressed intonation (line 2), but S1 was not successful in the first attempt (line 3). Then, the teacher raises another question indicating to S1 that the sentence is not correct yet (line 4). At the end, the teacher repeats the correct sentence (line 6), giving S1 positive feedback by showing that his reconstruction was successful (line 5). Episode 11 presents aspects of this corrective feedback type.

Episode 11.   Repetition
1. S1: everybody is happy with your work
2. T: MY WORK?
3. S1: yes + your work
4. T: but WHY is everybody happy with my work?
5. S1: humm...ok...with his work
6. T: RIGHT! Everybody is happy with his work!

Other Cues

In some situations, the teacher uses cues to show learners that something is wrong in the sentence. The learners could then reformulate their ill-formed utterances. Two examples are presented below to show the cues this teacher gave in his classes.

Episode 12.   Cue One
1. S1: I see a man yesterday
2. T: not see + past ((the teacher points backward with his finger
        indicating a past action))
3. S1: saw
4. T: uh GOOD

Episode 13.   Cue Two
1. S1: because she haven't money
2. T: she?
3. S1: because she hasn't money
4. T: hasn't?
5. S1: yeah

6. T: past ((the teacher points backward with his hand indicating
       a past action))
7. S1: hadn't
8. T: she didn't have
9. S1: ok

These examples demonstrate that the teacher uses cues to help learners observe their errors in their speech. Cues using gestures are also known as keys. Keys are a way in which the teacher can facilitate learners' language learning (Kennedy, 1996). They are presumably used to help learners handle the complexity of the grammatical structure which is being taught (Celce-Murcia, 1992; Kennedy, 1996).

Kennedy (1996) also claimed that teachers have different reasons for explaining a certain topic and that explanation takes up a very significant part of teacher talk and classroom discourse. In this case, the teacher's role is to make knowledge accessible to students. Kennedy (1996) also suggests that language teachers have to explain many things to their students, not only grammatical explanation, but also the objectives of the tasks and activities as well as the context of the texts in which students are engaged.

CONCLUSION

Since the present study is a case study, the findings of this study may be limited to this particular group with 11 students. This group was taught by the same teacher within the same didactic book, in one institution, in one country, and in one social and learning environment. With this limitation in mind, the following paragraphs discuss the research questions (RQ).

RQ1: Should grammar be taught implicitly or explicitly in EFL classes?

Bearing in mind that grammar means the structure of a language necessary for meaning and function to take place in a given context, grammar teaching does have to be taught or instructed in some way, either implicitly or explicitly, depending on the following concerns: (a) who the learners are, (b) their level of proficiency, (c) their age, (d) their language learning objectives, and (e) class contexts. Thus,

implicit and explicit instruction may benefit L2 learning according to each particular case as well as each learner's necessity. This idea is in line with Spada's (1997) claims, as previously mentioned, that form-focused instruction depicts either an implicit or explicit attempt to call learners' attention to form (*cf.* Seliger 1977).

How do the teacher and the learners deal with formal linguistic aspects during the process of grammar teaching/learning in the EFL classes?

The teacher and the learners observed focused on grammatical or linguistic aspects by means of dialogue. When focusing on grammar aspects, the teacher and the learners interacted mainly through dialogic talk to negotiate grammar, meaning, and function, so that students could make sense of grammatical structures in context. In most cases, the teacher's concern in explaining grammar was evident. This concern is in line with his belief, as reported to this researcher. He tried to provide not only the grammar to be used in a sentence, but also the metalinguistic knowledge to explain this grammar and correct forms when learners made errors.

In other cases, the teacher's explanation was quite explicit. By means of explicit explanation, the teacher tried to lead learners to understand why they made such errors by showing them the correct way to build up specific grammatical structures. This approach is in line with Ellis's (1994) claim that there are advantages to explicit instruction especially with adults, since adults frequently retain better knowledge of a rule when the rule is taught explicitly.

What discourse elements did the teacher use during negotiation of grammar?

The main discursive elements used by the teacher during negotiation of grammar were as follows: (a) explicit terminology, (b) keys and statements, (c) self-repetitions and statements, and (d) feedback types in dialogic talk, which seems to benefit EFL learning and make learners aware of formal aspects within a context (Donato, 1994; Kennedy, 1996). Among these discursive elements, grammar terminology is mostly used, although it is not this teacher's point of departure in the beginning of his classes. Such in-depth use of terminology by this teacher might be considered as a facilitator in the teaching/learning process, since it can enhance learners' awareness of metalinguistic aspects (Bergsleithner, 2002; Borg, 1999b). However,

for many EFL learners, the use of terminology may be very vague and unprofitable, since what can be good for one might not be good for others in the second language learning process. Thus, this teaching strategy seems to be advantageous for most learners but not for the whole class.

What consciousness-raising mechanisms were identified in the episodes?

Some consciousness-raising mechanisms were identified in the episodes by means of form-focused instruction such as awareness of form, and meaning and function as well. Through dialogic talk, the teacher revealed his concern in drawing learners' attention to detect form in their speech, and also to become aware of the relationship among form, meaning and function in a number of conversational episodes.

Through this kind of form-focused instruction, learners seem to develop some consciousness-raising mechanisms of linguistic aspects during grammar instruction through conversational interaction (Mackey & Philp, 1998). In other words, they seem to be aware of some linguistic aspects and, thus, have a better understanding of grammarmeaning-function relationships in contextualized situations. However, in many situations this teacher gives the learners explicit answers for their doubts, instead of encouraging them to solve the problems by themselves as well as to apply the rules by themselves. Thus, for better benefits, it appears explicit feedback should be balanced according to the needs of each particular case.

RQ2: May grammar feedback be profitable and promote learning in EFL classes? More specifically, what kinds of feedback does the teacher use?

After observing this teacher and this particular group, this researcher's belief is that giving feedback to learners seems to be worthwhile for their EFL learning development. In this study, six different kinds of feedback were used by this teacher when he interacted with his learners as well as focused on linguistic issues. The kinds of feedback were (a) explicit correction, (b) recast, (c) elicitation, (d) metalinguistic clue, (e) clarification request, (f) repetition, and (g) other cues.

As can be seen in this study, the teacher seemed to have a tendency to give learners feedback while he negotiated grammar with them. In some cases he tried to make learners aware of their mistakes through elicitation, metalinguistic clue, clarification request, repetition, and other cues. It was very noticeable that this teacher used metalinguistic clue several times in his talk, and in some situations, he gave explicit feedback to learners. Again, this may be related to his belief as a teacher, as he reported to this researcher, that there are some moments in which grammar teaching is important, depending on each particular situation.

Teaching grammar and negotiating grammar through interaction seems to be very helpful for EFL classes as observed in this particular case. Several kinds of feedback can be considered constructive to language development although some kinds seem to be more profitable than others, especially those in which learners do not receive the correct and immediate answer. However, the most beneficial kinds of feedback are those that lead learners to reflect upon their errors and mistakes leading them to solve the problems by themselves.

Thus, EFL teachers play an important role in grammar teaching, since they have to know when and how to introduce grammar in EFL classes as well as how to better benefit learners by means of interactive feedback through dialogic talk. Since humans have individual differences in the process of learning English as an FL/L2 (due to many factors, such as cognitive, affective, cultural, and social factors), a mix of grammar teaching approaches would be beneficial for language learning instead of using only one approach in foreign/second language classes. Though, it is important to realize that each particular group of learners and each particular teacher make part of a particular situation, such as the one in this current case study.

Pedagogical Implications, Limitations, and Suggestions for Further Research

This study revealed that the way in which grammar teaching was dealt with in the EFL classroom, by negotiating form and giving feedback, as described in this paper, seems to be a positive factor for the EFL teaching/learning process. Based on this assumption, it is

important to consider the reciprocal roles of the teacher and the students during formal instruction and corrective feedback.

In this study, form-focusing instruction through dialogic talk or conversational interaction seemed to be very important strategies for EFL teaching/learning, since learners needed to know whether they have correctly understood what they were taught, while the teacher needed to know how to provide appropriate answers for learners' questions. Therefore, both teacher and learners may achieve their goals in the construction of grammar through form-focused instruction. Moreover, any attempt in establishing a relationship between grammar teaching and grammar feedback seems to be important, since it may bring insights on how both issues should be provided in the EFL classroom.

In sum, this study was carried out with only one EFL teacher, one EFL group, and one language proficiency level. In spite of these limitations, this study found form-focused instruction to be beneficial and described the ways in which it was manifested in this one class. Future studies might investigate the degree to which this class is representative of EFL classes.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

ENDNOTES

[1] The terms *grammar* and *form* will be used interchangeably in this study.

[2] The term *EFL* in this study refers to English as a foreign/second language (L2) acquisition. Thus, both terms *EFL* and *L2* will be used interchangeably throughout the text.

[3] The terms *acquisition* and *learning* will be also used interchangeably as synonyms in this study.

[4]The term *dialogic talk*, as proposed by Donato and Adair-Hauck (1992), means a kind of conversation used by the teacher in order to involve learners in the search for problem-solution rather than merely solving the problem and asserting the ready solution to learners.

[5]The term *metalinguistic knowledge* here means knowledge about grammar terminology or nomenclature.

THE AUTHOR

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APPENDIX 1

Transcript Conventions of Classroom Data

The following transcript conventions were adapted from Hatch (1992):
[overlappings
(( )) analyst's comments
+ pause
++ long pause
(xxxxx) inaudible
: long sound
CAPITAL stressed word
? questioning intonation
T teacher
S unidentified student
Ss students all together

The Influence of Extensive Reading on Reading Comprehension and Reading Attitudes

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ABSTRACT

This present study compared the effectiveness of an extensive reading approach to an intensive approach over a 15 week semester. Twenty Korean university students were involved in the study. A modified cloze pre- and post-test was used to measure language increase, and a pre- and post-course affective survey consisting of 10 questions was implemented to quantify affective concerns. The results of the data showed that the Extensive group did not significantly improve compared to the Intensive group on the cloze post-test. The information collected from the affective survey demonstrated that the Extensive group increased in affect during the treatment, whereas the Intensive group decreased in feelings towards English reading. The findings challenge intensive approaches used in South Korean reading classrooms. Theoretical and pedagogical implications of the findings are discussed.

A MEASURED GAIN: EXTENSIVE VS. INTENSIVE READING

In South Korea, learning to read in a foreign language such as English can be a tiring and difficult task for students. Day (2003) believes that the problem originates in the way reading is taught. As is often the case with learning English as a second or foreign language, people typically believe the macho maxim of reading, "no reading pain, equals no reading gain" (Day and Bamford, 2000, 12). With this mindset, the teacher takes a skills building or "intensive"

approach to teaching reading. Bouchall (2001) defines intensive reading as "the careful reading of shorter, more difficult foreign language texts with the goal of complete and detailed understanding."

Following this approach, involving careful reading of difficult texts, students may become uninterested or even intimidated by the material. Contrasting sharply in aims, Extensive Reading or Free Voluntary Reading (henceforth known respectively as ER and FVR) "is generally associated with reading large amounts with the aim of getting an overall understanding of the material. Readers are more concerned with the meaning of the text than the meaning of individual words or sentences" (Bamford & Day, 1997). ER, at its theoretical core, embodies Krashen's Input Hypothesis (see Krashen, 1985) in that acquisition takes place when the learner is exposed to adequate amounts, and appropriate levels, of comprehensible input. ER ensures that the reader is reading at a comprehensible level because the student is given the luxury of selecting their own materials to read based on the criterion of text difficulty and personal interests.

Teaching English reading in South Korea is often done using an intensive approach. Discussing reading methodologies, Joh and Choi (2001) described the South Korean reading classroom as this:

> Traditionally the typical classroom **procedure** for teaching reading is to introduce new words in the text to be read, **to induce intensive reading line by line translation** and explanation of syntactic structures, and to do some comprehension check-up using the questions given in the textbook. (p. 4; emphasis added)

Intensive reading differs greatly from extensive reading. The inherent language learning boosts that extensive reading can offer are tremendous. Extensive reading is considered superior to structured, systematic language instruction programs such as intensive reading (Davis, 1995; Kang, 2003). The benefits of an extensive approach are so compelling that they prompted Nuttall (1984) to say, "Next to going to live in among native speakers, the best way of acquiring proficiency in a language is to read extensively in this language" (as cited in Hafiz & Tudor, 1989, p. 5). Even though ER has accumulated substantial statistical evidence to validate its implementation, some have ignored it as a feasible language learning option. Kim and Krashen (1997), for example, found that many students, teachers and

administrators never consider extensive reading worthwhile. South Korea too, is unfortunately turning its back on a highly effective approach to increasing language proficiency. Awareness of the currently widespread use of intensive approaches within English reading classrooms throughout Korea has served as motivation for this study. The focus of the present study is to demonstrate, within the boundaries of Korea, that there is an alternative to intensive reading - an extensive reading program.

This study is concerned with two issues: one pedagogical and one theoretical. On the pedagogical side, the study compares the respective benefits of the intensive and extensive approaches; from a theoretical viewpoint, it aims to test Krashen's Input Hypothesis.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON ER

There have been a number of studies which placed intensive and extensive approaches head to head to compare their effects on English language learning. For example, Bell (2001), in a study of elementary learners in Yemen, noted that an extensive group out-performed an intensive group in the areas of reading speeds gained and reading comprehension. Robb and Susser (1989) also compared a skills building (intensive) approach with ER. The results showed significant improvements in "guessing meaning from context," "understanding the important facts," and reading speeds for the ER group. Another study that favors an extensive approach is Hafiz and Tudor (1989), who implemented an ER program for three months, and assessed linguistic increase. They reported marked improvement in the areas of reading and writing. Yet additional benefits of ER are presented in two studies by Schakne (n.d.), the first in Taiwan in 1986, and the second in Macau in 1995; both saw groups that were given supplementary ER materials show noticeable gains on cloze test scores when compared to groups that were not subjected to ER. Researchers such as Powell (n.d.) and Anderson (1999) claim the effects of ER span across proficiency areas into the realms of listening, writing, reading and overall language achievement.

According to Waring and Takahashi (2000), taking away the students' freedom to select materials may hinder motivation. Extensive reading allows the learner to have a choice and, in turn, enhancements are noticed in the affective domain. Kim (1998) found that when students are given a choice, rises in learning efficacy can be noticed. According to

Wiesendanger and Birlem (cited in Chow & Chou, 2000), nine out of eleven research studies analyzed presented evidence that students develop more positive attitudes towards reading with the use of Sustained Silent Reading (SSR), a form of ER.

Based on the research presented above, and with an awareness of the prevalence of intensive approaches in Korea, the present study seeks to answer the following questions:

1) Will there be marked improvements between the pre- and post-test of the Intensive group?
2) Will there be there be increases made by the Extensive group comparing pre- and post-tests?
3) Will the Extensive group outperform the Intensive group on post-test measurements?
4) Will there be affective differences between groups following the treatment?

METHOD

Subjects

Twenty Korean university freshman students were involved in the study. Once a week, they attended a reading class at a university in Seoul, South Korea. The subjects were Philosophy majors; the class consisted of 6 males and 14 females. The participants had studied English for at least six years due to the requirement of English study that began in middle school. Their overall academic achievement could be viewed as average, as the university they attended ranks in the middle tier of Korean universities.

In order to place the students into groups, they were given a modified cloze pre-test. With the scores from this test, the students were grouped using a matching technique. The Extensive group is characterized as reading high quantities of English material, and the Intensive group is defined as reading smaller, difficult texts.

Instruments

Two instruments were used in this study: a modified cloze test, and an affective survey. The following is a description of each

instrument.

Cloze Test

A 55-question modified cloze test was adopted to measure progress (Appendix A). The cloze was selected for its ease of construction and strong correlations with standardized English level tests (Schackne, n.d.). The cloze test utilized was a combination of a fill-in-the-blank from a word bank; a three-option multiple-choice segment; and a traditional cloze task with deletions at 7-word intervals, where the participant was asked to fill in the word without the aid of a word bank. The first section of the cloze, questions 1-22, came from the Internet page http://www.edict.com.hk/vlc/cloze/cloze/htm, and the level of that particular section was high beginner. Section two, questions 23-42, originated from the Internet page http://www.churchhillhouse.com/ tests/intermediate, and it was at the intermediate level. The final section came from a beginning level book, *True Stories in the News: A Beginning Reader* (Hever, 1996). The split-half and KR21 reliability coefficients of this measurement were .81 and .84, respectively.

Affective Survey

A Likert scaled survey concerning feelings toward English reading was constructed, with five response choices ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (Appendix B). The 10-question survey, with a Cronbach's alpha reliability rating of .83, was written in both Korean and English. The questionnaire encompassed three categories: 1) how the student felt about English reading in general, 2) their perceived English reading ability, and 3) students' negative sentiments associated with English reading.

Materials

The materials used by the Intensive group was comprised of the class text, an intermediate-level textbook, *Developing Reading Keys* (Craven, 2003), and the advanced-level text of the same series, *Extending Reading Keys* (Craven, 2003). For the Extensive group, four different types of materials were provided. In the class library, there were 26 graded readers, most of which were published by Macmillan; these readers had a range of levels, with elementary level being most numerous. Secondly, native-speaker reading material in the form of

magazines, including such titles as *People, Men's Health, PC World,* and *Sports Illustrated,* were made available, though these were rarely checked out. The last source of material for the Extensive group was a CD which contained over 400 English works varying in interest areas and difficulty levels.

Treatments

The class was exposed as a whole to a skills building approach in all but the first 12 minutes of a seventy-five-minute class. The intermediate-level textbook, *Developing Reading Keys,* was used. In the first twelve minutes, the Extensive group participated in SSR, while the Intensive group did tasks from the advanced level text, *Extending Reading Keys.* This subjected the Intensive students to advanced level reading that surpassed their proficiency levels.

The homework for the two groups differed. The Intensive group did selected readings and corresponding activities from the *Extending Reading Keys* book, which were no more than one page of text and one page of tasks. This homework was checked as a completion assignment. The Extensive group, however, read graded readers and answered a couple of simple questions in reading journals. The teacher asked the extensive group to adhere to four guidelines: (1) select easy books; (2) do not use a dictionary to look up words; (3) select an interesting book; (4) feel free to change the book at anytime.

Data Collection

The modified cloze test was given in weeks 2 and 14 of the semester. For both pre- and post-test administration, the full class time of 75 minutes was allotted.

The affective survey was completed in weeks 3 and 13. The survey was presented to the students at the beginning of class before any activities had been started, and they were given 15 minutes to complete it.

Analysis

The experimental data gathered from the subjects' cloze pre and post-tests were analyzed utilizing the t-test for independent samples with the http://www.statcrunch.com statistical package. The affective

surveys were analyzed in terms of frequency and sums of responses.

RESULTS

Differences on Test Scores

At the time of the cloze pre-test (Table 1), there were no significant differences in mean scores between the Extensive and Intensive groups: 28.5 (SD= 9.20) and 30.8 (SD= 9.35), respectively.

TABLE 1. PRE-TEST CLOZE SCORES

The Modified Cloze Test

	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t	P-value
Pre-test	Extensive	10	28.5	.920	.554	0586
	Intensive	10	30.8	9.35		

Note. Maximum score was 55.

TABLE 2. INTENSIVE GROUP'S PRE- AND POST-TEST SCORES

	Test	N	Mean	S.D.	t	P-value
Int. Group	Pre-test	10	30.8	9.35	.0508	0.9601
	Post-test	10	31	8.22		

Note. Maximum score was 55.

It was determined that the Intensive group did not progress between pre- and post-test applications (Table 2), as the t stat was .051 (p = .960; Table 2). As indicated in Table 3, the Extensive group also failed to demonstrate increases from the pre to post-test (t = 073, p = .943).

TABLE 3. EXTENSIVE GROUP'S PRE- AND POST-TEST SCORES

	Test	N	Mean	S.D.	t	P-value
Ext. Group	Pre-test	10	28.5	.920	.0730	0.9426
	Post-test	10	28.8	9.16		

Note. Maximum score was 55.

To see if there were differences between the post-test performance of the

Extensive and Intensive groups, a t-test was applied to the post-test scores. The mean score of the Extensive group was 28.8 (SD= 9.16), while the Intensive group scored a mean of 31 (SD= 8.23). The results suggest that there were no significant differences between the two means (see Table 4).

TABLE 4. POST-TEST SCORES OF EXTENSIVE AND INTENSIVE GROUPS

	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t	P-value
Post-test	Extensive	10	28.8	9.16	.565	0578
	Intensive	10	31	8.22		

Note. Maximum score was 55.

With only minute gains in mean scores between the pre- and post-tests made by each group (0.3 for the Extensive and 0.2 for the Intensive), an examination of the assessment instrument was done. Taking the cloze test and calculating the reliability for each section, it was discovered that section three, which asked the students to fill in words at seven word intervals without the aid of a word-bank, indicated a KR 21 reliability coefficient of .463. With this poor *r* value, the section could have masked gains made by either group. Therefore, a new scoring system was implemented in which this section of the cloze would not be scored. Taking this new approach to scoring meant that new values had to be calculated.

While deleting 13 questions from a 55 item test would hinder the reliability of the cloze, the "new" cloze registered reliability coefficients of .73 on a split-half rating, and .78 on KR21, maintaining acceptable reliability values.

TABLE 5. ADJUSTED PRE-TEST SCORES

	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t	P-value
Pre-test	Extensive	10	22.5	6.84	.4311	0.672
	Intensive	10	24.5	6.64		

Note. Maximum score was 42.

Table 5 provides the descriptive statistics for the adjusted scores, and shows pre-test means as 23.2 (SD = 6.84) and 24.5 (SD = 6.64)

respectively for the Extensive and Intensive groups.

No differences appeared between the pre- and post-test scores of the Intensive group. The t-stat was .151 (p = .858; Table 6).

TABLE 6. ADJUSTED PRE- AND POST-TEST SCORES OF THE INTENSIVE GROUP

	Test	N	Mean	S.D.	t	P-value
Int. Group	Pre-test	10	24.5	6.64	.1818	0.8577
	Post-test	10	25	5.62		

Note. Maximum score was 42.

TABLE 7. ADJUSTED PRE- AND POST-TEST SCORES OF THE EXTENSIVE GROUP

	Test	N	Mean	S.D.	t	P-value
Ext. Group	Pre-test	10	22.5	6.84	.7235	04786
	Post-test	10	25.4	6.75		

Note. Maximum score was 42.

Table 7 shows that the Extensive group also showed no variation from pre- to post-test (t = .724, p = .479). The adjusted post-test score means were 25.4 (SD = 6.75) for the Extensive group and 25 (SD = 5.61) for the Intensive group (Table 8). Though there was now a noticeable gain on the mean score by the Extensive group (2.2) compared to the Intensive group's .5 increase, there were no statistically significant differences (p = .887).

TABLE 8. ADJUSTED POST-TEST SCORES

	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t	P-value
Post-test	Extensive	10	25.4	6.75	0.144	0.8871
	Intensive	10	25	5.62		

Note. Maximum score was 42.

Affective Survey

Research question two focused on the differences in attitudes between the groups after exposure to treatments. On the pre-treatment

survey, the Extensive group's raw score was 319 while the Intensive group recorded a raw score of 333. Totals were determined by adding the values of the responses. For example, if the student "strongly agreed," a weight of five points would be assigned, and if the student marked "strongly disagree," the number one would be tallied. In scoring negative statements, a reverse scoring system was used, where by a "strongly agree" answer equaled one, and a "strongly disagree" claim received a mark of 5 points. The Extensive group registered a raw score of 332 on the post-treatment survey, while the Intensive group tallied 297, bringing the means to 33.2 and 29.7 for the Extensive and Intensive groups respectively (see Table 9).

TABLE 9. AFFECTIVE SURVEY SCORES

	Pre-Survey			Post-Survey			Differences of Means
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	Pre minus Post
Ext. Group	10	31.9	7.50	10	33.2	6.07	+1.3
Int. Group	10	33.3	6.33	10	29.7	5.62	3.6

DISCUSSION

Cloze Scores

Research Question 1

An intensive approach to reading can produce results: intensive reading is implemented to develop reading skills, and the maturation of these skills can lead to better reading abilities (Kim, 2000; Pani, 2004). Moreover, Bamford (1993, cited in Schmidt, 1996) stated "developing effective reading skills and strategies can be a tremendous aid in becoming strong, independent readers" (85). Though intensive reading may have something to offer for the language learner, this study showed near non-existent progression by the Intensive group, as their mean score rose by a mere 0.5 points on the "adjusted" cloze post-test. Waring and Takahashi (2000) made an important point concerning the use of an intensive approach when they said:

> This is not to say that Intensive Reading is necessarily bad, but that it is limited by what it tries to do. This is a result of the nature

of the type of text and type of tasks the learner is doing. What the learner needs *in addition to* this kind of reading, is fluency practice through Extensive Reading and the development of the skills of reading. (p. 5; emphasis added)

Research Questions 2 and 3

There has been much research that supports the use of Extensive Reading in L2 learning (Anderson, 1999; Bell 2001; Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Robb & Susser, 1989; Schackne, n.d.). Moreover, Hill (1997) had the utmost confidence in the success of an Extensive reading program, as he stated that an ER program will work anywhere and with any proficiency level. However, in the present study, the Extensive group did not show significant language progress. There are a number of factors that may have played roles in the outcome.

First, the study had a small sample size, 20. In order to get a better representation of the population, a higher sample size is needed. Secondly, detrimental factors may have stemmed from the homework of the Extensive group, in that the students were recommended to read 35 pages a week, which totaled 350 pages for the semester. Welch (1997), Helgesen (1997), and Pendergast (1997) required 75 pages a week, 500 pages a semester, and 1000 pages a semester, respectively (cited in Jarrell, n.d.). Also, Mason (2005) proposes 100 to 150 pages a week. Perhaps the students were not exposed to enough comprehensible input to show a significant improvement on the post-test. Differences in completion times of the cloze pre- and post-tests may have had a hand in the results. The pre-test was given the second week of the semester. At that time, the students were given the full class period, 75 minutes, to complete the test, though it took most students approximately 50 minutes to finish it. The post-test was at the end of the semester, in week 14. Once again, 75 minutes was allotted for completion of the test, but with this administration, a majority of the students finished the test much faster, in approximately 30 minutes.

Yet another factor that may have contributed to there being no significant gains by the Extensive group could be the length of the treatment - 15 weeks, which actually was cut to 10 because of external influences. In the research pertaining to the proposed length of ER

administration required to produce results, there have been contradictory claims. For example, in Schackne's (n.d.) two studies, the length of ER treatment was one semester, and in both, significant gains were measured on cloze tests. Given such gains, Schackne declared, "There is strong evidence that extensive reading promotes substantial language level increase within a short period of time as measured by cloze." On further investigation of the amount of reading the ER groups did, it was noted that students read an average of 12 readers in the 1986 study, and an average of 11 readers in the 1995 study. In this present study, the participants in the Extensive group read an average of 5 books over the course of the semester. Though Schackne observed substantial increases over short periods of time, Nation (1997) stated, "The benefits of extensive reading do not come in the short term." If we adopt Nation's stance, we should not expect the Extensive group to have marked significant accumulations.

One factor that could possibly explain why the Extensive group did not show substantial growth is a cultural one. Looking at studies concerning extensive reading, I have yet to find one that deals with a Korean population. In Bamford and Day's 1998 book, *Extensive Reading in the Second Language Classroom*, a list of research showed the names of the researchers involved and the countries where the population was drawn, and here are the listings: Elley and Mangubhai (1981) - Fiji, Janopoulos (1986) - USA, Hafiz and Tudor (1989) - England, Pitts et al. (1989) - USA, Robb and Susser (1989) - Japan, Hafiz and Tudor (1990) - Pakistan, Elley (1991) - Singapore, Lai (1993) - Hong Kong, and Mason and Krashen (1997) - Japan (p. 34). There are Asian countries on the list, but it would not be appropriate to make projections on the basis of one country's proximity to another, not minding cultural borders. An online article in a Korean newspaper, the *Digital Chosun Ilbo*, reported a survey conducted in 30 countries with over 30,000 participants, and the author summed up the results by saying, "Koreans are among the world's least voracious readers." ("Koreans allergic to...," 2005). Korea ranked 30th of the countries polled. This point is made because there have been discussions as to how much L1 reading attitudes affect L2 reading attitudes. Day and Bamford (1998) note that L1 attitudes play a role in L2 reading attitudes, and they write, "Assuming that students are already literate in their first language, one source of attitudes towards second language reading is the attitude that students have towards

reading in their native language" (p. 23). Yamashita (2004), with regard to the topic of the transfer of L1 to L2 reading attitudes, said, "if students have a positive attitude towards L1 reading, they are more or less likely to keep it in L2." In a similar vein, Kamhi-Stein (2003) concluded, "home language and beliefs about reading, may play an important role in reading" (64). We can conjecture from all of this that there might be some factors that could limit the benefits of extensive reading for the Korean population as compared to progress made in other locations where L1 reading is more widely enjoyed, therefore making for a smoother transition to an extensive approach.

Finally, the absence of some prescribed roles of the instructor may have limited the Extensive group. Day and Bamford (1998) presented 10 characteristics of an ER program, including the capacities of the teacher; they wrote, "The teacher is a role model of a reader for students -- an active member of the classroom reading community, demonstrating what it means to be a reader and the rewards of being a reader" (p. 8). Kembo (1993) supplied further support for the teacher to share in reading; he suggested that teachers should share interesting information from their own reading. In this present study the teacher did not serve as a reading figure, and that may have had a negative impact on the Extensive group. Furthermore, Kim and Krashen (1997) cited factors that would enable students to get the most out of ER; among those elements, informing students of the benefits of ER was mentioned, as well as the teacher bringing forth information about genres and authors that may interest the students; the instructor in this study failed in both of these respects.

Affective Results

Research Question 4

The Extensive group demonstrated a rise in their attitudes towards English reading across the semester, whereas the Intensive group reported a decrease in affect. Table 9 shows that the Extensive group increased 13 points over the semester, while the Intensive group dropped 34 points. The drop in points accrued by the Intensive group reflects Waring and Takashi's (2000) claim that when students are denied freedom to select their own materials, no improvements in motivation will be noticed. These finding offer further evidence for the

notion that when students get to select interesting materials, enjoyment can be attained (Kim & Krashen, 1997).
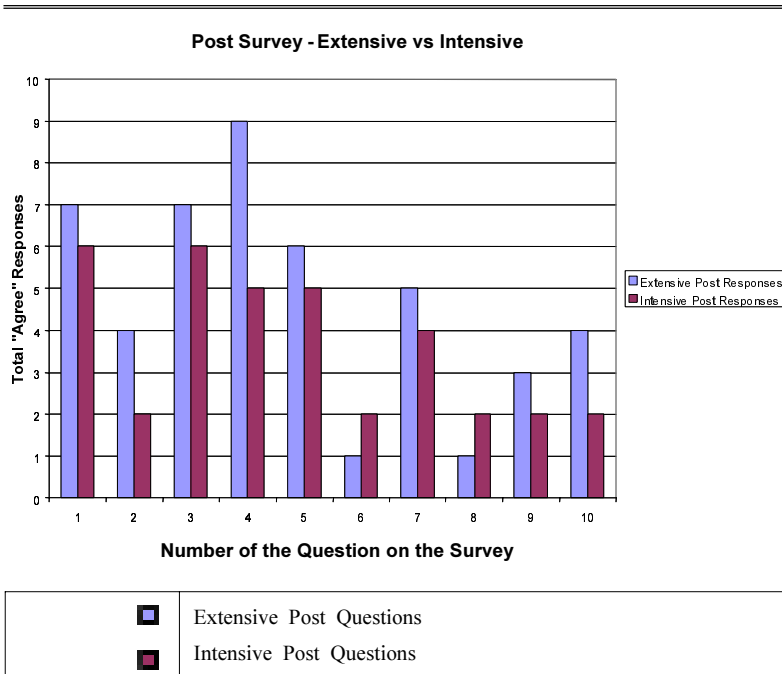
FIGURE 1. POST-SURVEY "AGREE" RESPONSES

Post Survey - Extensive vs Intensive

	Extensive Post Questions
	Intensive Post Questions

Figure 1 depicts differences in pre- and post-survey counts within each group, showing the totals of how many students, out of 10, responded with an "agree" statement to each question ("agree" = a response of either agree or strongly agree). From Table 9, one can see that the Intensive group's positive feelings tended towards the statement, "English reading is my favorite class," though some student responses supported: "I hate English class." Light (as cited in Bell, 2001) predicted the results for the Extensive group when he wrote that extensive reading would "reduce the negative affective consequences of slow, text-based, intensive approaches." Powell (n.d.) provided an

explanation of why this could take place within the Intensive group, when he suggested:

> In practice, students struggle with short, difficult passages, laboriously decoding the meaning and analyzing the grammar. It has nothing to do with reading as such, and very little to do with pleasure either. All too often for students, reading in English merely means doing things they do not enjoy with texts they do not want to read. Clearly this does little to promote interest either in reading or in English in general. (EFL in Japanese High Schools, para. 3)

As mentioned earlier, the Extensive group was asked to write responses in reading journals, and, to complete the journal assignment, the students had to react to the question "Do you like reading more after doing FVR?" The responses to this question provide more support for the affective benefits of using extensive reading. Some sample responses are:

> "Yes. I was happy when I read English books in bus and in subway. Usually I have much time in bus or subway because my home is far from here (the university), that time wasn't boring anymore."

> "Yes, I do. Because I like read easy book and this (type) study is interesting."

> "Yes, the book is entertaining and instructive."

Of the 10 Extensive group participants, 9 answered "yes" to the question pertaining to a rise in appreciation of reading after doing FVR.

Pedagogical Implications

This study attempted to compare the effects of extensive and intensive reading by means of measured language increases on a cloze test. However, such increases did not appear, but the study did provide

another insight——that an extensive reading approach allowed the students to increase positive feelings towards English reading. Given the evidence that supports the value of extensive reading, in both the affective and cognitive domains, teachers may be quick to implement an extensive reading program. However, one should be careful as to expectations of the time in which an extensive program will deliver results. This study indicated support of Nation's (1997) claim that "the benefits of extensive reading do not come in the short term."

Another consideration would be that teachers should be cognizant of the amount of assigned ER to be done. On the basis of the results from this study, it suggested that the student read more than 35 pages a week.

Also, to maximize the potential of ER, instructors should make sure that they present information about the books to be read, such as background information about interesting genres and authors (Kim & Krashen, 1997). Moreover, the teacher needs to be a model of a reader, and read in the classroom, while offering interesting information gained from their own reading (Day & Bamford, 1998; Kembo, 1993).

In aiming to increase proficiency within Korea, one should be aware of learners' L1 reading attitudes, and in regard to that, perhaps ER could become part of the L1 curriculum. This study unearthed some points that will need further investigation, and they are:

1. How much reading should be required of students in an ER program?
2. Can an ER approach produce significant results in locations where the population does not like to read in their L1?
3. In what time frame would results from ER generally be expected?

CONCLUSIONS

In this study, extensive reading was compared to intensive reading in an attempt to support existing evidence that extensive reading leads

to higher language proficiency. Though this study did not demonstrate such a difference, there were gains made that may be of value; the Extensive group surged in accumulated positive attitudes towards reading in English.

This study set out to test Krashen's Input Hypothesis. The Extensive group received access to a variety of materials that provided comprehensible input, while the Intensive group received advanced levels of input taught intensively. However, the amount of comprehensible input that was available to the students in the Extensive group may have been inadequate to contribute to language increases. Moreover, the length of the study may not have allowed time to truly test the Input Hypothesis. Comprehensible input is a dominant theoretical constituent in ER; however, it should be researched with close consideration of the attitudes held by Koreans toward L1 reading, if ER is to be an optimum medium to deliver comprehensible input.

Extensive reading can lead to overall enhancement of language competence. With an ER approach, the students select their own materials, based on text difficulty and interest, and can seriously aid in motivation. Conversely, intensive reading, while focusing on linguistic forms, may hinder feelings towards English reading, which may deter the learner from actively pursuing English studies.

The teaching of reading in South Korea has been done in an intensive fashion for some time, but given the existing empirical evidence supporting ER, including the minor assistance of this study, English reading teachers in Korea should consider adopting an approach that augments test score and affective accession - an Extensive Reading approach.

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An Analysis of English Majors' Needs at a Korean University

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ABSTRACT

Learning English is a global trend, and Korea follows this trend. In line with the 7th National Curriculum, Korean students have learned English as a compulsory subject at public schools since 1997. Further, most Korean colleges offer many English courses for nonmajors, in addition to freshmen English courses. Although many studies have examined English education at colleges in an effort to improve its quality, research in certain areas is lacking. Few studies have investigated English departments despite their important status in the area of English education. The present study set out to explore English majors' needs at Korean universities. It also looked at the curriculum of the Division of English Language and Culture of a Korean university, and inquired into the needs of English majors as perceived by the learners themselves. Quantitative survey research methods were chosen as the main means of collecting data. The results reveal that English majors had complex reasons for being English majors. Unsurprisingly, they wanted to learn communicative skills most, replicating trends found in many earlier studies. Further findings, suggestions for the Division of English Language and Culture, and the limitations of the present study are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Learning English is a global trend (Crystal, 1997; Nunan, 2003; Jenkins, 2002; Gnutzmann, 2000). According to the British Council, around 375 million people speak it as their mother tongue, but

speakers of English as a second or foreign language outnumber those speaking it as a first language (Seidlhofer, 2004). Not surprisingly, English is regarded as "the preferred option for communication among people from different first language backgrounds" (Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 210).

With the widespread perception of English as a global language, English has attained status as a first foreign language in many countries, including Korea. English proficiency is a primary criterion in many areas including business, industry, government, and academia (Nunan, 2003).

Of the various issues germane to English education in Korea, I will investigate English learners' needs, with a specific focus on students who seek university degrees in English. Further, the curriculum of English departments will be considered as a main factor which may affect or be affected by these students' needs. Since English departments are regarded as the entities in charge of English education at the tertiary level in Korea (B. Lee, 2003), controversy has emerged about which aspects of English should be emphasized (D. Lee, 1996). In response to the demands of the times, English departments have shifted the emphasis of their curriculum from reading English-language textbooks to usability for daily life. Thus, it is imperative to take the curriculum of English departments into account when exploring English majors' needs.

The participants in the current study were English majors enrolled in the Division of English Language and Culture at "A"[1] University in Korea. Before analyzing the English majors' needs at this university, it is important to gauge the issues and methodologies in needs analysis, as well as to put into context the Division of English Language and Culture at "A" University. Below, some features of English education at the tertiary level in Korea are explained, and thereafter follows information about the Division of English Language and Culture at "A" University and discussion about needs analysis.

English Education at Korean Universities

Contemporary English education at Korean colleges consists mainly of three different types: (a) a general English program for nonEnglish majors, (b) English classes in English departments offered for the students seeking degrees in English, and (c) a freshman English

course. Most of the classes under the general English program are English language skills-based, or deal with cultures of English-speaking countries, since these courses are equivalent to general education in American universities. English majors can take the general English courses as electives if they want to, and it is possible for non English majors to register for the classes offered in the English department as well. However, the latter case is rare since the courses offered in the English department cover more specific aspects of English, compared to the general English program. The "college freshman English course" (Song & Park, 2004, p. 179) is a compulsory course for freshmen at most universities in Korea. Freshmen are required to take this course for one academic year, regardless of their majors, but some universities are now extending the requirement up to three years.

Many studies have explored English education at the tertiary level in Korea in an effort to improve its quality. This research has focused predominantly on the general English courses or the freshmen English class. Several researchers holistically evaluated English programs at universities (Cho, 1998; Joh, 2002; Kim, 2004; Park, 1997; Song & Park, 2004), and other studies investigated specific areas such as the curriculum or resources in relation to English education at the tertiary level (Cho, Moon, & Lee, 1997; Chong & Kim, 2001; Jeon, 2002; Joh, 2002; Kim, 2000; Kang, 1995; Ko, 1996; Kong, 1996; Miller, 2001; Ok & Lee, 1999; Park, 1997; Pyo, 2003; Song & Park, 2003; Suh, 1990; Sung, Pyo, & Lee, 2004). Below, major research findings and interesting features from these previous studies are presented.

In order to evaluate English programs holistically, researchers have primarily employed surveys or comparisons of pre- and post-test results. With one exception, the purpose of the programs was enhancing listening and speaking skills, and in two of the programs, all courses were taught by native speakers of English (Cho, 1998; Park, 1997). Only one program managed to integrate all four language skills, but the emphasis was still on improving communicative skills (Song & Park, 2004). The results of these holistic evaluations revealed that overall, students and the faculty were satisfied with their programs and that the programs were effective for enhancing students' listening and speaking abilities to some extent (Cho, 1998; Joh, 2002; Kim, 2004; Park, 1997; Song & Park, 2004).

An emphasis on communicative skills is another feature found in

previous studies (Cho, Moon, & Lee, 1997; Chong & Kim, 2001; Kim, 2000; Kang, 1995; Ko, 1996; Kwon, 2000; Ok & Lee, 1999; Park, 1997; Song & Park, 2004). The survey results in those previous studies have revealed this trend in terms of the opinions of students and/or instructors. Further, the proportions of English classes offered at Korean universities suggest the tendency. However, other studies reported contrasting findings that reading and writing skills were crucial (Kong, 1996), and still other researchers have taken the view that students want to learn all of the four language skills in an integrated manner (Joh, 2002; Miller, 2001).

Other studies have examined specifically the English education curricula. In general, they have found that students desired a greater variety of courses, and also level-specific English courses[2] with regard to their majors for extended periods (Cho, Moon, & Lee, 1997; Chong & Kim, 2001; Joh, 2002; Park, 1997; Song & Park, 2004; Suh, 1990; Sung, Pyo, & Lee, 2004). At present, the college freshman English courses at most Korean universities are one-year programs only, although several universities are currently working on extending their length. Many students in these studies have pointed out that they thought it very difficult to improve their communicative skills within one year. Therefore, some have concluded that the course should be extended so as to be a three- or four-year course of study. Also, students hoped that a greater variety of English courses would be offered in terms of the content and the level. It is common for English conversation classes and the college freshman English courses to be level-specific, with the students being divided into beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels, while other general English courses for nonmajors are not.

Three important findings from existing evaluations have been reported: (a) students and instructors consider large class size a serious problem hindering effective learning, (b) it is necessary to establish independent institutes other than English departments, which are in charge of all English education at universities, and (c) multimedia should be incorporated more into English instruction (Cho, Moon & Lee, 1997; Chong & Kim, 2001; Jeon, 2002; Joh, 2002; Kim, 2000; Park, 1997; Pyo, 2003). It is not difficult to find general English courses at Korean universities with more than 30 students, and the large class size makes it difficult to learn English because of the nature of language learning. Also, many researchers suggested that

universities should establish an independent institute other than English departments, since general English courses and the college freshman English program are different from the classes offered in the English department for English majors in terms of their purpose and targeted learners. The previous studies have pointed out as well that supplying more multimedia equipment is imperative in a language classroom in response to the students' changing needs. However, these studies have implied that it may be difficult to resolve these problems since such issues are related to financial resources (Cho, Moon & Lee, 1997; Chong & Kim, 2001; Jeon, 2002; Joh, 2002; Kim, 2000; Park, 1997; Pyo, 2003).

In sum, evaluations of college English education programs in Korea have suggested that speaking and listening skills are emphasized over reading and writing skills, though not all studies have supported this. Further, university students want to have a greater variety of English courses in terms of the content and the level of the class, and would prefer using multimedia in their classes.

The English Department at "A" University in Korea

An English department is not exclusively a language program, in which the focus is on learning language skills; the curriculum of the department also includes English linguistics and/or English literature. The present study took this fact into account, and investigated the entire curricular focus of the Division[3] of English Language and Culture at "A" University.

Approximately 400 students are usually enrolled in the Division of English Language and Culture, but the exact number differs from year to year depending on how many students leave the school, mainly for studying abroad or for men's required military service. Additionally, many students who major in other studies take English courses in the division as their second majors. In accord with to the 6th National Curriculum, all of these English majors have learned English as a compulsory subject at school for six years before entering the university, and it is assumed that the English majors are at an intermediate level by the time they enter the division. It usually takes eight semesters for students to finish their study, and many students spend one year studying abroad, predominately in English speaking countries.

The department generally offers around 40 courses each academic year, although there are subtle changes every year. The classes are divided into four different categories: literature, culture, linguistics, and language skills (n = 10, 6, 6, and 17, respectively), and two other courses are a mixture of literature and culture. Out of all 40 classes, nine are compulsory courses. All the courses are recommended to be taken at a certain year, but students are able to take any course at any year. However, many freshmen and sophomores are reluctant to take courses intended for juniors or seniors.

More detailed information about the students and the curriculum of the department are discussed in the Results section.

Needs and Needs Analysis

It was in the 1960s and 1970s that needs analysis emerged in the realm of language teaching, stemming largely from the ESP movement (Richards, 2001). Munby (1978) developed the earliest model of needs analysis applied to language syllabus design. Since then, it has become a central claim that needs analysis is useful when specifying the purpose of a language program (Brown, 1995; Long, 2005). Further, it provides sound information for reforming the language program (Brindley, 1989; Brown, 1989; McDonough, 1998; Richards, 1990).

The term *need* has been defined by different researchers in different ways. Richards (2001) claimed that it referred to "wants," "desires," "demands," "expectations," "motivations," "lacks," "constraint," and "requirements" (p. 54). Robinson (1991) defined *needs* as what the learners want to learn from the language program. One of the most general definitions of needs was given by Berwick (1989), who defined *need* as "a gap or measurable discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state" (p. 52). A more simple definition was given by Brindley (1989), who suggested that "needs is the gap between what is and what should be" (p. 65).

Some researchers have divided need into different categories in an attempt to approach these different interpretations in a more systematic way. Brindley (1989) suggested two different approaches to the interpretations of needs: narrow, which is product-oriented and objective, or broad, which is process-oriented and subjective. Based on the narrow approach, need is a target language behavior in a target language situation, whereas the broad interpretation sees need as

individual learners' needs in the learning situation, involving affective, cognitive, and social factors. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also proposed two different types of needs, target needs and learning needs. Target needs consist of three subcomponents: (a) necessities, which refers to what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation, (b) lacks, or the gap between target and existing proficiency of the learner, and (c) wants, or the learners' view of their needs. Meanwhile, learning need is a cover term for all the factors connected to the process of learning such as attitude, motivation, or learning strategies.

While there is some disagreement among researchers on the interpretations of needs themselves, needs analysis is defined from similar points of view. In general, needs analysis is referred to as the systematic gathering of information about language needs for developing a language syllabus or curriculum (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Brown, 1995; Richards, 2001).

A variety of methods can be employed in order to analyze needs, depending on the purpose of the analysis. The most commonly used methods are existing information, questionnaires, interviews, observation schedules, and consultations (Brown, 1995; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Kormos, Kontra, & Csölle, 2002; Robinson, 1991).

Amongst the various definitions of needs, the present study sought to investigate English majors' *wants*, defined here as the learners' views on their needs, following Hutchinson and Waters (1987). Since "wants" are the learners' perspectives on their needs, it is necessary to investigate the target group, who are the English majors at "A" University.

PURPOSE

The previous studies that I have outlined addressed some aspects in English education at the tertiary level in Korea, but research in other areas is lacking. Most of the previous studies explored general English courses or the freshman English program. A few also investigated English departments. However, although a few studies conducted partial needs analyses, virtually no studies contributing a complete needs analysis were found. A large number of needs analyses should be carried out, since it is believed that needs analysis is the

fundamental first step for developing a language program (Brown, 1995; Richards, 2001), and findings from multiple needs analyses can be accumulated to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the state of actual needs.

In this study, I suggest that it is imperative to examine English majors' perceptions regarding their needs for courses and other facilities because (a) English majors, by and large, are considered to be people trained for those jobs which mainly require English abilities, such as English language teaching (Zhoaxing, 2002), and (b) it has been supposed that English departments are the institutes managing all English education at the tertiary level (Cho, Moon, & Lee, 1997, p. 319).

Therefore, the present study set out to explore English majors' needs at a Korean university. Also, the research took into account the curriculum of the Division of English Language and Culture, and inquired into English majors' needs as perceived by the learners themselves. Specifically, it investigated what English majors would like to gain by majoring in English, in addition to improving their language skills, since majoring in English is different from learning English at an English language program. Further, the study sought to determine which of the four major areas in the curriculum was regarded as more important than the others and for what reasons. Finally, it investigated whether English majors have any learning needs other than language needs.

Therefore, the research questions guiding the study are as follows:

1. For what reasons do the English majors specialize in English?
2. To what extent do the English majors want to learn the four subcomponents of the curriculum by majoring in English?
3. What learning needs do the English majors have other than language needs?

METHODS

Participants

A pilot study was conducted over a period of three months (January - March 2005). Five current English majors, four graduates from the department, and two professors in the department were invited to participate. More detailed information on the pilot study is

given in the next section.

For the full study, a total of 109 current English majors enrolled in the Division of English Language and Culture at "A" university participated. Only sophomores, juniors, and seniors were invited to participate in the research ($n = 29$, 41, and 39, respectively). Freshmen were excluded because freshmen at Korean universities usually do not take very many major related classes[4].

Materials and Procedures

The pilot study relied on email as the main means of communication. In January, the current students, graduates, and professors were asked via email to participate in the study. After the participants consented, I started to interview them all with initial questions related to the research questions. I then asked additional questions based on the participants' answers, and requested them to make clarifications about their previous responses. In the pilot study, participants were asked about their attitudes and ideas related to four main questions: (a) the reason why students major in English, (b) what courses students expect, (c) to what extent majoring in English is beneficial, and (d) their perspectives on general English education vs. studying English as major.

For the main study, quantitative survey methods were chosen as the main means of collecting data to assess the perceptions of English majors' needs for two reasons. First, compared with other methods, it seemed to be an appropriate approach to attain a great deal of data with ease and in a short period of time (Brown, 1995). Further, it made it possible to construct appropriate items for a survey based on the findings from the pilot study. The English-medium survey was composed of three sections: (a) getting background information on participants, (b) general questions about majoring in English in Korea, and (c) a more specific inquiry into the curriculum of the Division of English Language and Culture. The first section of the survey, asking about participants' background information was open-ended, and the other two parts used a 4-point Likert scale. For example, the participants were asked to circle the single number on the scale that best described their reasons for majoring in English. More specifically, one of the questions on the survey was "Why did you decide to major in English?" and the participants scored attitudinal statements, such as "I like the English language," on a scale of 1 to 4, with 4 being most important.

Together with this quantitative survey, "existing information" was investigated in order to collect multiple sources of information (Brown, 1995, p. 46). The information on students and the curriculum of the division was gathered mainly through the school or the department Web site. Some of the information could be obtained after a log-in process. I was able to access to the Web site since I had previously been a student there.

The survey was carried out over a period of two weeks (mid May 2005). Three professors at "A" University helped to conduct it. They allowed the survey to be completed in their class sessions, and distributed it in four of their classes. Spring semester at Korean universities finishes mid June, unlike U.S. universities, so students are attending regular classes in mid May. Thus, the survey was administered during the participants' regular class sessions with the researcher present. All the participants were told the purpose of the study before filling out the questionnaire, and they were asked to complete it within 20 minutes. The presence of the researcher was believed to be helpful to the participants in filling out the survey since I could explain whatever the participants did not understand clearly. Completed surveys were returned by all 109 respondents.

The present study could not achieve much in the way of triangulation because it did not use a variety of data sources and methods (Long, 2005). However, the survey was developed in the light of the findings from the interview of the pilot study, in which five current English majors, four graduates, and two professors participated; in other words, items for the survey were based on the findings of the pilot study, so some degree of trustworthiness in the findings is therefore assumed.

RESULTS

First, the existing information about the students and the curriculum of the department were analyzed. The participants' three different years were taken into account when analyzing the data. In the following sections, the results of the study are presented based on the three research questions, and an additional interesting finding, namely participants' self-assessed English proficiencies, is also discussed.

Existing Information

In general, the department offers 40 classes in one academic year.

Table 1 summarizes detailed information about the courses ("Year" in the table means the recommended year for students to take the class).

TABLE 1. THE COURSES IN THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

Classification	Title	Core/Elective	Year
Literature	English Fiction	Elective	2
	English Dramas	Elective	2
	English Poetry	Elective	2
	Greco-Roman Mythology	Elective	2
	English Dramas in Films	Elective	3
	British Fiction	Elective	3
	Modern British Fiction	Elective	3
	American Fictions in Films	Elective	3
	Shakespeare	Elective	3
	English Essays	Elective	4
Literature & Culture	American Society and Literature	Core	2
	English Culture and Dramas	Elective	3
Culture	Understanding of English Culture	Elective	1
	American Culture	Core	1
	British Culture	Core	2
	The History of English Culture 1	Elective	2
	The History of English Culture 2	Elective	2
	American Pop Culture	Elective	4
Linguistics	Understanding of English	Core	1
	English Linguistics Studies	Elective	2
	English Phonetics	Elective	2
	English Phonology	Elective	3
	English Syntax	Elective	3
	The History of the English Language	Elective	3
Language Skills	Elementary English Reading	Core	1
	TOEIC Reading	Core	1
	Current Issues in English Reading 1	Core	1
	Audio-Visual English 1	Elective	2
	Audio-Visual English 2	Elective	2
	English Grammar 1	Elective	2
	English Conversation 1	Core	2
	English Conversation 2	Core	2
	English Conversation 3	Elective	3
	English Conversation 4	Elective	3
	Korean English Interpretation 1	Elective	3
	Korean English Interpretation 2	Elective	3
	English Composition	Elective	3
	Korean English Translation 1	Elective	3
	Korean English Translation 2	Elective	4
	English Grammar 2	Elective	4
	Current Issues in English Reading 2	Elective	4

*The information in the table was current in 2005.

Some interesting trends can be noted in Table 1. The name of the department, "English Language and Culture," implies that there would be many courses relevant to English linguistics and culture. However, according to Table 1, of a total of 40 courses, only 14 are pertinent to English linguistics and culture, including the two literature courses which are interwoven with cultural aspects. Only a few classes are required, and those classes have more than two sections. Further, of all the courses, only the required conversation class has the largest possible number of sections, so as to reduce the number of students per class. This fact suggests that the course is regarded as important in the department. Also, all the sections are taught by native English-speaking instructors who belong to the university's Practical English Education Center.

The Practical English Education Center is in charge of the college freshmen English courses and English Conversation courses for English majors and Communication majors in the university. The director of the center is one of the English department professors, and 17 English native speakers work for the center.

The Reasons for Majoring in English

Below, the survey results are analyzed based on the research questions. The first question concerned reasons for majoring in English. The results are summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2. REASONS FOR MAJORING IN ENGLISH

1: least important 4: most important	Overall Mean (SD) N = 109	Mean for 2nd year (SD) N = 29	Mean for 3rd year (SD) N = 41	Mean for 4th year (SD) N = 39
I like the English language.	3.11 (0.99)	2.90 (1.05)	3.20 (0.95)	3.18 (1.00)
I am interested in English cultures.	2.42 (0.97)	2.41 (1.02)	2.56 (0.95)	2.28 (0.94)
English is considered important in our society.	3.18 (0.80)	3.34 (0.67)	3.10 (0.83)	3.15 (0.84)
I want to get a decent job.	2.50 (0.97)	2.62 (0.86)	2.59 (1.07)	2.33 (0.93)

As seen in Table 2, the four items elicited responses of around 2 to 3 Likert scale points across the three grades, on a scale from 1 (least important) to 4 (most important). Not much discrepancy across the three years was found. In more detail, juniors and seniors on average rated the first option, "I like the English language," higher than the third, "English is considered important in our society," while sophomores rated the third higher than the first. Apparently, English majors have a strong intrinsic motivation to study English, and the important status of the English language in Korean society led many of them to decide to major in it. Of all the participants, 75% chose a scale point of 3 or 4 in response to the first item, "I like English language," and 84% did so on the third item, which is "English is considered important in our society."

The survey also investigated the possible benefits of majoring in English. Although this question is not related directly to the reasons why participants decided to specialize in English, their responses to it are likely to be factors affecting their decision. Thus, it is possible to interpret the reasons for choosing English as their major by examining their answers to this question. The results are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. IN WHAT WAYS IS MAJORING IN ENGLISH BENEFICIAL?

1: least important 4: most important	Overall Mean (*SD*)	Mean for 2nd year (*SD*)	Mean for 3rd year (*SD*)	Mean for 4th year (*SD*)
A certain English test such as TOEIC.	**2.43** (0.94) *N* = 109	**2.48** (0.95) *N* = 29	**2.39** (0.86) *N* = 41	**2.44** (1.02) *N* = 39
A decent job or getting hired.	**2.74** (0.96) *N* = 109	**2.83** (0.97) *N* = 29	**2.73** (1.00) *N* = 41	**2.69** (0.92) *N* = 39
Studying English in depth as a subject.	**2.72** (0.84) *N* = 108	**2.64** (0.78) *N* = 28	**2.95** (0.74) *N* = 41	**2.54** (0.94) *N* = 39
Improving English skills.	**3.12** (0.85) *N* = 109	**3.24** (0.83) *N* = 29	**3.37** (0.70) *N* = 41	**2.77** (0.90) *N* = 39

A majority of English majors seem to believe that majoring in English is mostly beneficial for improving English skills: The mean rating for this was 3.12 out of 4. More specifically, 78% of the participants chose three or four points on the fourth item of this question, but the mean for seniors is 2.77, lower than that for sophomores and juniors. One possible reason for this outcome may stem from a belief that they have already acquired the skills. Interestingly, getting a satisfying job was not an influential factor leading the participants to major in English; what they perceived as more important was the critical position of English language in Korean society. This finding might suggest that the importance of English is not limited to the time of getting hired. Rather, the pilot study revealed that English majors realized more concretely the advantages of their major after graduation as they started working. Further, the pilot study suggested that the more a person employs English at a working place, the more they feel the advantages of majoring in English. Another reason for this finding might be that English majors think majoring in English simply does not guarantee a decent job. A similar inference could be drawn from the responses on the first item; it seems that English majors believe specializing in English is not related directly to getting a high score on English proficiency tests such as TOEIC. However, data obtained from open-ended questions showed other possible perspectives. Although the participants did not decide to major in English in order to get a decent job, 22 of them cited among their personal goals the ability to get hired in their desired work field through learning English more deeply.

English Majors' Wants

As mentioned previously, the results indicate that many English majors consider improving English skills a benefit of their major. This belief turned out to be interwoven with other findings such as their language wants. The close relationship between the English majors' beliefs and wants suggested that their wants and their reasons for majoring in English were inseparable. Further, low standard deviations here show a high level of agreement among the respondents. More detailed results are presented in Tables 4, 5, and 6.

TABLE 4. WHAT ENGLISH ABILITIES ARE IMPORTANT?

1: least important 4: most important	Overall Mean (*SD*) *N* = 109	Mean for 2nd year (*SD*) *N* = 29	Mean for 3rd year (*SD*) *N* = 41	Mean for 4th year (*SD*) *N* = 39
Communicative skills	**3.91** (0.35)	**3.90** (0.41)	**3.95** (0.22)	**3.87** (0.41)
Cultural knowledge	**2.66** (0.72)	**2.52** (0.74)	**2.76** (0.77)	**2.67** (0.66)
Grammar	**2.50** (0.75)	**2.52** (0.74)	**2.39** (0.80)	**2.62** (0.71)
Productive skills such as speaking and writing	**3.47** (0.69)	**3.55** (0.78)	**3.37** (0.66)	**3.51** (0.64)
Receptive skills such as reading and listening	**3.29** (0.64)	**3.28** (0.65)	**3.20** (0.68)	**3.41** (0.59)

A distinct pattern emerges, as seen in Table 4. Most of the participants think that communicative skills are very important: 93% of them checked four points on communicative skills. The fairly low standard deviations across all three years also implied that a majority of the English majors agreed on the idea that communicative skills were vital. This trend was also found in previous studies (Cho, Moon, & Lee, 1997; Chong & Kim, 2001; Kim, 2000; Kang, 1995; Ko, 1996; Kwon, 2000; Ok & Lee, 1999; Park, 1997; Song & Park, 2004). Additionally, the English majors prioritized productive over receptive skills, even though the disparity was not large. Cultural knowledge and grammar were not considered as crucial as the four language skills. In addition to this strong belief, six students mentioned confidence as an important asset in the open-ended section.

As set out in Table 1, the curriculum of the Division of English Language and Culture comprises four distinct areas, English Cultures, English Linguistics, English Literature, and English Skills. The participants were asked two questions pertinent to these four subcomponents of the curriculum in order to further specify their language needs. The results are summarized in Tables 5 and 6.

TABLE 5. WHAT ASPECTS OF ENGLISH DID STUDENTS WANT TO LEARN BEFORE ADMISSION?

1: least want 4: most want	Overall Mean (SD)	Mean for 2nd year (SD)	Mean for 3rd year (SD)	Mean for 4th year (SD)
	N = 109	N = 29	N = 41	N = 39
English Cultures	2.65 (0.80)	2.76 (0.83)	2.66 (0.79)	2.56 (0.79)
English Linguistics	2.83 (0.99)	2.97 (0.94)	2.83 (0.97)	2.74 (1.04)
English Literature	2.42 (0.84)	2.31 (0.76)	2.41 (0.89)	2.51 (0.85)
English Skills	3.72 (0.56)	3.76 (0.51)	3.83 (0.44)	3.59 (0.68)

TABLE 6. WHICH CLASSES SHOULD BE OFFERED MORE?

1: least offered 4: most offered	Overall Mean (SD)	Mean for 2nd year (SD)	Mean for 3rd year (SD)	Mean for 4th year (SD)
English Cultures	2.78 (0.82) N = 108	2.62 (0.86) N = 29	2.83 (0.84) N = 40	2.85 (0.78) N = 39
English Linguistics	2.84 (0.92) N = 108	3.07 (0.75) N = 29	2.83 (0.96) N = 40	2.69 (0.98) N = 39
English Literature	2.40 (0.84) N = 108	2.38 (0.94) N = 29	2.15 (0.74) N = 40	2.67 (0.81) N = 39
English Skills	3.74 (0.46) N = 109	3.86 (0.35) N = 29	3.73 (0.45) N = 41	3.67 (0.53) N = 39

A similar pattern to that found previously in terms of prioritized abilities emerged here as well. English majors have an obvious disposition toward English skills. Almost all (to be accurate, 95% of

them) selected three or four points on English skills in response to the question asking what aspects of English they wanted to learn before admission, and 99% chose a scale point of 3 or 4 in response to which courses should be offered more class time. The low standard deviations also suggested that this opinion was supported by most of the participants. However, some discrepancies between the three years of study were identified. A distinguishing finding was revealed on offering more English Linguistics classes: Sophomores on average rated this quite a lot higher than juniors and seniors, suggesting that they wanted to take Linguistics classes more than their seniors. More specific skills within broad English skills were cited in response to the open-ended questions. As seen in Table 4, the skills that the 58 participants wanted most were listening and speaking. Also, 10 students desired more practice in writing, and 14 wanted to have more translating and interpretation classes. Furthermore, 32 participants said that they needed a greater variety of conversation classes focusing on different topics. Further, 6 seniors wished the department would offer Business English courses.

In short, participants thought that majoring in English was beneficial for enhancing English skills, and that these were most important. Thus, by majoring in English, they wanted to learn mostly English skills, and so desired to take more skills-based courses.

English Majors' Other Needs

To explore English majors' needs besides their language wants, it was requested that they respond to the following question: To what extent are the following (described in the survey questionnaire) problematic in studying English at the college level? The results are shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7. TO WHAT EXTENT ARE THE FOLLOWING PROBLEMATIC?

1: least problematic 4: most problematic	Overall Mean (SD) N = 109	Mean for 2nd year (SD) N = 29	Mean for 3rd year (SD) N = 41	Mean for 4th year (SD) N = 39
It is rare to use English outside English class.	**3.12** (0.94)	**2.97** (0.98)	**3.20** (0.81)	**3.15** (1.04)
There are too many students in class.	**2.75** (0.90)	**2.62** (0.78)	**2.85** (0.94)	**2.74** (0.97)
There is not enough input in English.	**2.68** (0.77)	**2.59** (0.73)	**2.73** (0.74)	**2.69** (0.83)
Instructors are not qualified to teach English.	**2.16** (0.77)	**2.24** (0.79)	**1.98** (0.79)	**2.28** (0.72)

As shown in Table 7, the first option, "It is rare to use English outside English class" was pointed out by many English majors as most problematic: 76% of them selected three or four points on this item. This is one issue faced in many countries in which English is a foreign language. As a solution for this issue, 10 students mentioned in the open-ended section a special program or a place such as *English Camp* or *English Zone*. The latter is a special term for a particular area in which everybody has to speak only English. Some schools, usually universities in Korea, create this place in an effort to encourage their students to have further exposure to English and eventually use more English. The common setting for this is in a small cafeteria where students have to order from the menu in English and can also chat with their friends in English.

Further, large class size and insufficient input in English were regarded as issues of concern in studying English. Class size was also regarded as a serious problem in many previous studies (Cho, Moon, & Lee, 1997; Chong & Kim, 2001; Jeon, 2002; Joh, 2002). In addition to these issues, 26 participants pointed out the number of courses offered were too few. This was raised by many more seniors than sophomores. Nevertheless, a positive finding was identified as well. English majors on average rated fairly low on the fourth option, "Instructors are not qualified to teach English." This finding might suggest that English majors are satisfied with the quality of the faculty members of the department.

The participants were also invited to express their ideas about possible changes in order to make the Division of English Language and Culture better. Their opinions about certain problems hindering them from studying English have a thread of connection with their wants for changes in the division. Their declared wants are presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8. TO WHAT EXTENT ARE THESE CHANGES IMPORTANT?

1: least important 4: most important	Overall Mean (SD) N =109	Mean for 2ⁿᵈ year (SD) N = 29	Mean for 3ʳᵈ year (SD) N = 41	Mean for 4ᵗʰ year (SD) N = 39
More variety of courses	**3.31** (0.74)	**3.24** (0.79)	**3.37** (0.73)	**3.31** (0.73)
More instruction in English	**3.04** (0.86)	**2.93** (0.70)	**3.07** (0.88)	**3.08** (0.96)
More native speaker instructors	**3.49** (0.75)	**3.41** (0.82)	**3.46** (0.78)	**3.56** (0.68)
More chances to use English in school such as English zone or English cafe	**3.42** (0.87)	**3.66** (0.61)	**3.12** (1.08)	**3.56** (0.72)

In many previous studies, English majors have expressed a desire to have a larger variety of classes like non-English majors (Cho, Moon, & Lee, 1997; Chong & Kim, 2001; Joh, 2002; Park, 1997; Song & Park, 2004; Suh, 1990; Sung, Pyo, & Lee, 2004). Furthermore, since a majority thought the English as a Foreign Language context was a hindrance to learning English, many wanted to have more opportunities to employ English in school: 83% proposed this idea by selecting three or four points on the item. More instruction in English and more native speaker instructors were also supported by many respondents despite their satisfaction with the quality of the faculty. Nevertheless, the third option was on average rated much higher than the second, and this might indicate that the majors prefer English medium classes taught by native English speakers to the ones given by non-native speakers. However, one should be cautious when interpreting this preference for

native speaker English instructors, since the question itself could prime the response. Along with these four possible changes, in the open-ended part, 13 participants considered small class size a necessary change in order to maximize their learning.

English Majors' Self-assessed Proficiency

In the first section of the survey, the participants were asked to assess their perceived English proficiency. Three choices were provided: (a) below the average, (b) average, and (c) above the average. Since this question was included in order to find out their confidence in their English ability, the participants were free to interpret the meaning of "average." This intention was explained at the time the participants filled out the survey. More than half placed their English proficiency into the average level, and not many thought their English competence was high. Interesting discrepancies were revealed among the three years despite the overall tendency to assess proficiency as average. The differences are illustrated in Figure 1.

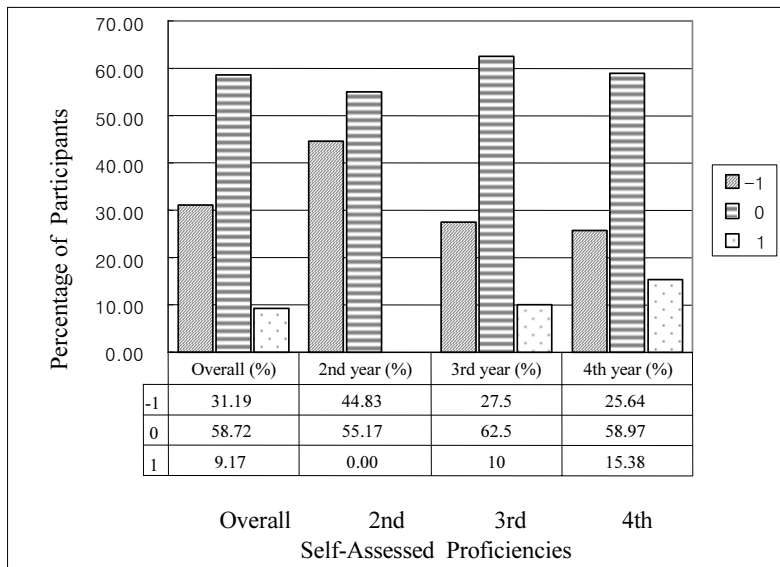|	Overall (%)	2nd year (%)	3rd year (%)	4th year (%)
-1	31.19	44.83	27.5	25.64
0	58.72	55.17	62.5	58.97
1	9.17	0.00	10	15.38

Self-Assessed Proficiencies

FIGURE 1. ENGLISH MAJORS' SELF-ASSESSED PROFICIENCY

As shown in Figure 1, distinct differences were found across the three years. The number who assessed their proficiency as higher than average increased as the participants' year went up; none of the sophomores considered their English proficiency above the average, while 10% of the juniors and 15% of the seniors regarded their proficiency as above the average. This is an important finding since it possibly implies that at least some English majors obtain more confidence as they go through the program. This positive change of confidence in English proficiency is not merely a perception; one of the professors in the pilot study supported this view, citing the rise in TOEIC scores from sophomore through senior year. Nevertheless, not many students considered their English proficiency as above the average, and even 24% of the seniors thought that their English abilities did not reach the average level. Since language learners' beliefs have an impact on their learning (Wenden, 1987), this lack of confidence in their proficiency might be considered a serious issue. This could possibly be resolved, in part, by presenting English majors with the evidence of rising TOEIC scores as students progress through their college career.

DISCUSSION

In sum, the study revealed four interesting findings in relation to English majors' needs in one Korean university. It was found that students had complex reasons for being English majors. An intrinsic motivation combined with an exterior factor to lead them to choose their major. Specifically, the results suggested that they had a strong intrinsic motivation. It was revealed that the importance of English language in Korean society played a vital role in their decision to specialize in English as well.

Unsurprisingly, English majors wanted to learn communicative skills most, replicating trends found in many previous studies. In the same vein, they preferred to take English skills-based courses more than any other type of English class. They also pointed out the English as a Foreign Language situation as the most problematic matter preventing them from succeeding in their English studies in Korea, so they wished to have additional opportunities to use English as much as possible.

Self-assessed English proficiency showed an overall tendency across the three years to be rated as "average," though with discrepancies among the grades. In general, juniors assessed their English proficiencies on average higher than sophomores, and seniors followed the rising trend, rating their proficiency the highest of the three years.

A more detailed examination of the findings revealed a possible need for changes in the Division of English Language and Culture in certain aspects of curriculum and instruction. First, the high mean score on the item of offering more English skill-based classes, (3.74 out of 4), suggested that the Division of English Language and Culture did not provide enough English skill-based courses for the students. Thus, more English skills-based classes should be offered in order to meet the students' demands. The English majors wanted not only more English skill-based courses but also other sources promoting them to use more English such as English medium instruction, more native speaker instructors, or *English Zone*.

The result regarding self-assessed English proficiency raises another crucial issue that should be attended to. It was at least positive in terms of the fact that seniors are more confident in their English abilities than sophomores. However, the overall tendency was negative because more than half of the English majors saw themselves having below average proficiency. Further studies are needed to explore why this happened and how to resolve this negative disposition.

Although this study included a range of levels from sophomores to seniors, with a considerable number of participants from each year, the sample population was approximately only 25% of the total population of one university. It would be better if more universities participated. Also, the present research focused predominately on English majors' perceived wants. In order to investigate their needs more thoroughly, triangulation should be achieved. In other words, relevant opinions such as those of professors and administrators should be considered, and a larger variety of methods should be used. Further, it is important to know what society expects the graduates from English department to do. Therefore, future research in relation to language learners' wants should take these considerations into account. Despite these limitations, the present research sheds additional light on English majors' needs and the importance of considering those needs when shaping a curriculum.

INA NAM

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ENDNOTES

[1] For the purpose of maintaining anonymity, "A" University is a pseudonym for the location of the current study.

[2] Level-specific English courses mean to offer more than at least two different levels of courses covering the same content.

[3] In this paper, *division* is used as equivalent to *department*.

[4] Freshmen have to take mostly general education courses regardless of their majors. Thus, it was assumed that freshmen would not know much about their major-related courses in the English Department compared with sophomores, juniors, and seniors.

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Reviews

BOOKS

Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning

Eli Hinkel (Ed.).
Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates (2005).
Pages: xvii + 1144. (ISBN 0-8058-4181-4 Paperback)

Reviewed by Andrew Finch

INTRODUCTION

Despite its size, it is great to have an opportunity to review such a significant addition to ELT literature, and it is to be hoped that multiple copies of this book will soon appear on the shelves of second-language learning libraries. Since the 1950s, when applied linguistics was born as a formal discipline, the ELT profession has presented its practitioners with a maze of differing methods and sub-disciplines, and has investigated these through "scientific research paradigms and methods developed for the purposes of gathering knowledge in other human disciplines" (p. 177). During this time, however, there has been little available in the way of informative, objective, and comprehensive reference material to help teachers and researchers sort out and consider the various merits and demerits of the competing approaches. This book attempts to redress this situation by providing a wealth of well-written, state-of-the-art overviews of every aspect of second language teaching and learning. Because of this, it will undoubtedly become a pre-requisite text for those taking on professional development and for anybody wanting to grasp a broad picture of ESL studies.

It must also be said that this *Handbook* is an imposing tome, and that the prospective reader cannot be blamed for being a little daunted. Here we have eleven hundred and forty-four pages of acid-free B5-sized paper, with closely printed lines full of highly significant content, written by highly significant researchers, and bursting with

highly relevant and useful references. Before getting our feet wet, however, it will be worthwhile to step back for a moment and find out exactly what we are taking on when we dip into this volume.

As the Introduction tells us:

> [This book] brings together a broad-based, state-of-the-art overview of current knowledge and research into the following domains of second language teaching and learning: social contexts of L2 learning; research methodologies in L2 learning, acquisition and teaching; contributions of applied linguistics to the teaching and learning of discrete and inextricably intertwined L2 skills; L2 processes and development; and [sic] teaching methods and curricula; second or foreign language testing and assessment; and language planning and policies. ... The *Handbook* is intended for the diverse range of professionals that populate the L2 universe: researchers, graduate students, and faculty in teacher education and applied linguistics programs, teachers, teacher trainers, teacher trainees, curriculum and materials developers, or others who are curious about the field. (p. xvii)

In other words, this is a book that aims to be all things to all people in the ELT world, and a glance at the five pages of the table of contents confirms this. There are eight parts to this book, each one containing six to twelve articles written by leaders in the respective fields, in recognition of which, the contents pages are followed by two-and-a-half more pages called "List of Contributors." This list reads like a catalogue of major ESL authors, ranging from Denis Ager to Jane Zuengler, and taking in eminent figures such as David Nunan and Rod Ellis on the way, quickly dispelling any doubts the reader might have had about the veracity of purpose and content of the book.

The comprehensiveness of this *Handbook* soon becomes apparent as we browse the contents pages, and the eight constituent parts:

I: Important Social Contexts in Research on Second Language Teaching and Learning
II: Methods in Second Language Research
III: Applied Linguistics and Second Language Research
IV: Second Language Processes and Development
V: Methods and Curricula in Second Language Teaching
VI: Second Language Testing and Assessment
VII: Identity, Culture, and Critical Pedagogy in Second Language

Teaching and Learning
VIII: Language Planning and Policy and Language Rights

These broad titles assure us that if we read through the parts, we will gain an authentic picture of the state (past, present, and prospective) of ELT research and teaching. It is also indicative of the profession, however, that EFL receives scant attention. Language instructors and learners in Asia are familiar with having to use ESL textbooks for EFL students. This might sound like a minor problem, but TEFL practitioners know only too well that there is a significant difference between TESOL and TEFL, and that this is not recognized in most ELT sources. Deeper inspection of the contents pages confirms this ESL agenda, with twenty-two references to "L2" learning and "ESL," and only one reference to "English as a Foreign Language." In addition, only one of the sixty-nine contributors does not live in an ESL country. When it calls itself *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning,* therefore, this book makes no bones about the fact that it is an ESL reference text. This is not to devalue its importance for researchers and teachers in the field of TEFL, but such readers should be aware of this distinction. As with the majority of ELT source materials, most of these pages describe the theory and practice of L2 acquisition in ESL cultures and institutions. The appropriateness of these ideas to the EFL situation is left to the reader to determine.

CONTENTS

Having made this observation, we are ready to sample the abundance of interesting and stimulating material contained in the fifty-seven papers of this book. A brief glance at Part I, Important Social Contexts in Research on Second Language Teaching and Learning, will give us a taste of the sort of content we can expect:

- Bilingual Education (Maria Estela Brisk)
- ESL in Elementary Education (Margaret R. Hawkins)
- ESL in Secondary Schools: Programs, Problematics, and Possibilities (Patricia A. Duff)
- ESL in Adult Education (Denise E. Murray)
- English for Academic Purposes (Susan Carkin)
- Research in English for Specific Purposes (Peter Master)

- English in the Workplace (Celia Roberts)
- English as a Foreign Language: Matching Procedures to the Context of Learning (Brian Tomlinson)
- Teaching and Learning of World Englishes (Yamuna Kachru)

As we can see, the scope of each paper in this part (as in the other parts) is extensive, and we are presented with nine overviews of important fields. Each of these papers could well be the subject of a new part, or indeed of a new book, but the editor has limited the goals of the book to providing a succinct summary of theory and practice across the profession. For those who wish to learn more about any given field, the relevant twenty-page article in this book, with its excellent historical and theoretical introduction to the issues, will provide a sound basis for further reading. Indeed, for anyone who wants a big picture of L2 studies, there is no need to look any further. The various pages offer a firm grounding in every aspect of ELT, including recent fields such as World Englishes, Action Research, Pragmatics in Second Language Teaching, Language Socialization and Second Language Learning, Classroom Teacher Assessment of Second Language Development, Identity in L2 Learning, Intercultural Competence, and Minority Language Rights. In addition, the extensive references at the end of each article direct the reader to related publications. More specific topics can easily be accessed through the useful subject index at the back of the book, which follows the author index.

BODY

The format of the *Handbook* is quite user-friendly. There is no need to start at page 1, since the parts are arranged according to topic, and we can browse according to our fancy. If the reader is interested to learn about second language processes and development, for example, then he/she can go straight to Part IV and choose one of twelve articles written by authors such as Merrill Swain, I.S.P. Nation, and Michael Rost.

The wealth and diversity of contents and authors in this book make the task of the reviewer more than normally complex, since the allocation of appropriate attention to any one paper involves giving insufficient attention to the other 56 papers. Nevertheless, it will be

edifying to look at the articles in Part II: Methods in Second Language Research. This section of the book deals with the "range of diverse and ever-changing research approaches" (p. 179) in ELT research. As the introduction immediately informs us, research methods used in L2 research "necessarily draw on those that had already been designed, established, and refined elsewhere among other data-driven disciplines" (p. 177), and "the type of collected data determines the applicable methods of analysis" (p. 178). It is important, therefore to thoroughly understand the principles behind varying methodologies before setting out on, or evaluating the effectiveness of, ELT research.

As with the rest of this book, each article in this part follows the format of an academic journal paper (APA style), complete with references and notes. The first of these, chapter 10, in Part II, is entitled Ethnography and Ethnographic Research on Second Language Teaching and Learning and is authored by Linda Harklau of the University of Georgia. From this reviewer's perspective, it is a welcome bonus to find such a paper at the head of this part, since ethnography, which is "characterized by first-hand, naturalistic, sustained observation and participation in a particular setting" as it attempts to "come to a deeper understanding of how individuals view and participate in their own social and cultural worlds" (p. 179), has taken an important place in contemporary teaching theory and practice.

The article begins with an introduction to cultural anthropology and sociology, detailing the roots of this approach in "empirical documentation of the diversity of human cultures" (p. 179) and continuing to trace its development through various methodologies, up to postmodernism (Brewer, Darnell, Salzman, etc.). As it performs this historical survey, it points to characteristics of the ethnographical approach such as case studies and triangulation. The article then moves into linguistic anthropology and sociolinguistics, and takes the reader through a concise but informative description of the history of this field, along with definitions of related concepts. Having looked at issues such as interactionist sociolinguistics, the author then delves into ethnographies of teaching and learning, mentioning the important contributions of Hymes, Gumperz, and the Vygotskian and Bahktinian perspective, which "sought to document how learning and development are situated in sociocultural contexts" (p. 184). The reader then learns about contemporary ethnographies, methods, weaknesses, and controversies, before coming to the Conclusion, which makes the point

that, as with qualitative research in general, ethnographies are often contrasted with other modes of inquiry, rather than being compared with each other. Because of this, they are often defined in terms of opposing psychometric, positivist approaches, "neglecting contrasts within qualitative traditions" (p. 188). As Harklau points out at the end of this article, the "utility and quality of ethnographic work" must be judged by the "researchers' ability to situate their work within a particular ethnographic and intellectual tradition and to show how their work makes a novel or useful contribution to scholarship in that tradition" (p. 189).

Having perused the twenty pages of text and the five pages of references, the reader will agree that this article was, as stated in the book's introduction, a state-of-the-art view of ethnography in language teaching. It therefore contained a description of the historical background, an explanation of relevant theories, and a discussion of methods, trends, and disputes in the field, along with extensive citations and references. The following article in Part II develops this theme by examining the concept of case studies and is written by Leo van Lier of the Monterey Institute of International Studies. As with its predecessor, this article begins with the basics, and asks what case studies are, before going on to define them and describe their relevance in SLA (Second Language Acquisition) theory and practice. After detailing some historically significant SLA case studies, van Lier goes on to discuss current issues and future directions, before coming to his concluding section, in which he outlines the "crucial role in shaping our field" (p. 205) performed by case studies.

In contrast to the first two, the third paper in Part II looks at quantitative research methods and is by Anne Lazaraton of the University of Minnesota. It is interesting that the writer begins this paper with a quote from Scollon: "research methodology is a cover term for day-to-day practices which are often less well formed than our final research reports suggest" (1995, p. 381). She goes on to state that:

> For the discipline of applied linguistics, a fundamental change in perspective (if not practice) would appear to be underway in its research, from an essentially unquestioned reliance on and preference for quasi-experimental studies employing parametric statistics in the 1980s, to a broader, multidisciplinary perspective on

> research methodology, as well as the nature of research itself, in the
> 1990s and to the present time. (p. 209)

As with the other papers, therefore, the reader can see that this is
not a one-sided rationale for quantitative research, but is rather a
thoroughly thought-out exploration into the various aspects of this
field, detailing not only the strengths, but also the weaknesses of this
approach. The length of this paper is shorter than the others (eight
pages of text), but within that space, Lazarton takes us through a
historical overview, followed by a description of "empirical research
articles in four applied linguistics journals over an 11-year period" (p.
213). In this sense, this could be described as a "meta-article," since
the author defines quantitative research methodologies by performing
quantitative research on relevant articles. This self-referencing
approach then supplies the material for the rest of the article, in the
form of three pages of tables and another three pages of appendices.
At the end of this study, the writer concludes that "there is an
important ... role for quantitative empirical research in applied
linguistics, but not for all research questions, in all social contexts,
with all language users" (p. 219).

The final two papers in Part II deal with Action Research (David
Nunan) and Classroom Research (Anne Burns). These follow a similar
course of historical and theoretical explanation, and conclude this
section of the book, giving the reader a sound starting point from
which to investigate further.

CONCLUSION

It seems a shame at this point to mention two restrictive factors
of this *Handbook*: the length (1144 pages) and the price ($99.95). No
doubt both of these problems were unavoidable for the publishers, who
have provided the profession with a book whose content is deep,
thorough, and highly significant. Looking at the "big picture" of L2
studies, it provides an invaluable state-of-the-art review of the related
theory and literature. We can open the pages at any random place, and
find well-reasoned, logically presented descriptions of important issues
in L2 teaching, learning, and researching, replete with helpful
references for further study. What more could we ask for?

THE REVIEWER

Dr. Andrew Finch is associate professor of English Education at Kyungpook National University, Korea, where he teaches TEFL Methodology, Classroom-Based Assessment, Multimedia in TEFL, and TEFL through Drama. His research interests include education of the whole person, alternative assessment, peace studies in TEFL, and task-based supplementation of textbooks. Andrew has held positions in Korea and in Hong Kong, and has co-authored a number of TEFL books. Email: aefinch@gmail.com

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TESOL's Professional Development in Language Education

Becoming Contributing Professionals
Joy Egbert (Ed.).
Professional Development in Language Education Series, Volume 1.
Tim Murphey, Series Editor.
Alexandria, VA (USA): TESOL, Inc., 2003.
Pages: xi + 124. (ISBN 1931185093 Paperback)

Extending Professional Contributions
Tim Murphey (Ed.).
Professional Development in Language Education Series, Volume 2.
Tim Murphey, Series Editor.
Alexandria, VA (USA): TESOL, Inc., 2003.
Pages: xii + 126. (ISBN 1931185107 Paperback)

Reviewed by Robert J. Dickey

WHAT THEY ARE

The two titles under review here, *Becoming Language Professionals* (henceforth, *Volume 1*) and *Extending Professional Contributions* (henceforth, *Volume 2*) are the first two volumes of what ultimately has became a four-volume Professional Development in Language Education (PDLE) set. The first three volumes were designed to complement each other based on phases of a teaching career: the early years (*Volume 1*), the years of established professionalism (*Volume 2*), and the time of "senior status" in the profession, when one might be expected to train new professionals (Byrd & Nelson, 2003; *Volume 3*). The fourth volume, *Communities of Language Professionals* (Murphey & Sato, 2005), came along two years later and complements the first three in a more holistic fashion by treating the common strand of

teaching as a "community" (Tim Murphey, personal communication, November 20, 2006).

These first two titles are clearly cut from the same cloth. While many book series share only surface similarities, such as page design or a chapter "template," series editor Tim Murphey has apparently prescribed a model of discourse that the volume editors have passed along to the individual contributors. It is a somewhat surprising model that left me a bit disconcerted at first, but upon further reflection seems consistent with other work I have seen from TESOL Inc. The New Ways series (see, for example, Brinton & Master, 1997) would be a case in point. Contributions are fairly succinct (roughly 3,500 words, or eight to ten pages of loose-fitting text) and presented in a casual professionalism that does not leave the reader gasping for air or reaching for the dictionary. There are many subsections, yet the reading flows from an initial "Narrative," describing the author's own context for the discussion, to a brief "Description," situating the problem more concisely, and then on to the "Steps," telling us how to actually resolve the issue. These "steps" are enumerated short paragraphs, the ideal kind of step-by-step instructions we all look for, but so seldom find, when reading "how-to" materials. The "steps" are sometimes clustered into sections based on time, theme, or function, but still in order of progression.

The topics addressed are mostly what one might expect, and fairly consistent with what is discussed in other professional development guides, with a few exceptions. Chapters in *Volume 1* consider issues such as joining a TESOL organization, volunteering overseas, presenting to peers, writing book reviews, publishing in journal forum sections, developing textbook teacher manuals, using student interests and materials to develop a curriculum, learning a foreign language as professional development, videotaping your teaching, peer-mentor observations, email discussion lists, using the Internet for professional development and resources, and online conferencing. *Volume 2* discusses long-distance collaboration in professional development, how the past burdens present teaching methods, peer interviewing, research journals, PhD studies, use of the Internet in teaching and studies, authentic assessment, international volunteering to become a teacher educator, starting a local teacher study group, and creating publishing

communities.

Only a few of the contributors to *Volumes 1* and *2* might be considered "names" in the ELT field, none are what most would consider to be top methodology scholars. There are obvious marketing challenges in this, but again, TESOL Inc. has the ability to make such choices, one of which may be offering publishing options to up-and-coming scholars and experienced classroom professionals.

Much like the levels in an English coursebook series, the division of topics into the separate books has some obvious benefits and weaknesses. Some of the discussions, e.g., joining a TESOL organization (*Volume 1*) and peer interviewing (*Volume 2*), clearly belong at the levels of "entering" or "extending" the profession. The placement of other topics is far less clear, such as developing textbook teacher materials and how the past influences the present. On the other hand, spreading these topics across several volumes, each of over 100 pages, allows far more coverage than would a single volume of less than 200 pages.

What's in a Chapter

There are a number of chapters that resonated with me personally, for varying reasons. That is one of the strengths of the book – as the chapters are penned by contributors, each with their own focus and style, there is a high probability that something will "click" with any given reader. Chapter 9 of *Volume 1*, "In Your Students' Shoes: Learning a Foreign Language as Professional Development," reflects a number of thoughts and even phrases that I use when I'm doing teacher training, so I have chosen it for closer examination.

Chapter contributor Shannon Sauro opens her Narrative with an image of her own thoughts while she is attempting a dictation exercise in a Chinese language course. Just one word, which she can't recognize, creates panic, and she fails to complete the exercises. She senses that many of the students share her feelings. "Suddenly, my own students' tendency to fixate on the single unknown word to the exclusion of all else did not seem so unreasonable" (p. 68).

The short Description (131 words) then observes that while many of us who teach have already studied a foreign language, "our experience as language students may not be as fresh as our education as language teachers" (p. 69). Sauro then mentions my much-repeated

advice: "sitting on the other side of the [teacher's] desk" (p. 69) will help us challenge our assumptions about language teaching and learning.

The six Steps follow in three sections, cleverly using Sauro's version of the well-worn proverb, "walking in our students' shoes" (p. 69) as section titles. Actually, most PDLE chapters offer more than six steps, generally 10-14 or more, sometimes with sub-points, and Sauros' steps are slightly longer than the PDLE average, but the general process is the same. A thumbnail of the Steps:

Try Something New On
1. Register for a foreign language class (either in ESL or EFL context).
2. Have something at stake (a grade, just as your students have, don't just "audit" a course).

Leave Footprints
3. Take notes, keep a journal of your learning experiences.
4. Observe yourself, your teachers, and your classmates (in the journal).
5. Use your role of student to learn from other students what they would not tell a teacher.

Retrace Your Steps
6. Incorporate what you have learned into your own lesson planning and delivery.

The conclusion is short and somewhat argumentative, since these short chapters really do not require summaries. A brief contributor's biographical statement concludes this unit.

WHAT IT ALL MEANS

TESOL Inc. is the world's largest formal teachers' society, with over 13,000 members. It is a multi-faceted organization, featuring world-class conferences, 90 local affiliates across the globe, serial publications, advocacy on behalf of teaching professionals and language learners, and print publications (see http://www.tesol.org for a detailed introduction to TESOL). The TESOL publications division is different from most traditional publishers in that materials seem to be developed and presented in an approachable manner consistent with

collegial conferencing, rather than that starchy formality "to educate," which is present in more traditional textbook designs. Our first hint of this is in the font used for chapter headings – something more like chalkboard writing, and a solid line down the left margin of every page (like a notebook page). Particularly quirky is the placement of page numbers along the left margin on all pages, whether a left- or right-facing page. (Think about this for a moment – usually page numbers are along the outside edge; thus, on the right margin for right-hand pages.) The question is, is there method to this madness, or is TESOL just choosing to be "funky"? I suspect this is a deliberate choice to establish a less-formal relationship with the reader, just one peer "chatting" with another.

While I have never seen statistics, I suspect that most USA-based members of TESOL hold a master's degree in TESOL or a state-license to teach with special certification for ESL. The inference is that these teachers, unlike many EFL teachers, are certainly *able* to read the more treatise-like professional development guides. The formatting choice, then, along with the breezy, chatty style of the narrative, is a not-so-veiled statement that professional development is more than formal instruction and traditional "check-the-box" outcomes.

Most professional development texts suffer from the problem identified in Mingucci's (2001) review of Bailey, Curtis, and Nunan (2001), i.e., in trying to survey a wide number of development options, these texts fail to provide the details needed to attempt any of them. The alternate extreme (e.g., Wallace, 1991) will provide exceptional detail on a certain number of designs, but offers few varieties. A third option (e.g., Edge and Richards, 1993) fills the pages with stories of teacher's development, but with less of a sense of how things all fit together. Edge and Richards (1993) is the first of many proceedings from the excellent Teachers Develop Teachers Research conferences, but, as is the nature of proceedings, they lack a unifying presentation design to help make sense of it all. Wallace (1991) is a technician's manual (actually designed for teacher trainers), whereas Bailey, Curtis, and Nunan (2001) is an overview of professional development in ELT. *Volumes 1* and *2* seem to comfortably reside in a useful middle-ground. It is interesting that Andy Curtis, co-author of Bailey, Curtis, and Nunan, writes the opening chapter in PDLE, Volume 4, following the same PDLE template.

The "Steps" are a significant improvement on the other books on

the market. Richards and Farrell (2005) is perhaps next best, with lots of summary lists and appendices, not so different in design from Richards and Lockhart (1996). Similarly, Richards and Farrell (2005) use vignettes to situate the issue of each chapter, but these are much shorter than the "narratives" of PDLE; furthermore, the vignettes were used to exemplify a general situation rather than to situate a specific discussion (see Dickey, 2005, for a review of Richards and Farrell). The vast divide between a teacher educator explaining and a teacher telling his or her story is never more apparent than when comparing a Richards' Cambridge Language Education Series title, such as the two listed here, and the TESOL PDLE series.

CONCLUSIONS

There is a lot to like about PDLE *Volumes 1* and *2* once the initial shock wears off. These books may not make it into very many MA TESOL programs, but for teachers managing their own professional development, they are a very attractive resource. While not "pocket-books," the short and accessible contributions are almost subway-friendly. The "narratives" clearly place the situation, but they aren't so narrow as to make the reader feel that they do not apply to them. The "descriptions" set the table, in case you wish to read further in other references (such as Wallace, 1991) or feel the need to extend the situation beyond the scenario presented in the narrative.

Other nice little aspects of the books include the contributors' email addresses in the biographies at the end of each section, and a thematic User's Guide to Strands in the PDLE series, which incorporates all sections from the three (initial) PLDE texts at the back of each. Most contributions include a short list of resources, many of which are Web-based. Unfortunately, three years later many of those addresses are no longer valid, but with Internet Archive (http://www.archive.org), one stands a chance of finding these old pages.

While I usually seek glossaries and indexes and compiled lists of references in books, the nature of these contributions, their brevity, and the clarity of contributions largely obviates this need. I have written elsewhere (Dickey, 2004) about the need to broaden the scope

of what should be considered professional development, and these two volumes are clearly a step in that direction.

THE REVIEWER

Robert J. Dickey has taught in Korea since he first started teaching in 1994, and has been at Gyeongju University since 1998. For professional development he joined KOTESOL in 1995, did the RSA/CTEFLA in 1996, and has been active in self-guided study (including book reviews), research, and various courses ever since. As well, he has been active in KOTESOL at chapter and national levels, and in KOTESOL Teacher Trainers (KTT) and the Teacher Education and Development SIG. He is a past president of Korea TESOL. Email: rjdickey@content-english.org

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Succeeding with English Language Learners: A Guide for Beginning Teachers

Thomas S. C. Farrell.
Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, 2006.
Pages: xiii + 160. (ISBN 1 4129 2439 1 Paperback)

Reviewed by Kevin L. Landry

Succeeding with English Language Learners well suits its title in that it is a well-organized guide for teachers to foster language-learning success. The book is designed mainly for new ESL practitioners, but is a worthwhile read as a refresher for EFL teachers looking for new ideas. In the preface, native and non-native speakers of English are invited to use the book to adapt or create their own exercises based on strategies. The author shares exercises from his 27 years teaching, 10 of them in Korea, and cites research for theoretical background.

Chapter 1, Teaching in the First Year, has nine "exploratory breaks" giving the reader time to reflect and answer questions before the author presents his research-based explanation. Chapter 2 is Planning English Language Lessons. Chapter 3 is Classroom Management and explains the different roles a teacher fills. Chapters 4-8 each look at one aspect of teaching language – grammar, writing, speaking, reading, and listening. The book concludes with chapter 9, Language Assessment, and chapter 10, Professional Development.

Succeeding with English Language Learners is designed to stimulate self-reflection within the teacher and can even be used as a course book for teacher trainers. The first chapter asks us as the reader to consider where we can get support and what stage of development we are in. The exploratory breaks ask questions about our own experiences and has us think through our philosophy of teaching English.

Farrell uses the account of a new teacher in chapter 2 to personalize observations and then asks us what we think she should do. The process forces us to reflect on our first months of teaching and compare it to hers. Farrell recommends finding a mentor and implies that more experienced teachers should give guidance to new teachers. It may be difficult to expect experienced teachers to give up more of their free time for guidance, but it is a noble thought. Farrell's good advice might seem like common sense to a veteran teacher, but we do forget what it was like to get started in the profession. We all had to find out about the school, organization, subjects, and students to get settled in a new position. If you have become established at a school, it may seem difficult to follow Farrell's advice to help each new face as they come along, but it is undeniable that in the long run this could benefit everyone involved. Although the author's advice is directed at teaching in North America, it can be applied to teaching abroad since moving to a new environment, no matter where it is, is full of surprises and unanswered questions.

Farrell defines *lesson planning* broadly as "the daily decisions a teacher makes for the successful outcome of a lesson" (p. 17). He walks us through the planning of lessons and his simple solutions reduce our classroom operation worries. The author cites Tyler's (1949) model for a lesson planning framework and also his own work (Farrell, 2002) about teachers following plans. He stresses systematic lessons distinct from content classes and setting objectives achievable in an observable manner. The Hunter and Russell (1977) model of Open-Stimulate-Instruct-Close-Follow up that is offered creates an easy template for the teacher to fill in with their own individual plan.

Farrell offers a great number of helpful tips such as exploit the textbook, know what you want to teach, keep a steady pace, vary activities, create surprises, and abandon lessons when they go bad (p. 24). He advocates the inclusion of learner feedback and sees a lesson as a road map, noting that situations occur while plans are being implemented that require on-the-spot revising. Chapter 2 includes a complete lesson plan about sport. It breaks down the time involved, tasks, interaction, and purpose. This style of teaching could easily be adapted to another theme and other material if the teacher is allowed to formulate their own lessons. Farrell promotes independent modifications, which requires the teacher to have the freedom to follow their instincts – a freedom that many EFL teachers with preset

curriculums many not be given. The author's ideas are based on additional research (Bailey, 1996; Shrum & Glisan, 1994; Richards, 1990, 1998) that further argues that the unexpected has to be expected. The flexibility is inspiring, and the revamping of "cookie cutter" lessons educates learners as real people.

Classroom management refers to organizing the learning environment. The focus of chapter 3 is mainly for ESL classes with students of diverse backgrounds, which is of less of a concern to teachers in Korea. However, the topic is relevant in that EFL teachers do have concerns about Korean students at different levels, and no two students are ever the same. The author advocates balanced interaction and negotiating meaning to foster self-esteem and improve relationships. It stresses that English is more than memorizing vocabulary and grammar, and that having learners interact with each other prepares them for life. Learners of different proficiency levels, or those from cultures that dismiss this style, may resist participating, but another simple suggestion, assigned roles (e.g., group leader, time keeper, scribe, and group reporter) is offered to encourage participation.

Three troublesome students – a distracter, a non-participant, and an overexuberant – are described and solutions are offered for dealing with them. Not blaming oneself, asking students to leave, and informing other students are some suggested fixes, though there is never a guarantee that trouble can be completely avoided. Interaction and facilitating diversity are presented as exciting remedies, and the author also cites his work with Jacobs (Jacobs & Farrell, 2002). The reader is genuinely made to feel that Farrell knows what he is talking about and has honestly been implementing all he advocates in his own classrooms.

The format of the book changes somewhat after chapter 3 as the following five chapters each focuses on one language learning skill. Farrell asks us to state our position on teaching different skill areas and then treats these skills one by one. We can see how our thoughts compare to his experience and possibly adjust our beliefs. Chapters 4-8 explain the present trends and attempt to preempt confusion through a discussion of conflicting theories. There are even disagreements on what grammar is. Teaching Grammar (chapter 4) begins by pointing out disagreements on what grammar is and the many methodological changes, from an emphasis on grammar to a turn

away from it. Inductive and deductive grammar teaching are explored, but individual teachers are advised to interpret his guidelines to best benefit their own students.

Farrell does not leave us completely on our own though; he offers methods based on the acronym "CRISP" (clear, relevant, interesting, short, and productive) that have worked for him (p. 51). Basically, he is telling us to take things one-step further. He is empowering teachers by telling us to be inventive and to put some of ourselves into each lesson we do. His first exercise is very creative and unorthodox – making a sandwich in class, explaining what he is doing as he goes. This may not fit into students expectations of how learning is done, but it certainly will hold their interest. His other example is more common, involving the addition of articles to a dialogue. It differs from traditional exercises in that it does not include gaps to be filled, so students do not have a hint as to whether an article (*a*, *an*, *the*) is missing or not. This makes the exercise more like editing a text than doing a multiple-choice test.

The chapter on writing (chapter 5) has us look at our own reasons for writing. It mentions that focuses on process and product have come in and gone out of fashion. We of course want a simple answer to what is good writing and how to teach it, but like other aspects of TESOL, it depends on what we are trying to accomplish and is not so simple as to have only one answer. Farrell suggests making multiple drafts, sharing writing, teacher modeling, and writing practice. Peer editing and group feedback are suggested to provide advice and encouragement rather than to stress grammar. Students may have expectations and goals different from the teacher, and Farrell's best advice is to have students talk about their writing and about other students' writing (p. 68).

Chapter 6, on speaking, is based on the premise that we speak in order to communicate. We are reminded to consider how we use language ourselves when we teach learners. Farrell suggests that we too often follow model conversations in a course book that are designed to introduce new vocabulary or a grammar form but make dialogues unnatural. We are reminded that English in conversation books is not really the same as real conversation in the real world, and that daily conversations we have may help us get past unrealistic, made-up examples to develop our own personal strategies to reach our students on a deeper level. Assigned roles, observable outcomes, pre-

and post-activities, and project work are suggested to promote accuracy and fluency. Farrell goes out of his way to emphasize that learners are different and it is for us to attempt to determine each student's difficulties. His general suggestions allow individuals to contribute what they can, and at the same time, the guidelines offer us as teachers control over what groups do. This is an effective way of giving learners autonomy while at the same time requiring accountability.

Teaching Reading, chapter 7, assumes that people read for pleasure or to gain information. The exploratory break has us consider what genre we like and don't like to read. We are reminded that reading involves interaction between reader and text, and that readers construct meaning from the text. This chapter reconsiders text structure and how different readers interpret it differently. Once again, as readers we are brought to realize that our perception and personal style may have to take attritional models into consideration. Farrell correctly reminds us to remember that readers construct meaning from the text. Surveying our student's interests is offered as yet another solution for spicing up a class. Besides new vocabulary, prediction, and other techniques, Farrell suggests activating background knowledge. Once again, his focus on the learner as an individual guides us to a fuller view of the whole picture.

Chapter 8 deals with listening – a skill that is often taken for granted, but actually more complex than one might expect. Farrell rightfully explains that it as a difficult barrier for language learners to overcome. The author cites Richards' (1990) explanation of interactional and transactional communication along with top-down and bottom-up aspects of listening. His guidelines give us practical parameters that help us make good use of lessons. These include having goals, active listening, low anxiety, and teaching before you test. He advocates using soap operas as authentic material for a listening class. Care must be taken in their selection, however, as the content could easily be inappropriate in an EFL context. Farrell's suggested activities are easily adapted to other TV shows or movies and allow the class to springboard into more meaningful discussions such as identifying the status of characters, guessing ages, and other character relationships. For this to be effective, the teacher needs access to the material and a VCR and monitor in the class, which is not feasible in many EFL situations. Though his questions are meant

to stimulate reflection, some seem to be slightly off topic and actually distract from focusing on listening.

Chapter 9 briefly describes assessment, beginning with reliability and validity of tests for accountability. We are reminded to test the skill we are intending to test and not consider something like good writing as an acceptable criterion for assessing speaking or vise versa. Testing is another area that has a considerable range of possibilities for the teacher to choose from. Farrell explains different types that have been adopted over the last fifty years. Multiple choice and true/false tests have been replaced by cloze and dictation tests and then by task-based tests. Farrell's example of an oral level test consists of questions that give a general idea of a learner's proficiency. Another suggested assessment method, asking standard questions about free time, the weekend, future plans, etc., would take some time for even an experienced teacher to come up with, and it is questionable whether a new teacher would trust the results of such assessment.

Chapter 10 looks at professional development. Farrell suggests such things as reading academic journals, talking to colleagues, and attending workshops to become a better teacher. He says that as teachers we have to be mindful of knowledge of subject matter, pedagogical expertise, self-awareness, understanding learners, curriculum, and career advancement. He urges us to pursue action research and critically analyze actions such as the reasons behind our classroom decisions. The chapter also advises joining a group and starting a teaching journal. It is easy to agree with the author, but becoming a reflective teacher is not as easy as it sounds. It requires a commitment of time – valuable time for which other professional and non-professional responsibilities and pursuits are vying. Regardless, investigating Farrell's insights into teaching could make your classes more successful.

This book has taken much information from other authors, but presents it in a clear and simple way. It is a very quick read that I found to be very fresh and useful. The author has many years of teaching experience to draw from, and his biggest contribution has come from sharing his resources and revealing the secrets to finding happiness in being a teacher. He walks a fine line between giving the students a sense of fulfillment and, at the same time, keeping them on task. His reality-based plans will make any ESL or EFL classroom a valuable learning center.

THE REVIEWER

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Assessing Young Language Learners

Penny McKay.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press (2006).
Pages: xii + 388. (ISBN 0-521-60123-1 Paperback)

Reviewed By Gerry Lassche

Responding to the dearth of information for assessing language ability in young learners (YL), Penny McKay has published a much-needed volume for an ESL audience of YL teachers in the continuing Cambridge Language Assessment Series. Well researched and practically organized, it contains a wealth of information and applications on wide-ranging issues including YL characteristics, task-item design, testing development frameworks, and test impact.

The book is divided into ten chapters, arranged, in my opinion, into three sections. The opening three chapters introduce various background research: Chapter 1 makes the case for special treatment of YL differing testing characteristics. Chapter 2 explores the learning processes arising from these differences. Chapter 3 then provides the relevant research in literature review style. The middle five chapters dive into actual assessment techniques: task design (chapter 4), the classroom context (chapter 5), mode (oracy in chapter 6, and literacy in chapter 7), and the "how-to's" of evaluation and record-keeping in chapter 8. The final two chapters seem more oriented towards specific, teacher-driven considerations: the issues surrounding large-scale testing in chapter 9, and a discussion section in chapter 10 for a future research agenda in the field of YL testing.

Chapter 1 describes well-established differences in the child's developmental state, one of constant change and variability between individuals. Children are also more vulnerable than older students to emotional and social pressures. This is juxtaposed with the often-used paper-pencil testing formats, which highlight performance at one point in time, treat test-takers similarly and tend towards normative ratings.

For these reasons, McKay makes a strong case for on-the-run, classroom-based assessment as more age-appropriate. In chapter 2, test validity is defined as the degree of match between how children learn and how they are assessed. Since change is a constant, a test must be a flexible instrument in the hands of the teacher-assessor. Towards the end of this chapter and expanded in chapter 3, the Bachman-Palmer framework is interpreted in terms of YL and relevant literature. Arising from this is the interesting conjecture that student progress, supported by diagnostic data, should be the driving impetus for testing, opposed to ranking and curricular-prescriptive rationales for more traditional practices.

The middle section deals with testing in more practical terms. Chapter 4 holds that the use of authentic tasks (a mantra of current communicative methodology), is the approach to take in testing. Test items need to be experience-driven, motivational, and available for observation. Picking up the classroom-based theme begun in the first section, teachers are provided ample case-study descriptions of student progress in mostly functional terms in chapter 5. In chapter 6, it is held that interactive language use is the means by which speaking and listening are most effectively assessed, and thus, testing is best served by locally situated classroom teachers. In chapter 7, a plethora of reading and writing tasks, with the criteria for evaluating them, is provided. The examples provided in these chapters, however, seem unrealistic for EFL practice. Online assessment of oral language use is a difficult thing to do for teachers who are focused on classroom management, and to do this in another language, as is the case for non-native teachers (NNESTs), is especially so. The tasks themselves are rather ambitious, even for older YLs: 50-word essays and recounts, explaining experimental outcomes, etc., seem much more suited for content-based ESL classrooms than EFL contexts. Chapter 8, on the other hand, is longest and has the best supporting research of the book. How to record student progress is explained with many exemplars of teacher diaries and reports. Reading this, I felt deprived in my own elementary education experience, when confronted with the efforts teachers have made in these pages. It causes me to wonder how feasible this is in an EFL context whose institutions do not reward or even seem to value such diagnostic feedback to students (after Finch, 2005).

In the final section, issues surrounding YL testing are discussed.

Perhaps the most pressing issue for ESL in America concerns the means by which large groups of children can be assessed effectively, as necessitated by the federal government's No Child Left Behind program. Chapter 9 proposes that NCLB, and other programs like it, would prioritize holding educational standards to account, resulting in pressure-packed and onerous testing regimens with attendant test-driven curriculums. This is nothing new to Asian YL contexts, but discussion of the topic has previously been lacking. McKay sees as paramount the use of frameworks such as the Bachman-Palmer three-stage test development scheme (development, trialing/operationalization, and implementation) to guide such testing procedures. No reference is made to such research agendas in the Korean context (cf. KERI, 1998; Kim & Jeon, 2005). Finally, chapter 10 serves as a point of departure for a YL research agenda. Of particular interest to Korean audiences is McKay's recommendation of better textbook design, which would be staged in terms of language acquisition development from research findings, not merely in terms of lexical or grammar function frequency. Also important is the amount of space available in the curriculum for teachers to exercise assessment freely. This is a common complaint in Korean high school classrooms – "I can't do that in my classroom" (e.g., Finch, 2005) – but unfortunately the issue receives scant mention in the last chapter. Another issue concerns teacher development and training, done in the context of open collegial networks of interested parties, like a Korea TESOL special interest group about testing or young learners' (as opposed to one-shot teacher training seminars every other year, whether one wants to attend or not). Much food for thought is in these parting pages.

I have two main concerns with the Cambridge assessment series, which arise in this particular book as well. The first is a tendency to foreground ESL literature and practice. McKay has about 230 references listed, out of which only 10 seem to have an EFL theme. The vast majority concern the US, the UK, and Australia. I see a real need for an assessment book for EFL contexts. This lacuna is surprising because Bachman is one of the series editors and is based in Hong Kong, an EFL setting. Another concern is the tendency to give the Bachman-Palmer framework singular prominence, without paying any attention to the analysis of actual learner production. As I have mentioned elsewhere (Lassche, 2005, 2006), exemplars of

student language use, and accompanying assessment, would really help teachers to understand *how* the Bachman-Palmer framework criteria can be interpreted. Explaining what the criteria mean through thick descriptions is not sufficient.

I would strongly recommend this book for those involved in developing education and testing policy, in ESL and EFL contexts alike. Classroom teachers in elementary and middle school would also find this useful, albeit a bit disheartening due to the labor-intensive work involved. As a research tool in EFL settings, it should be the first instrument to turn to. My hope is that such research will eventually find its way into the reviews of literature in a shared dialogue, on either side of the world. For that to happen, findings need to be published for world consumption (for example, in English), and status and attention needs to be granted to quality ELT journals.

THE REVIEWER

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Teaching Young Language Learners

Anna Maria Pinter
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2006.
Pages: xii + 180. (ISBN 0 19 42207 0)

Reviewed by Jake Kimball

Teaching Young Language Learners is the latest addition to the series, *Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers*, and a welcome complement to the recent and steady publication of Young Learner-oriented reference books for teachers. Given the ubiquity of teaching English to young learners, both in Korea and worldwide, and the Korean Ministry of Education's intention to fully implement the teaching of young learners from the first grade of elementary school by 2008, this teacher's reference will prove to be invaluable for teacher trainers as well as experienced teachers, whether native or non-native speakers.

The introduction provides readers with an essential overview of the book, noting that the book is not a resource bank of teaching ideas and activities, but a reference for teachers wishing to explore their context and uncover the links between theory and practice. The age group under consideration ranges from about 4 to 14 years old, although the author perceptively argues that children's abilities and interests vary from child to child and from context to context. Thus, caution must be exercised when making classroom judgments regarding what works and what does not work with students in individual classrooms. In subsequent chapters, content is conveniently organized into recommendations of theory and practice under the broad categories of *younger learners* and *older learners*.

Professional development is the driving force of this book. The eleven short chapters are very neatly organized with broad learning theories laying a foundation for the teaching of language skills, followed by various assessment issues, and closing with the pursuit of

research via action research. Chapter 1, Learning and Development, discusses children's stages of development and includes a brief overview of Piaget, Vygotsky, and Gardner. Inexperienced teachers will find this chapter beneficial, but experienced teachers may simply begin with chapter 2, Learning the First Language at Home and at School, which expands on the ideas presented in chapter 1 and focuses on first language acquisition. Chapter 3 continues the language acquisition theme, this time focusing on bilingualism.

General young learner (YL) program issues account for chapter 4, Policy: Primary ELT Programmes. This chapter considers the public and private school connection and makes a strong case for content-based instruction (CBI). It is also the first chapter where the author's classroom experience and narrative voice are most clearly evident. The heart of *Teaching Young Language Learners* lies in the middle chapters, 5-8, where practical skills take center stage. Chapter 5, Teaching Listening and Speaking, is particularly well written and organized. Again, Pinter's classroom experience is clear. Subheadings such as "What is realistic for young learners?" and "Need for meaning negotiation" illustrate that the book is based on experience, not ivory-tower theory. Teaching Reading and Writing is the subject of chapter 6 and offers practical tips for pair and group work. Chapter 7, Teaching Vocabulary and Grammar, overlaps with previous chapters.

The final third of the book moves on to various assessment issues. Chapter 9, Materials Evaluation and Materials Design, discusses how teachers evaluate and supplement coursebooks and create their own materials. This chapter also contains useful and practical advice regarding lesson planning and making the most out of coursebooks. Assessment, chapter 10, introduces traditional and progressive methods of assessing student work and students' general progress with English. Pinter warns of the negative washback inherent in traditional testing methods, not to mention the disconnect between program goals and classroom methodology, and the form of testing by which teachers and parents tend to make snap judgments. Instead of traditional paper-and-pencil tests, the assessment techniques of observation, self-assessment, portfolios, and project work (or a combination of these) are recommended. The book closes with a plea for small-scale classroom research and offers simple techniques to get teachers started. The closely related appendix includes 17 professional development

tasks.

It may be worth pointing out also that *Teaching Young Language Learners* has some minor drawbacks. First, each chapter is approximately ten pages in length, including a brief introduction and summary. As a result, readers may be left thirsting for more. Ten pages is insufficient space to cover some of the ground, although some busy teachers may appreciate the brevity. Naturally, the Recommended Reading sections, which include references for background theory and practical teacher resources, make up for this shortcoming. Secondly, chapter 10, which is on assessing young learners, although well-intentioned, may be a bit of a pipe dream in practice. Traditional paper-and-pencil tests reign in Korea. There are reasons for this: large class sizes, teachers' heavy workload of administrative duties, the need to cover a large quantity of material in a short time, and the difficulty of interpreting and transmitting progress to students and parents. The suggested "child-friendly" techniques of assessment are quite time-consuming in my experience. In addition, the self-assessment form on page 139, an extract from *Language Portfolios for Children* (Council of Europe, 2001) needs to be reconsidered for inclusion in future editions due to its lack of practical value to readers. Thus, while projects, portfolios, and self-assessments are ideal vehicles for making formative assessments, expect traditional summative methods of assessment to continue here in Korea. To improve the chapter, perhaps it would be better to include ideas on redesigning our notoriously negative washback tests to provide a more positive impact on learning.

Nevertheless, there is much to like about *Teaching Young Language Learners*. As previously mentioned, the book is well organized with content categorized by the age groups *younger learner* and *older learner*. This makes finding information relevant to one's context quick and easy. The use of graphics and examples is highly effective. While some books overuse graphics, charts, and coursebook examples, this book's layout is uncluttered and illustrates or reinforces the text.

It is refreshing to see an ELT writer and trainer take an unpopular position. For example, many reference books either explicitly or implicitly endorse English-only policies in the classroom. By including activities using L1, Pinter implies that there is a time and a place for classroom L1 use. Practical advice and solutions to problems receive more page-time than academic background information. There are

anecdotes from a variety of EFL contexts throughout the world, including Korea, showcasing what works and what does not. As this book was published in 2006, the recommended reading and bibliography are up-to-date listings of published YL resources. Finally, the appendix and glossary are critical additions to the book. The 17 tasks in the appendix relate to each chapter. The tasks are not simply discussion starters. They are points of departure for exploring one's context and provide a means of making the content of the book come alive. The short glossary familiarizes readers with some necessary terminology.

YL teachers and trainers will certainly profit by reading *Teaching Young Language Learners* and engaging in the suggested tasks. In comparison to other YL resource books, this book stands squarely between two other popular texts, *Teaching English to Children in Asia* (Paul, 2003) and *Teaching Languages to Young Learners* (Cameron, 2001). Whereas the former is more accessible and down-to-earth, the later is considerably more theoretical. Pinter has balanced academic theory and practical skills quite adeptly and provided a thorough and up-to-date source of YL references that is sorely needed.

THE REVIEWER

Jake Kimball is the Director of Studies at ILE Academy in Daegu. He has been teaching young learners and teens in Korea for over a decade and is the founder of KOTESOL's Young Learners Special Interest Group. His professional interests include language program administration and evaluation and curriculum-related issues. Email: ilejake@yahoo.com

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The Experience of Language Teaching

Rose M. Senior
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006.
Pages: xiii+ 301. (ISBN-13 978-0-521-61231-9
     ISBN-10 0-521-61231-4 Paperback)

Reviewed by Michael Duffy

Many years ago, when this reviewer worked as a swimming instructor, the "bible" of swimming teaching and coaching was James "Doc" Counsilman's (1968) *The Science of Swimming*. The author was a U.S. Olympic coach who guided numerous champions, including the most illustrious of all, Mark Spitz. What made his book innovatory was that he did not just prescribe the best way to swim; instead he made detailed observations of the champions he trained and described and analyzed what they did.

In the same way, Senior's book is essentially a record of what a group of experienced English teachers do, or at least (as she admits), what they say they do. It is based mostly on interviews with and observations of a total of 101 CELTA- or DELTA-qualified native-speaker teachers mostly working in Perth, Western Australia. Supplementary data was gathered from interviews with teachers in the UK and with foreign language primary and high school teachers in Perth. A preliminary study with 28 teachers led to the formulation of the book's guiding theory, namely, that "a good language class" was one which showed a high degree of cohesiveness.

Two chapters (2 and 3) cover what might be called the "natural history" of language teaching, dealing with the reasons why people take it up, and how they develop and mature in the profession. This theme is picked up in chapter 10, which reports on teachers' views of the frustrations and rewards of their profession.

The core of the book is contained in chapters 4 to 9, which cover the ins and outs of working in a communicative classroom, starting in

chapter 4 with how the informants go about establishing a friendly and supportive learning environment. Chapters 5 and 6, based largely on data collected with Asian students in Australia, are concerned with how teachers have to deal sensitively with the problems raised by students who may find themselves disappointed with the CLT approach, or react negatively in class, or who may have their own personal problems outside the classroom. In addition, interpersonal tensions may arise between class members of the same or different national backgrounds.

Chapter 7 describes how teachers act flexibly, for example, departing from lesson plans and making decisions "on the run" in response to perceived student needs, and chapter 8 deals with the sometimes problematic topic of humor and other ploys used to keep classes responsive. Chapter 9 introduces the notion of "classroom culture" and group dynamics, acknowledging the influence of Hadfield (1992), who emphasized the value of setting tasks that serve both a pedagogic and a social function.

Chapter 11, entitled What Drives Language Teachers, contains some particularly interesting revelations about the underlying beliefs and assumptions of the teachers interviewed. Although they had all been trained according to the tenets of CLT orthodoxy, they held widely differing interpretations of what that entailed, and many followed "hybrid" versions combining communicative and structural elements. The author concludes "... there are as many individual versions of the communicative approach as there are teachers" (p. 253). On the other hand, she finds that "language teachers universally value classes that function as happy, responsive, cohesive groups" (p. 262), though she concedes that students may not put such a high value on a convivial class atmosphere, and also "... there is a paucity of empirical research into the relationship between the overall levels of cohesiveness of language classes and the quality of learning outcomes (p. 263).

I think few teachers would dispute that establishing rapport and a spirit of cooperation are important, and they may find unremarkable Senior's conclusion that "classes that function cohesively engage in communicative tasks more readily and in a more sustained way than do students in less cohesive classes" (p. 263). However, despite the book's title and the opening words of the Introduction, which tell us that "this book is about what it is like to be a language teacher today"

(p. 1), I feel many potential readers would find it difficult to recognize themselves when they see statements like:

> When they walk into their classrooms on the first day of each new course, language teachers of adults usually find between 12 and 24 students awaiting their arrival. (p. 104)

and they may be wryly amused to read that

> most language teachers spend many hours familiarizing themselves with the teaching materials currently available in the resource rooms of their language schools ... (p. 149)

The author does briefly acknowledge towards the end of the book that the theory she proposes may not operate in "large teacher-fronted classes" (p. 284). Having taught conversation classes containing well over 100 students, I find myself a little offended by the apparent implication here that only a small class can be communicative in the CLT sense.

An asset of the book is that it is written in a readable style, though I wish an editor had done something about the author's repeated trendy misuse of *parameters*. Also, I have been unable to trace the origin of the time-honored advice to presenters that goes, "Tell them what you are going to say, then say it, then tell them what you have said." Regardless of who said it first, it is a precept that the author (or perhaps her editors) have taken to heart; each chapter opens with a recap of the contents of the preceding one and finishes with a bullet-point summary, followed by a brief preview of the ensuing chapter. Some readers might appreciate being led by the hand in this way, and it has some value for a reviewer who wants to look for a quick overview of parts of the book, but I suspect an averagely busy teacher may feel that time is too short for so much repetition, and will want to do a lot of skipping.

In view of its limited scope, I feel, however, that for many it will be more of a book to be tasted, rather than chewed and digested. These reservations notwithstanding, I think many teachers will find interest and value in checking the views and experiences of the book's informants against their own, in much the same way as I was able to compare my freestyle technique with that of Mr. Spitz.

THE REVIEWER

Michael Duffy comes from London, England. He holds a B.A. in Psychology from the University of Wales and an M.Phil. degree from the University of Southampton. He taught English in the UK and Hong Kong before coming to Korea, where he has worked since 1988. He has taught at Korea Maritime and Dong-A Universities in Busan and is currently a professor at the Korea National Railroad College. Email: mgduffy45@hotmail.com

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Second Language Research: Methodology and Design

Alison Mackey and Susan M. Gass.
Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2005.
Pages: xi + 405. (ISBN 0-8058-4249-7 Paperback)

Reviewed by Douglas Paul Margolis

PRACTICE AND THEORY FOR TEACHERS

I would like to begin by stating that books on research methodology are useful for teachers to read for at least five reasons. First, such books give teachers insight about how research in the field is done and thus give them a better appreciation for its value. Second, understanding research helps teachers become critical readers of research reports and thus helps them become better able to distinguish quality from that which is not. Third, many teacher practitioners believe that for the field to advance, action research is necessary; that is, research by practitioners who investigate specific issues arising within their particular context. To draw appropriate conclusions from this research, care and knowledge about research design is a necessity. Fourth, understanding of research methodology will help teachers become better collaborators with each other, unify understanding of concepts, and help distribute useful data collection and analysis techniques. Finally, these outcomes will be beneficial not only to individual teachers, but to their institutions, students, and the field as well. For these reasons, I was happy to receive Alison Mackey and Susan Gass' new book, *Second Language Research: Methodology and Design*. The back cover touts the book as "a new practical and inclusive state-of-the-art textbook" that provides "step-by-step instructions for how to carry out studies."

Although language teachers are not the authors' intended audience – rather, they pitch the book to novice researchers or students in introductory research methodology courses – the book is not too

complicated or filled with esoteric jargon. Language teachers can therefore readily obtain a reasonably accessible entry into research methods. Moreover, while similar books on research tend to develop the reader's ability to be consumers of research, that is, critique research reports, Mackey and Gass' book truly aims to be practical and walk readers through the steps to conduct their own research. This means that for teachers interested in action research, whether to work on an advanced degree or to better understand classroom dynamics and learner needs, this book supplies helpful resources and step-by-step recipes that can help in obtaining useful results.

THE THICK AND THE THIN

This 405-page book contains 10 chapters and a number of appendices. Readers will find sample instruments, tasks for eliciting oral language data, and guides for transcribing oral discourse, among other useful tools. In chapter 1, the authors introduce research by describing different types, explaining the function of each part of research reports, and discussing important aspects of research questions. Chapter 2 tackles the issue of ethics in data collecting, an issue frequently left unaddressed in research textbooks. These two preliminary chapters are followed, in chapter 3, by a guided tour through a panoply of data collection tools, organized by general research approaches. This chapter should give readers insight into how researchers have obtained the findings that sustain current theory and practice in the field.

Chapter 4 discusses research variables, the operationalization of research constructs, and the issues of validity and reliability; in other words, it focuses on how to appraise the quality of research. Chapters 5 and 6 focus on quantitative and qualitative designs, respectively, and address specific elements important to each overall approach. The authors then focus on research issues of specific importance to classroom research in chapter 7. This chapter may be most useful to KOTESOL readers. The next two chapters, 8 and 9, are equally important. Chapter 8 focuses on various aspects of coding, and chapter 9 addresses concerns related to analyzing quantitative data. The final chapter, chapter 10, deals with how to publicize your results once you have conducted a study, offering a checklist for completing the report and ideas about what to include. The ten chapters are further

augmented by ten appendices that give actual consent forms that can be used as templates, Georgetown University's "Institutional Review Board Application," two different transcription conventions, and the mathematical formulas for commonly used statistical procedures.

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

Second Language Research: Methodology and Design, written by two preeminent researchers in the field of second language studies, has a number of useful features as cited above, and thanks to its accessibility and avoidance of too much jargon, and the inclusion of a helpful glossary, it is a useful introduction to research. Moreover, it could serve as a helpful reference for those at both the beginning and end stages of a research project.

At the same time, it should be noted, that other books on the market, while perhaps less accessible, might provide a more comprehensive coverage and present a less hurriedly compiled impression. While the authors are highly respected scholars in the field, who deserve recognition for their research and previous publications, this book contains a number of errors, and at times sacrifices clarity for a semblance of comprehensiveness. Further, while I applaud their inclusion of the chapter on ethics, the twenty pages of appendices dedicated to different versions of consent forms and Georgetown's Institutional Review Board application seems less helpful. Likewise, while the appendix on statistical formulas may perhaps be interesting to those who understand statistics, I doubt whether these formulas without explanations could prove very meaningful to novice readers. In other words, if the authors plan a second edition, I would hope that they cut down on their appendices and expand other aspects of the book, such as the data analysis chapter, where the writing was somewhat abbreviated.

Nevertheless, for those who want an introduction to research in our field, this text won't bog you down. You will gain a good overview of the research options available and a lot of insight into how to conduct worthwhile research in your own classes and institutional settings.

THE REVIEWER

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Cambridge Grammar of English: A Comprehensive Guide - Spoken and Written English Grammar and Usage

Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy
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Reviewed by David E. Shaffer

Grammar at your fingertips ― the dream of everyone associated with language learning. This is literally what Carter and McCarthy provide with *Cambridge Grammar of English* (CGE) ― a comprehensive guide to the grammar and usage of both spoken and written English. Recent developments in computational techniques have made possible easier analysis of large amounts of linguistic data. Through such an analysis, CGE is quite comprehensive in detailing the types of structures comprising the English language. Whereas Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvick (1985) provided a traditional description of written grammar, and Huddleson and Pullum (2002) provide a comprehensive description that is heavily influenced by generative grammar, neither details those structures of spoken English not common to the written form. Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan (1999) present frequencies for spoken English as well as various written forms, but their account is not as equally weighted or as comprehensive for both written and spoken grammar as is CGE. With CGE, we are presented with a more balanced description of the English language as it is used in contemporary times. Along with the explicit description of its written form, a large corpus is drawn upon to compliment this with the spoken forms that are in use.

OVERVIEW

Any grammar of English needs to describe the structures of the language, from words to more complex structures, as well as aspects of the language that are less structural in character, such as speech acts and tense. To accommodate both the syntactic and semantic perspectives, CGE is divided into two sections and numerous chapters. The first section, From Word to Grammar − An A to Z, is an alphabetical collection of frequently used words in everyday English, and words that have multiple meanings or a grammatical individuality that is noteworthy, as well as those that are problematic for the English learner. The second, much larger, section contains a dozen grammar-related topic areas: (a) Spoken Language, (b) Grammar and Discourse, (c) Word and Phrase Classes, (d) Nouns, (e) Verbs, (f) Adjectives and Adverbs, (g) Prepositions and Particles, (h) Word Formation, (i) Sentence and Clause Patterns, (j) Time, (k) Notions and Functions, and (l) Information Packaging. The last 150 pages of the book are devoted to nine appendices (including punctuation, spelling, numbers, time, and measurement), a glossary of grammar terminology, a short bibliography, and a subject index. Available with both paperback and hardcover editions of CGE is a CD-ROM containing the print version in its entirety in a searchable format. The extensive cross-referencing in the print version is accessible at the click of a mouse on the CD, and audio recordings of all of the over 7,000 example sentences are included.

The A to Z section is arranged alphabetically with precise and concise explanations of how the lexical items are used and with numerous and varied example sentences. The entry for *about* (pp. 22-24), for instance, contains twenty lines of explanation and about twice as many lines of sentential examples. Two of the examples are of commonly made errors in the use of *about*, indicated as such with a single line stroked through the sentence. All example sentences, in this section and throughout the book, are italicized, and bold font is used for the part of the sentence focused on. (To its credit, CGE contains more examples drawn from spoken English than from the

written form.) For the *about* entry, and elsewhere where appropriate, scores of words are listed that *about* commonly follows. Compilation of these lists was facilitated by the multi-million-word Cambridge International Corpus (CIC) of spoken and written English, which contains the five-million-word Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English (CANCODE).

The influence of the spoken corpus is apparent in the A to Z section, as it is throughout the book. The entry for *right* (pp. 135-136), for example, contains explanations of nine ways in which the word is used, five of which are solely spoken English usages. One of the spoken English entries for *like* was so "unconventional" for a grammar reference that it made a bit of a stir in the media in Britain. The cause of this stir was the description of *like* as a marker of reported speech (e.g., *...and I'm like "Go away..."* p. 102). This incident punctuates how radically different CGE is in its description of English by including extensive coverage of the spoken forms of the language. Two-thirds of the entry for *like*, for example, deals with spoken English uses of the word.

Following the 143-page A to Z section is the major section of the book – 662 pages of thirty-three chapters on every aspect of grammar and discourse arranged into twelve topic areas. The format of these chapters is very much like that of the A to Z section. The nature of the subject matter often requires that there be more paragraphs of explanation than in A to Z, but even so, it is kept to a minimum and examples are liberally employed. Even the chapter with the densest text, Grammar and Academic English, is composed considerably more of examples than of paragraphed text. More than eighty percent of most chapters consists of useful examples, tables, word lists, and diagrams. In addition to stroked out sentences indicating erroneous usage, almost all of the chapters also contain starred boxes of material that is often problematic for English learners.

CRITIQUE

Compiling a reference work of this scope is an enormous undertaking. Carter and McCarthy are to be commended for the time and detail that they have put into this ground-breaking work. CGE is exceptional in that it describes spoken English as it has never been described before. The British media clamor over the book's *like* entry was but a reaction to the seminal nature of the work as a whole. Learners of English are sure to have a much more favorable reaction to the treatment given to spoken forms of English in CGE because it is the only place where they can find such a comprehensive and authoritative account. The authors have undertaken to provide a description of English in its entirety, spoken as well as written, rather than concentrating on a description of the written language or providing prescriptive commentary. They were very fortunate to have had not only a huge corpus of written English available to them, but also a large corpus of spoken English and a corpus of learner English as well. It should be pointed out, however, that CGE is "informed" by a corpus rather than "driven" by one (p. 11). This allows for a certain degree of sanitizing of examples, e.g., the removal of pauses, repetitions, etc., for pedagogical reasons but also suggests the possibility of a reliance on manufactured examples rather than selecting real examples from the corpus.

The organization of such a large amount of material into an easily accessible compilation is of great importance. Huddleston and Pullum (2002) arranged their 1800-page grammar reference into topic areas. Swan (2005) decided on a completely alphabetical listing of everything – lexical items as well as topics. CGE opted for a combination of the two. While different types of material may lend themselves to different types of arrangement, employing two different arrangements within one volume may add confusion. Although Jack Richards (n.d.) describes CGE as "beautifully organized and very easy to use," this author has not found it so. For a work of this scope, the 118-lexical item A to Z section is conspicuously small. For example, *some* and *any*, as well as *much* and *many*, are not found in A to Z; they are

dealt with only in the topic section, mainly in the Nouns and Determiners chapter. To find this out, one may go to the table of contents, make a guess, and then scan through the chapter; or go to the index to find the word and the pages that it appears on. The author has found that the easiest way to navigate through CGE is to first refer to the index rather than go to the table of contents or to A to Z. Arranging all lexical and topical items alphabetically in a single section, similar to the arrangement in Swan (2005), would make the contents much more easily accessible.

CGE bills itself as a "'must have' for any serious learner . . . of the English language" (back cover) and as "clearly explaining" the "differences between British and American English" (Cambridge, 2005). While it may be true that the serious learner should have a copy, CGE is not as user-friendly a reference for English learners as the second claim above suggests it might be. Both A to Z and the topic chapters refer to British English only, and the only reference to the differences between British and American English is in the last appendix, North American English Grammar, a ten-page section that deals with only 21 items. While it is understandable that a grammar of English by a British-based publisher and British authors be one of British English, it would be highly desirable for the items covered in the two main sections that are distinctly British in usage to be labeled as such, just as they are in a Cambridge University Press learner's dictionary. Hopefully, this will be included when a second edition is published.

It would be gratifying to see a second edition also contain more examples of common learner errors, more boxes of problematic English, and an expanded A to Z section. The examples of common errors that the book does contain are fine but are somewhat limited in number. The entire book contains only about 500 examples, with more than one-fourth of them in A to Z. More boxes highlighting problematic areas of English would be beneficial to the language learner, as some chapters at present contain none.

While CGE totes the account that it gives of spoken English, it is surprising that it gives almost no treatment to pronunciation,

intonation, and other aspects of phonology. For example, there is no mention of the three different pronunciations of the past tense suffix -*ed*, nor that the main distinguishing factor between *can* and *can't* in spoken English is stress. The topic areas of the second section of CGE do not contain a chapter on the phonological or phonetic aspect of the language. Also, for its account of *and*, no mention is made of the high frequency of use in spoken English of the pattern *come/go and (do)* instead of *come/go to (do)*, (e.g., *I want you to go to the index and find the page*). These omissions should also be addressed in a second edition.

A number of items have been mentioned above relating to how CGE could be improved. They should not, however, detract excessively from the fact that CGE is a great achievement. It provides the most up-to-date description of the English language and by far the most comprehensive account of spoken English that has ever been made. It is a valuable resource to the English teacher, materials designer, and learner, and one that is reasonable priced (US$30.94 at Amazon.com). A practical indicator of the value of a book is how much it is used. Soon after it became available on the bookstore shelf, I noticed students not only using it, but using it as the text for their group-study classes. CGE is as much for the ESOL teacher as it is for the student, if not more. Every ESOL teacher would do well to have a copy within easy reach from his or her lesson-planning desk. *Cambridge Grammar of English* is heartily recommended for student and teacher alike.

THE REVIEWER

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Author Plus Online

Clarity Language Consultants Ltd., 2005.
[http://www.clarity.com.hk]

Reviewed by Tim Whitman

INTRODUCTION

Clarity Language Consultants has produced another exciting and useful software package for teaching professionals who want to move their lessons from the classroom to the Internet, *Author Plus Online*. *Author Plus* is activity development software that helps educators create a wide range of interactive web-based activities and lessons. With this program it is possible to make multimedia lessons covering the four skills, reading, listening, writing, and speaking, while using different activity formats that lend themselves to different learning styles. *Author Plus* is designed not only for language development but also for any educational environment. Many other programs offered by Clarity, such as *Reactions!* and *Tense Busters!* can be further enhanced using *Author Plus*. This program also works with *Results Manager* to help teachers track their students' progress. The *Author Plus* family of programs has been used by Cambridge University Press and the British Council Worldwide, and the 2003 version was approved by the UK Government's Curriculum Online Team.

TECHNICAL ASPECTS

Like other Clarity programs, *Author Plus* is quick and easy to install. When installing, the program places a "teacher" and a "student" icon on the desktop. The teacher section is for creating and developing activities while the student section allows the developer to get a feel for the lesson from the learners' perspective while checking for errors in format and other aspects of the lesson.

Author Plus comes with ample support to make the program easy to use, even for first-time users. First the program includes sample lessons in a wide variety of subjects, using a range of activities so that users can see what is possible. There is also a printable guide that begins with a simple tutorial, and then goes on to describe the different kinds of activities, tips for using them, and a "How do I ...?" guide for using the other features of the program. Clarity mentions in their promotional material that a group of educators learned to produce two multimedia activities in 90 minutes. This reviewer was able to make simple activities within a few minutes. There is also an online demo that shows you how to make lessons. *Author Plus*, with the help of Clarity, can have the learner interface customized to include an institutional banner rather than the regular Clarity one.

When making an activity, you can add audio files by selecting the audio dropdown box, clicking on the browse icon, and choosing the file from the uploaded files list. There are visual images provided with the program, but you may also choose to upload your own images from your computer by using the "upload images" icon. Clarity recommends that images be no larger than 156 x 250 pixels, and they must be in JPG format. There is web site support available if your images do not work. It is also possible to use video with *Author Plus*.

The exercise formats include "presentation," "multiple choice," "dropdown," "analyze," "drag and drop," "DragOn," "stopgap," "cloze," "quiz," "countdown," "target spotting," and "proofreading." This wide range of formats includes some that are different versions of the same type, which allows for a variety of lessons yet some consistency as well. "Multiple choice," "analyze," and "dropdown" are all multiple choice formats, except that the "multiple choice" format is question and answer choice only, "analyze" has text on one half of the screen and questions on the other half, while "dropdown" is an in-text choice selection format. All told, the activities are multiple choice, binary choice (true/false), gap fill, text manipulation, and error correction.

As with many other Clarity products, educators developing activities for their learners with *Author Plus* have the option of immediate or delayed feedback, or may allow the learner to select the kind of feedback they would like. Activity developers may also add hints using the "hint" function so that learners who otherwise cannot

move forward with an activity may get help.

CRITERIA FOR SOFTWARE SELECTION

When deciding on what authoring software to use, educators should perform a simple needs analysis that considers the users of the program, the learning targets, how the program will be used, the computer or teaching skills required by the teacher, and the cost (Healey & Johnson, 1997).

Regardless of whether you teach young learners or adults, *Author Plus* readily works for learners of all ages. Educators have options for using different kinds of images and activities, including changing the interface, with the help of Clarity, to suit the type of learner.

A very important aspect is the degree of independence the learner will have when using the program. *Author Plus* is flexible enough to be used within the class or as self-directed study materials. With Clarity's tracking software, it is possible to follow the learners' progress and identify problems. Learners can write on the notepad provided, record their voice, and email it to the teacher for evaluation and feedback – all valuable tools for increasing interaction between learners and teachers.

Not all teachers are comfortable using computer- or Internet-based lessons and materials. However, as *Author Plus* is so easy to work with, even those computer-averse teachers can quickly make materials for their classes. Teachers who have limited training in language education or SLA may need to get support in development of lessons as *Author Plus* has no syllabus or curricula included.

A concern with all educational materials is its affordability. Starting at US$149 for a single computer, *Author Plus* is not particularly priced with the average educator in mind. However, Clarity does provide reduced pricing for bulk licensing, making it attractive to institutions.

PEDAGOGICAL ASPECTS

Multimedia in the Classroom

With the growth and penetration of computers and multimedia into many aspects of learning, including language learning, educators

should, and in some cases must, consider tools, allowing them to enhance learning in their classrooms and provide learners with additional opportunities to control their own educational development. Through multimedia, learners using visual and auditory channels, memory, and world knowledge are able to draw on a broader range of cognitive abilities. They are also able to use a wider range of learning strategies, which, in turn, increases retention of knowledge.

> Computer technology today provides an opportunity to coordinate multiple ways to influence the way information is presented and processed. ... Thus, the adult learner through multimedia will increase his capacity to interact with data and enhance the learning process through the speedy transformation of that data into information. (Issa, Cox, & Killingsworth, 1999, p. 282)

Lessons using multimedia provide better opportunities for learners than materials that separate media formats. There is a clear increase in comprehension and retention when students are engaged in interactive learning programs (Neo & Neo, 2004). Since multimedia lessons provide clear advantages for the learner, with easy-to-use software like *Author Plus*, teachers can maximize the implementation of multimedia to their own particular teaching situations.

Learning Styles and Activity Development

Another advantage of multimedia in language learning is that it allows teachers to create materials that meet diverse learner needs and encourage learner independence. Meeting these needs requires activities and lessons that draw from different language learning styles (Oxford, 1990), particularly memory and cognitive strategies. Ideally, activities would present materials in different formats, such as listening or reading, with pictures or videos. For each format, learners would have to utilize different cognitive centers while at the same time complete activities using different memory tasks: recognition or recall. *Author Plus* provides a wide range of formats, some using simpler forms like "true/false" or "quiz," and "drag and drop" or "DragOn" which allow lower-level learners to utilize recognition rather than just recall. For higher-level students, there are text manipulation and proofreading formats that utilize recall. This provides effective

recycling of the target language and helps learners to change input into intake.

CONCLUSION

Author Plus Online provides educators with a good tool for developing multimedia and web-based activities that can enhance classroom learning and also enable learners to take control of their own learning. With *Author Plus*, educators can meet the needs of a wide range of learners, learning goals, and learning styles. While the price is a little high for individual teachers, it would be a reasonable and beneficial investment for any academic institution.

MINIMUM OPERATING SYSTEM REQUIREMENTS

A Pentium class computer running Win 98/NT/2000/ME/XP, with a CD-ROM drive, a 600x800 full color screen, and network access. Macromedia Flash is also required. Learners can link from any of the following browsers: Internet Explorer (v5.5 or higher), Navigator (v6.0 or higher), or Firefox (v1.0 or higher).

THE REVIEWER

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