ACADEMIC READING STRATEGIES USED BY CHINESE EFL LEARNERS:

FIVE CASE STUDIES

by

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A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF

THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

(Department of Language and Literacy Education)

We accept this thesis as confirming
to the required standard

THE UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

April 2003

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Date *April 25, 2003*

ABSTRACT

The number of people learning English as a second or foreign language has increased dramatically over the last two decades. Many of these second language learners are university students who must attain very sophisticated academic skills. To a great extent, their academic success hinges on their ability to read a second language. This multiple-case study investigated first language (L1) and second language (L2) reading strategies in academic settings. The study drew on Bernhardt's (2000) socio-cognitive model of second language reading. Five Chinese students in a graduate program in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) volunteered to participate in the study. A combination of data collection techniques was employed including think-alouds, interviews, learning logs, classroom observations, course materials, and the participants' reading samples. The results showed that there were similarities and differences between L1 and L2 reading strategies. Although evidence was found supporting the view of cognitive universals and socio-cultural constraints, individual differences at the cognitive level and similarities across cultures were also identified. The findings of this study indicate that the comparison between L1 and L2 academic reading should take into consideration the similarities and differences at both cognitive and cultural levels. Implications are discussed in relation to the construction of an L2 transfer model as well as the delivery of L2 reading instruction.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Throughout my graduate studies at the University of British Columbia, I have received inspiration, advice and encouragement from many people.

First, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my committee members,

Dr. Lee Gunderson, my supervisor, for his most appropriate and invaluable guidance and suggestions since the beginning of the program;

Dr. Patricia Duff, for her insightful comments and support in the warmest and most gracious manner;

Dr. Monique Bournot-Trites, for her many encouraging suggestions;

And Dr. Gloria Tang, who was a committee member until her sabbatical leave, for her generous help.

Without their continued guidance and support, this dissertation would never be completed.

Sincere thanks also go to Dr. Jim Anderson, Dr. Linda Siegel and Dr. Rebecca Oxford for their valuable input.

I am greatly indebted to the professors, staff and my fellow students in the Department of Language and Literacy Education, as well as my friends and colleagues both in China and in Canada, for sharing my interest and providing me help from various aspects. In particular, the students who participated in this study have earned my deepest respect and appreciation for sharing their thoughts and experiences with me.

Last, but not least, I am very grateful to my parents, my parents-in-law, my husband, and my son for their love, support and patience.

To all these people, I would like to offer my heartfelt thanks.

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

There are approximately 60 million students studying English as a foreign language (EFL) in China (TEFL-China, 2003). In the year 2001, two million university students were taking English courses for four to eight academic terms (Wu, 2001).The number of students enrolled in English classes increases dramatically each year. As a result of the increasing demand, English language teaching (ELT) has had to reform with regard to language planning, teacher education, writing materials, designing assessments, and conducting research (Qin, 1999; Wu, 2001). This has been particularly true for EFL programs designed for university students. In addition, the number of Chinese graduate students in North American graduate programs has grown over the past decade and the needs and strategies of these second-language (L2) readers are important for all educators to understand.

1.1 The Problem

Chinese university students bring a repertoire of reading strategies to their studies as a result of being assigned reading tasks and homework in strategy-based instruction throughout their learning of English in high schools and at universities (Ping, 1995; Pratt & Wong, 1999). However, they do not appear to have sufficient training with regard to how to selectively and efficiently apply reading strategies in dealing with both a foreign language and new written material simultaneously. Consequently, they find reading a major difficulty in English-medium programs. Indeed, many fail to develop adequate second language reading strategies.

Academic learning in English-medium graduate programs requires more than just mastering knowledge of the English language. According to *Shouyu Boshi Shuoshi Xuewei He Peiyang Yanjiusheng De Xueke Zhuanye Jian Jie* (1999) *(Ph.D. and M.A. Programs in China)* distributed by the State Ministry of Education in China, graduate students are expected to grasp academic content as well as to acquire independent research capabilities. To a great extent, students' academic success in English-medium programs in both China and abroad hinges on their ability to read English. Therefore, academic learning requires both students' own efforts and teachers' assistance that reflect the multidimensional nature of learning from academic texts. Although there have been some informative studies of Chinese students reading English (e.g., Chen & Graves, 1995; Chern, 1993; Li & Munby, 1996, Lin & Akatsu, 1997; Tang, 1997), none appear to have investigated the reading experiences of graduate students in Mainland China.

1.2 Purpose of the Present Study

The purpose of this study is to explore a socio-cognitive view of Chinese graduate students' reading experiences in academic contexts. Specifically, the study was designed to investigate first- and second-language reading processes by examining the reading strategies Chinese EFL learners used in reading Chinese (L1) and English (L2) academic materials, and the phenomenon of reading strategy transfer. It drew on Bernhardt's (2000) socio-cognitive model of second language reading.

There are two research questions addressed in this study:

1. What strategies do Chinese EFL learners use to read Chinese and English texts, respectively, for academic purposes?

2. To what extent are students' Chinese reading strategies similar to or different from their English reading strategies and what factors account for these similarities or differences?

In order to answer these research questions, information about strategic behaviors in academic reading was obtained with the technique of data triangulation with the think-aloud method being the major data collection technique.

1.3 Significance of the Present Study

The study of academic reading strategies is important because of the role of reading comprehension in students' academic success. Foreign language learning can be viewed as the acquisition of the appropriate reception and production processes. Given this perspective, the importance of this study of reading strategies becomes clear. The results can be used to confirm or support Bernhardt's (2000) model (to be described in Chapter 2). In addition, identifying and analyzing L1 and L2 reading strategies in academic contexts will be helpful in understanding proficient L2 readers' complex reading processes. Furthermore, crucial information about the integration of individual and socio-cultural processes in reading comprehension may also be obtained. This understanding of cognition and culture can be used for curriculum and program developers in China to efficiently design second language or foreign language reading materials and reading programs.

1.4 Definition of Terms

The terms used throughout this dissertation are defined below:

1. Reading Strategy

There is a mutually agreed definition of reading strategies. A description of

strategy has to account for the view that strategic behaviors are *conscious, deliberate,*

goal-oriented, planful, complex, flexible, and *self-regulatory.* First of all, reading

strategies are mental activities which are highly *conscious, deliberate, goal-oriented* and

planful (Olshavsky, 1976; Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1994; van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983).

This refers to the state in which readers are aware of what they do and how they make

sense of what they read. In particular, when a comprehension problem occurs, deliberate

strategic plans will be made to solve the problem (Block, 1986; Langer, 1982; Wellman,

1988). Because they are conscious and deliberate, reading strategies are available to

conscious verbal report or introspection (Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1994).[1]

Second, strategies are *complex* and *flexible.* Strategies "are embedded in complex

sequences of behavior or hierarchies of decision" (Paris et al., 1991). Moreover, there is

no one strategy which is applicable to all situations. The effectiveness of strategies

"depends on the contextual appropriateness of the action, intentions and capabilities of

the agent, available alternatives, and the 'costs' to the individual" (Paris et al., 1994, p.

791).

Third, reading strategies are *self-regulatory.* Inherent in this process is the notion

of comprehension monitoring or metacognition. Casanave (1988) proposes that

comprehension monitoring consists of any behaviors which allow readers to evaluate

their ongoing comprehension processes and which help them take compensatory action

when necessary. Some researchers (e.g., Anderson & Armbruster, 1984; Wade &

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[1] More information on the "consciousness" of strategies can be found in the differences between strategies and skills (p. 6).

Reynolds, 1989) suggest that there are three kinds of metacognitive knowledge: knowledge about the task (i.e., the examination of the reading task and the decision about what needs to be done), knowledge about strategy (the application and adjustment of strategies), and knowledge about performance (the evaluation of one's understanding).

For the convenience of discussing empirical investigations, the term *reading strategies* in this study is taken to mean a wide range of tactics bearing the above-mentioned characteristics. Sometimes used interchangeably with comprehension strategies, reading strategies in this study are defined as actions which readers take deliberately to achieve a goal or to solve a problem. Reading strategies "indicate how readers conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand" (Block, 1986, p. 465).

2. Strategic Competence

The above discussion of reading strategies defines the broad scope of reading strategies including all the reading actions deliberately employed by a reader. Strategies can be identified at any level including the lower level of linguistic processing and the higher level of interpretation processing (Paris et al., 1994). Bachman and Palmer (1996) provide a framework for strategic behaviors, in a broader context of language learning, which is referred to as "strategic competence."[2] The researchers conceive of such competence as consisting of three elements: a goal-setting component, an assessment component, and a planning component. Paris et al. (1994) contend that learning to become a strategic reader is fundamental in many learning situations.

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[2]This concept, originally proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) as a component of communicative competence, emphasizes the use of compensatory strategies (i.e., strategies used to compensate when comprehension fails such as literal translation, using the dictionary and guessing form the context).

3. <u>Reading Skills</u>

Paris, Wasik and Turner (1991) distinguish reading skills from reading strategies. Skills are "information-processing techniques that are automatic, whether at the level of recognizing grapheme-phoneme correspondence or summarizing a story. Skills are applied to text unconsciously for many reasons including expertise, repeated practice, compliance with directions, luck, and naive use. In contrast, strategies are "actions selected deliberately to achieve particular goals" (pp. 610-611). It is contended, however, that there is no clear-cut distinction between strategy and skills (Paris et al., 1991; Vygotsky, 1978). A strategy can become a skill as a result of training and practice (i.e., when the application process becomes automatic and unconscious). Similarly, a skill can become a strategy if it is used deliberately and purposefully. The view of strategies as within the individual's sphere of consciousness is consistent with Ellis' (1994) position that those actions no longer accessible for description through conscious verbal reports lose their significance as strategies.

4. <u>Academic Reading</u>

Academic reading is an in-depth comprehension and learning activity in a content area. It "is associated with the requirement to perform identifiable cognitive and/or procedural tasks … [to meet] the criteria on tasks such as taking a test, writing a paper, giving a speech, and conducting an experiment" (Anderson & Armbruster, 1984, p. 657). In L2 learning, academic reading is related to not only tasks but also to language, concepts, as well as texts in the field.

5. ESL vs. EFL

English as a second language (ESL) differs from English as a foreign language (EFL) in terms of learning context. A second language has social and communicative functions within the community where the language is learned or acquired with better environmental support. A foreign language, on the other hand, does not have immediate social or communicative functions within the speech community where it is learned. In this study, "L2" was used to refer to "ESL" and "EFL" unless otherwise mentioned.

6. Culture

According to Tylor (1987), "[c]ulture … is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man [sic] as a member of society" (p 37). It distinguishes the member of one group from another. Some aspects of culture (e.g., beliefs and values) are below the surface of consciousness while others (e.g., food and clothing) are within people's consciousness (Hall & Hall, 1990). It is usually the less conscious part of culture that influences language learning (Oxford, 1996). In this study, two levels of culture were identified: educational culture and general culture.

7. Schema

According to cognitive theorists (Adams & Collins, 1985; Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Bartlett, 1932; Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977), a schema is an abstract structure for prior knowledge, which is stored in the memory system. Schemata can be organized hierarchically. A schema is connected to other schemata by a variety of relations, e.g. part-whole or subordinate-superordinate relations. Because of these characteristics,

schemata, in a broader sense, can be applied not only to objects and texts, but also to events and situations.

1.5 Overview of the Dissertation

This dissertation is organized into six chapters. Chapter 1 describes the research problem as well as the importance of investigating reading strategies in academic settings.

Chapter 2 presents the theoretical positions and empirical evidence related to reading comprehension and reading strategies. The purpose of providing a critical review of the literature is twofold: (1) to present a holistic view of L1/L2 reading and (2) to identify areas of consensus and controversy with respect to reading strategies. This chapter begins with a discussion of the theoretical framework for the present study and then reviews recent strategy research for the purpose of providing the criteria for classifying reading strategies in academic settings.

Chapter 3 deals with the research design. The research site, participants, data collection techniques and procedures are described in this chapter.

Chapters 4 and 5 present the research results and the discussion of data. In Chapter 4, the presentation of the frameworks for analyzing data is followed by descriptions of five individual cases. L1 and L2 reading strategies are identified. Chapter 5 focuses on the analysis of possible similarities and differences between L1 and L2 reading, and among different readers. Links are made to individual preferences and the cultural context.

The dissertation concludes with a discussion of the implications of the findings for L2 reading models and reading instruction.

CHAPTER 2 - REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE:

READING PROCESS AND READING STRATEGIES

2.0 Overview

This study investigated the academic reading strategies used by Chinese EFL learners in a graduate program in China. Chapter 2 discusses the theoretical framework used in the study and reviews the literature related to L2 reading and strategy uses.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

Bernhardt's (2000) socio-cognitive model provided theoretical guidelines for this study because her model is a multifactor account of second language reading. This model is based on a comprehensive analysis of the recent models and research data base in L2 reading. Bernhardt's socio-cognitive model of L2 reading specifically addresses the way L2 learners approach L2 texts. What they read may be culturally distinctive.

Four major themes in this model provided guidance for the study. First, the L2 reading process is cognitive because reading is viewed as a problem-solving activity that takes place within the brain's knowledge structures. The L2 reading process is also social because the social context influences reading practice. Second, second language literacy is developmental. Certain kinds of errors may be characteristic of certain stages of development. This suggests that there is no perfect reader.

Third, there exist interactions in L2 reading. In other words, three language-based features (i.e., word recognition, phono-graphemic features, and syntax) and two knowledge-driven aspects (i.e., background knowledge and intratextual perceptions) interact as second language proficiency develops. In addition, metacognitive activities take place at all levels of information synthesis.

Finally, L2 reading is situational. L2 readers are different readers at different times in different contexts. As a result, the input (textual information) and the output (reconstructed text) may be different in different situations. This view is supported by Urquhart (1996) and Venezky (1990). Venezky (1990) notes that "most readers show differing reading abilities across different types of materials" (p. 12). The implication of this view is that the interpretation of research findings should take into account the specific context of the study.

Despite the fact that some variables (e.g., affective factors) are not considered in Bernhardt's model, it remains to be a well developed model of second-language reading process.

2.2 Research on L2 Reading Strategies

Strategic reading is very complex, influenced by various factors such as reading purpose, the reader, and the text. This perspective is true for L2 readers. The review of L2 reading strategies in this section is divided into five parts. The first three sections discuss the three major research trends, which are related to the role of metacognition, orthographic differences, and social/cultural influence on strategy uses. In the fourth and last section, the reading strategies employed by proficient or poor readers are described and the issue of strategy transfer is discussed.

2.2.1 Metacognition in L2 Reading

Researchers and educators in L2 teaching and learning increasingly acknowledge the importance of metacognitive knowledge to students' success. Although there is consensus that metacognition is diverse and complex, at a basic level, most researchers suggest that metacognition includes planning, monitoring, evaluating and regulating

processes that govern how strategies are effectively employed (Brown, 1980; Flavell, 1979; Paris, Lipson & Wixon, 1994). Moreover, many researchers suggest that knowledge gains are more likely when students are active and self-regulating and use a variety of strategies in order to complete academic tasks (Karabenick, 1996; Pressley, 1995; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; Simpson & Nist, 2000; Weinstein, 1994).

In the field of second or foreign language reading, researchers such as Carrell, Gajdusek, and Wise (1998) have observed that, the three research streams of investigating metacognition, reading strategies, and strategy training converge. They argue that although L2 readers need a variety of strategies to complete academic tasks, it is metacognitive awareness that is essential to reading comprehension. L2 reading research has focused on the identification of metacognitive strategies primarily and the investigation of strategy transfer (e.g., Block, 1986, 1992; Goetz, 1993; Kamhi-Stein, 1998; Li & Munby, 1996; Tang, 1997).

Research indicates that strategies concerning comprehension monitoring and linguistic knowledge are important for L2 reading comprehension, especially in the context of academic reading. One implication of this conclusion is that less proficient readers are able to improve their comprehension monitoring by learning to use the strategies identified in more proficient readers (Anderson & Armbruster, 1984; Carrell, et al., 1989; Wade & Reynolds, 1989). Cross-linguistic studies have also shown that same types of metacognitive and cognitive strategies were employed in both L1 and L2 academic reading, thus supporting Cummins' (1979, 1981, 1984) view that there exits a common underlying proficiency that allows literacy-based skills to be transferred across languages.

2.2.2 Orthographic Influence on L2 Reading

Writing systems are conventionally classified into three major types: logographic, syllabic, and alphabetic according to the basic units of meaning representation and the regularity of symbol-sound correspondence. Two themes occur from the research investigating the orthographic influence on reading strategies. One is that different reading strategies are developed while processing different orthographies, especially at the word recognition level. The other is that L2 readers' L1 orthographic backgrounds may have positive or negative interference on their utilization of L2 processing strategies.

Most adult L2 learners usually have extensive experience with their first languages. It seems logical to propose that readers' knowledge of their native language affects their reading of a second language. A number of studies have demonstrated that various aspects of L1 orthographic knowledge affect L2 word processing. Inherent in this finding is the view of transfer of skills or strategies from L1 to L2. Green and Meara (1987), for example, examined the effects of scripts on the visual search of three groups of ESL learners with Spanish, Arabic and Chinese L1 backgrounds. They found that although subjects employed different visual processing strategies for letter search in their respective L1, the visual processing strategies in L2 were similar to those used in L1. This finding indicated that orthographic constraints in L1 influenced L2 performance, and, therefore, suggested that there was a transfer of processing strategies from L1 to L2.

A study conducted by Sun (1994) provides confirmation of this finding by showing that the knowledge of L1 writing system influenced L2 word recognition

process. Two variables were measured in this study: word familiarity and word structure difficulty. Analysis of reading accuracy and response time on word identification showed that orthographic complexity affected strongly L2 word recognition, but no effect was found on L1 readers' word recognition.

Further support for transfer has been provided by Koda (1988, 1990, 1995). In the first two studies, Koda compared the phonological coding strategies used by ESL learners with Arabic, Spanish, and Japanese L1 backgrounds. The data showed that the phonological information provided in L2 reading tasks affected the processing of the alphabetic (Arabic and Spanish) L1 readers. However, such information did not show any effects on the logographic (Japanese) L1 readers' performance. Koda suggested that the Japanese ESL learners used processing strategies similar to those used in their L1 processing that required visual encoding analysis for lexical access.

Similar results were reported by Koda (1995), who investigated the phonological processing of Arabic, English, Spanish, and Japanese readers. In that study, two experiments were designed with the first investigating the effects of phonological inaccessibility (i.e., Sanskrit symbols) on reading speed and the second examining the effects of phonological coding interference (i.e., phonologically similar and unpronounceable letter-strings) on recall performance. In the first experiment, the phonographic subjects (Arabic, English, and Spanish) spent more time in reading Sanskrit passages than in reading nonsense English passages. Japanese subjects, on the other hand, spent similar amount of time in the two conditions. This finding suggested that phonologically inaccessible elements

affected the reading speed of the phonographic subjects more seriously than that of morphographic readers.

The data from Koda's (1995) second experiment showed that the short-term memory (STM) recall performance of the four groups was seriously impaired by phonological coding interference. Moreover, the two types of interference had deferential effects upon the performance between the phonographic and morphographic subjects groups. Findings suggested that phonological recoding was used in STM across languages and that different phonological coding strategies were employed by morphographic and phonographic readers.

The results of the two experiments showed an orthographic impact on L2 reading, further confirming transfer across languages. However, as Haynes and Carr (1990) have noted, Japanese language consists of Kanji (logographic) and Kana (syllabic) symbols. Japanese readers in Koda's studies were called "logographic" or "morphographic." Since Japanese readers do use phonological recoding processing when reading Kana (Kimura & Bryant, 1983), Koda's results need to be interpreted with caution.

Brown and Haynes' (1985) study of transfer included a developmental issue. These researchers examined the relationship between literacy background and L2 reading development of Arabic, Spanish, and Japanese ESL learners. The results showed that the Japanese learners outperformed the other groups in the visual matching task, but had difficulty in the visual-to-sound translation task, confirming that L1 reading experience played a significant role in L2 processing. The researchers also found that the reading ability of the Arabic and Spanish readers

was correlated highly with their listening ability. No such correlation was found among Japanese readers. The researchers suggested that L1 orthographic experience interacted with other cognitive processes and those different processes were developed among readers with different L1 backgrounds.

Similarly, Haynes and Carr (1990) measured the reading comprehension of L1 (American) and L2 (Chinese) readers. The results were consistent with the idea that orthographic knowledge is important for L2 word recognition. The researchers also found that knowledge of L1 writing-system still affected experienced L2 readers, thus suggesting word processing is a significant predictor for individual differences in proficient reading.

From another perspective, Geva (1995) studied the development of cognitive and linguistic skills of Grade 2 and 5 English-speaking children learning Hebrew as a second language. She found that those children who were poor L1 readers also had problems in L2 reading. Moreover, good L1 readers tended to be good L2 readers. The researcher suggested that "[l]inguistic skills in L1 and L2 are related through underlying cognitive constructs such as working memory capacity and non-verbal ability" (p. 288).

2.2.3 Social/Cultural Factors

Parry (1993, 1996) argues that L2 reading strategies are socially and culturally related behaviors. Parry (1993) examined the research on L1 and L2 reading and found that considerable differences were reported in the strategies employed by individual readers. A close examination of the strategy use by Japanese and Nigerian readers indicated that how people read was dependent on the social context to which both the text

and the reader belonged. Parry suggested that research was necessary on how reading

strategies were developed by individuals with different cultural backgrounds and how

those strategies were developed in different communities.

Following this direction, Parry (1996) explored qualitatively the relationship

between L2 reading strategies and a set of cultural practices having to do with literacy.

The subjects were Nigerian secondary school students and Chinese university graduates.

Different methods were used for collecting data on the strategies used by the students

doing academic tasks (e.g., preparing for an exam and for academic reading assignments):

interviews for the Nigerian students, and writing assignments for the Chinese graduates.

The results indicated that different strategies were reported by the two groups of students.

The Nigerian subjects reported a strong tendency to use top-down strategies (i.e.,

strategies related to background knowledge) whereas the Chinese subjects showed a

preference for bottom-up strategies (i.e., strategies related to linguistic features).

Different language backgrounds and literacy experiences were then used to account for

the differing strategies. Parry suggested that L2 reading strategies could be seen partly as

a function of culture. For example, more emphasis on linguistic analysis in English

language teaching in China seemed to have affected the Chinese students' bias in L2

reading.

Although Parry listed several facts to bear in mind when interpreting the results,

she did not explain how other variables (e.g., age, task feature, and learning goals)

interacted with the cultural factor and influenced the application of L2 reading strategies.

Moreover, Parry did not distinguish testing strategies from reading strategies. As part of

the data were collected from the Nigerian students' working for an exam, it is necessary

that testing effects be taken into consideration because reading strategies are different from testing strategies.

In a cross-language study, Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll, and Kuehn (1990) examined the L1 and L2 reading processes of 48 Chinese and 57 Japanese ESL learners. The data collected from writing prompts and cloze tests showed that different ethnic groups used different strategies in reading. This conclusion is consistent with those drawn from the previous studies, suggesting a powerful impact of educational experiences and cultural practices on the use of reading strategies. However, the researchers did not show the relative significance of educational experiences and cultural practices over time on L2 reading strategies. A longitudinal study carefully controlling these two variables over different developmental stages is necessary.

The relationship between L2 strategies and culture reflects the current view that language and culture are interrelated. On the one hand, language is a reflection of cultural norms (Brown 1994; Kramsch, 1989; Lado, 1957), and on the other hand, patterns of dominant beliefs and values are the product of certain language uses (Brogger, 1992). Brogger (1992) suggests that the text is "the linguistic expression of culture" (p. 113). Therefore, the cultural background of the text and that of the reader are very crucial to the understanding of how people read and what strategies they use.

2.2.4 Competent vs. Less Competent Reading

This line of research has investigated to what extent skilled reading is different from less skilled reading. Mangubhai (1990) conducted a study examining reading strategies used by proficient and less proficient ESL readers. The subjects in this study were 6 students of English in Year 11, who were asked to complete three cloze passages

and at the same time verbally report what they were thinking. The results of the think-alouds revealed different profiles of successful and less successful readers, i.e., they used different reading strategies. Better readers tended to actively use their background knowledge to help construct meaning from the text whereas poorer readers did not show any effective problem-solving strategies when difficulties arose. For example, a good reader looked at the immediate and larger context to ascertain the meaning of an unknown word. A poor reader, on the other hand, used only the immediate context and did not check the correctness of the word meaning.

Similar results were reported in a study done by Kamhi-Stein (1998), who examined the characteristics of reading strategies used by adult ESL learners. Three Spanish-speaking college students taking ESL as part of their college courses participated in the study. Data were collected from a think-aloud task, a prior knowledge assessment, a questionnaire, and a summary task. The results showed that among the three subjects, more successful L2 readers used multiple strategies in the process of reading comprehension. The less successful readers, on the other hand, did not do so and frequently failed to resolve their reading problems.

In a more complicated study by Block (1992), L1 and L2 readers (proficient and less proficient) were examined for how they dealt with vocabulary and referential problems in their reading of an expository text. Twenty-five college students, 16 proficient and 9 nonproficient readers, were classified into four groups: L1 proficient readers, L1 less proficient readers, L2 proficient readers, and L2 less proficient readers. Three stages of comprehension monitoring by the readers were identified: evaluation (identifying the problem and its source), action (planning and acting), and checking

(checking the result and making possible revision). The results indicated that compared with less proficient readers, proficient readers were more aware of problems and they verbalized their strategic plans more frequently. Moreover, proficient readers preferred general strategies for information gathering and comprehension monitoring whereas less proficient readers favored word-based processing strategies at the linguistic level.

Researchers in the previous studies focused on the differences between two groups of readers, proficient and less proficient. Other researchers (e.g., Davis & Bistodeau, 1993; Horiba, 1996; Young, 1993) have examined the same individuals in their L1 and L2 reading. The subjects who participated in these studies were more fluent in L1 reading than in L2 reading. Results showed that due to their limited L2 proficiency, L2 readers tended to rely more on bottom-up strategies.

Horiba (1996) compared the comprehension processes of four groups of university students (L1-Japanese, L1-English, English L2 intermediate, and English L2 Advanced) when they read two short stories. Data from verbal reports and free recalls showed that L1 readers paid more attention to higher level processing such as the generation of inferences and the integration of general knowledge. L2 readers, on the other hand, used much of their attention for lower level processing (e.g., recognizing words, resolving anaphoric relations). The differences between L1 and L2 readers, according to the researcher, might be the result of incomplete competence in the second language.

Young's (1993) findings also provide evidence for the effects of low foreign language proficiency on strategy use. This researcher examined the effects of authentic and edited textual input on the comprehension processing strategies used by foreign

language readers. Young defined authentic texts as those intended for the native speakers of the target language. Edited texts, on the other hand, derived from original texts and took into account L2 learners' level of language instruction. Forty-nine university students with different levels of Spanish proficiency were asked to read a Spanish authentic passage and an edited passage silently. After silent reading, they performed think-aloud and recall tasks. Statistical analysis indicated that the subjects achieved 9 points higher scores for the authentic text (mean 24 percent) than for the edited text (mean 15 percent). The results also indicated that the subjects employed more local strategies (i.e., word-oriented strategies) in processing edited passage than in reading authentic passage. In this study, the edited text was perceived as more difficult than the authentic text. Thus, the researcher suggested that more strategies at lower linguistic level were used if the text is more difficult.

Davis and Bistodeau (1993) conducted a study and found similar results. Sixteen university students, 8 native speakers of English and 8 native speakers of French, were told to report their reading processes while reading two newspaper articles in an English version and in a French version. The data from the think-aloud protocols indicated that differing patterns of strategy use were reported by two groups. When considering the participants reading L1 and L2 at the same time, the researchers found that the pattern of strategy use was influenced by various factors. For the native speakers of English, more bottom-up strategies were reported for L2 reading, supporting the hypothesis that limited linguistic proficiency altered the subjects' reading strategies. However, these students' use of prior background knowledge in word recognition suggested that top-down processing strategies also had an effect on their L2 reading. This result can be interpreted

by Hudson's position (1982) that under certain conditions it is possible that the reader can override the effects of limited L2 proficiency by using appropriate background knowledge.

Davis and Bistodeau's findings, however, failed to extend to the performance of the native speakers of French. No significant difference was found for the effects of language variables on the strategy use. The researchers expressed their concerns over the influence of other variables such as age, educational level, divergent literacy practices, as well as affective factors (e.g., attitudes towards language use).

On the whole, research involving skilled readers and skilled reading has indicated that strategies related to comprehension monitoring, problem-solving, and linguistic knowledge are important for L2 reading comprehension, especially in the context of academic reading. The implication of this conclusion is that less proficient readers are able to improve their comprehension by learning to use the strategies identified in more proficient readers (Anderson & Armbruster, 1984; Carrell, et al., 1989; Wade & Reynolds, 1989). However, factors determining whether a reader is proficient are complex. For example, the reader's interest can affect his/her comprehension because greater interest in the reading materials can lead to better comprehension (Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989).

2.2.5 Reading Strategies Transfer

Second language reading is a multifaceted process. There is a considerable amount of literature which supports Cummins' claim of linguistic interdependence between L1 and L2. Most of the research has investigated reading. The following discussion draws on research in two areas: the transfer of literacy skills across

languages (i.e., from L1 to L2 or vice versa) and across modalities (i.e., between reading and writing).

Cummins (1979) examined 9 empirical studies and found high correlations between L1 and L2 cognitive language skills of minority children. Another major finding was that both L1 and L2 language skills showed a very similar pattern of correlations with other verbal and nonverbal variables such as language aptitude and IQ. Leslie (cited in Cummins, 1979), for example, studied Cree Indian children in Alberta learning English as an L2. Statistical analysis indicated that the children's oral Cree proficiency was highly correlated with their English literacy skills. Another study, by Geva and Ryan (1993), examined the extent to which academic performance (i.e., academic reading tasks) could be predicted by such factors as intelligence, L1 linguistic knowledge, L1 and L2 reading comprehension, and memory. Results involving 75 bilingual children showed that memory measures (word-span, working memory span, and operational speed) correlated with performance on linguistic tasks (tests of knowledge of conjunctions, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and cloze). Children who employed analytical strategies in their L1 were more likely to apply these skills in their L2, thus supporting the theoretical notion of interdependence.

An evaluation of bilingual programs adds more support to this view of interdependence. A beneficial effect of bilingual instruction and of L1 instruction on the development of English literacy skills was reported in several studies (Carlson, 1981; Collier, 1989; Cummins, Swain, Nakajima, Handscombe, Green, & Tran, 1984). Carlson (1981) conducted a study investigating the effects of such variables as

age of arrival and length of residence on the English proficiency of Russian immigrant children. She found that age of arrival was significantly related to the academic and cognitive skills of English proficiency, rather than to interpersonal communication skills.

Cummins et al. (1984) worked with 91 Japanese and 45 Vietnamese immigrant students in Toronto. Three kinds of skills (grammatical competence, interactional style, and academic competence) were assessed by measures such as reading and oral language tasks, and interviews. They concluded that a high level of L1 literacy skills and age of arrival facilitated the student's academic progress in English, and that linguistic transfer thus did occur. Similarly, Collier (1987), assessed 1548 ESL students with limited English proficiency from upper or upper middle class families. Results showed that older students used knowledge gained in learning L1 to help them make better progress in the acquisition of L2.

Research on bilingual programs indicates that instruction in one language not only leads to the development of literacy skills in that language, but also to the development of the underlying conceptual and linguistic proficiency. Therefore, it is concluded that both L1 and L2 rest on and affect the development of the common knowledge base.

The studies discussed above have focused on school learners, who are in the developmental stages of both L1 and L2 literacy skills. Studies with adult L2 learners, however, have yielded mixed results.

Numerous studies have been conducted examining the effects of two variables (i.e., L1 reading ability and L2 proficiency) on the transfer of reading strategies across

languages. Although some researchers have argued for the significance of one variable over the other, others have found an interaction between the two variables.

Goetz (1993), Li and Munby (1996), and Tang (1997) examined the reading comprehension processes of the same subjects and drew a similar conclusion that the same reading strategies were identified in both L1 and L2 reading, thus highlighting the view of the significant role of L1 reading ability. Goetz's investigation (1993) focused on 32 biliterate third and fourth grade readers, who were asked to read two stories in Spanish as L1 and English as L2. Results indicated that about the same number of reading strategies were reported for both L1 and L2 reading, regardless of the language in which the story was written (M = 7.68 for Spanish, 7.47 for English on the strategy checklist; 3.22 for Spanish, 2.58 for English in the interview). In addition, students who reported using more strategies achieved higher scores in both languages. The researcher concluded that reading strategies exerted possible effects on comprehension and that reading strategies were transferable from students' native language to their second language.

Li and Munby (1996) examined the metacognitive strategies of two Chinese university students performing L1 and L2 academic reading tasks. Data were collected from interviews, think-alouds, and learning journals. The researchers found that the subjects used the same strategies in both L1 and L2 reading (e.g. self-questioning, predicting, and picking out key words).

Tang (1997) compared L1 and L2 reading strategies employed by eight Chinese students at the university level. Strategies presented from a think-aloud protocol and comprehension checklists were classified into four categories: text-based, text structure-based, text and prior knowledge combined, and self-corrective. The results showed that

same categories of strategies were found for students doing reading tasks in both L1 and L2.

Researchers in the studies discussed previously have claimed that L2 readers rely on their first language reading strategies in their second language reading. However, some concerns have been expressed about the conditions under which the transfer of strategies takes place (e.g., Benedetto, 1984; Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995; Brisbois, 1995; Carrell, 1991; among others). The relative effects of L1 reading ability and L2 proficiency have received much attention.

Benedetto (1984) conducted five case studies of native speakers of Spanish at the college level learning English as an L2. The data were collected from students' performance on cloze tasks, recalls, and interviews. Benedetto found that students who lacked an efficient approach to texts in L1 were less sensitive to textual constraints. Moreover, second language proficiency did not seem to exert an impact on the students' strategy uses. Students relied heavily on the strategies developed in L1 reading even after they had acquired a higher level of L2 proficiency. The results implied that compared to L2 proficiency, L1 reading was a more important factor affecting L2 reading performance.

Block's study (1986) has been frequently cited by L2 reading researchers. In this study, Block examined strategy uses by L1 and L2 nonproficient readers. College students (6 ESL students and 3 native speakers of English) enrolled in remedial reading classes were asked to read two passages and report what they were thinking while reading. Two levels of comprehension strategies were identified: (a) general strategies which dealt with comprehension-gathering and comprehension monitoring (e.g., integrating

information, using general knowledge and associations), and (b) local strategies including those for understanding specific linguistic information (e.g., paraphrasing, rereading). Block found that L1 and L2 readers seemed to process reading materials in a similar way. That is, ESL readers did not appear to use strategies different from those of native speakers. The researcher suggested that strategy use was a stable phenomenon which was not influenced by specific language features. The implication is that the application of reading strategies is not dependent on the reader's L2 proficiency. However, one reservation for the interpretation of the results is that Block compared reading strategies between two different groups (L1 readers and ESL readers) instead of examining the same individuals. Learners' differences which were not controlled in the study might have influenced the interpretation of the results.

Carrell (1991), on the other hand, contended that both L1 reading ability and L2 proficiency contributed equally to L2 reading. In her study, the L2 proficiency level of the two groups of university students (English and Spanish) varied from intermediate to advanced. The subjects were asked to read in L1 and L2 and then answer multiple-choice questions. The results showed that L1 reading ability was more important for native Spanish speakers reading English texts. L2 proficiency was more influential for native English speakers reading Spanish texts. Carrell suggested that such difference may be due to factors related to the learner and the learning environment. The Spanish native speakers were learning English in an English speaking country. On the other hand, the English native speakers were learning Spanish outside the Spanish speaking community, which could provide immediate communicative support. The limitation of this study is that levels of L2 proficiency were determined on the basis of instructional level. This

measure of proficiency may be questionable because students enrolled in the same class may exhibit significantly different levels of performance. A more stringent set of criteria should be applied to the measurement of L2 proficiency.

Studies conducted by Brisbois (1995) and Bernhardt and Kamil (1995) suggested that L2 proficiency had greater impact on L2 reading ability than L1 reading. Brisbois (1995) examined the contribution of L1 reading proficiency, L2 vocabulary, and L2 grammatical skills to L2 reading performance. One hundred and thirty-three college learners of French who were English native speakers were tested. The results of multiple regression revealed that L1 reading ability was a major contributor to L2 reading for readers with higher L2 proficiency. It was, therefore, concluded that L2 readers needed to attain a certain level of L2 proficiency for the transfer of language skills. Bernhardt and Kamil's study (1995) provided supporting evidence for Brisbois' conclusion suggesting significant effects of both L1 reading and L2 proficiency on L2 reading with the latter as a more powerful factor.

It should be noted that the above studies have followed a correlational research design. Correlations do not necessarily imply direct causal effects (Bell, 1995). In addition, it is suggested that the interaction of other variables such as memory, age, learning styles, and educational background should be taken into account as they influence L2 reading comprehension.

Despite the different views on which factor exerts a more powerful influence on L2 reading (L1 reading ability or L2 proficiency), the common conclusion drawn from the literature is that L1 reading and L2 reading are similar in that they share a common knowledge base which allows reading skills and strategies to transfer across

languages (Cummins, 1979, 1981). According to Cummins (1991), such transfer, which is referred to by some researchers (Carson, 1990; Carson et al., 1990) as *interlingual transfer*, is not unidirectional. That is to say, language learners who are already literate in their first language have two primary sources of influence as they develop second language literacy skills: L1 literacy background and input from the second language. According to some researchers (e.g., Carson, 1990; Carson et al., 1990), the input from second language refers to the literacy activities (reading and writing) and is usually called *intralingual input*.

Researchers supporting *intralingual transfer* suggest that "reading and writing are transferable and intertwined" (Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995). There is a common knowledge base of L2 for both reading and writing. Learners can apply the skills acquired in one modality (reading, for example) to the other (writing in this case). Several studies done by Janopoulous (1986), Campbell (1990), and Carson et al. (1990) have shown positive effects of L2 reading on L2 writing. Janopoulous (1986) found that L2 composition was significantly influenced by exposure to L2 pleasure reading.

Campbell (1990) studied how native speakers of English and ESL students at the university level used their background reading texts in their academic writing. Analyses of direct quotations, paraphrases, and summaries showed that the ESL students frequently integrated information from the reading text, and referenced the author or the text.

In a more complicated study, Carson et al. (1990) investigated the reading-writing relationship in L1 (Chinese and Japanese) and in L2 (English). The

participants were asked to write an essay and do a cloze test in both their first and second languages. The results indicated that the relationship between reading and writing skills did not show the same patterns for the two language groups. For Chinese subjects, reading and writing were more related in L2 than in L1. For Japanese subjects, reading-writing connections were noted in both languages. The researchers suggested that the reading-writing relationship might change as L2 proficiency developed.

In accordance with the concept of reading-writing connections, common in the reading class is the use of writing as pre-reading (to activate relevant background) and post-reading activities (e.g., writing to comment). More support can be found in the whole language approach in ESL education, where L2 reading and L2 writing are viewed as integrated activities (e.g., Rigg, 1991).

L2 reading-writing connections and L1-L2 relationship are two aspects of L2 reading acquisition. Discussion of the literature so far reveals that "at some fundamental core they are interdependent or are in actuality the same" (Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995, p. 17).

Second language reading acquisition is a complex process influenced by the interaction of multiple variables including linguistic, individual, instructional, socio-cultural, and political factors. The above discussion has indicated that both L1 and L2 language proficiencies share a "deep" common knowledge base that allows cognitive/academic skills to transfer, either across languages or across domains.

2.3 Taxonomy of Reading Strategies

Based on previous strategy research (e.g., Adamson, 1990; Block, 1986, 1992; Carrell, 1989; Li & Munby, 1996; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Tang, 1997), a list of potential reading strategies was identified (see Table 2.1). O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) and Oxford's classifications of learning strategies provided guidelines for the list of reading strategies in this study. To be more specific, there are three categories of L2 learning strategies in O'Malley and Chamot's discussion: metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies. Oxford (1990) distinguishes direct strategies from indirect strategies. Direct strategies refer to language learning strategies that directly involve the target language and thus require mental processing of the language. Direct strategies consist of three subsections, i.e., memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies, on the other hand, involve metacognitive, affective and social strategies that allow learners to control their cognition, to regulate their emotions, motivations and attitudes, and to learn the language through interaction with others. The proposed list of reading strategies consisted of strategies at the metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective levels. It also indicated the interaction between the reader and the text. It should be noted that this was a working list. It was possible that other strategies would emerge in the process of analyzing data.

Table 2.1 Taxonomy of Reading Strategies

Text-based Strategies

Text/text structure based

- focusing on vocabulary
- reading on
- noting text characters
- searching for key words
- searching for topic sentences
- searching for main ideas
- checking the coherence and consistency of the texture information
- skipping uncertain information
- referencing from the context
- repeating
- translating

Interactive strategies (activating background knowledge)

- analyzing word formations
- analyzing sentences
- recognizing the text structure
- relating to prior knowledge or experience (content)

Reader-based Strategies

Metacognitive/social/affective

- questioning
- summarizing
- setting purposes
- checking purposes
- verifying (revising/confirming hypotheses)
- predicting
- previewing
- reviewing/rereading
- taking notes
- making comments
- underlining
- using the dictionary
- using other resources/learning cooperatively
- self-evaluating
- photocopying
- being motivated
- being confident
- making comments/thinking critically

2.4 Summary

The previous discussion has attempted to account for proficient L2 reading in terms of strategy uses. Conclusions drawn from the literature are: (1) good L2 readers are strategic; they examine task features, decide what needs to be studied, attend to contextual information, integrate information from the text with their background, identify a reading problem, take effective actions, use a variety of strategies, choose appropriate strategies to achieve their reading goals, monitor their understanding, evaluate strategy uses, and determine what is further needed; (2) less proficient L2 readers can be trained to use strategies more effectively and more efficiently; and (3) various factors such as metacognitive awareness, differences in writing systems, and social/cultural influence affect the use of reading strategies.

However, what is missing is the issue of academic success or good learners. In China, for example, many schools and universities equate academic success with their students' high achievements on tests. Recently, many scholars have urged researchers to examine academic success with respect to students' affective and cognitive needs, as well as the social contexts where individuals practice their learning (Cummins, 1996; Norton & Toohey, 2001; Sharkey & Layzer, 2000). Therefore, a list of good reader's strategies may not be of much help in investigating the reading process unless the relationship among the strategies, the individual reader, and the context where reading takes place is taken into consideration.

Research on L2 strategy use has demonstrated that strategic behavior is crucial in reading comprehension. Although the facilitative effects of strategy training is widely acknowledged, it is not suggested that strategy instruction be taught to the exclusion of

other approaches. The development of students' vocabulary and their grammatical knowledge, for example, can support their use of reading strategies (Nagy, 1988; Strother & Ulijn, 1987; Williams, 1986; Zimmerman, 1997). Moreover, it is suggested that reading instruction should incorporate authentic content materials in order to improve students' academic progress in the content area (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987; Hudson, 1991; Kasper, 1997). Furthermore, ESL instructors should help students understand the directions and expectations of content instructors and take steps to complete academic reading tasks successfully (Shih, 1992). Therefore, reading instruction should be conducted in a holistic, task- and text-specific, content-centered, and strategy-integrated curriculum (Grabe, 1991; Shih, 1992).

Given that linguistic variables, learner differences, and cultural influence are interacting and impacting upon one another during L2 reading processing, a comprehensive understanding of L2 reading strategies requires examining the effects of individual factors as well as a combination of multiple factors. On a practical note, it is undoubtedly beneficial for ESL teachers to place greater emphasis on strategy training when helping students become more proficient in L2 reading.

CHAPTER 3 - METHODS AND PROCEDURES

3.0 Overview

The present study was designed to investigate how Chinese learners read Chinese and English and why they chose the way they read. This study employed five case studies to understand the reading performance of Chinese graduate students. A case study format provided in-depth data for analysis of L1 and L2 reading strategies in academic settings. Case study was "an interpretation in context" (Cronbach, 1975, p. 123). The focus of this approach was to investigate the interaction of various factors characteristic of the phenomenon under discussion. As Yin (1994) posits, "case studies are the preferred strategy when 'how' or 'why' questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context" (p. 1). In other words, case study was suited to situations where it is impossible to separate the phenomenon and the context. Moreover, any and all methods of gathering data could be used in a case study. A multiple-case design was used, with five single cases selected from volunteers enrolled in a graduate program at a major Chinese university. The principal data collection technique for the present study was thinking aloud. Other methods included interviews, learning journals, classroom observations, questionnaires and survey, and documents.

This chapter addresses the methodological issues related to the present study. It begins with a review of data collection approaches employed in reading research, followed by the rationale for the selection of thinking aloud as the major data collection technique for the present study. Next, the information about the research site as well as

the participants is provided. Finally, data collection and data analysis procedures are discussed.

3.1 Data Collection Approaches Employed in L2 Reading Research

For many years, reading researchers have attempted to employ various techniques to gain insights into the process of reading (see Baker & Brown, 1984 for a review of relevant literature). Some have adopted a quantitative approach to examine how much the reader can grasp from the text. Emphasis has been put on the outcomes of reading performance in an attempt to make inferences of the mechanisms of the comprehension processes that take place during reading. Research with this product orientation has used such assessment measures as comprehension questions (Carrell, 1987; Hudson, 1982), recalls and summaries (e.g., Bernhardt, 1990; Carrell, 1984; Horiba et al., 1993; Riley, 1993; Walters & Wolf, 1986), and cloze tests (e.g., Benedetto, 1984; Clarke, 1979; Cziko, 1978; Geva, 1992; Goldman & Murray, 1992).

Multiple-choice, comprehension questions, and recall protocols, for example, have been frequently adopted by L2 researchers (Bernhardt, 1990, 1991; Carrell, 1989, 1991). These techniques help analyze what kind of textual information the reader remembers and how s/he remembers it. Based on the data, researchers can infer what kind of processing strategies the reader uses while reading. However, these techniques fail to account for the type of resources the reader resorts to in solving comprehension problems. Moreover, there is a risk of confusing test-taking strategies with reading strategies. Wolf (1993) posits that the task with which learners are tested is one of the factors affecting the learners' reading ability. Testing tasks may function as an additional

source of information facilitating meaning construction in reading comprehension tests (Gordon & Hanauer, 1995).

Generally speaking, the criticism of the product-oriented research techniques is that they may be dependent on the reader's memory because they typically test the outcomes of a performance, not the process itself (Alderson, 1984; Baker & Brown, 1984; Cavalcanti, 1987; Pritchard, 1990). Kavale and Schreiner (1979) posit:

> reading comprehension processes are not directly observable, research efforts have typically been *post hoc*; that is, subjects are directed to read passages and then answer questions about those passages. From the obtained responses, inferences are drawn with respect to the processes the subjects might have used. Such product-centered research remains speculative, however, because it is once removed from the actual processes of reading comprehension. (p. 104)

Parallel with the product-oriented research are process-oriented investigations into the on-line processing of text information. Studies using miscue analysis have focused on errors made during oral reading. Based on Goodman's (1967) model of reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game," miscue analysis reflects the ways in which the reader interacts with the text. According to Goodman and Burke (1972):

> [m]iscues are generated by the reader in the same way that expected responses are, and with use of the same information. They are miscues in the sense that the reader, in the process of reading, makes a deviation from the path that would lead to the expected response. (p. 1)

However, studies using miscue analysis have produced mixed results. Although Goodman's model suggests that readers' errors do not necessarily interfere with comprehension, some researchers (e.g., Connor, 1981; Mott, 1981; Nicholson, 1978, Nicholson, Pearson & Dykstra, 1979) find no direct relationship between miscues and reading comprehension. Rather, miscues may impede comprehension (e.g., Bernhardt, 1983). Moreover, in the case of L2 reading, it is sometimes difficult to tell whether the errors are the result of miscues, mispronunciation, or slips of the tongue (Tang, 1997).

The reason is that many L2 readers, adult readers in particular, begin their L2 reading before they have acquired L2 oral proficiency. Therefore, miscue analysis may not be reliable in the investigation L2 reading. There are other studies that have examined the ongoing processes by utilizing reading time (e.g., Horiba, 1993) and eye movements (Bernhardt, 1986; Just & Carpenter, 1980; Oller & Tullius, 1973).

Research on eye movements has been based on L1 models of bottom-up processing. The movements appear to confirm the linear sequence of what and how long the reader fixates (Swaffar, Arens & Byrnes, 1991). Eye movements reveal how readers process visual information. Eye movement research in L1 indicate that readers tend to spend more time looking at content words than at function words (Carpenter & Just, 1981), and that the length of fixation depends on the difficulty of the reading task (Underwood & Batt, 1996).

Sun and Feng (1999) conducted a comparative study of eye movements in proficient L1 reading. Thirteen native Chinese graduate students and 13 English-speaking graduates read short paragraphs of popular science articles in their respective L1. The researchers found that the participants had similar eye-movement patterns. That indicates that eye movements are mainly determined by the content of the text, rather than the linguistic characteristics of a particular language.

L2 research on eye movements has a relatively short history (e.g., Bernhardt, 1986; Oller & Tullius, 1973). Bernhardt (1986), for example, investigated eye movements of native and nonnative speakers reading easy, difficult, and unedited texts. She found that inexperienced L2 readers spent more processing time than experienced L2 readers and L1 readers. In other words, inexperienced L2 readers used the same

inefficient eye tracking strategy in all three texts. Bernhard's findings support Clarke's (1980) "short-circuit hypothesis" in ESL reading.

Based on eye-movement data, researchers can infer what kind of strategies, such as anticipatory strategy, are employed during reading (Bernhardt, 1987). However, eye-movement research focuses only on attention and related processes for readers. It cannot assess reading comprehension, and needs to be supplemented by performance tasks (Baker & Brown, 1984; Kucan & Beck, 1998). Moreover, studies with the eye-movement technique do not look at the effects of background knowledge on the behaviors of readers.

Recently, the think-aloud technique, or the expressing of one's thoughts, has received increasing attention in the exploration of ongoing processes as of reading. Originally adopted from cognitive psychology, this method of inquiry has been regarded as a "stream-of-consciousness disclosure of thought processes while information is being attended to" (Cohen, 1998, p. 34). Although criticisms and concerns over the think-aloud technique have been expressed and still continue (e.g., Nisbett & Wilson, 1977; Smagorinsky, 1994; Zabrucky & Moore, 1989), think-aloud has proved to be a valid and reliable research methodology in literacy research (Ericsson & Simon, 1980, 1984, 1993; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995).

3.2 Thinking Aloud and Other Verbal Reports in Reading Research

Think-aloud, as a technique of describing the participant's on-line cognitive processing during the performance of a task, belongs to a larger category of verbal reports which are "subjects' general verbal descriptions of their cognitive processes and experiences" (Ericsson & Simon, 1993, p. xiii). However, this term is often confused with other verbal reports such as introspection and retrospection (Kormos, 1998).

Therefore, of particular relevance to the main discussion in this review are the distinctions among *think-alouds, introspection,* and *retrospection.* These distinctions are based on two criteria of whether data from the verbal reports reflect: (1) behavior (think-aloud) or process (introspection), and (2) the temporal distance between action and verbalization, i.e., while the task is being performed (concurrent) or after the task has been completed (retrospective) (Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Faerch & Kasper, 1987; Kormos, 1998; Pritchard, 1990). In other words, both think-aloud and introspective procedures refer to the reports of thought processes at the same time as they occur.

The difference between think-alouds and introspection is that for the former technique, subjects report their thoughts continuously during various tasks. Think-aloud protocols provide direct observation about a behavior while it still remains in short-term memory (STM). For introspection, on the other hand, subjects are requested not only to describe what is going on in their mind but also to explain their thoughts. In retrospection, subjects verbalize their thought processes after they have completed the task. Retrospective reports are usually characterized by generalized statements about specific behaviors (Cohen, 1998). In this approach, the information that is stored in long-term memory (LTM) is also activated to provide an adequate account of the thought process.

This classification of verbal reports is useful from the point of view of data collection design. In practice, however, the borderlines may not be very clear-cut due to the different interpretations of these various research techniques. In L2 research, for example, other research methods such as self-report interviews and questionnaires, group discussions, journals, and diaries have been included in the category of verbal reports (Cohen, 1998; Faerch & Kasper, 1987; Kormos, 1998).

3.3 Using Think-Aloud Method to Investigate Reading Comprehension

3.3.1 Historical Background

Studying thought processes through think-aloud research methodology has been a procedure in cognitive psychology since the early part of the twentieth century (Duncker, 1926; McCallister, 1930). However, the main thrust of reading comprehension research at that time was dominated by a "strong behavioral and task-analytic notions" (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991, p. 240). Research from the behaviorist perspective examined the surface-level outcomes of the processes (i.e., overt, observable behaviors) so as to infer the nature of the process. During this period, the investigation of reading as a process of active meaning making and problem solving was largely abandoned.

In 1972, Newell and Simon published their book *Human Problem Solving*, which detailed the analysis of think aloud protocols, which they termed as *protocol analysis*. The researchers studied the problem-solving strategies through the combination of tasks analysis, model building, and think-alouds. Newell and Simon assigned a pivotal role to the analysis of think-aloud protocols provided by their subjects. Since then thinking aloud has become an important tool of inquiry into cognitive processes of people engaged in all manner of activities, from solving puzzles (Thomas, 1974) to composing (Flowers & Hayes, 1981; Hayes & Flower, 1980).

Another important event in the historical records of think-aloud research was the publication of Ericsson and Simon's *Protocol Analysis: Verbal Reports as Data* (1984, revised in 1993). Ericsson and Simon interpreted protocol analyses with regard to information processing theory and provided a detailed description of methodological considerations including the specific techniques for analyzing protocols. After the

publication of the book, Ericsson and Simon (1984/1993) became one of the most important references on think-aloud methodology.

3.3.2 Theoretical Underpinnings of Thinking Aloud

Newell and Simon (1972) provided the theoretical framework of information processing and problem solving, which was then expanded by Ericsson and Simon (1984/1993) in their discussion of on-line verbal reports. The cognitive psychological view of human information processing is able to link the analysis of reading tasks with the construction of a reading model (Ericsson & Simon, 1984/1993; Kucan & Beck, 1998). Ericsson and Simon's (1984/1993) identification of two constructs in the information processing theory is of particular importance to answer the question: "How can processing, which takes place somewhere and somehow in our information processing system, be made observable, and what exactly is being processed ?" (Feldmann & Stemmer, 1987, p. 252) The two constructs are long-term memory and short-term memory.

Ericsson and Simon proposed that information is processed as certain mental patterns of knowledge which are stored in "chunks." Knowledge stored in LTM addresses what people know about (i.e., declarative knowledge) and how people do things (i.e., procedural knowledge). One of the characteristics of LTM is that it has "large capacity and relatively permanent storage, but with slow fixation and access times" (Ericsson & Simon, 1993, p. 11). Short-term memory, on the other hand, has limited capacity and intermediate duration. Information stored in STM is often viewed as currently in consciousness (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). People can quickly access the contents of STM and report them. The consensus view is that information in STM is easy

to access but leaves quickly. However, with sufficient operation, information in STM may be transferred to LTM, where it is stored permanently.

There are two sources of information for STM: external stimulation through the recognition process and contents from LTM through the association process. The central process determines what part of the information, either from the external sensations or from internal LTM, finds its way to STM. According to Ericsson and Simon (1984/1993), this is the information that is heeded or attended to. The core hypothesis in Ericsson and Simon's theory is that "the information that is heeded during performance of a task, is the information that is reportable; and the information that is reported is information that is heeded" (Ericsson & Simon, 1984, p. 167). In other words, the crucial issue for concurrent verbal reporting procedures (i.e., think-alouds) is the information which is currently held in STM. This position is supported mostly by analysis of think-aloud data generated in the context of problem solving.

Think-aloud protocols play a central role in Problem Solving Theory (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Cavalcanti, 1987). Reading, from this perspective, is conceptualized as a process of problem solving. Emphasis is put on the strategies readers employ to solve problems and to construct meaning.

The confidence in the use of think-alouds has been extended to the investigations beyond the well-defined problem-solving activities such as chess and the cryptarithmetic puzzles (Kucan & Beck, 1998). In the ill-defined domain of reading, several attempts have been made using think-alouds not long after the publication of Newell and Simon's book *Human Problem Solving* (e.g., Olshavsky, 1976; Waern, 1978, 1980). The

distinction between well-defined and ill-defined problem solving tasks was clearly made

by Waern (1980), one of the first researchers to use think-aloud method in reading.

Most problems investigated in problem-solving research are "well defined." By

this it means:

> a test exists, performable by the system, that will determine whether an object
> proposed as a solution is in fact a solution" (Newell & Simon, 1972, p. 73). In
> contrast, reading belongs to the general class of "ill-defined" problems. In a
> reading task, the reader usually sets the goal himself. This goal may be somewhat
> unclear at the beginning of reading, but can develop and change during the course
> of reading. (Waern, 1980, p. 123)

Waern posits that efforts made to meet the developing goals of reading can be

viewed as a problem solving activity. The representation of reading as a problem solving

process has led to increasing interest in investigating strategies by skilled readers (Kucan

& Beck, 1998). As the nature of think-aloud technique requires the readers to report only

on conscious and controlled cognitive processes, Ericsson and Simon (1993) suggest that

information requested from the readers relate to specific reading problems, or else the

participants will infer or generalize their thoughts as they would do in retrospective

reports.

There is ample evidence showing that the think-aloud method has been widely

adopted in L1 reading research (e.g., Collins, Brown, & Larkin, 1980; Kucan & Beck,

1996; Meyers, Lytle, Palladino, Devenpeck, & Green, 1990; Olshavsky, 1976; Schmitt,

1988; Waern, 1978, among others). The focus of these studies was the problem solving

strategies in reading comprehension. Results demonstrated that think-aloud was a

valuable and promising research tool.

L2 strategy research has benefited greatly from the extensive use of think-aloud

method in L1 reading. Studies using think-aloud method have been focused on examining

the strategies that L2 readers use for dealing with comprehension difficulties (e.g., Block, 1986, 1992; Davis & Bistodeau, 1993; Horiba, 1996; Hosenfeld, 1977; Kamhi-Stein, 1998; Li & Munby, 1996; Mongubhai, 1990; Young, 1993). Results from the literature have shown that reader-generated data have revealed the complex nature of reading processing. However, research with mixed results has led many reading researchers to consider the appropriate conditions under which think-aloud technique can be brought to its full potential (e.g., Anderson, 1991; Davis & Bistodeau, 1993; Garner, 1987; Rankin, 1988, among others).

As with other data collection techniques, there are drawbacks and limitations to the think-aloud method. First, language plays a central role in the data collection procedure. Due to a readers' inadequate command of their L2, more cognitive demands are placed on L2 readers (Cohen, 1996), which may result in incomplete verbal reports (Block, 1992). On the other hand, the use of L1 in verbalizations is also problematic because there is a process of recoding, which may interfere with the readers' natural processes of reading.

Second, mental operations that are automated are not likely to be part of the content of immediate awareness (Waern, 1988). In this view, those processes which are already automatic and not easily verbalized may not readily be studied through think-aloud method (Block, 1986). Therefore, the challenge for studies investigating L1 and L2 reading of learners with already developed L1 literacy system is that many of the processes which tend to be automated and unconscious in L1 reading will become unautomated and conscious in their L2 reading. This makes it difficult to compare think-aloud protocols obtained from L1 and L2 reading.

Third, task verbalization may interfere with the natural process of reading. That is, concerns have been expressed about the accuracy of subjects' reports (Baker & Brown, 1984; Bacon & Finnemann, 1990). Bacon and Finnemann (1990) claim that "students may respond in a way they believe they are expected to respond" (p. 460). Note the same criticism has been made about interviewing as a research method.

Despite these drawbacks, the think-aloud technique has continued to be an effective research method for providing the most objective and on-line information about the processes of L2 reading (e.g., Garner, 1982; Block, 1986, 1992; Auberbach & Paxton, 1997). The value of thinking aloud is that it is "extremely revealing about the dynamics of comprehension difficulties and how understandings of text shift in reaction to comprehension difficulties and surprises in text" (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995, p. 38). However, researchers should bear in mind the conditions under which the think-aloud method can be employed and its data interpreted. These conditions include providing clear instructions in the training session prior to data collection (e.g., Cohen, 1998; Cohen & Hosenfeld, 1981; Garner, 1982; Afflerbach & Johnston, 1984); designing tasks with appropriate difficulty level (e.g., Cohen & Hosenfeld, 1981; Ericsson & Simon, 1993), and appropriate data transcription and analysis (e.g., Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Green, Franquiz, & Dixon, 1997; Kasper, 1998; Roberts, 1997; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). A proper way of using think-aloud method in L2 reading research can offer a unique and indispensable insight into L2 reading processes.

Moreover, as has been frequently pointed out by many researchers, the validity of the think-aloud method can be considerably enhanced with the complementary use of other research methods such as retrospective reports (e.g., Cohen, 1998; Ericsson &

Simon, 1980; Faerch & Kasper, 1987; Garner, 1982; Kormos, 1998). Despite the

potential disadvantage of providing inadequate and inaccurate information about the

participant's mental activity (Cohen, 1987, 1998; Hare, 1981; Johnston, 1983; Winograd

& Johnston, 1982), retrospection remains a popular research method in language learning

because data from retrospective reports involve the description of subjects' metacognitive

thoughts (Cohen, 1998; Kormos, 1998). Literature has shown that journals are effective

for identifying the strategies employed by readers (Wollman, 1989). Moreover,

retrospective approaches such as questionnaires and self-report instruments have

frequently been employed used in reading research for the purpose of gaining insights of

self-awareness of strategic reading processes (Barnett, 1988; Padron & Waxman, 1988,

1990; Syananondh & Vattanapath, 1991).

Therefore, a combination of methods was employed in this study. Apart from

think-aloud, other sources of data include interviews, learning diaries, classroom

observations, reading strategy questionnaire, survey and documents.

3.4 Research Site

The site of this study was a major university in Beijing. The Department of

Foreign Languages and Literature had offered a graduate program in Teaching English as

a Foreign Language (TEFL) since 1989. According to the program description, this M.A.

program was designed to prepare students for a career in EFL, teacher training or in

English for specific purposes (ESP). The program was based on a joint project between

the university and the British Council, which started in September, 1988 and ended in

1994. The major objectives in this program were to help students:

- to acquire a background knowledge of modern linguistic theories with particular reference to English;

- to understand how such theories may be of practical relevance to language teaching and learning with special emphasis on methodology, materials development, and evaluation procedures for TEFL in China;

- to gain some teaching experience in order to put theory into practice;

- to raise their own proficiency in English language skills in order to be able to function as EFL teachers or teacher trainers in higher education in China, and;

- to develop the capability of undertaking research work in their chosen field.

There were 20 to 30 M.A. students enrolled in this program each year. Some of them were part-time students whereas others were full-time. The students were required to take two years of coursework of 44 credits, the distribution of which was 4 credits for political studies, 4 for second foreign language, 8 for language proficiency courses, 17 for degree courses, 8 for optional courses, and 3 for practicum. Upon completing all the coursework, M.A. candidates could spend their third year writing their theses. First-year and second-year students usually could not take the same courses at the same time.

3.5 Participants

As has been described in Chapter 1, the purpose of the study was to investigate Chinese EFL learners' academic reading experiences. With this in mind, the researcher made a public announcement about her research project in the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature in the spring of 1999. Five female students who were in the

first year of the TEFL program volunteered to participate in the study. They were Xin,

Jian, Guo, Rong and Shun (pseudonyms). The participants were between twenty-two and

thirty-three years of age at the time when the study was conducted. They had studied

English for at least ten years, six years in high schools and four years majoring in English

at universities or colleges. Three of them had taught English before entering the program.

All of the participants lived on campus. The courses they were taking included Research

Design and Statistics for TEFL, Readings on Linguistics, TEFL Methodology, Action

Research, Testing, Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher followed the five students for an academic term, i.e., from March

to mid July 1999. A summary of data collection procedures is presented in Table 3.1.

There were three group meetings during this period. In early March, the researcher

organized the first group meeting. The first part of the meeting involved self-introduction,

the purpose of which was to establish rapport. Next, the researcher explained, in more

detail, the purpose of the study and how data would be collected. The participants were

asked to sign consent forms (see Appendix A). They were also told that each of them

would need to take part in three think-aloud sessions, one at the beginning of the semester,

one in the middle, and the last one at the end of the semester. The dates and the times of

the think-aloud sessions were then decided based on the individuals' schedules. The first

was in early April, the second in May, and the third at the end of June.

Table 3.1 Summary of Data Collection Procedures

Group Meetings	Time 1 (Mar.)	Time 2 (May)	Time 3 (Jul.)
	(Cloze Tests and Reading Comprehension Tests)	(Feedback)	(Reading Strategy Questionnaire and Group Interview)
Think-Aloud Sessions	Session 1 (Apr.)	Session 2 (May)	Session 3 (Jun.)
	(2 Academic Texts)	(2 Academic Texts)	(2 Academic Texts)
Learning Logs	Mar. – mid Jul.		
	Diaries about what the participants read and how they read		
Classroom Observations	Mar. – mid Jul.		
	The relationship between the information gained from their reading and classroom activities		

Note: The instruments used are presented in parentheses.

In the same meeting, each participant was given guidelines (see Appendix B) to write learning journals/logs, i.e., to keep a record of what the student read and how she read every day. In their first learning log, they were asked to write about their personal

information, their experience in English and Chinese learning/teaching, and their view of L1 and L2 reading. The time varied depending on how long the participants wanted to spend writing their diaries. Finally, participants took two cloze tests, one in English and the other in Chinese (see Appendix C). In addition, they took two 60-minute reading comprehension tests, one in English and the other in Chinese (see Appendix D). The purpose of using these tests was to identify their L1 and L2 reading proficiency levels.

In early May, the researcher and the participants had the second group meeting for the purpose of collecting their feedback on the study. During the third group meeting in July, participants were asked to fill in a questionnaire of reading strategies (see Appendix E). In addition, they were interviewed regarding their opinions about the courses and the instruction in this program as well as their suggestions for the study.

During the semester, the researcher observed all the class sessions of the courses. The purpose was to find out how the participants used the information they gathered from their reading in their classroom activities. The documents the researcher collected included course descriptions and course packages, samples of the participants' writing assignments, and some reading articles used by the participants. Other sources of data came from casual conversations with the instructors, the participants, and with other graduate students in the same program.

In the following sections, more detail will be provided regarding the instruments used in the study. They are: (1) cloze tests and reading comprehension tests, (2) think-aloud sessions, and (3) reading strategy questionnaire and interviews.

3.6.1 Reading Comprehension Tests

It was assumed that participants were proficient in both Chinese and English since they had learned English for more than ten years and that they had passed the Chinese language test in their Matriculation Examinations for entering universities and colleges in China. The purpose of using two cloze tests and two comprehension tests was to identify whether the participants were proficient in L1 and L2 reading. The researcher spoke with a professor specializing in testing in the department. She recommended using the reading section of a language test in *Certificate of Proficiency in English* (1995), i.e., Cambridge Level Five designed by the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES). The examination system was composed of five levels: Key English Test (Level One), Preliminary English Test (Level Two), First Certificate in English (Level Three), Certificate in Advanced English (Level Four), and Certificate of Proficiency in English (Level Five). Upon the advice of the professor, the researcher selected a sample test comprised of three comprehension passages with 15 multiple-choice questions and a cloze passage with 41 blanks.

Like the English reading test, the Chinese reading test also consisted of a reading comprehension section of three passages and a cloze section. The researcher worked with a Grade 12 teacher of Chinese at the secondary school attached to the university in selecting the test items. Three comprehension texts and a cloze passage were chosen from two tests: 1998 Chinese test for Matriculation Examination and 1998 Chinese test of Entrance Examination for Continuing Education. Both tests were similar in that they tested the language proficiency level of applicants for entering universities or colleges. However, the former was aimed at high school graduates whereas the latter at adults in

continuing education. Moreover, compared with the latter, the former had more test items which were focused on the linguistic analysis of Chinese or classical Chinese. Such analysis was an indispensable part of secondary education but might be too distant from the present lives of the participants. Therefore, these items were excluded in the reading test for the present study. The comprehension section in the Chinese reading test included 13 comprehension and multiple-choice questions and the cloze section included 41 blanks.

The Chinese and English tests were comparable in that both had similar number of test items and intended to test advanced level of reading comprehension in either language.

The participants took the tests in the first group meeting in March. Before they took the tests, they were asked whether or not they knew the sources of the tests. None of them said that they had seen those tests before. Results showed that all the participants were proficient in Chinese and English reading, i.e., all of them achieved scores over 80 in both tests (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2 Reading Comprehension Tests Results

	Xin	Jian	Guo	Rong	Shun	Mean	Standard Deviation
Chinese	91.5.	81.0	83.0	80.5	85.0	84.2	4.45
English	85.5	90.0	81.5	84.0	80.0	84.2	3.88

3.6.2 Think-Aloud Sessions

A pilot study using the think-aloud method was conducted in early January, 1999. Two second-year students in the same program volunteered to participate in the pilot study. After careful consultation with the instructors, the researcher chose two academic

articles for the think-aloud tasks. The title of the first article was "Learning Strategies and Learning Environments" (LoCastro, V. (1997), *TESOL Quarterly, 31*, 409-414). This was a report written in English about a study on the learning strategies used by successful Japanese learners of English. The second article was written in Chinese. (Hua, H. (1998). Shi Lun Yingyu Xuexi De Dongji Yu Celue De Yanjiu. *Foreign Language World, 3*, 44-47). The English translation of the title was "On the Relationship between Motivation and Learning Strategies." The report was based on a study using questionnaires and a survey. The two volunteers read the texts and spoke to a tape recorder. The researcher found that the method of think-aloud was appropriate for the present study. However, the original intention of asking the participants to respond in English was changed because the two volunteers in the pilot study, although regarded as top students in the second year class, felt it very difficult to express their flow of thoughts fluently in English. On the contrary, they used a mixture of English and Chinese. Therefore, the researcher decided to let participants decide on which language they felt comfortable using to describe their thoughts in the think-aloud tasks. A mutual decision was also made between the researcher and each participant on the dates of the three think-aloud sessions. The first think-aloud session took place in early April, the second in mid May, and the third at the end of June.

As to the reading materials for the think-aloud tasks, compared with the content and the type of the article, the length of the articles was of less priority in the process of selecting reading materials. Altogether 12 articles were selected from academic journals in the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). These 12 articles were classified into three categories: 4 in the category of literature review, 4 in

the category of quantitative research report, and 4 in the category of qualitative research

report. In each category there were 2 articles in Chinese and 2 in English. To ensure no

articles had been used before for course purposes, the researcher consulted the instructors

and finally selected 6 articles,[3] 3 in Chinese and 3 in English (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 Summary of the Selected Articles for Thinking Aloud

English	English 1 (E1)	English 2 (E2)	English 3 (E3)
	Polio, C., & Wilson-Duffy, C. (1998). Teaching ESL in an unfamiliar context: international students in a North American MA TESOL practicum. *TESOL Journal, 7*, 24-29.	Ooi, D., & Kim-Seoh, J. L. (1996). Vocabulary teaching: Looking behind the word. *ELT Journal, 50*, 52-58.	Simpson, C. (1997). Culture and foreign language teaching. *Language Learning Journal, 15*, 40-43.
Chinese	Chinese 1 (C1)	Chinese 2 (C2)	Chinese 3 (C3)
	Wen, Q. (1995). Yingyu xuexi chenggong zhe yu bu chenggong zhe zai fangfa shang de chayi. *Waiyu Jiaoxue Yu Yanjiu, 3*, 61-66. *(Wen, Q. (1995). Differences in strategy uses between successful and non-successful learners of English. Foreign Language Teaching and Research, 3, 61-66.)*[4]	Chen, J. (1997). Yingyu xuesheng ketang jiaolugan yu kouyu shuiping de guanxi. *Guowai Waiyu Jiaoxue, 1*, 15-18. *(Chen, J. (1997). The relationship between classroom anxiety and the level of spoken language. Foreign Language Teaching, 1, 15-18.)*	Chen, S. (1997). Wenhua yu waiyu jiaoxue de guanxi. *Guowai Waiyu Jiaoxue, 2*, 1-4. *(Chen, S. (1997). The relationship between culture and foreign language teaching. Foreign Language Teaching, 2, 1-4.)*

The procedure for the three think-aloud sessions was as follows:

Session 1 (April)

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[3] The six academic articles are in APPENDIX G.
[4] The translations are in italics.

1. Researcher introduced the study

2. Pre-training of the think-aloud procedure

3. Participant read and responded to the article of "Teaching ESL in an Unfamiliar Context: International Students in a North American MA TESOL Practicum"

4. Immediate interview

5. Participant read and responded to the article of "Yingyu Xuexi Chenggong Zhe Zai Fangfa Shang De Chayi" (*Differences in Strategy Uses between Successful and Non-Successful Learners of English)*

6. Immediate interview

Session 2 (May)

1. Brief review of the think-aloud procedure

2. Participant read and responded to the article of "Vocabulary Teaching: Looking behind the Word"

3. Immediate interview

4. Participant read and responded to the article of "Yingyu Xuesheng Ketang Jiaolugan Yu Kouyu Shuiping De Guanxi*" (The Relationship between Classroom Anxiety and Level of Spoken Language)*

5. Immediate interview

Session 3 (June)

1. Brief review of the think-aloud procedure

2. Participant read and responded to the article of "Culture and Foreign Language Teaching"

3. Immediate interview

4. Participant read and responded to the article of "Wenhua Yu Waiyu Jiaoxue de Guanxi" (*The Relationship between Culture and Foreign Language Teaching*)

5. Immediate interview

There was a 20-minute training of the think-aloud method in the first session. Participants were encouraged to speak in whatever language they felt comfortable. In each think-aloud session, the participant was asked to read the text silently and verbalize to the tape-recorder what she was thinking or doing. A red dot was placed at the end of each sentence to remind the participant to speak. The average length of a think-aloud session was about 82 minutes. After the participant finished reading, an immediate interview was conducted. The focus of the interview was on what information the student could recall, and what strategies she thought she had used during reading. Some of the questions raised were specifically related to what the researcher observed when the student was reading. All the think-aloud sessions and the immediate interviews were tape-recorded.

3.6.3 Reading Strategy Questionnaire and Group Interview

The reading strategy questionnaire for reading in Chinese and in English was administered in the third group meeting in early July. This questionnaire was an edited version of the one designed by the researcher in her M.A. thesis. It consisted of 41 statements with a six-point rating scale with 1 representing "never" and 6 "always." Participants were asked to respond to each statement by writing the appropriate numbers next to it.

The purpose of conducting a group interview was to gather information about students' opinions about and attitudes towards the courses they were taking, the instruction they were receiving, as well as their academic learning and reading in general.

3.7 Data Analysis Techniques

In qualitative research, coding means looking for patterns in the data and examining pre-formed categories based on the literature. Coding serves to interpret, synthesize, and sort out emergent themes from observations, interviews, and other sources of data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In this study, an open coding approach of examining, comparing, and categorizing (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) was employed as the major analysis technique. This approach was similar to the one proposed by Spradley (1979), i.e., domain, taxonomic, componential, and themes analysis. Moreover, strategy uses were also counted so that L1 and L2 reading strategies could be compared in terms of frequency.

3.8 Summary

This chapter has addressed the methodological issues related to the present study. It began with a rationale for using the think-aloud method as the principal data collection technique followed by a description of the research site and participants. Next, data collection procedures as well as the instruments employed in the study were described. The open coding approach was then discussed in relation to data analysis. The next chapter presents detailed information about individual cases under investigation.

CHAPTER 4 - ANALYSIS AND IDENTIFICATION OF READING STRATEGIES: FIVE CASES

4.0 Overview

Understanding how these Chinese readers processed academic texts in English (L2) and in Chinese (L1) required a careful examination of the reading strategies the participants employed in dealing with specific texts, the frequency of strategy occurrence, and the reasons behind the strategy use. In this chapter, data are presented in five individual cases. Each case study consists of two subsections, i.e., (1) language learning background and (2) reading style and strategy use. The first subsection describes each participant's language learning background and her current reading and learning experience so as to provide a context of the reading world of the participant. The second subsection describes the reading performance of each participant in the six think-aloud tasks. The identification of reading strategies and the frequency of strategy use indicate the type and quantity of interaction between the reader and the text in the actual reading task.

4.1 Individual Cases

The think-aloud protocols revealed a complex process of strategy use. As a group, the five participants read the articles individually from the beginning to the end. Sometimes they stopped in the middle, rereading, examining, predicting, and commenting. Other times, they read ahead even when comprehension problems occurred. Sometimes they read very fast, skipping some of the major themes in the article while other times they were quite efficient in identifying the key points. The participants' purposes for reading varied depending on the nature of the task, their long-term and

short-term academic goals and their interests. Moreover, participants were different from one another in terms of individual reading times, reading strategies in dealing with each article, and the reasons each participant gave for strategy use. Table 4.1 presents the length of time each participant spent on each think-aloud task.

Table 4.1 Time Each Participant Spent on Each Think-Aloud Task (in Minutes)

Task	Length (# of sentences)	Xin	Jian	Guo	Rong	Shun	Total	Average
E1	149	41.4	36.2	35.2	43.9	57.3	214.0	42.8
C1	190	35.2	36.3	38.1	39.6	53.4	202.6	40.5
E2	86	50.3	42.9	43.3	55.6	51.4	243.5	48.7
C2	116	33.8	32.4	31.4	34.7	40.5	172.8	34.6
E3	97	38.4	40.2	44.3	46.8	45.4	215.1	43.2
C3	75	28.1	30.7	36.5	40.8	41.5	177.6	35.5
Total		227.2	218.7	228.8	261.4	289.5		
Average		37.9	36.5	38.1	43.6	48.3		

Note: E1: English text: qualitative   C1: Chinese text: qualitative
E2: English text: quantitative   C2: Chinese text: quantitative
E3: English text: literature review   C3: Chinese text: literature review

Participants varied in the time they spent reading each article. This could be due to the fact that some made more associations while others skipped more material. Moreover, in the immediate interviews, all five told the researcher that, although they had noticed a similar academic style between the Chinese and the English texts in each think-aloud session, they found reading in Chinese much easier than reading in English and, therefore, spent relatively less time reading the Chinese articles.

The following five subsections present detailed case studies of the participants. Each case study is an analysis of the student in terms of her language learning background and strategy use for the accomplishment of the six reading tasks. To be more specific, the first part of each case study consists of a description of the participant's academic background in relation to her past learning experience in Chinese and in

English, her language teaching experience if she had any, and the current graduate program she was attending. The data presented in this subsection came from each participant's learning logs, interviews, completed questionnaire on reading strategies, classroom observations, and her reading and writing samples. The second part of each case study consists of a detailed analysis of the participant's strategy uses as revealed in the think-aloud protocols.

All the think-aloud protocols and interviews were transcribed. Data were read and revisited numerous times. The researcher coded the data and identified a categorization of reading strategies according to the research purpose. Later, the researcher recoded and re-categorized the data twice at two-month intervals. The percentage of consistency between the primary codings with the second and the third codings was 91.6% and 90.2%[5] respectively.

Moreover, the list of identified reading strategies, together with a randomly selected excerpt of each think-aloud protocol was sent to an EFL teacher, who was proficient in both Chinese and English, for recoding. This rater was free to add reading strategies to the existing list. Her codings were then compared with the researcher's. The percentage of consistency between the rater's and the researcher's codings was 90.1%.

4.1.1 Profile 1: Xin

4.1.1.1 Language Learning Background

Xin graduated from a major university in the northeastern part of China with a Bachelor degree in English. She had studied English for eleven years. In the first and second year of her undergraduate program, language teaching and learning were focused

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[5] The researcher compared the lists of reading strategies identified the second time and the third time with those identified the first time and calculated the percentage of consistency.

on vocabulary learning and literature appreciation, as in the courses of Intensive Reading and Extensive Reading.[6] Teacher lecturing and students doing grammar or comprehension exercises were the major classroom activities in both courses. There were some group discussions and pair work, but the focus was on the clarification of vocabulary items and the checking of reading comprehension by way of comprehension questions, multiple-choice questions and true/false statements.

Xin had taught English for four years before entering the graduate program. She was, at the time of the study, teaching "Cambridge Young Learners' English" as her practicum with a specific focus on conversational skills. She was also teaching "American Family Album"[7] at a night school. Xin preferred to use a communicative teaching method to teach Cambridge English. But at the night school, she tended to combine the communicative approach with a more traditional structural approach.

When she first entered graduate program, Xin had many difficulties in understanding academic content and terminology. She tended to read an English academic article for a while and then took a short break by reading some Chinese material for entertainment. She would turn back to the English article when she felt less strained. Xin liked to consult with students who were senior to her when she had difficulties in her coursework. The reason was that those students could give her academic guidance because they knew more about the program requirements and their teachers' expectations.

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[6] Intensive Reading and Extensive Reading were two compulsory courses for students who majored in English. The former focused on teaching vocabulary, grammar/language points, and writing styles whereas the latter on reading skills, speed reading, and reading comprehension.

[7] "Cambridge Young Learners' English" was an EFL program aiming at teaching kids basic English. "American Family Album" was a course offered at that night school teaching students mainly conversation and listening skills. It was also the title of the textbook used in the course.

Xin was different from the other four participants in that, although she was enrolled as a first year graduate student in the TEFL program, she had audited some of the first year courses before she was formally accepted into the program. Therefore, she was the only participant who was considering writing a research proposal. The title of her research proposal was "Chinese Children's English Phonological Awareness and Its Relation to Reading." Therefore, compared with the other students, Xin used more planning strategies, and was more motivated in looking for Chinese academic articles.

Xin said she would read in a different way depending on her reading goals. If the material was not required by the instructor, she would usually read the article several times. In the first time, she would skip those places she did not understand because she wanted to get the gist of the text. She reported that keeping on reading sometimes helped her understanding because "the information in the later part of the text explained the unknown or difficult points in the previous part." However, as she went on reading, new comprehension problems occurred. She had to wait for a later explanation from the text. That was, as she called it, "spiral progression," which indicated the clarification of the previous information, the occurrence of new comprehension problems, and the suspension of the problems for later understanding. As for the course readings, Xin said that she skimmed and scanned the reading materials if they were for in-class discussions or if they were chosen by other students for their oral presentations. The only times when she read very carefully and used the dictionary were when she had to read for an exam and when she wanted to present the article to the class (Learning log/June 28, 1999). It should be noted that Xin not only frequently summarized orally what she had read previously but also made written summaries. She said written summaries were prompts

for the readings, which would be useful for the organization of the readings for writing, for discussion, and for exams. Xin found it very helpful noting good expressions and sentences she could use when writing assignments.

As far as her learning logs were concerned, Xin wrote 47 diary entries. Her learning logs were related to three aspects of reading: (1) academic reading in English, mostly written in English; (2) her students' assignments at the night school, in English; and (3) pleasure reading of newspaper, magazines and short stories, all in Chinese. Table 4.2 and Table 4.3 show the types of reading strategies and their frequencies, as revealed from Xin's learning logs. On the whole, Xin reported strategy use 133 times while reading in English and 122 times while reading in Chinese.

It is interesting to notice that Xin wrote her diary entries in English when she read English but she wrote in Chinese when she read Chinese. No Chinese words were found in her English diary entries but there were occasional English words in her Chinese diary entries.

As can be seen from Table 4.2, the most frequently reported strategies for reading English were switching languages (17), raising questions (17), invoking prior knowledge (13), making summaries (12), and making comments/evaluating (10). This indicated that Xin was mostly aware of these five reading strategies or that she possibly used these strategies more frequently than other strategies.

Table 4.2 English Reading Strategies Reported by Xin in Her Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	7
		Planning	2
		Making comments/evaluations	10
		Making predictions/	3
		Confirming/verifying/revising hypotheses	1
		Identifying reading problems	2
		Raising questions	17
		Being aware of strategy use	2
Cognitive Strategies	Language	Analyzing sentence structures	1
	Content	Identifying main ideas	3
		Looking for specific information	4
		Invoking prior knowledge	13
		Making summaries	12
		Verbalizing from graphics	1
	Structure	Noticing the format of the whole text	1
		Noticing graphics	1
		Attending to references	3
		Recognizing different rhetoric patterns	2
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Identifying intended audience	1
		Reading aloud	1
		Rereading/reviewing	3
		Skipping	2
		Taking notes	5
		Switching languages	17
		Using the dictionary	3
		Photocopying/purchasing	2
Social Strategies		Asking other people	2
		Discussing with other people/cooperating	1
Affective Strategies		Being interested/motivated	8
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration	3
Total			133

Table 4.3 Chinese Reading Strategies Reported by Xin in Her Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	8
		Planning	4
		Making comments/evaluations	6
		Making predictions/ Confirming/verifying/revising hypotheses	1 1
		Identifying reading problems	6
		Raising questions	11
		Being aware of strategy use	3
		Reasoning	1
Cognitive Strategies	Language	Analyzing sentence structures	1
	Content	Identifying main ideas	4
		Looking for specific information	4
		Invoking prior knowledge	10
		Making summaries	13
	Structure	Noticing the format of the whole text	1
		Noticing graphics	3
		Attending to references	1
		Recognizing different rhetoric patterns	1
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Identifying intended audience	1
		Guessing/Inferencing	4
		Reading aloud	1
		Rereading/reviewing	3
		Skipping	1
		Taking notes	1
		Switching languages	21
Social Strategies		Asking other people	1
Affective Strategies		Being interested/motivated	8
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration	2
Total			122

It should be noted that although being interested/motivated and setting reading goals were not among the list of most frequently used strategies, they did show up relatively frequently. One possible explanation for this was that Xin was very motivated to find resources for her thesis proposal. She had overt reading goals and had to identify information that was important and useful for her research. She even went to the

Department of Psychology for resources and consultation since her research was related to phonological awareness.

Xin's reading of Chinese was similar. The most frequently reported strategies in Xin's diaries were switching languages (21), making summaries (13), raising questions (11), and invoking prior knowledge (10). In her learning logs, Xin said that she often noted the references which she thought would be useful some day in the future. For example, in her May 16th diary, Xin wrote:

> Kan le Le (1997) de "Yuyan Huode Lilun Yanjiu," youguan Maccoby dui xingbie fazhan de san ge jieduan ....Maccoby de yuanzhu shi zenme shuo de? Wo cha le reference. (*I read Le's (1997) article "Theories of Language Acquisition." The author mentioned three stages of gender development, as proposed by Maccoby....What did Maccoby actually say in his book? I have noted the reference.)*[8]

Xin believed that reading aloud helped her understand. In her diary dated May 17, Xin mentioned that she had read aloud a piece of news in Chinese on the invention of plastics. Skimming and scanning did not seem to work because there were many chemical terms. So she decided to read the news aloud. She read the unknown words with extra word stress. This, according to her report, brought more attention to the words and thus made her rely on various sources including the text and her background knowledge to make sense of the words.

4.1.1.2 Reading Style and Strategy Use

It took Xin about 227 minutes to complete all the six think-aloud tasks. Xin told the researcher later that she was mostly interested in two articles, one in English and the other in Chinese, which employed a quantitative research design, because she intended to do a quantitative study for her thesis.

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[8] See APPENDIX F for transcription conventions.

Xin used strategies 1135 times. As can be seen from Figure 4.1, there were three tendencies in her strategy uses. First, Xin set goals before and during her reading. For example, after she read the title of the first English passage, she said, "Jiao Yingyu. Erqie hai shi MA. Gen women yiyang. Wo xiang kan kan tamen shi zenyang jiao Yingyu de." (*Teaching English. Also M.A.. Just like us. I'd like to know how they taught English.*) Then she scanned the passage looking for the description of teaching ESL. Another example was from the reading of the third English passage, which was on culture and foreign language teaching. At the beginning, Xin intended to look for the definition of culture and the relationship between the teaching of culture and the teaching of language. As she moved on and came to the section of TEACHING CULTURE FOR TERTIARY SOCIALIZATION she decided to read more carefully.

The second tendency of Xin's strategy use was that she liked to make summaries, either orally or in writing. Although she did not write summaries during the think-aloud tasks, she did mention twice, one in reading E2 and the other in reading C1, that she wanted to write short summaries in her notebook because she could turn to this quick reference later if she wanted information of similar nature. In many cases, Xin's summaries contained the key words she noted while reading. This might be the reason why the frequencies of both strategy uses were high in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Reading Strategies in Xin's Think-Aloud Protocols

Reading Strategies in Xin's Think-Aloud Protocols

The third tendency, which was noticing graphics and verbalizing them, was related to Xin's reading habits. In one of her learning logs and in an interview, Xin said that she liked to read graphics not only because they explained information in a visual way but also because graphics sometimes made the "boring layout of academic articles" more "eye-catching and interesting." There were three graphics in the form of three sentences on three pictures of blackboards in E1, four tables in E2, one chart in E3, one chart and one table in C1, and three tables in C2. Xin paid attention to all the tables and charts, although she did not verbalize about all of them. Take the first graphic in E1, for example. She said:

> ((Reads aloud the sentence in the graphic)) A student had arrived late to class and had asked a question; Alice had been nervous and did not know how to handle the situation, so she ignored his question. (##) Alice (##) ((Scans the page and then the next page)) Oh Alice shi zui hou zhe ge participant. *(((Reads aloud the sentence in the graphic)) A student had arrived late to class and had asked a question; Alice had been nervous and did not know how to handle the situation, so she ignored his question. (##) Alice (##) ((Scans the page and then the next page)) Oh, Alice is this last participant.)*

Xin read aloud not only graphics but also words or sentences she thought were useful, as revealed in her think-aloud tasks and in her learning logs. Reading aloud, according to Xin, helped her remember and memorize important information. It also helped her reorganize her thoughts.

4.1.1.3 Summary of Xin

Xin had taught English for four years before entering the TEFL program. She was the only one of the five participants who wanted to write her research proposal. Apart from reading for her coursework, Xin looked for English and Chinese academic articles pertaining to her research interests. Xin used a variety of reading strategies, as indicated in her learning logs and think-aloud protocols. The data also showed that she frequently

set reading goals prior to her reading and summarized, either in writing or orally, what she read. In addition, Xin liked to read aloud because she found this strategy helped her not only understand the text and retain the information in her memory, but also appreciate the style and content of the text. Furthermore, there was a high integration of Chinese and English in her think-alouds. In other words, she switched languages very frequently and sometimes translated directly what she read from English into Chinese and vice versa.

4.1.2 Profile 2: Jian

4.1.2.1 Language Learning Background

Jian was a 21-year-old student from Shenyang, the capital city of Liaoning Province in the northeastern part of China. Her parents were teachers, one working at a university and the other in a secondary school in her hometown. Jian learned to read Chinese characters at the age of three. In the last year of kindergarten, the teacher taught her how to write some simple Chinese characters so as to help her prepare for elementary schooling. Jian's parents had high expectations of her. In the following journal entry, Jian described her experiences in her childhood (Chinese in original):

> My mother used to ask me to learn to read some Chinese every day. She bought me many picture books with simple Chinese characters. I remember at the beginning, I said out the sounds according to the pictures. I didn't make any associations between the characters and the sounds. But later, after we had gone through the book many times, I started to recognize the characters even when they were not accompanied by the pictures. ... So when I look back, I think they were right. I was too young. I knew nothing. The parents should make decisions for their kids.

Jian's parents' high expectations affected her learning at school as well as at home. She went to ballet class and piano class when she was very young. Although she stopped going to ballet class after she entered elementary school, she continued her piano training and at the same time worked hard on her school work to meet the requirements

of her teachers. Her school's attitudes towards Chinese reading and writing were that students should learn pinyin[9] first. Moreover, reading and writing were separate. Students were supposed to read a poem or a nursery rhyme in each lesson but to write only a few characters in the poem. Starting in Grade 2, Jian learned to analyze the meanings of Chinese words in sentences or in texts. She did not learn the function of words or parts of speech until Grade 5. Such analysis at the lexical and the syntactical levels, together with literary appreciation through answering comprehension questions, were the major goals of her Chinese learning all the way up to and throughout her secondary school. After she entered a university in Xi'an, Jian took a one-year course in Modern Chinese. In this course, Jian analyzed literary works in terms of their historical background, the authors, the style and the rhetoric, the themes, and the use of words in the text. When she was asked what Chinese materials she usually read in her leisure time, Jian said, "I read Chinese newspapers like Huan Qiu Shi Bao (*Global Time*) and Jing Ping Gou Wu Zhi Nan (*Shoppers Guide*). I also like to read *Reader.*[10] Different kinds of articles, stories, essays, and prose. Up-to-date and interesting."

Unlike her Chinese reading experiences which were related to both pleasure and academic purposes, Jian's experience of reading English had been primarily academic. Jian began her English study in Grade 6. Her English class was similar to her Chinese class in that for each lesson she studied word meanings, analyzed sentences in the text and answered reading comprehension questions. After entering university, Jian studied economics as her major. Therefore, her English training during this period of time was focused on English for science and technology. The English instruction was teacher-

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[9] Pinyin is the romanized phonetic writing system of the Chinese language.
[10] *Reader* was a Chinese magazine.

dominated with much emphasis on speed reading, extensive reading, vocabulary study, and sentence analysis. In the third and the fourth year, Jian passed the College English Band 4 and 8[11] respectively. Upon completion of her Bachelor degree in Science, Jian applied to study in the TEFL program at her current university.

Table 4.4 English Reading Strategies Reported by Jian in Her Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	3
		Planning	2
		Making comments/evaluations	3
		Identifying reading problems	15
		Being aware of strategy use	1
Cognitive Strategies	Content	Identifying main ideas	11
		Looking for specific information	2
		Invoking prior knowledge	6
		Making summaries	2
	Structure	Noticing graphics	1
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Rereading/reviewing	3
		Skipping	3
		Switching languages	52
		Photocopying/purchasing	4
Social Strategies		Asking other people	1
		Discussing with other people/cooperating	1
Affective Strategies		Being interested/motivated	3
		Giving up after attempting to evaluate the suitability/correctness of the textual information and accepting it.	3
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration	10
Total			126

Altogether Jian wrote 45 learning journals, among which only 5 were about her Chinese reading. Table 4.4 and Table 4.5 show the English and Chinese reading strategies revealed in her journals.

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[11] College English refers to English taught to university students who are not majoring in English language or literature. Usually in their third or fourth year, students will take a nation-wide test designed by the State Ministry of Education.

Table 4.5 Chinese Reading Strategies Reported by Jian in Her Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	3
		Making comments/evaluations	4
Cognitive	Content	Identifying main ideas,	2
		Invoking prior knowledge	1
Affective Strategies		Being interested/motivated	2
Total			12

For Jian, studying in the program of English language teaching was very different from what she had learned before. Although she had passed the highest level of College English in her undergraduate program, she felt she "almost failed to get accustomed to the post-graduate study." She stated:

> I was forced to learn by the teachers before. Most of the time, I was just a passive receiver, listening to the teacher and finishing the assignments without much consideration. Now, I have to really get involved in all kinds of activities. In order to finish the assignments, I have to do research work, and to go to the resource room to find references. I cannot rely on others but to depend on myself.

Her learning frustrations, as well as the strategies she employed to meet the real challenges, were expressed in many places in her learning journals. According to her, one of the reasons why she felt frustrated was that her previous English learning in her undergraduate program was mainly about science and technology, which had nothing to do with English language learning or teaching. Nor did Jian have any teaching experience before entering the masters program. Therefore, in class discussion, Jian did not participate much because she felt the discussion was, in many cases, about teaching practice. When Jian started to teach English in the "Cambridge Young Learners' English" program organized by the Department, she felt she had to look for guidance from books. For example, she explained in one of her journal entries:

> Today I read an article in *Forum*. The title is "The Role of Games in Language Acquisition." This article is very practical to me because I'm now teaching kids "Cambridge English." I have to use various kinds of games to stimulate students' interest. This article starts with the definition of "games," and then states the purpose of using games, and makes suggestions for using games in language teaching. At the end of the article, the author lists several popular games which students usually like. This article is easy to understand.

The second frustration Jian had was about her academic writing. One of her journal entries talked about her first impression of the TEFL program she was attending. She said:

> I took many exams when I was an undergraduate. The teacher taught us how to write business letters but never taught us how to write academically. We had a course on academic reading and writing last semester. I now know the basics but I'm still very poor in writing. The professors told us not to copy things from others but they have never told us what copying is or what imitating is. I like to take note of not only good words and expressions or terminology but also sometimes good writing styles because I may use similar style in my writing. I don't know if that is copying.

Despite Jian's frustrations, she seldom talked about them either with her classmates or with the teachers. In my conversations with the instructors, all the teachers said that Jian was eloquent and quite good at organizing her thoughts, as shown in her oral presentations and her writing assignments. Moreover, they considered Xin to be a good and hard-working student.

As to the question of what she read after class, Jian spent around five to seven hours a week reading the essays in the GRE tests. When I asked her what else she read in English, she said:

> Most of my readings are for the coursework. We have to discuss the reading assignments in class. But since it's usually group discussions I usually read the materials very quickly. Just focus on the main ideas. But in Luo Laoshi's class and Xiao Laoshi's class, we have to do oral presentations. So when it's my turn, I read the article very carefully. For the Statistics course, there will be a mid-term exam and a final exam. So I have to read each chapter of the textbook and do the exercises at the end of each chapter.

Jian did spend time every week reading English for information and pleasure. As was stated in her journals, she liked to read *China Daily*, especially the finance section, and English novels such as *Pride and Prejudice*.

Jian's view of L1 and L2 reading was based on her personal experience. To her, there existed many differences between L1 reading and L2 reading. She felt strongly that her Chinese and English were not equally strong. Therefore, she could appreciate any literary works and read between the lines easily in Chinese but not in English. Her limited English also contributed to her slow reading speed in English. As a result, she was always "conscious of [her] reading strategies such as guessing, predicting, [and] inferencing," which was not the case in her reading of Chinese.

4.1.2.2 Reading Style and Strategy Use

Jian spent a total of 219 minutes on all the six think-aloud tasks. The total number of strategy uses was 1056 (Figure 4.2). Perhaps, because she was not very confident in her use of English, Jian chose to think aloud more in Chinese than in English while reading the six passages. Moreover, she used more Chinese while reading Chinese passages than reading English passages.

Figure 4.2 Reading Strategies in Jian's Think-Aloud Protocols

Reading Strategies in Jian's Think-Aloud Protocols

Legend: E1, E2, E3, C1, C2, C3

Y-axis: Frequency (0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70)

X-axis: Reading Strategies

Categories (reading down): Setting reading goal; Planning; Making comments/evaluation; Making prediction; Confirming/verifying/revising hypotheses; Identifying reading problems; Raising questions; Looking for answers; Being aware of strategy use; Reasoning; Analyzing sentence structure; Analyzing word formation; Identifying key words; Identifying word allocation; Checking coherence and consistency of textual; Identifying main ideas; Looking for specific information; Involving prior knowledge; Paraphrasing immediate textual information; Making summaries; Verbalizing from graphic; Noticing the format of the whole text; Noticing graphic; Attending to reference; Identifying topic sentences; Recognizing different rhetoric patterns; Identifying intended audience; Guessing/inferencing; Reading aloud; Memorizing; Rereading/reviewing; Skipping; Switching language; Marking the text; Xeroxing/purchasing; Using the dictionary; Asking other people; Discussing with others; Using people/cooperating; Using books, internet, etc.; Being confident; Being interested/motivated; Giving up after attempting to evaluate th-; Managing/adjusting boredom

In each task, Jian seemed to approach the articles with an easy and relaxed attitude. Usually, she went through each sentence very quickly and spent time responding to it. On a few occasions, Jian did not say anything but went on reading. Later, she told the researcher that the difficulty level of the sentences was not challenging. Therefore, she just processed the sentences without much thinking.

Another reason that may have contributed to her quick and smooth reading was that Jian did not seem to have a sense of purpose or direction when she began to read each passage, although she did develop her direction of reading as she read on. This was very obvious, especially in the first task of reading E1.

In the first think-aloud session Jian read two reports that involved qualitative research methods, one was "Teaching ESL in an Unfamiliar Context: International Students in a North American MA TESOL Practicum" (E1) and the other "Yingyu Xuexi Chenggong Zhe Yu Bu Chenggong Zhe Zai Fangfa Shang De Chayi" (C1) *(Differences in Strategy Uses between Successful and Non-Successful Learners of English)*. Jian spent about 36 minutes reading E1. She used strategies a total of 178 times when reading this passage. The strategies she used most frequently were switching languages (43), paraphrasing immediate textual information (43), marking the text (24), identifying key words (16), and making summaries (16). The following are 3 examples illustrating the use of 4 reading strategies: identifying key words, guessing/inferencing, switching languages, and marking the text:

Jian read	Jian said
#1. Teaching ESL in an Unfamiliar Context: International Students in a North American MA TESOL Practicum	En, guoji xuesheng de TESOL practicum. (##) ((Uses a pen and underlines the word "practicum")) Wo xiang zhe ge "practicum" gen "practice" de yisi cha bu duo. Keneng jiu shi "shixi" ba. *(Hum, international students' TESOL practicum. (##) ((Uses a pen and underlines the word "practicum")) I think this practicum" is similar to "practice." May be it means in Chinese "shixi.")*

For this title, Jian made a connection between the word *practicum* and *practice.* She underlined the word *practicum*, which indicated this was a key word. Furthermore, she translated not only *practicum* but also *international students* into Chinese verbally.

In 43 places, Jian switched languages, from Chinese to English and vice versa. She translated English words/phrases/sentences into Chinese 15 times. Translating as a useful strategy can be seen not only in Jian's reading tasks but also in her learning logs. She relied heavily on her Chinese in her reading of English. Not only did she translate many words and sentences into Chinese but she also used Chinese in expressing her thoughts. The only time she switched to English in her first think-aloud was when she used special terminology in her report. The following is a journal entry which describes how Jian used translating in her reading of English idioms:

> I read the book – *Normal Idioms in TOEFL's Listening Comprehension.* ("Tuofu Tingli Changjian Chengyu"). The idioms listed are explained both in Chinese and in English. I found that if I'm familiar with the idiom, I only read the English explanation and I match it with my translation of the idiom in my mind. So I can remember the idiom & its explanation clearly. But if I encounter an unfamiliar idiom, I usually read the English explanation first and then the Chinese explanation. Zai zhe zhong qingkuang xia, ruguo zhi du Yingyu shiyi, haoxiang shi sui dong le gai idiom, dan yinxiang bu shen. Zhiyou kan le Zhongwen shiyi huoshi zhaodao le Zhongwen duiyingci, cai xiang zhen de jizhu le zhe ge idiom.

(...In this situation, if I read only the English explanation of the idiom, although I seem to understand this idiom, I won't have a deep impression. Only after I read the Chinese explanation or find a Chinese equivalent can I really remember this idiom.)

Except for the word *practicum*, which Jian spent some time decoding, she devoted most of her attention to the content, rather than to the linguistic aspects of the text. She did not report having any difficulty reading the passage. Although she did mention that she was not quite clear about the research approach described in the text, she could easily follow the structure of the passage and make connections between the textual information and her prior knowledge of TESOL. Therefore, she skimmed some segments because she knew what would be said in the next section after she scanned the subtitles of the articles such as INTERVIEWS, JOURNALS and ASSIGNMENTS.

Throughout the whole passage, Jian underlined 16 keys words, e.g., *international students*, *TESOL practicum*, *preservice teachers*, *nonnative speakers (NNSs)*, and *cultural norms*. Jian paraphrased 43 sentences and summarized or made connections of ideas in the text 16 times. While making summaries, she also drew lines between/among ideas. In the immediate interview, Jian told the researcher that underlining key words, paraphrasing and making summaries helped her remember the information. She also used these strategies when she read for her coursework, e.g., in the Readings on Linguistics course, which she and other participants called Seminars.[12] Jian usually read very quickly if the articles were chosen by other groups. Noticing key words, paraphrasing and making short summaries of ideas in her mind helped her reorganize the main ideas and thus

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[12] Two instructors co-taught this course. They used the format of seminar. Thus, the major classroom activity in this course was group presentations. Students were expected to look for an article in TEFL/TESOL and present it to the whole class. The Methodology in TEFL course had a similar format of co-teaching and group presentations. However, the instructors in the Methodology course used videos for discussion.

remember them. Also, doing this, as was stated by Jian, could save time and at the same time she could participate actively in the discussion, which was the final part of group presentations. Jian took the same approach in the Action Research course and the Methodology in TEFL course, where the instructors sometimes gave out reading assignments. When the researcher asked Jian whether she would have taken the same or similar approach if she had been involved in the presentation, Jian said:

> I would have read the article more carefully. When it's my turn to do the presentation, I usually read the text many times, making sure I understand every word and sentence because I'm afraid other students may ask me questions after the presentation. I won't be able to answer them if I don't fully understand the text. So sometimes I use the dictionary and write the Chinese expressions next to the unknown words. I also underline key words and important sentences because I will use them in drafting my presentation.

The description of reading strategies so far has focused on the ones that Jian used frequently in processing the first English passage. There were other strategies Jian used but not extensively, e.g., invoking prior knowledge (7), looking for specific information (5), setting reading goals (2), making comments/evaluations (2), making predictions (2), being aware of strategy use (2), noticing the format of the text (2), confirming/verifying/revising hypotheses (1), identifying main ideas (1), attending to references (1), photocopying/purchasing (1), and being interested/motivated (1). Two observations were made about Jian's strategy uses in terms of making comments and photocopying texts. First, Jian made two comments when responding to the passage. The first comment was made about the sentence of "In [my country], teachers who teach a class over time are often called *good* teachers" (p. 26). Jian agreed that this was the case when she was in high school but not now. She complained that the statistics class always ran over time and she rated this course low saying that "kecheng anpai shibai, jiaoxue

siban" (*This course failed in curriculum design and the teaching is mechanical*). The second comment was made in response to the discussion of the cultural norm that a teacher is regarded as perfect. She said, "laoshi zai zhishi fangmian bu yinggai ye bu hui shi perfect, dan zai jiaoxue jiqiao fangmian yinggai shi perfect" (*A teacher can not be perfect in terms of knowledge but s/he should be perfect in teaching skills*).[13]

The second mention of strategy use was that Jian said she was interested in the section of SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS. She wanted to photocopy this page afterwards. Later, when the researcher asked how often she made photocopies, she said she would do that when (1) there was only one copy in the reading room and the instructor asked the students to read it for discussion; (2) when she wanted to use the article for her presentation; and (3) when she found useful words or structures. Jian mentioned twice in her learning logs that she photocopied two articles because she thought she could emulate the structure of these articles in her writing.

When reading and responding to the second passage "Yingyu Xuexi Chenggong Zhe Yu Bu Chenggong Zhe Zai Fangfa Shang De Chayi" (*Differences in Strategy Uses between Successful and Non-Successful Learners of English*), Jian made noticeably fewer strategy uses (164) than in the first reading task (178), although the Chinese article (C1) was longer than the English one (E1). However, Jian took a similar approach in processing C1 and used strategies at the metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective levels. The strategies at the metacognitive level included making comments (10), raising questions (6), making predictions (4) identifying reading problems (4), being aware of strategy use (3, setting reading goals (1), confirming hypotheses (1), and planning (1).

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[13] The above two comments were made to the tape recorder while reading the text. The complaint about the Statistics class, on the other hand, was made in the interview after the think-aloud task was finished.

At the cognitive level, Jian employed such strategies as summarizing (21), identifying key words (20), using background knowledge (17), switching languages (13), identifying topic sentences (11), paraphrasing (9), rereading (7), marking the key words (6), looking for specific information (6), guessing (4), analyzing sentence structures (3), noticing (3) and verbalizing from graphics (4), noticing the format of the article (3), skipping unknown information (2) when her comprehension was blocked, noticing main ideas (1), and recognizing different rhetorical patterns (1).

As to the strategies at the social and affective level, Jian showed, twice, that she was very interested in the content of the text. Another affective strategy Jian employed was accepting the author's idea after attempting to validate it. For example, after reading "Yingyu xide guocheng ye jiushi he muyu ganrao jinxing douzheng de guocheng" (*The process of English language acquisition is also the process of fighting against the interference of one's native language*), Jian did not agree because she felt her L1 sometimes helped her remember information. However, she added "jirang zhe shi zai zazhi shang fabiao de wenzhang, wo xiang yinggai shi dui de." (*Since this is a published article, I guess it's correct.*)

When she started to read C1, Jian did not go through the text sentence by sentence. Instead, after reading the title and the abstract, she said, "You yisi. Wo dao xiang kan kan xuexi chenggong zhe shi shenme yang de." (*Interesting. I'd like to know what a successful learner is like.*) So she immediately set a goal for her reading and went directly to the last section of the article TAOLUN (*DISCUSSION*). After reading the four topic sentences in the DISCUSSION, Jian commented:

> Taolun guoyu zongjiehua. Zhexie wo dou zhidao. Keneng dui qita ren you yong ba. (##) ((Flips over the page)) Ye, zenme meiyou jielun jiu wan le?" *(This*

discussion is too general. I already know this. It may be helpful to others. (##)
((Flips over the page)) Uh, why isn't there a conclusion part in this article?)

Jian made more comments in reading C1 than in E1. Later she told the researcher

that she was more prone to choosing an American author than a Chinese author, probably

because western countries had a longer history of educational research than China.

Therefore, the writing format, even the terminology in Chinese articles, was borrowed

from abroad. Jian's comments towards C1 were all negative. They fell into two

categories: comments on the writing format and the use of language. The above excerpt is

an example indicating that Jian had doubts about the writing format. Before going into

detail, Jian liked to take a quick glance at the subtitles of an article, if there were any, to

have a general idea of what the article was about. She did the same thing with this

passage. She was expecting to see a conclusion part after the discussion part. Since she

read only the topic sentences in the discussion part, she did not notice that the last three

sentences of this passage were a brief conclusion.

The second type of comments Jian made was when she responded to sentences #7

and #8:

Jian read	Jian said
#7. Jieguo biaoming zai dui chengji you yingxiang de yinsu zhong you bufen shi xuesheng keyi kongzhi de yinsu. Tamen shi guanli celue, cihui celue, huibi muyu celue he rongren hanhun yuyan de celue. *(Results showed that, among the factors affecting students' achievement, some could be controlled by students. These controllable factors were management strategies, lexical strategies, strategies of avoiding first languages, and strategies of being tolerant with mixed languages.)*	(#) Zheli yinggai shi liang ju hua, Xian shi shuo youxie yinsu shi xuesheng keyi kongzhi de. Ranhou shuo xuesheng keyi kongzhi de yinsu shi guanli celue, cihui celue, huibi muyu celue, hai you rongren hanhun yuyan de celue. (##) Shenme shi rongren hanhun yuyan ? Keneng shi tolerance with mixed language ba. (#) You dianr bieniu. Bu xiang shi Zhongwen. *((#) There should be two sentences here. First, it says that there were some factors which could be controlled by students. Then, it says these factors included management strategies, lexical strategies, strategies of avoiding first languages, and strategies of being tolerant with mixed languages. (##) What is rongren hanhun yuyan? May be "being tolerant with mixed languages." (#) A bit weird. Doesn't sound like Chinese.)*
#8. Zhe qizhong wei you rongren hanhun yuyan de celue dui chengji suo chansheng de shi fumian yingxiang. *(Only the strategies of being tolerant with mixed languages had a negative influence on students' achievement.)*	You shi rongren hanhun yuyan. (#) Zhe haoxiang shi Yingwen fan guolai de. Nandong. (#) ((Points to the first part of the sentence)) Zhe ge (#) shi fumian yingxiang. Suoyi zhe (#) shi zhuyu. *(Once again, being tolerant with mixed languages. It looks like direct translation of an English sentence. Difficult to understand. (#). ((Points to the first part of the sentence)) This (#) is negative influence. So this (#) is the subject.)*

As can be seen from the above excerpts, Jian used such strategies as guessing (2), making comments (2), raising questions (1), translating (1), and analyzing sentence structures (1).

Among the ten comments Jian made in reading this passage, seven were in the first two sections, i.e., the introductory part and YINGYU XUEXI FANGFA DE JIEGOU KUANGJIA (*THE FRAMEWORK OF ENGLISH LEARNING*) whereas the other three were in the last section of TAOLUN (*DISCUSSION*).

In the second think-aloud session, Jian read two research reports that involved quantitative approaches. These two articles were "Vocabulary Teaching: Looking behind the Word" (E2) and "Yingyu Xuesheng Ketang Jiaolugan Yu Kouyu Shuiping De Guanxi" (*The Relationship between Classroom Anxiety and Level of Spoken Language*) (C2).

Unlike E1, E2 contained an abstract and had more terminology and longer and more complex sentences. This could be the reason why Jian spent longer (43 minutes) reading this article than the first one, although E2 was shorter than E1. Altogether, she used reading strategies 142 times. In reading the second English passage, Jian's interaction with the text was somewhat different from her reading of E1. Although the most frequently used strategies were still switching languages (26), identifying key words (23), paraphrasing immediate textual information (15), and making summaries (10), Jian used some strategies which she did not seem to employ in reading E1, e.g., checking the coherence and consistency of textual information (4), reading aloud (3), and reading aloud (3).

After reading the title, Jian scanned the subtitles and found this was a quantitative research paper. Then she decided to read aloud the abstract since "Yi ge yi ge zi de dasheng langdu zhe yi duan bangzhu wo lijie, erqie rongyi jizhu yixie." (*Reading this*

paragraph aloud in a word by word manner helps me understand and remember the

information.)

Apart from reading aloud, there were three strategies Jian used in E2 but not in E1. These were skipping unknown information (5), checking coherence and consistency of textual information (4), and analyzing word formation (1). In the following excerpt, Jian demonstrated some of the processes using the reading strategies mentioned above.

Jian read	Jian said
#6. As a result, traditional ideas about what is involved in the teaching of lexis appeared to be no longer tenable.	(##) lexis (##) lexical and lexis (#) En wo zhidao le. *((##) lexis (##) lexical and lexis (#) (En, now I know.)*
#13. The fixed-ratio method of deletion was employed, and responses were judged according to the acceptable-word scoring method.	Fixed-ratio method of deletion (#) ((Looks puzzled for a second and then goes on reading))

As can be seen from the excerpts, the response to sentence number 6 was an indication of analyzing the formation of the word *lexis* and the response to sentence number 13 indicated that Jian did not know what the method of *fixed-ration method* was. However, she did not dwell on the meaning of the method. She ignored the unknown information and went on reading. Later in the immediate interview, Jian said that she skipped some segments in this text not because she could predict what would be said but because she did not quite understand what was discussed. Moreover, she was more interested in the section of IMPLICATIONS FOR CLASSROOM TEACHING rather than the description of the research tools or the presentation of results. This may have

contributed to the fact that the 5 times Jian skipped unknown information occurred in

reading THE STUDY and RESULTS sections.

A final note on strategy uses on E2 is that Jian made 4 connections between the

tables and the text/subtitles. For example, in the RESULTS section, after reading Table 4,

Jian flipped the page back and forth and said,

> (##) You dianr luan. (##) Tables yi zhi san jiang de shi incomplete appreciation.
> ((Turns to page 55)) Um Table si shi inadequate knowledge of correct
> collocations. Danshi you yong le Table 1 jiang inadequate knowledge of word
> derivations. *((##) A bit confusing. (##) Tables 1 to 3 are about incomplete*
> *appreciation. ((Turns to page 55)) Um Table 4 is about inadequate knowledge of*
> *correct collocations. But he uses Table 1 again to talk about inadequate*
> *knowledge of word derivations.)*

Here Jian used two strategies, rereading and checking the consistency of textual

information. She was a bit confused by the tables at the beginning. So she reread the

RESULTS section again very quickly focusing on the tables and the first sentence below

each table. The purpose was to look for the connections among the tables.

The reading of C2 took Jian 32 minutes. She made 153 strategy uses. Her

approach to this article was similar to that to C1 except that she made 8 skips, 2 in the

section of LILUN BEIJING (*THEORETICAL BACKGROUND*) and the rest in the

section of TONGJI JIEGUO (*STATISTICAL RESULTS*). The reasons Jian gave later in

the immediate interview were that she was not interested in the literature and that the

statistical analysis was boring.

The strategies that Jian used frequently were paraphrasing immediate textual

information (28), switching languages (26), invoking prior knowledge (12), making

summaries (11), guessing (10), making comments (9), looking for specific information

(8), and skipping (8). Similar to processing C1, Jian went directly to the conclusion part

after reading the abstract. She first looked for the specific information about *anxiety*, i.e., the type of anxiety. Then she summarized the first paragraph in JIELUN (*CONCLUSION*):

> Oh, ketang jiaolu you liangzhong. Yi zhong shi huanjingxing. Yi zhong shi xinggexing. Tamen dou bu li yu xuesheng de kouyu tigao." *(Oh, there are two kinds of anxiety. One is environmental anxiety and the other trait anxiety. Both are not good for the improvement of students' oral English.)*

Then Jian took a look at the subtitles and decided to start from the beginning. Jian's awareness of the format of the text was obvious in reading of all the passages.

Jian did not do much translation in reading this text. She did use some English in her think-aloud but about 90 percent of her English was the English terminology presented in the text. For example, the author of this article gave English equivalents in brackets following the Chinese terms such as *yiban xingge tezheng* (*general personality traits*), *ketang jiaolugan* (*classroom anxiety*), *cujinxing jiaolu* (*facilitating anxiety*), *fangaixing jiaolu* (*deliberating anxiety*), *xinggexing jiaolu* (*trait anxiety*), and *huanjingxing jiaolu* (*environmental anxiety*). These English words constituted most code-switching in Jian's think-aloud of C2. In the interview, Jian told the researcher that she felt more comfortable using English terms rather than Chinese ones because she learned the English ones first. That could be the reason why Jian translated some Chinese terms into English, e.g., *zheng xiangguan* (*positive correlation*), *fu xiangguan* (*negative correlation*), *ceshi xiangmu* (*test items*), *shuju shouji* (*data collection*), *wenjuan* (*survey*), *xiangguan* (*correlation*), and *t-jianyan* (*t-test*).

In the last think-aloud session, Jian read two reviews. One was "Culture and Foreign Language Teaching" (E3) and the other "Wenhua Yu Waiyu Jiaoxue De Guanxi" (*The Relationship between Culture and Foreign Language Teaching*) (C3). Among the

six reading passages, "Culture and Foreign Language Teaching" was the one for which Jian employed reading strategies most frequently (265). At the beginning, when she saw the title, Jian was expecting to read a practical report. So she said, "Zhe pian wenzhang shi gei jiaoshi zuo cankao de." (*This passage is a reference for teachers*). However, as she read along, she changed her ideas.

Jian's general impression of this article was that the sentences were long and the content was boring. She was more interested in practical implications than a literature review. This could be the reason why, when reading C1 and C2, she jumped to the last section of the articles. There were two things Jian did to handle boredom. One was that she would laugh or look aside for a short time and then go back to the text, like what she did with the 19th and 40th sentences. The other thing Jian did was to make associations between the textual information and her prior knowledge. Below is an example of this.

Jian read	Jian said
#18. A widespread conclusion seems to be that language should not be taught as an isolated skill, but needs to be embedded in a content-based area of the syllabus.	((Rereads the sentence)) Zhe jiu shi suowei de language gen content de jiehe ba. Methodology de ke jiangguo. Wo gei Jianqiao ban shangke ye shi zhe me zuo de. *(((Rereads the sentence)) This may be the so-called integration of language and content. We learned it in our Methodology course and I followed this in the Cambridge class.)*

The above excerpt indicated that Jian made two associations, one being what was taught in the Methodology course and the other what she was teaching.

Although she was not interested in the content of the article, Jian did notice that there were two references that she might use in the future: Byram's (1989) "Cultural

Studies in Foreign Language Education" and Jenk's (1974) "Conducting Socio-cultural

Research in the Foreign Language Class."

Another note about Jian's reading was that Jian did not underline or mark any key

words in this text. Instead, she underlined unknown words such as *anachronistic, menial,*

culprit, ab initio and *corpus*. For the word *corpus*, she reread the sentence # 43 and said,

"Zhe ge ci wo zai nar jian guo. (#) Dao shihou cha cha zidian." (*I've seen this word*

before. I'll look it up in the dictionary.)

A final note about Jian's strategy uses was that she used three strategies very

frequently. The three strategies were switching languages (63), paraphrasing immediate

information (53), and making summaries (12). Similar to the process used in the previous

passages, Jian liked to paraphrase the sentences she had just read and she tended to use

more L2 in her summaries and paraphrases. In 6 cases, Jian's paraphrases were almost

the same as the text except the change of function words. On the other hand, she tended

to use more L1 while making associations or invoking prior knowledge.

In the last reading task, Jian read the title silently for 30 seconds and then

predicted that this article might be about the relationship between language teaching and

the teaching of culture. So she scanned the text quickly and confirmed her prediction in

the third section of YUYAN YU WENHUA DE GUANXI (*RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN*

LANGUAGE AND CULTURE). This time, Jian did not read anything in this section.

Instead, she went back to the beginning. Altogether, she used identifiable reading

strategies 154 times. The session was filled with the use of strategies such as invoking

prior knowledge (35), making predictions (29), switching languages (19),

confirming/revising hypotheses (12), and paraphrasing (11). As usual, Jian used mixed

languages with more use of Chinese. The explanation she gave was that she did not have any problem processing the content or language since her only concern about terminology was waived with the presentation of both Chinese and English equivalents.

4.1.2.3 Summary of Jian

Unlike Xin, Jian did not have teaching experience before starting her graduate studies. As a result, when she first entered this program, she found it very difficult to adjust to the academic culture, where almost half of the instruction was focusing on teaching practice. Jian read English mainly for her coursework and for the GRE but Chinese mainly for pleasure. Among the many strategies Jian used/reported to use in reading, the top two were paraphrasing and switching languages. To be more specific, Jian frequently liked to paraphrase textual information. Although she made relatively fewer summaries, she did occasionally connect bits of information and bring them together. Moreover, there were many large chunks of Chinese in Jian's think-aloud protocols. With Chinese being the major language tool in her learning logs and think-alouds, Jian sometimes switched to use English when (1) repeating textual information, (2) using technical terms, or (3) expressing simple ideas/opinions. Her translation was two-way, i.e., from English into Chinese and vice versa, with the former being used much more frequently than the latter.

4.1.3 Profile 3: Guo

4.1.3.1 Language Learning Background

Guo was a science student in high school. She went to an institute in Harbin, where she learned English for science. While she was in the institute, Guo took many courses such as Intensive Reading, Extensive Reading, Oral English, Listening, Writing,

Literature Appreciation, Video, American and British Cultures, Readings of Science, Grammar, Translation, and German and Japanese. She could remember that in the reading class, the teachers focused only on certain words, the analysis of some complicated sentences, and comprehension questions with multiple-choice response format. Upon graduation, Guo taught English at a college in the same city for three years.

When she first entered TEFL program, Guo had a difficult time in her courses because she "was not familiar with the field and some readings were too theoretical." Therefore, in the first term, her reading of English was mainly the materials assigned by instructors.

Guo's view of L1 and L2 reading was related to her personal experience. She saw more differences than similarities between the two kinds of reading. Although in the first semester, Guo read Chinese mainly for pleasure whereas she read English mainly for academic purposes, she began to read some English novels in her leisure time this semester. For whatever purposes, Guo felt more relaxed reading in Chinese than reading in English. She had to spend more time and effort reading her coursework, some of the time memorizing terminology and even memorizing good sentences and writing styles which might be useful for her writing.

Fourteen of the 15 diary entries Guo wrote were about her coursework. These logs were more weekly reports than daily reports. Among the 15 diary entries, 14 were written in English, which described what English materials she read during the past few days (or on the day of writing). There was only one report about her reading of Chinese, which was written solely in Chinese. No mixed languages sentences were found in the diary

entries. Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 present two lists of reading strategies revealed in Guo's

learning diaries.

Table 4.6 English Reading Strategies Reported by Guo in Her Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	6
		Planning	2
		Making comments/evaluations	9
		Identifying reading problems	5
		Raising questions	3
		Being aware of strategy use	17
		Reasoning	3
Cognitive Strategies	Language	Identifying key words	3
	Content	Checking coherence and consistency of textual information	3
		Identifying main ideas	6
		Looking for specific information	2
		Invoking prior knowledge	7
		Making summaries	2
	Structure	Noticing the format of the whole text	2
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Identifying intended audience	2
		Reading aloud	3
		Memorizing	3
		Rereading/reviewing	2
		Skipping	4
		Taking notes	1
		Marking the text	2
Affective Strategies		Being confident	1
		Being interested/motivated	3
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration	4
Total			95

Table 4.7 Chinese Reading Strategies Reported by Guo in Her Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	1
		Making comments/evaluations	2
Cognitive Strategies	Content	Invoking prior knowledge	1
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Reading aloud	1
Affective Strategies		Being interested/motivated	2
Total			7

As can be seen from Table 4.6, Guo usually set a goal before reading. Generally speaking, two different approaches were used depending on the reading purposes. For the readings she was supposed to use for an oral presentation or to lead a discussion in class, she tended to read them many times with different focus each time. In her journal entry for May 4th, for example. Guo wrote in English:

> I began to prepare an outline for the oral presentation in May 13th. The article I chose was "Reading Dilemma: An Individual Approach"....With such a large collection of subtopics, this article is really hard to present orally without boring the audience. I had to make some arrangement on my outline. I had read this article for several times for different purpose. 1st time: I skimmed it quickly to find something enlightening or worth mentioning about. Because of so many subtopics, I could figure out the logical relations between these topics. I had to read it twice to find details that reveal the logical relations...In the third time, I read aloud the whole article, hoping to present the article in the author's language....For the fourth time, I started to take note of the key words in every subtopic while reading silently.

Guo commented 9 times about her reading of English and Chinese. There were 8 comments on English readings and 1 on a Chinese reading. Among the 8 comments on reading English materials, 7 were negative, saying how "boring" and "useless" she thought the content of the assigned readings was. As a result, she felt "disappointed," "tired," and "frustrated" and had to "put away the book" or "give up." One of the 2

positive comments Guo provided was about the organization of an article given by the

Statistics instructor. The other positive comment was about the writing style of two

Chinese novelists, Yao Qiong and Fengyi Liang.[14] Actually the whole diary entry

described how different one novelist was from the other. Guo appreciated both and said

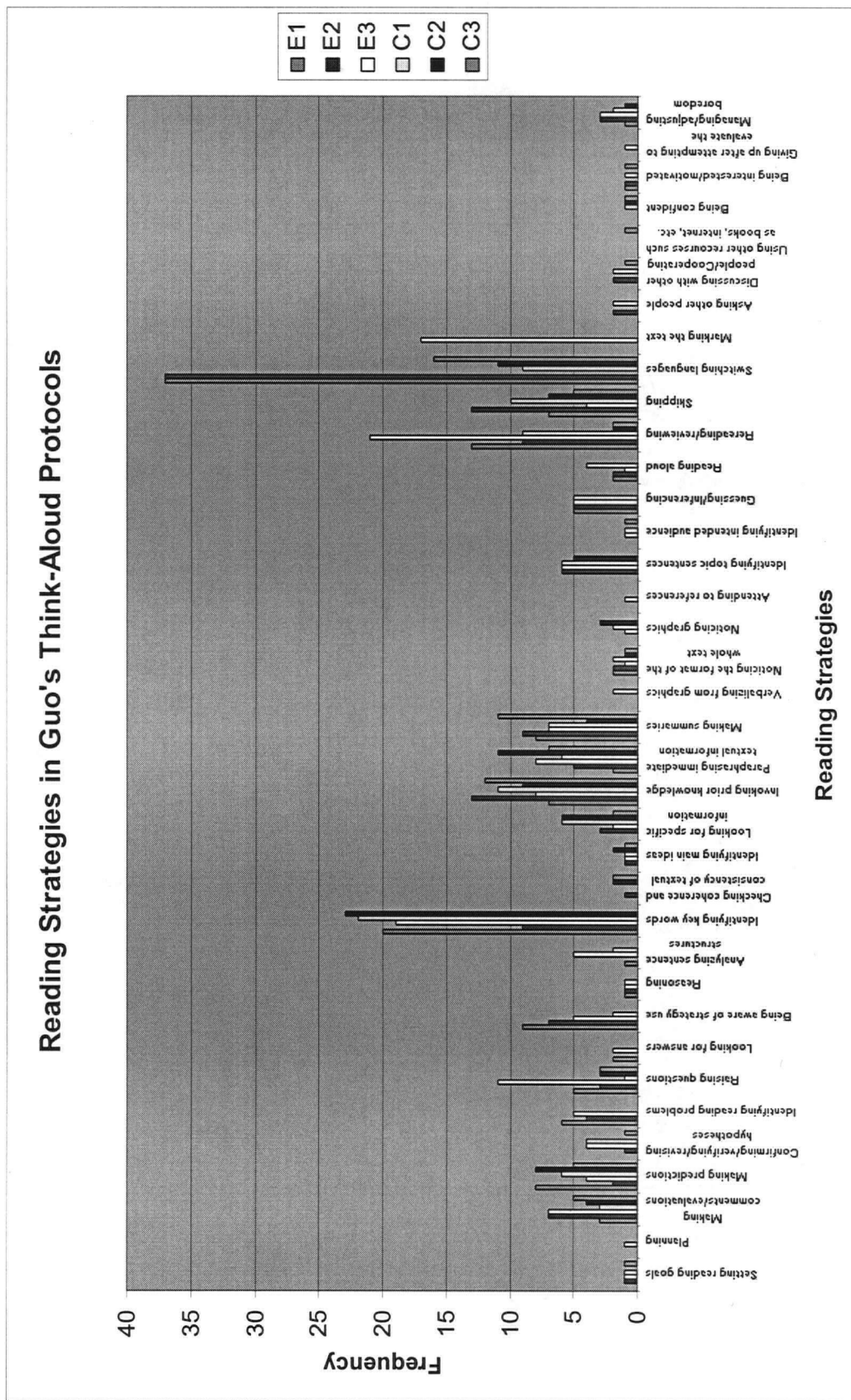she often read aloud or read aloud "in her mind" the ornate diction of both authors.

An interesting feature observed was the use of memorization and imitation in

Guo's reading. In the same journal dated May 4th, Guo said that she memorized the main

points of the article and tried to imitate the author's style in her presentation. By style

here she meant writing style.

4.1.3.2 Reading Style and Strategy Use

Guo spent around 229 minutes reading and responding to the 6 assigned passages

and made a total of 755 strategy uses. The time spent reading the articles was 35 minutes

for E1, 38 minutes for C1, 43 minutes for E2, 31 minutes for C2, 44 minutes for E3, and

37 minutes for C3. Guo liked to use a mixture of Chinese and English to respond to the

reading passages, with more use of English in responding to English passages and more

use of Chinese in reading Chinese articles. Figure 4.3 shows Guo's strategy use in the six

think-aloud tasks.

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[14] The novels were not assigned by the instructors. Guo read them for pleasure.

Figure 4.3 Reading Strategies in Guo's Think-Aloud Protocols

Reading Strategies in Guo's Think-Aloud Protocols

Legend: E1, E2, E3, C1, C2, C3

Y-axis: Frequency (0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40)

X-axis (Reading Strategies): Setting reading goals, Planning, Making comments/evaluations, Making predictions, Confirming/verifying/revising hypotheses, Identifying reading problems, Raising questions, Looking for answers, Being aware of strategy use, Reasoning, Analyzing sentence structures, Identifying key words, Checking coherence and consistency of textual, Identifying main ideas, Looking for specific information, Invoking prior knowledge, Paraphrasing immediate textual information, Making summaries, Verbalizing from graphics, Noticing the format of the whole text, Noticing graphics, Attending to references, Identifying topic sentences, Identifying intended audience, Guessing/Inferencing, Reading aloud, Rereading/reviewing, Skipping, Switching languages, Marking the text, Asking other people, Discussing with other people/Cooperating, Using other recourses such as books, internet, etc., Being confident, Being interested/motivated, Giving up after attempting to evaluate the, Managing/adjusting boredom

Reading Strategies

96

In the first reading task, Guo used reading strategies 140 times. At the beginning Guo seemed to focus a lot on the key words. She read aloud only the words she thought were important. Below is an example to illustrate this point.

Guo read	Guo said
Teaching ESL in an Unfamiliar Context: International Students in a North American MA TESOL Practicum	Unfamiliar context (#) practicum (##).

After singling out the two key words in the title, she predicted that it must be a "research paper." Then she went on reading the first sentence, picking out the key points "international students" and "TESOL." Guo found that focusing only on the key words did not always help, especially when the sentence was long and contained some words she did not know. Therefore, she had to turn to other strategies such as guessing, rereading, and reading aloud the sentence word by word. For example, Guo was not sure what the word *practicum* meant. She ignored it at the beginning and then rushed to make a conclusion about it, "not useful". However, as she read on, she encountered this word a couple more times. She then guessed its meaning saying, "It's (#) maybe (#) concerned with the program - the training program."

Guo reported having difficulty understanding the text 6 times, 2 with unknown words, 3 with long and complicated sentences, and 1 with the ideas. One thing that might contribute to her reading problems was that the words she picked out might not be the key words or simply jumbled words. Here is an example:

Guo read	Guo said
#61. One of her few nonlinguistic concerns was that the lesson plan had been too long and she had not finished it.	Concerns (#) lesson plan (#) too long (#) and finished it.

It is interesting to note that Guo used more Chinese to report having reading difficulties. However, she turned to English when she felt she could easily understand the textual information or when she made some associations between the text and her personal experience. For example, Guo made 25 utterances in English when responding to the last 6 sentences of the article, 4 under the subtitle of HOLD PERIODIC DISCUSSIONS ON TEACHING and 2 under CONCLUSION.

When responding to the Chinese article on learning strategies, as soon as she saw the title of the Chinese article in the first reading session, Guo said "it's interesting" and then skimmed the abstracts. She underlined the three key words presented right after the abstract, i.e., *Yingyu xuexi* (*English learning*), *fangfa* (*strategies*), and *chayi* (*differences*). Guo used strategies 131 times to understand the text. One of the major differences between her reading of E1 and C1 was the language she used to respond. Whereas over 90 percent of the utterances in the reading task of E1 were in English, almost all of the utterances in this reading task were in Chinese except in 9 places Guo switched to use a word or an expression to explain her thoughts. Below is an example of using mixed languages:

Guo read	Guo said
#190. Ciwai haiyao you yishi de jiehe jiaoxue neirong, xunlian xuesheng yunyong guanli celue qu jiankong yuyan xuexi celue de jineng, zhe dui tigao wo guo de Yingyu jiaoxue zhiliang jiang you zhongyao de yiyi. *(In addition, [teachers] should integrate content and strategy instruction. [They should] teach students to use management strategies to monitor their language learning strategies. This will improve the quality of English language teaching in our country.)*	Xunlian yunyong guanli celue (##) zhe jielun (##) tai longtong le. Shi yinggai jinxing learning strategy training. Dan what's the effect of it? *(Train to use management strategies. (##) This conclusion (##) too general. Yeah, should have strategy training but what's the effect of it?)*

Guo's reading of E2 was similar to that of E1 except that she made more skips (13) and comments (7), and fewer predictions (2). Guo was not interested in the research design in this article. Therefore, most of the skips she made were in the sections of THE STUDY and RESULTS. In particular, she skipped all 4 tables in the RESULTS section. It was because of this that 2 of Guo's comments were related to the lack of practical use of this paper to her because she did not "intend to do any research or reading on vocabulary." However, when she read in more detail the sections of IMPLICATIONS FOR CLASSROOM TEACHING and TEACHING VOCABULARY THROUGH READING she showed increasing interest and made 10 connections with her teaching experience.

In reading the Chinese article on anxiety (C2), Guo made 103 strategy uses. She did not pay attention to every word in the text. Instead, she focused on the key words (23) and sometimes paraphrased the sentences she had just read using the key words (11). Compared to her paraphrases in E1, her paraphrases in this article were more extensive

and accurate. However, 2 out of 8 of her predictions were incorrect. Take sentence # 15

for example:

Guo read	Guo said
#15. Bizhe jiu ci dui Nanjing Waiguo Yu Xuexiao gao nianji de 35 ming xuesheng zuo le wenjuan diaocha. Yixia shi ben ci diaocha de jieguo fenxi, xiwang dui waiyu jiaoxue yousuo jiejian. *(The researcher conducted a questionnaire survey on 35 students in Nanjing Foreign Language School. Provided below are the results and the discussion of the survey. It is hoped that the discussion will be helpful in improving foreign language teaching.)*	(##) Wenjuan diaocha de jieguo fenxi hui dui waiyu jiaoxue yousuo jiejian. (#) Yinggai hui you xuesheng de lizi ba. *((##) The analysis of the questionnaire will provide helpful implications for foreign language teaching. (#) There must be some examples of individual students.)*

After reading this sentence, Guo predicted that there would be some case studies

of the students. Actually this prediction was not correct. But she went on reading without

going through the article to test her prediction. This did not mean that Guo did not check

her comprehension. In the last section of JIESHUYU (*CONCLUSION*), she read the

words such as *huanjingxing jiaolu*, and *xinggexing jiaolu*. She said in Chinese, with some

English, "Shi environmental anxiety he trait anxiety ba." (*They may be environmental

anxiety and trait anxiety.*) Then she went back to the section of JIAOLUGAN DE

DINGYI (*DEFINITIONS OF ANXIETY*) and looked for the English translation of

huanjingxing jiaolu and *xinggexing jiaolu*.

In reading the third passage in English, Guo used reading strategies 153 times to

understand the text. At the beginning, Guo did not have any goal for her reading. As

usual, she looked at the subtitles and stopped at TEACHING CULTURE FOR

TERTIARY SOCIALIZATION and said, "It must be guidelines for teaching culture at

the university." After she found out the meaning of tertiary socialization, Guo jumped back and forth twice and then decided to start from the beginning, as she said, "The sentences are quite long and the ideas are too abstract."

Guo made 8 paraphrases throughout the reading, 1 in INTRODUCTION, 2 in THE CULTURE TEST, 3 in TOTAL IMMERSION, and 1 in the last part of INTEGRATED SYLLABUS AND COLLABORATIVE MODULES. Her paraphrases were short and sometimes incomplete, often containing only what she thought was important in the sentence or the key words she picked out from the sentence.

The most frequently used strategies in processing this text were rereading (21), identifying key words (19), marking the text (17), and raising questions (11). Like the processing of E1 and E2, Guo read aloud the words she thought were important. Apart from that, Guo tended to question herself about the content and the language use in the text. However, in only two cases did she look for answers.

In the last reading task, Guo read the Chinese article on culture and language teaching. Guo made a total of 79 strategy uses to understand the passage. The most frequently used strategies were switching languages (16), invoking prior knowledge (12), and making summaries (11). There were altogether 19 terms in this article which were followed by their English equivalents in brackets. Guo used 12 of these terms in her paraphrases, summaries, or comments. The ones she did not use were *xingshi* (*message form*), *zhuti* (*subject matter*), *changjing* (*setting*), *canyu zhe* (*participants*), and *huodong* (*activity*). The reason might be that these words, together with *qudao* (*channel*) and *daima* (*code*), were the major characteristics of a language. After reading the sentence

containing these terms, Guo listed only the first two, i.e. *qudao* (*channel*) and *daima* (*code*) and used *deng deng* (*and so on*) to refer to other features.

Another interesting feature of Guo's reading was that she made two attempts to figure out the logical relations of the ideas presented by the author. The first one was in the section of YUYAN HE WENHUA DE GUANXI (*RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE*) where Guo noticed the sequence words like *shouxian* (*first*), *qici* (*second*), and *di san* (*third*). The other attempt was made in her comment after reading the whole passage. She said:

> Zhe pian wenzhang bu cuo. Wenzi chuli jianlian, erqie shang xia lianguan, xiang ((Turns to page 3)) "raner," "jiran," "zong shang suo shu" deng. Tiaoli hen qingchu. Wo ji de zai yuelan shi kan guo yi pian xiang zhe yang de wenzhang. Wo dao shi keyi qu zhao zhao kan. *(This article is good. The language is concise and it's coherent. There are words like ((Turns to page 3)) "nevertheless," "now that" and "in conclusion" and so on. The ideas are very clear. I remember I've read a paper like this in the reading room. I'll go and check some day.)*

4.1.3.3 Summary of Guo

In Guo's opinion, reading in one's first language was more different from than similar to reading in a second language. L1 reading was not only easier but also faster than L2 reading. Guo was confident using English in writing journals and in thinking aloud. As a result, 14 out of 15 of her journal entries were written in English. Although she switched to Chinese frequently in the think-aloud tasks, Guo did try to speak only in English at the beginning of all three English articles. The use of Chinese in reading English, according to Guo, would slow down her reading speed. The only time she found Chinese helpful was when she encountered technical terms in the field.

4.1.4 Profile 4: Rong

4.1.4.1 Language Learning Background

Rong entered the TEFL program as soon as she graduated from university in Shangdong Province. She started to study English when she was in high school. She could remember at that time students like her were expected to internalize grammatical rules through practicing mechanical drills and translating unrelated sentences. Their English teacher spoke much Chinese in class, not only when doing the translation exercises but also when explaining grammar rules and meanings of sentences. She had "never been involved in any communicative activities."

In her undergraduate program, Rong studied English as her major. She took several courses. Similar to her high school experience, Rong's learning of English in those courses was traditional with the teachers being the center of the class. For example, in the Intensive Reading course students were expected to preview the text and look up new words in the dictionary before going to the class. In class, the teacher would ask them to read the text. Then she would explain the language points in detail and at the same time translate some sentences or phrases into Chinese. After going through the text, the teacher would ask the students to do comprehension and grammar exercises in the textbook. The teaching of Extensive Reading was somewhat different. Texts with a variety of writing styles were given to the students to read, for in-class or after-class reading. The purpose was to improve students' reading speed and to help them read extensively.

Rong noticed that her learning in the graduate program was totally different from what she had experienced before. She had more freedom in terms of selecting articles for

her presentations and choosing topics for her term papers. Because of this, Rong felt she had to read and study independently, though they had group projects such as presentations. It took Rong quite some time to get used to this kind of learning style. And she was still adjusting to the new experiences.

Like Jian, Rong had no teaching experience before entering graduate program. She was, at the time of the study, teaching a grammar class in the same night school as Shun's. Her learning of teaching skills, as Rong said, did not help much so she had to go to the reading room and look for materials which provided guidance for teaching grammar in a stimulating and communicative way.

Rong wrote 46 learning journal entries, among which 4 were about her reading of Chinese and 42 about her reading of English. She read Chinese for information and for pleasure. Her reading of English, on the other hand, was solely academic. All the 42 journal entries were about her reading assignments or academic materials she chose to read to broaden her view in the field of TESOL.

Table 4.8 English Reading Strategies Reported by Rong in Her Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency
Metacognitive Strategies		Making comments/evaluations	6
		Identifying reading problems	7
		Raising questions	9
		Being aware of strategy use	3
Cognitive Strategies	Content	Looking for specific information	5
		Invoking prior knowledge	11
	Structure	Attending to references	1
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Reading aloud	2
		Memorizing	3
		Rereading/reviewing	11
		Skipping	2
		Taking notes	2
		Switching languages	12
		Marking the text	1
		Using the dictionary	5
Social Strategies		Asking other people	2
		Discussing with other people/cooperating	1
Affective Strategies		Being interested/motivated	7
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration	3
Total			93

Table 4.9 Chinese Reading Strategies Reported by Rong in Her Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	1
		Making comments/evaluations	2
Cognitive	Content	Identifying main ideas	1
		Invoking prior knowledge	3
		Making summaries	2
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Reading aloud	1
		Rereading/reviewing	1
Affective Strategies		Being confident	1
		Being interested/motivated	2
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration	1
Total			15

As can be seen from Table 4.8 and Table 4.9, there were three major

characteristics of Rong's reading in Chinese and in English. First, her reports of reading

Chinese magazines, newspapers and novels were written in Chinese whereas her reports

of academic reading in English were almost all written in English. Second, 7 of her

journal entries talked about the strategies she employed to deal with the words she did not

know. The following are two excerpts from her learning logs.[15]

> When the author mentioned the word *domain*, I was a little confused and didn't
> have a clear idea of the word. I had thought it referred to the setting. After reading
> the following part, I got a better understanding. Then I looked it up in the
> dictionary. (Yuanwen (*Origin*): "Sociolinguistically, the distinction between
> classroom and naturalistic L2 learning can be viewed as one of the domain.")
> (May 4th)

> In the conclusion, one sentence stopped me from reading on. "If you feel that your
> data are amenable to precise interval scaling, you will, of course, opt for more
> powerful tests of the relationship among the variables." Wo du dao *for* jiu ting xia
> lai (*I stopped reading when I saw the word for*) because there were some "new"
> words. One was "amenable," which was really new to me. But I didn't stop
> reading and another word "permeable" appeared in my mind. The second word
> was "precise." It was the part of speech instead of the meaning which was new to
> me. I have never known that it can be used as a verb apart from an adjective. I
> went on reading and stopped at the word "for" because I didn't recognize "opt" on
> the first sight. I read this sentence again and still had no clear idea of it. I went on
> reading the second "if" sentence which I could understand completely. The
> understanding of the second sentence made me understand the first one better
> since there exists one relation of comparison between them. Moreover, I guessed
> the meaning of "amenable" was suitable. To check my guessing, I looked it up in
> the dictionary and found that although my guess was not 100% accurate, it did not
> hamper my understanding." (May 10th)

These two journal entries indicated that Rong used a variety of strategies to

understand the meanings of the words. However, as can be seen from the descriptions,

Rong might not always get the right answer. She did not realize that some of her guesses

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[15] Both learning logs were mainly in English in original, except "Yuanwen" in the first excerpt and "Wo du dao *for* jiu ting xia lai" in the second excerpt.
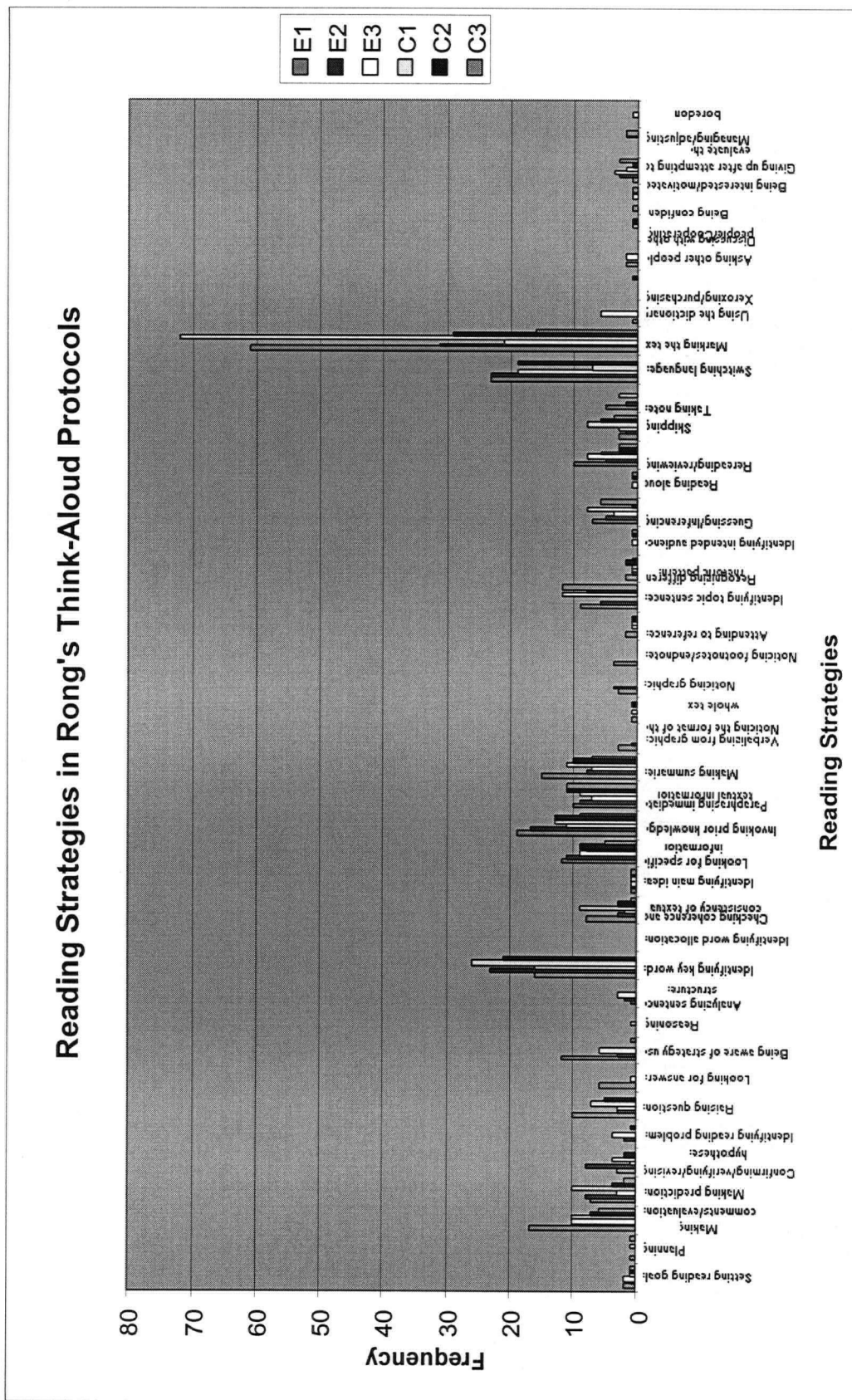
were wrong. For example, she took the word *precise* as a verb because it was after *to*. She did not know that *to* was a preposition.

The third characteristic of Rong's entries was that she tended to make comments on the materials she read, sometimes agreeing/disagreeing with the author, while at other times saying that she was interested or commenting on the content of the reading materials. For example, she mentioned, 6 times, that she was not interested in certain parts of an article and, therefore, she skipped it. When she saw something she was very interested in, on the other hand, she would read it very carefully, take note of it, or even photocopy the article.

4.1.4.2 Reading Style and Strategy Use

Rong believed that she was a good reader, not only using many strategies to construct the meaning of a text but also being accurate in her understanding. It was because of her confidence in her reading ability that, in many cases during the six think aloud tasks, she did not realize that her comprehension was incomplete or incorrect. Rong was consistent in the six reading tasks in that she read the texts very slowly, spending much time figuring out what certain words meant, making several attempts when having comprehension difficulties, moving backwards and forwards in the text, criticizing the content when she did not agree with the author, reacting to her feelings and monitoring her comprehension.

Figure 4.4 Reading Strategies in Rong's Think-Aloud Protocols

Reading Strategies in Rong's Think-Aloud Protocols

Rong spent altogether 261 minutes to complete all the reading tasks, 44 minutes for reading E1, 40 minutes for C1, 56 minutes for E2, 35 minutes for C2, 47 minutes for E3, and 41 minutes for C3. Moreover, a total of 1122 strategy uses were identified (Figure 4.4). In all reading tasks, she chose to use Chinese as the major language to report.

In the first task, she immediately set goals for her reading as she said, "I would like to see if there's anything similar to our program." Then she took a quick look at the subtitles before starting to read the first sentence. Rong made a total of 278 strategy uses with the most frequently used strategies being marking the text (61), switching languages (23), invoking prior knowledge (19), making comments (17), identifying key words (16), making summaries (15), being aware of strategy use (12), looking for specific information (12), paraphrasing (10), raising questions (10), and rereading (10).

A note should be made here about the highly used strategy of marking the text. According to Rong, there were two resources for highlighted information: those words and sentences she thought were important, and those she could not figure out. In the first case, when she wanted to read the text again, reading highlighted words and sentences would remind her of the textual information and consequently save time. In the second case, she would ask her classmates or the teachers.

In reading the Chinese article on learning strategies, Rong took a similar approach. There were 72 places which she marked. Among those she underlined, there were technical terms she wanted to remember e.g., *renzhi celue* (*cognitive strategies*), *kekong yinsu* (*controllable factor*), and *lilun mushi* (*theoretical models*). She said she would take note of some of the words she underlined and try to remember them. Apart from marking the text, the top 3 on the list of frequently used strategies were identifying key words (26),

invoking knowledge (13), and identifying topic sentences (12). It is interesting to note that the strategy of making comments, although not on the top of the list, was used 10 times. It was evident from her learning journals that Rong was a critical reader. This strategy, together with marking, was used consistently later in her reading of E2, C2, E3 and C3.

Making comments, in Rong's case, often went together with another strategy, i.e., being interested or motivated. Below are three examples, one from Rong's reading of E2, another from her reading of C2, and the third from her reading of E3:

Rong read (E2)	Rong said
#2. The data indicated that they have a problem which is related to use rather than to inadequate knowledge of word-meaning.	Zhe ge, bu tai keneng ba. Zhexie xuesheng dou shi xue Yingyu de. Zenme neng zhidao name duo ciyi? Ci de yisi he ci de yongfa dou you wenti cai dui. Buguo, ta zhe zhong shuofa dao ting you yisi de. *(This sounds impossible. These students were all learning English. How come they knew so many English words? They should have problems related to both word meanings and word use. However, this view is interesting.)*

Rong read (C2)	Rong said
#20. Tongguo diaocha yi qian duo ming zai Jianada xuexi Fayu de gaozhong sheng, tamen faxian zai qi nianji dao shiyi nianji de xuesheng zhong, ketang jiaolugan (classroom anxiety) yu xuesheng de kouyu shuiping cheng fu xiangguan. *(They investigated more than one thousand Canadian students studying French in secondary schools. Negative correlation was found between classroom anxiety and the oral proficiency of students from Grade 7 to Grade 11.)*	Kouyu shuiping cheng fu xiangguan. (#) Zhe ge guandian you dian mosheng. (#) Dan zixi xiang xiang, ye shi you daoli de. En, you qur. *(Negative correlation with the oral proficiency. (#) This point is strange to me. (#) But after a careful consideration, I think it's reasonable. Um, interesting.)*
Rong read (E3)	Rong said
((Subtitle)) TOTAL IMMERSION	((Underlines the word "immersion")) Wo dui "immersion" zhe ge gainian mei you renhe xingqu, shenzhi you dianr fan. *(((Underlines the word "immersion")) I don't have any interest in the concept of "immersion." I'm even a bit annoyed by it.)*

Rong's level of interest played an important role in her academic reading, as shown not only in her learning logs but also in her think-alouds. Generally speaking, Rong was less interested in the description of theories or tables than the discussion of teaching implications. This was why, in the 6 reading tasks, most of her skips occurred in the sections containing theoretical background or results.

4.1.4.3 Summary of Rong

Rong was a slow reader because she tended to read in a word-by-word manner. She liked to mark the text with different colored pens. This, according to Rong, would help her review and remember the major points in the text. Rong agreed with Guo in that

the use of L1 in reading a second language should be avoided as much as possible.
Moreover, data from her learning logs and think-aloud protocols indicated that interest
was a very important factor influencing how Rong read.

4.1.5 Profile 5: Shun

4.1.5.1 Language Learning Background

Shun was the oldest but the most experienced in terms of English teaching. She
graduated from a university in the Northeastern part of China and had taught English to
non-English majors at a college in Hebei Province for ten years before entering the TEFL
program.

In terms of Chinese, Shun could only remember her reading aloud sessions in the
morning, the memorization of famous poems and ornate diction, and the appreciation of
Chinese literary works, both classical and contemporary, in her classes at school. As far
as her studying English was concerned, all of the courses Shun took in her undergraduate
program were teacher-centered. Shun regretted that she had not studied hard at that time.
She did not learn much. Therefore, when she entered the program, she was exposed to
different kinds of teaching methodologies. She realized then how limited her teaching
approach was because her way of teaching was very similar to what she had experienced
in her undergraduate studies. Shun had mixed feelings towards teaching and learning. On
the one hand, she was used to the traditional approach because almost everything in class
was under control and the end results were predictable. On the other hand, Shun was
aware of the limitations of such an approach. She wanted to change and try different
kinds of methods. However, she was afraid of the process of changing from the stable
and the predicable to just the opposite, from the things she had been used to, to the new

things she had to adjust to. She felt she was willing to change but she was not sure if she was ready for a change. Sometimes she felt she had to change for the sake of her scores. Such mixed feelings were one of her frustrations in her studies.

Another frustration was being a slow reader. She spent almost all her leisure time doing her coursework but still, often, could not finish her reading assignments. Many of the assigned readings were theoretical. Even when she read papers related to teaching practice, she felt ten years' teaching experience and her practical knowledge did not seem to be very helpful because she lacked terms in the field. When asked what she felt about her studies in graduate program, Shun said, "Kewang waiyu neng you zhangjin. Ke du waiwen shu zong zhua bu dao zhongxin. Zhen fan. Du le jiu wang, gen fan. Qidai qiji chuxian, jiu bu fan le." (*I desired to make much improvement but I always cannot grasp the main ideas of books written in a foreign language. Really frustrated. I also forget what I've read. Even more frustrated. I'm waiting for a miracle. Then I won't feel frustrated any more.*)

Shun wrote 33 learning journal entries, 2 of which were about her reading of Chinese novels and prose, but both journals were written in English. Thirty-one of Shun's entries were about her reading of English and were written in English except for the first two. Shun usually read Chinese for pleasure, but English for her coursework and her teaching. As a part-time instructor at a night school, Shun taught grammar every Thursday night.

Table 4.10 English Reading Strategies Reported by Shun in Her Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	5
		Making comments/evaluations	6
		Identifying reading problems	7
		Raising questions	9
		Being aware of strategy use	3
Cognitive Strategies	Content	Looking for specific information	5
		Invoking prior knowledge	11
	Structure	Attending to references	1
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Reading aloud	2
		Memorizing	3
		Rereading/reviewing	11
		Skipping	2
		Taking notes	2
		Switching languages	12
		Marking the text	1
		Using the dictionary	5
Social Strategies		Asking other people	2
		Discussing with other people/cooperating	1
Affective Strategies		Being interested/motivated	1
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration	3
Total			92

Table 4.11 Chinese Reading Strategies Reported by Shun in Her Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	1
		Making comments/evaluations	2
Cognitive	Content	Identifying main ideas	1
		Invoking prior knowledge	3
		Making summaries	2
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Reading aloud	1
		Rereading/reviewing	1
Affective Strategies		Being confident	1
		Being interested/motivated	2
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration	1
Total			15

In her learning logs, Shun reported having difficulties understanding some of the reading assignments. So she read the materials again and again several times, first in a word by word manner. When she encountered unknown words, she usually underlined them. If she thought the word was important to her understanding of the article, she would look it up in the dictionary and write the meaning, usually in Chinese, next to it. Often, she would take note of important words, expressions or sentences she thought might be helpful in her other academic tasks such as presentations or writing.

As to the presentations, she spent most of her time trying to figure out the meanings of unfamiliar words, mostly by looking them up in the dictionary, to understand each sentence, to form an outline according to subtitles, to write a draft for her presentation with details including transition words, and finally to memorize and to rehearse the presentation process. She told me that she was aware of her limited English, especially her spoken English. She wanted to look good in her presentation so that she could get a good grade. However, she found that sometimes the results were not good. For example, in the last group presentation in the Methodology course, she had spent much more time on her part than expected. As a result, her partners had to cut their parts short so that their group presentation would not run over time.

Shun was the only one of the five participants who showed concerns about her grade in her journals. As she said:
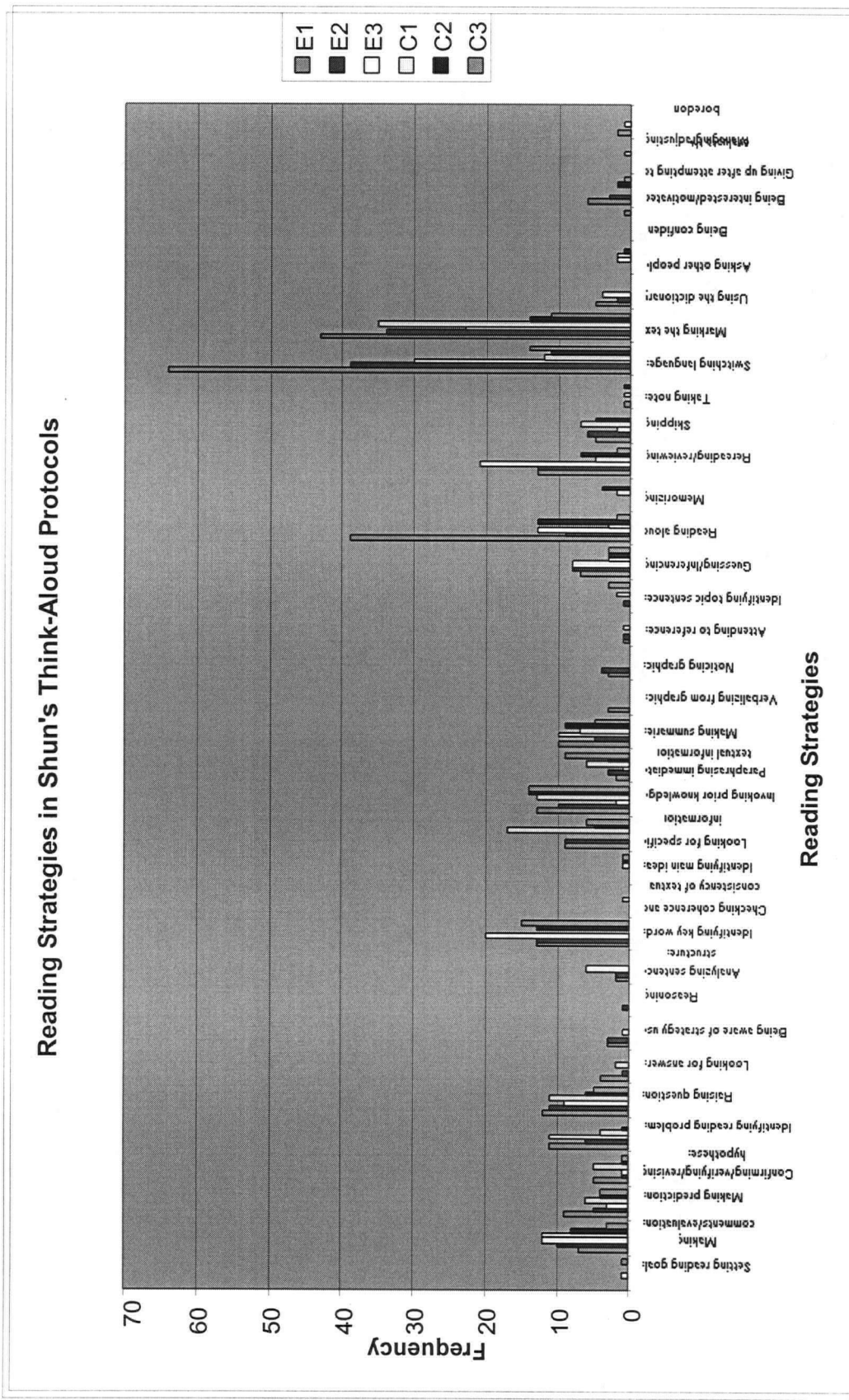
> Du de dongxi jinguan tai lilunhua, bu hao dong, dan wo bu gan bu kan. Youshi dei kan de hen zixi. Zhe yang yi lai, ketang taolun canjia de duo, jiu hui ba fen tigao. (*I dare not not to read, although the material was very theoretical and it was difficult to understand. Sometimes I have to read very carefully so that I can participate more in the classroom. By doing so I can improve my score.*)

Shun read English mainly for her coursework and her teaching, whereas she read Chinese mainly for pleasure. She read Chinese novels and prose once in a while. The purpose was to relax and appreciate the writing style.

4.1.5.2 Reading Style and Strategy Use

Shun required 290 minutes (i.e., nearly 5 hours) to finish the 6 reading tasks. Her reading process tended to be mainly bottom up. In other words, she read the text word by word and sentence by sentence. This tendency was evident when she read and responded to long and complicated sentences.

Figure 4.5 Reading Strategies in Shun's Think-Aloud Protocols

Reading Strategies in Shun's Think-Aloud Protocols

Legend: E1, E2, E3, C1, C2, C3

117

When reading the first English passage, Shun made a total of 292 strategy uses

trying to understand the text (Figure 4.5). Six times, Shun reported having reading

difficulties, 2 with the words, and 4 with sentences. She tried various kinds of strategies,

among which were (1) making a guess and confirming her guess from the text that

followed, (2) ignoring and going on reading, (3) rereading, (4) marking the

word/sentence with a question mark, (5) tonsulting others, and (6) using the dictionary.

Take the word *practicum* for example. This word first appeared in the title. Unlike Jian,

who immediately made a guess and was sure that her guess was correct, Shun first

ignored it. But when she encountered the word for the second time, she thought it was a

key word and then tried to guess its meaning. She said,

> Ranhou shi setting, rahuo shi practicum students. ((Looks back and finds the word "practicum" in the title)) Ta zhe ge gen wo zhe xueqi xue de Action Research you dianr xiangsi. Keneng shi curriculum design shenmen de. (##) Bu zhi dao ." (*Then setting. And then practicum students. (((Looks back and finds the word "practicum" in the title)) It's like Action Research which I'm learning this semester. Maybe it's curriculum design or something like that. (##) I don't know.*)

She made a guess but she was not sure if she was right or not. She went on

reading five more sentences until she saw the word again. She then said:

> ((Reads aloud the phrase "had the practicum waived")) Oh, wo jue de zhe ge practicum you dianr xiang research de yisi, xiang practice side." *(((Reads aloud the phrase "had the practicum waived")) Oh, I think this practicum is a bit like research. It's like practice.)*

Shun made 2 more guesses and then decided this word meant practice.

The above was one example of several in this reading task which showed that

Shun tried different strategies to help her understand. The most frequently used strategies

were switching languages (64), marking the text (43), reading aloud (39), rereading (13),

identifying key words (13), invoking prior knowledge (13), raising questions (12),

identifying reading problems (11), and making summaries (10). However, many of the strategies were not effective. As a result, her comprehension was incomplete and sometimes incorrect. For instance, she liked to make summaries, instead of paraphrases. However, her summaries tended to consist of the key words or words she thought were important. Her summaries tended to be brief containing mainly the key words she picked out from sentences. She did not realize that two out of the ten summaries she made were incorrect. When she found the information was important but she did not understand, she tried hard to construct the meaning. In other words, when she found one strategy was not working, she immediately turned to another or made a third attempt. Such persistence may have contributed to the fact that Shun made more reading moves than the other four participants.

Apart from the ineffective use of strategies, there were two salient points regarding Shun's reading of this text. One was her use of mixed languages and the other was her reading habits. The amount of Chinese used by Shun was considerably more than Xin, Jian and Guo on the same task. Although she was reading an English text, Shun preferred to respond in Chinese as she told me later that she was not confident in her English ability. Moreover, responding in English limited her thinking and slowed down her reading speed. She did use many English words in her think-alouds, but over 98 percent of these words were just the key words in the text.

Shun liked to use her right index finger to point to the words or sentences she was reading, which to a large extent slowed down her reading speed. Marking the text and sometimes using the dictionary made it even worse. Shun was aware of her slow speed

but she said she could not do anything about is because the more anxious she became as she tried to speed up, the more likely she would lose the track of the ideas.

Shun was slow not only in English reading but also in Chinese reading. It took her 53 minutes to finish reading the Chinese article on learning strategies (C1). And she used the same text-pointing approach. However, Shun was more relaxed while reading C1 and her comprehension was more complete and deeper. Altogether, she used reading strategies 159 times. The most frequently used strategies included marking the text (35), looking for specific information (17), invoking prior knowledge (13), making comments (12), switching languages (12), and raising questions (11). Compared to reading E1, Shun used less code-switching in reading C1. The reason may be that Shun was using Chinese to think in both reading tasks.

Shun attended to specific information. She did not like tables or any other graphics. For example, in E1 there were three quotations presented in a picture of a blackboard. The three sentences were from the three case studies. She read aloud the graphics but did not make any associations with the case studies. Later, when she was asked what the graphics were about, she said, "I just read them aloud but I don't know why they are there. I don't even remember what they were about." It was the same case in reading C1. Shun ignored both graphics in the text including a chart and a table.

In this task, Shun reported having difficulties understanding the section of the introduction to the theoretical framework, not only the ideas but also the technical terms. For example, after reading the description of the framework of English learning strategies, she said, "Wo ji de shang xueqi xueguo leisi de. Dan mei xue hao, hai shi ji bu zhu." (*I remember I have learned something similar last semester but I didn't learn it well. I still*

can't remember anything.) The previous example was only one of 13 cases in which Shun made associations between textual information and her prior knowledge. She made many associations in her reading but she said "I've learned or read this before." She did not say how relevant the textual information was to her prior knowledge. This tendency of making incomplete associations was evident in all six reading tasks, no matter whether the language of the text was English or Chinese.

Shun made a total of 200 strategy uses in reading the text on vocabulary teaching (E2), with the most frequently used ones being switching languages (39), marking the text (34), identifying key words (13), rereading/reviewing (13), raising questions (11), making comments (10), and invoking prior knowledge (10). Her processing of E2 was similar to that of E1 except that she paid attention to some of the names in the text.

Before reading E2, Shun did not seem to have any goal for her reading. She paid no attention to the title. Therefore, she probably did not have any idea of what the passage was about. She started with the abstract but she did not realize that it was an abstract until she began to read the next paragraph entitled INTRODUCTION. So she decided to start all over again. After reading the abstract for a second time, she said that this article was interesting and she might choose it for her term paper.[16]

This task was the only one in which Shun attended to the references in the article. Here is how she responded to the sentence with the reference she was interested in.

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[16] The term paper for Statistics course was to write a critique of a research paper.

Shun read	Shun said
# 5. In a state-of-the-art article McCarthy (1990) made the observation that, in recent years, vocabulary teaching has come into its own again in ELT.	(#) ((Speaks in a low voice)) state-of-the-art article McCarthy (#) Zhe ge McCarthy wo du guo ta de wenzhang. ((Looks at the last page 58)) Ji zhu zhe ge ((Marks McCarthy in References.)) ((Goes back to page 52)) (##) Ta made the observation (#) in recent years (#) vocabulary teaching (##) its own again in ELT. *((#) ((Speaks in a low voice)) state-of-the-art article McCarthy (#) This McCarthy I've read his article before. ((Looks at the last page 58)) Remember this ((Marks McCarthy in References.)) ((Goes back to page 52)) (##) He made the observation (#) in recent years (#) vocabulary teaching (##) its own again in ELT.)*

In the subsequent interview, the researcher asked Shun why she wanted to mark the reference. She said, "Laoshi mei jiang guo. Shi wo ziji shouji le yixie vocabulary de wenzhang, xiang fabiao. Qizhong jiu you McCarthy." (*The teachers didn't talk about him. I collected some articles on vocabulary. I wanted to publish something. Among these articles, there was one by McCarthy.*)

In this reading task, Shun made 6 skips including 4 tables and 2 sentences in the results section. The reasons were (1) the tables were difficult to understand and (2) the explanations of the results were confusing.

Lacking interest in tables was also evident in her reading of the Chinese article on anxiety (C2), which was also a quantitative study. When she was asked what the most difficult part was in the text, Shun said, "Shouxian shi lilun bufen, qici shi jieguo bufen. Lilun bufen yuyan nan, jieguo bufen shuju fenxi tailuan. Jieguo bufen shuju fenxi tailuan." (*First the theory part and then the results section. The language in the theory*

part is difficult. The analysis of data in the results section is confusing.) When she

noticed that, after several attempts, she still could not understand, she marked the text and

later asked her classmates or the teachers.

Shun marked the text not only for the purpose of later consultation but also for

note-keeping. She had a notebook which contained words, phrases and even sentences

she thought were important. While reading C2, Shun marked all the terms which had

English equivalents in brackets, the definition of *anxiety* as well as two sentences in the

conclusion section. In one case while she was marking, Shun said she would have taken

note of the terms if she had not been involved in the think-aloud task.

It took Shun 45 minutes to finish reading the last English passage on culture (E3).

The total number of strategy uses, as revealed in the think-aloud data, was 181. This was

the article she reported having the most reading problems with. As soon as she saw the

title "Culture and Foreign Language Teaching," she predicted that it was going to talk

about some aspects of a culture such as holidays and customs to teach in a foreign

language setting. However, after she took a quick look at the subtitles, she realized that

her prediction was wrong, as the following excerpt illustrates:

Shun read	Shun said
#1. This essay considers various approaches to the teaching of culture in connection with foreign language (FL) teaching with a view to making a realistic suggestion as to how to integrate the language and culture elements.	This essay (#) various approaches (#) teaching of culture (#) in connection with foreign language teaching (#) with a (#) make a realistic suggestion (#) integrate the language and culture elements. ((Rereads the sentence)) (##) Oh, various approaches to teaching. ((Marks the phrase)) Wo hai yiwei shi jiang yixie fengsu xiguan ne. *(This essay (#) various approaches (#) teaching of culture (#) in connection with foreign language teaching (#) with a (#) make a realistic suggestion (#) integrate the language and culture elements. ((Rereads the sentence)) (##) Oh, various approaches to teaching. ((Marks the phrase)) I thought it is going to talk about customs and habits.)*

As usual, Shun tried to read the text word by word and sentence by sentence. However, there were longer and more complicated sentences in this article than in all the other five passages. Reading in a word by word manner did not seem to help much in her understanding. As a result, she simply read aloud most of the words in a sentence with few paraphrases or summaries. There were four sentences which she marked and reread 3 times. She noticed there were many unknown words. Shun told the researcher that 19 out of the 45 words and expressions that she marked were unfamiliar, She said she would look them up in the dictionary later.

The last Chinese passage (C3) was also on culture and language teaching. However, she had almost no difficulty understanding the Chinese article. She made 101 strategy uses, 15 of which were identifying key words, 14 invoking prior knowledge, and 14 switching languages. Shun felt her Chinese was much better than her English, which

was true in her reading of C3. As can be seen from her think-alouds, her paraphrase and summaries were concrete and accurate. Moreover, she took note of the English words in the text, not for consultation with others but for remembering and memorizing. It was the same case when she read aloud the direct quotation of Rivers, "Yuyan bun neng yu wenhua wanquan fen kai lai. Yinwei ta shen shen de za gen yu wenhua zhong." (*Language and culture cannot be separated completely because the former is deeply rooted in culture.*)

4.1.5.3 Summary of Shun

Although she had taught English before entering graduate program, Shun was not confident about her teaching or about her learning. She was used to the traditional learning approach. As a result she had a difficult time adjusting to the new learning approach, which aimed at fostering interactive and cooperative learning skills as well as independent research capabilities. In addition, the length of time Shun spent on all the 6 think-aloud tasks was the longest of any of the participants. There may be two reasons for this. One is that although she used a variety of strategies in reading, many of them resulted in incorrect or incomplete comprehension. The other reason was that Shun liked to finger-point and mark the text while reading. Shun relied heavily on her world knowledge and Chinese in comprehending English texts, as can be seen from the high frequency of the two strategies, i.e., invoking prior knowledge and switching languages. Another interesting note is that, among the five participants, Shun was the highest in frequency using the dictionary and memorizing the information she thought useful.

4.2 Summary

The data in this study have shown that the participants used similar reading strategies while they were reading English and Chinese passages, although the frequency of each strategy varied. Presented below is a classification of the reading strategies identified based on the data including think-aloud protocols and learning logs. This list is a revised version of the original list proposed according to the literature (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.12 Academic Reading Strategies Used by Participants

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals
		Planning
		Making comments/evaluations
		Making predictions
		Confirming/verifying/revising hypotheses
		Identifying reading problems
		Raising questions
		Looking for answers
		Being aware of strategy use
		Reasoning
Cognitive Strategies	Language	Analyzing sentence structures
		Analyzing word formation
		Identifying key words
		Identifying word collocations
	Content	Checking coherence and consistency of textual information
		Identifying main ideas
		Looking for specific information
		Invoking prior knowledge
		Paraphrasing immediate textual information
		Making summaries
		Verbalizing from graphics
	Structure	Noticing the format of the whole text
		Noticing graphics
		Noticing footnotes/endnotes
		Attending to references
		Identifying topic sentences
		Recognizing different rhetoric patterns
		Identifying intended audience

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Guessing/Inferencing
		Reading aloud
		Memorizing
		Rereading/reviewing
		Skipping
		Taking notes
		Switching languages
		Marking the text
		Using the dictionary
		Photocopying/purchasing
Social Strategies		Asking other people
		Discussing with other people/cooperating
		Using other resources such as books and internet
Affective Strategies		Being confident
		Being interested/motivated
		Giving up after attempting to evaluate the suitability/correctness of the textual information and accepting it
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration

The descriptions of the participants' language learning background, their current status in graduate program, and their reading performance in the think-aloud tasks suggest that these bilingual readers (1) did not read at the same speed, even when reading the same passage; (2) used various kinds of strategies that matched their reading goals and performance, their L1 and L2 learning background, and the particular reading tasks; (3) did not use same number or same type of strategies across tasks; (4) employed some of the same strategies across tasks, but combined differently; (5) used some strategies which might or might not be effective in helping them construct meanings from the text; (6) used some strategies which could not be revealed in the think-aloud tasks; (7) might use more strategies than could be identified in real life reading; and (8) were still developing new ways to deal with academic articles. The next chapter will discuss, in detail, these findings as well as the rationale behind them.

CHAPTER 5 - SOCIO-COGNITIVE DISCUSSION TOWARDS A MORE UNIFIED VIEW OF ACADEMIC READING STRATEGIES

5.0 Overview

The in-depth case studies presented in Chapter 4 provide a window on understanding proficient L2 readers' complex reading processes. From a socio-cognitive perspective, this chapter presents a discussion about the themes emerging from the investigations undertaken for this study. This chapter consists of two parts. The first part summarizes the reading strategies the participants used. It intends to answer the first research question: What strategies do Chinese EFL learners use to read Chinese and English texts, respectively, for academic purposes? The second part of this chapter focuses on the themes emerging from the analysis of the reading strategies used by the participants. It intends to address the second research question: To what extent are students' Chinese reading strategies similar to or different from their English reading strategies and what factors account for these similarities or differences?

5.1 Academic Reading Strategies: Cross-Case Analysis and Summary

This section summarizes the major findings across the five case studies. A close look at these five participants' backgrounds reveals an interesting combination of personal characteristics and provides insights into the profile of Chinese readers of English. First, all of the participants had a similar length of Chinese learning experience in a formal classroom setting. That is to say, their formal study of Chinese occurred from Grade 1 to Grade 12. Only Jian studied Modern Chinese for one year. It is the same case with their English learning experience. The participants stated that they had learned English for about 10 years before entering graduate program, 6 years in secondary

schools and 4 years in undergraduate programs. Three of the participants studied French as a second foreign language when they were undergraduate students. Jian's second foreign language was Japanese and Guo's were German and Japanese.

Second, four of the participants said they read few Chinese academic articles in their graduate program. One possible reason was that the teachers seldom gave out Chinese articles as reading assignments. Although Chinese articles were occasionally cited as references, they were never used for classroom discussion. Xin was an exception. She was very motivated to look for Chinese articles related to phonological awareness because she intended to do her research on this topic. Among the five participants, Xin was the only one who had a clear idea of what she was going to do in terms of her research. It might be because of this that she tended to use the strategy of setting reading goals more frequently than the other four participants.

Third, all participants were teaching English as part-time jobs, although their previous teaching experiences ranged from no experience to ten years. One of the benefits, according to them, was that they could apply what they had learned in class to their teaching. Fourth, all of them had a fairly clear understanding of their own strategy use and talked about it with clarity and ease. Finally, all of the participants used mixed languages in their think-alouds. They tended to speak more English in reading English passages than in reading Chinese passages. Moreover, the English they used in their reading of English texts usually consisted of the academic terminology in the text they were reading. The academic terms in the Chinese articles, on the other hand, were usually translated into English.

Table 5.1 Reading Strategies Used by Participants in the Six Think-Aloud Tasks

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	E1					E2					E3					Sub-total	C1					C2					C3					Sub-total	Total (both)
			X	J	G	R	S	X	J	G	R	S	X	J	G	R	S		X	J	G	R	S	X	J	G	R	S	X	J	G	R	S		
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	2		2	2		3		1			4		1		1	20	1	1	1		1	2	2	1	1	1			1	1	1	11	31
		Planning	2			1		1			1			1	1			6	1	1	1		1	1		1						1		5	11
		Making comments/evaluations	13		3	17	7	16	5	3	9	10	19	3	7	9	10	140	7	10	3	3	10	8	8	4	7	12	10	9	5	8	3	111	251
		Making predictions	5	2	8	7	9	4	3	2	8	5	6	4	4	6	5	73	6	4	6	10	6	6	3	3	4	4	8	29	5	2	4	105	178
		Confirming/verifying/revis-ing hypotheses	7	1		3	5	5	1		8	1	5		4	5		46	5	1	4	4	4	3	1	1	2	5	5	12	1		1	45	91
		Identifying reading problems	6		6		11	5	3		4	6	4	6	5	2	11	73	1	4				3	4	4	1	1	3			1	1	21	94
		Raising questions	6		5	10	12	9			3	11	6	6	11	3	9	98	3	6	1		7	2	2	2	5	11	2	2	3		5	58	156
		Looking for answers	2		2	6	4	5					4	4	2	1		31	1					2	2			2	1					6	37
		Being aware of strategy use		2	9	12	3	1	1	7	3	3	1	1	5	6	6	54	3	3	2	2	1			1			1		1			9	63
Cognitive Strategies	Language	Reasoning	6		1			3			1	1	5	1	1	1	1	20	5		1			5					2					13	33
		Analyzing sentence structures	2		1	1	2	1			2	2	2		5	3	6	27	2	3	2			1					1					9	36
		Analyzing word formation	1					2	1				2					6						1					2					3	9
		Identifying key words	17	16	20	16	13	23	23		23	13	12	6	19	16	20	246	14	20	22	26	26	26	6	23	21	13	16				15	202	448
		Identifying word collocations								1								1																	1
	Content	Checking coherence and consistency of textual information	4			8		2	4		1		2	2	2	3	2	28	1			9				2	3		1		2	1		20	48
		Identifying main ideas	2	1		1		2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	14	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	18	32
		Looking for specific information	5	5	9	12	9	4	3	3	11	9	3	9	2	9	3	81	1	6	6	8	17	2	8	6	9	5	5	3	2	5	6	89	170
		Invoking prior knowledge	20	7	7	19	13	14	9	13	17	10	21	13	8	11	2	184	8	17	11	13	13	10	12	9	13	14	9	35	12	9	14	199	383
		Paraphrasing immediate textual information	4	43	2	10	2	5	15	5	9	3	4	53	8	7	1	171	2	9	6	9	6	2	28	11	11	3	3	11	7	11	9	128	299
		Making summaries	16	16	8	15	10	10	10	9	8	5	12	12	7	7	10	155	21	21	7	11	7	11	11	7	4	10	6	6	11	7	5	147	302
		Verbalizing from graphics	1			3	3	3	2		1			1			1	14	2	4	2			3						1				11	25
	Structure	Noticing the format of the whole text	1	2	2	1		1	1	2	1			1	1	1	1	14	1	3	2		1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1		1	13	27
		Noticing graphics	3			3	3	4	3	1	3	4	1	1	1		1	27	2	3	2			3	3	3								16	43
		Noticing footnotes/endnotes				4												4																	4
		Attending to references	1			2	1	1				1	1	1	2		2	12	1			1	1	2			1	1		2				8	20
		Identifying topic sentences	10			9		7		6	6	1	9	19	6	6	10	73	7	11	6	12	2	7	7	5	8	2	12			12	3	92	165

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	E1 X	E1 J	E1 G	E1 R	E1 S	E2 X	E2 J	E2 G	E2 R	E2 S	E3 X	E3 J	E3 G	E3 R	E3 S	Sub-total	C1 X	C1 J	C1 G	C1 R	C1 S	C2 X	C2 J	C2 G	C2 R	C2 S	C3 X	C3 J	C3 G	C3 R	C3 S	Sub-total	Sub-total (both)	Total (both)
		Recognizing different rhetoric patterns				2						1	1			1		5	1	1			1						1			1			7	12
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Identifying intended audience	1							1	1		1	1	1	1	1	6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			1	1				9	15
		Guessing/inferencing	4	3	5	7	8	4	4	5	5	8	7	6	6	4	8	82	3	4	5	8	3	2	10		1	3	2	2	2	6	3	52	134
		Reading aloud	2		2	3	39	3	3	2	2	9	4	4	1	1	9	79	3	3	4	4	3		5		1	3	4			1	1	36	115
		Memorizing	1						2				1				1	4					2	2	2			2					4	8	12
		Rereading/reviewing	3	6	13	10	13	4	8	9	9	13	3	17	21	8	21	154	2	7	9	6	5	1	4	2	3	5	1	8	2	3	2	62	216
		Skipping	5	7	7	3	5	6	5	13	2	6	5	4	4	3	9	75	3	2	10	8	7		8	7	6	7	1	9	5	4	5	75	150
		Taking notes	2		5	5		3			2		1			1	1	15	3			3		3					1	1				8	23
		Switching languages	39	43	37	23	64	68	26	37	23	39	40	63	23	19	30	551	33	13	9	7	12	26	26	11	19	11	47	19	16		14	263	814
		Marking the text	24	24		61	43	9	9	31		34	8	8	17	21	23	312	6	6		72	35	2	2	2	29	14				16	11	193	505
		Using the dictionary				1			5			2			2	6	4	23						1					1						23
		Photocopying/purchasing		1				1						1	1		1	3						1										2	5
Social Strategies		Asking other people	1			2		3			2	2		1		2	2	13	1		2		2	2	2				1					10	23
		Discussing with other people/cooperating	1					2		2				2				7			2	2	1	1					3	3			1	12	19
		Using other resources such as books and internet	1					3						1	1			6						3							1	1		4	10
Affective Strategies		Being confident	1	1		1			1				1					4	1		1	1	1	1			1	1		1	1	1	1	8	12
		Being interested/motivated	1	1		1		5	1			3				4		28	2	2	1	2		3	1		2		3		2	3		22	50
		Giving up after attempting to evaluate the suitability/correctness of the textual information and accepting it.	1						1	1			1		1		1	3						1			2	1	1	1	2	2		8	11
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration	1	1		2				3		2	1	2	3	1	1	15		2	2			1		1			1	1				6	21
Total			224	178	140	278	292	247	142	149	191	200	203	265	153	160	181	3003	148	164	131	232	159	158	153	103	166	126	155	154	79	95	101	2124	5127

Note: E1: English text: qualitative   C1: Chinese text: qualitative
        E2: English text: quantitative   C2: Chinese text: quantitative
        E3: English text: literature review   C3: Chinese text: literature review

X: Xin   J: Jian   G: Guo   R: Rong   S: Shun

Table 5.2 Reading Strategies Reported by Participants in Their Learning Logs

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	English Articles						Chinese Articles						Total
			X	J	G	R	S	Sub-total	X	J	G	R	S	Sub-total	
Metacognitive Strategies		Setting reading goals	7	3	6		5	21	8	3	1	1	1	14	35
		Planning	2	2	2			6	4					4	10
		Making comments/evaluations	10	3	9	6	6	34	6	4	2	2	2	16	50
		Making predictions	3					3	1					1	4
		Confirming/verifying/revising hypotheses	1					1	1					1	2
		Identifying reading problems	2	15	5	7	7	36	6					6	42
		Raising questions	17		3	9	9	38	11					11	49
		Being aware of strategy use	2	1	17	3	3	26	3					3	29
		Reasoning			3			3	1					1	4
Cognitive	Language	Analyzing sentence structures	1					1	1					1	2
		Identifying key words			3			3							3
	Content	Checking coherence and consistency of textual information			3			3							3
		Identifying main ideas	3	11	6			20	4	2		1	1	8	28
		Looking for specific information	4	2	2	5	5	18	4					4	22
		Invoking prior knowledge	13	6	7	11	11	48	10	1	1	3	3	18	66
		Making summaries	12	2	2			16	13			2	2	17	33
		Verbalizing from graphics	1					1							1
	Structure	Noticing the format of the whole text	1		2			3	1					1	4
		Noticing graphics	1	1				2	3					3	5
		Attending to references	3			1	1	5	1					1	6
		Recognizing different rhetoric patterns	2					2	1					1	3

132

Categories	Sub-Categories	Types	Frequency English Articles						Chinese Articles						Total
			X	J	G	R	S	Sub-total	X	J	G	R	S	Sub-total	
	Others, i.e., study strategies that apply to the 3 levels	Identifying intended audience	1		2			3	1					1	4
		Guessing/Inferencing						0	4					4	4
		Reading aloud	1		3	2	2	8	1		1	1	1	4	12
		Memorizing			3	3	3	9						0	9
		Rereading/reviewing	3	3	2	11	11	30	3			1	1	5	35
		Skipping	2	3	4	2	2	13	1					1	14
		Taking notes	5		1	2	2	10	1					1	11
		Switching languages	17	52		12	12	93	21					21	114
		Marking the text			2	1	1	4						0	4
		Using the dictionary	3			5	5	13						0	13
		Photocopying/purchasing	2	4				6						0	6
Social Strategies		Asking other people	2	1		2	2	7	1					1	8
		Discussing with other people/cooperating	1	1		1	1	4						0	4
Affective Strategies		Being confident			1			1	2					2	3
		Being interested/motivated	8	3	3	7	1	22	8	2	2	2	2	16	38
		Giving up after attempting to evaluate the suitability/correctness of the textual information and accepting it.		3				3						0	3
		Managing/adjusting boredom/stress/frustration	3	10	4	3	3	23	2			1	1	4	27
Total			133	126	95	93	92	539	122	12	7	15	15	171	710

Note:

X: Xin   J: Jian   G: Guo   R: Rong   S: Shun

Another useful way to compare and analyze strategy use across cases is to look at the think-aloud protocols and the learning logs, which were the two major data collection techniques in this study.

Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 present the reading strategies, as identified from participants' think-aloud protocols and learning logs. Table 5.1 is a summary of the reading strategies as revealed from the think-aloud protocols. It is organized by language (i.e., English and Chinese) and by task (i.e., the reading of six passages), and provides data in relation to the frequency of strategy use. Table 5.2 is a summary of the strategy uses as reported in the participants' learning logs. It is organized in relation to their reading of English and Chinese.

Five themes emerge from data analysis. The following section presents an integrated discussion of the themes.

5.1.1 Similarities between L1 and L2 Reading

The results affirm those of previous studies that L1 and L2 reading processes share similar general characteristics (e.g., Grabe, 2002; Li & Munby, 1996; Tang, 1997). First, L1 and L2 reading are both an individual process and a social process. As can be seen from both Table 5.1 and Table 5.2, while processing English and Chinese academic texts, all of the participants used similar reading strategies, which can be classified into four categories: metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies. This indicates that various factors both at the individual level and at the social level work as a whole to influence L1 and L2 reading.

Moreover, data show that L1 and L2 reading are both purposeful and strategic. A reader's purpose as one of the most powerful forces on reading often determines what is

to be read and how it will be read. Due to the nature of the think-aloud tasks, the participants did not seem to have pre-set goals before they started to read the text. However, they gradually developed reading goals, i.e., reading (1) to enlarge their vocabularies, (2) to gain knowledge related to their coursework or to their teaching, and (3) gather information for later publication. Xin's case was a bit different. She had already set her purpose before reading. This was because she wanted to write her research proposal on phonological awareness. Therefore, in the six think-aloud tasks, Xin tended to look for information useful for her research. Her learning logs also indicated that she searched purposefully for academic articles pertaining to her research interests, either in English or in Chinese.

Apart from reading purposefully, the data also indicated that the participants read Chinese and English in a strategic way. They used a variety of strategies to process the texts such as questioning, making predictions, identifying key words, using prior knowledge, and marking the text. Some processed the same information using more than one strategy. They also used different strategies when comprehension problems occurred.

A note should be made here that similar reading strategies identified in English and Chinese reading in this study indicated a transfer of strategies between L1 and L2 reading. Such transfer was very complex. Participants had a repertoire of reading strategies that they could use for reading English and Chinese. However, the use of certain strategies and the transfer of L1 and L2 reading strategies depended on many factors. To be more specific, there were four basic features of the transfer of academic reading strategies. First, such transfer took place at four levels: metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective. Second, such transfer was two-way, i.e., from English reading to

Chinese reading and vice versa. Third, it was not stable. It changed according to the nature of the reading task, the reading texts, the participants' English and Chinese learning/reading experiences, their language and reading ability, and individual preferences. That is to say, the transfer of reading strategies might occur in one case but not in the other. Finally, the transfer of reading strategies did not necessarily facilitate comprehension.

5.1.2 Differences between L1 and L2 Reading

Despite the fact that the participants used similar types of reading strategies while processing English and Chinese academic texts, they did not use all the identified strategies in all the think-aloud tasks. In addition, the frequency of strategy use varied across languages and across tasks. This indicated that some reading strategies might be language-specific. Using the dictionary is one example. None of the participants said they would use the dictionary while reading Chinese. This does not mean that the participants did not have reading problems while reading Chinese academic articles. Major problems they reported were difficult concepts and terms in the field of TESOL. Since they were in the graduate TEFL program, most concepts were borrowed from English and translated into Chinese. As a result, when reading Chinese articles on TESOL, the participants had a difficult time understanding the specific terms and ideas, although they could recognize all the characters used in the articles.

There are three possible explanations for not using the dictionary in reading Chinese. First, the participants' Chinese reading ability was much higher than their ability to read English, although they were considered to be advanced readers of English, as shown from the results of the reading tests presented earlier in Chapter 3. A few unknown

words in the Chinese texts, according to them, would not hinder their understating and interpretation of the whole text. Second, their previous English learning experience made it natural for them to turn to the dictionary when they encountered unknown vocabulary. However, they did not regularly use the dictionary while reading Chinese, let alone reading Chinese academic articles. Besides, instructors seldom gave their students Chinese articles. Third, no dictionary has been compiled so far which explains TESOL terminology. Even if the participants wanted to look some terms up in Chinese dictionaries, they would not be able to find the explanations they wanted.

5.1.3 Most Frequently Used Reading Strategies

As can be seen in Table 5.1, the five most frequently used reading strategies were code-switching (814), marking the text (505), identifying key words (448), invoking prior knowledge (383), and making summaries (302).

Among the 814 instances where participants used mixed languages, 551 took place when the participants read English texts and 263 Chinese. The general tendency was that the participants used more Chinese than English in all the six think-aloud tasks. Moreover, there was more use of English in reading English than in reading Chinese. Code-switching or using mixed languages in this study took three major forms. The first form was direct translation of the words, phrases, sentences or paragraphs in the reading texts. In this study, the translation from English into Chinese occurred at the word, sentence, and text levels whereas the translation from Chinese into English occurred only at the lexical level. The second form was summarizing the ideas in the text. The summaries of the ideas in reading English texts usually consisted of the key words (in English) the participants identified and other words (in Chinese) which made the

summaries coherent. The third form of code-switching was making associations with the information outside the text. This form included large chunks of Chinese. It could be a possible explanation for the frequent use of the strategy of invoking prior knowledge.

There were two major functions of using mixed languages. Switching languages was a way of releasing cognitive anxiety since participants were free to choose whichever language they felt comfortable in for the think-aloud tasks. Moreover, it was a resource for clarifying, constructing meaning from the text or expressing pertaining ideas.

The strategies of marking the text, identifying key words, and making summaries were high in frequency in total. They were almost equally high in frequency in English reading and in Chinese reading. The main purposes of using these strategies, according to participants, were to help them quickly review the gist of the article and locate important/unknown information.

5.1.4 Social and Affective Reading Strategies

The reason why a separate section is included to discuss the social and affective reading strategies as identified in this study is that these strategies cannot be analyzed only in relation to their frequencies. For example, the strategies of being interested and being confident are more related to the whole reading process than to just the frequency of strategy use. Moreover, due to the nature of the think-aloud tasks, social strategies such as asking other people, using other resources and so on could not be identified unless the participants mentioned them explicitly.

Therefore, numbers of social and affective strategies in the tables represent only the number of occasions when these strategies were reported verbally by participants. The analysis of these strategies should take into consideration other data collected from

interviews, classroom observations and documents. Provided below is a brief account of participants' use of social and affective strategies.

5.1.4.1 Working Cooperatively and Competing

In this study, the strategy of cooperating with others was high in terms of frequency in the category of social strategies (i.e., 19 in total). However, in the interviews and in their learning logs the participants provided both positive and negative comments on cooperative learning in academic reading. The researcher observed that in four of the seven courses participants were taking, group discussions and presentations took most of the class time. Students were expected to read articles either assigned by the instructors or selected by themselves so as to prepare for discussion and presentation in class. All of the participants said that they liked this form of group work as the main activity in class because they could learn from each other. Another reason why the students liked cooperative work was to avoid disagreement, as Shun said in Chinese in an interview:

> For most of the time while others are presenting their part of the work, I keep silent. Introverted person. I'm afraid of disagreement. But I am thinking and I like to hear others' ideas.

Supporting evidence also came from the learning logs. While reading an article entitled "In Defense of the Communicative Approach," Rong wrote:

> It was written by a Chinese teacher. This article criticizes almost all the activities being implemented in classrooms, such as role play, games, and drama. The reason is that such activities are only simulated. He argued that communication should take place in real situations and in real roles. I think he is too arbitrary. Those activities are really useful in EFL setting. But this is a published article. I guess this view is reasonable, to some extent.

In both cases, Shun and Rong were inclined to avoid disagreement for the purpose of achieving harmony.

Data, however, showed that cooperative work did not necessarily facilitate learning. Since marks were assigned to groups as a whole, individuals were more focused on their own part of reading and thus less interested in others' work. Interviews showed that students tended to think cooperative work was time-consuming and difficult to organize. Moreover, good students thought they would receive better marks if working on their own than working with others, whereas poor students preferred working with others so that they could learn from good students.

There may be psychological and social explanations for why students had mixed feelings about cooperative work. Among the possible reasons is that competition is a major factor affecting students' perceptions of cooperation. In the Chinese national education system, competition and efforts are highly emphasized. Therefore, competition is seen by many as providing individuals opportunities to take a lead in academic performance and thus achieve academic success.

Behind the notion of competition is the strong emphasis on efforts in education (Stevenson & Lee, 1996; Yu, 1996). In Chinese history, examinations have been the principal testing and selection for civil service since the Sui Dynasty more than 1,500 years ago. Emphasis was placed on the demonstration of one's knowledge of Confucian classics as well as one's ability at poetic composition. Only a small percentage of candidates succeeded. Therefore, competition was quite high. Exams continue to be one of the major issues in contemporary education in China. Parents, teachers and students are well aware that students have to work hard and get high marks so as to advance to successively higher levels of schooling.

Cross-cultural studies have shown that, compared with American parents, Chinese parents put more stress on their children's hard work. Moreover, over 80 per cent of college students in Hong Kong chose effort as the explanation for their academic achievement (see Leung, 1996, for a review of the literature). In Mainland China, Gui (1985) found that competition was one of the major reasons for high motivation for learning among university students.

To Chinese students, the ultimate goal of competing for academic success is seeking recognition for themselves and opportunities for higher education and high-level jobs (Stevenson & Lee, 1996). Academic success not only promises a better future for students but also enhances their family status. Poor academic performance, on the other hand, may result in the loss of prestige for the students as well as the loss of family face. The following excerpt from an interview with Shun gives a good example of how she thought of academic achievement:

I spent more time in reading for presentations than for discussion. If I don't know I can keep my mouth shut. But for presentation, I have to look intelligent and know much about the topic. Only by doing this can I get a good mark.

5.1.4.2 Being Interested/Motivated

In the category of affective strategies, being interested/motivated was the highest in frequency (i.e., 50 in total). Data from the learning logs and the interviews showed that a strong motivation for doing well in academic tasks and an interest in reading materials were two major reasons why in many cases participants read actively for their coursework. In this sense, they were autonomous in academic reading. To be more specific, the participants were willing to spend more time reading and working for their presentations and for their research projects.

In this program, students were given more autonomy in decision-making. One of the objectives of the graduate program, as stated in the program description, was "to develop the capabilities of undertaking research work in their chosen field" (p. 1). Students could pursue their research interest and decide on a topic they would like to work on. In some courses like Readings on Linguistics, Language Learning Theory, and Action Research opportunities were given to students to decide on their presentations, research projects, as well as their term papers.

Participants were particularly careful about their presentations which, along with written assignments, contributed up to fifty per cent of the assessment. The preparation for their presentation involved selecting an interesting article from the resource room, reading the article carefully and underlining/highlighting important ideas, looking up key words in the dictionary, if necessary, outlining steps for the presentation including warm-up and follow-up activities, and finally memorizing and rehearsing. The researcher observed that in their presentations, students sometimes memorized certain parts of the article and reported them to the class. The reason for this may be that they thought the author's ideas were best explained by his/her own words rather than by others' interpretations. The researcher also noticed that the students did not memorize the ideas mechanically or passively. Instead, they integrated the textual information with their own ideas and experiences. Participants used visual aids and other presentation skills to help them remember. This led the researcher to reconsider the traditional understanding of memorization, represented in the works of Chu Hsi (1230-1200), who argued for memorizing before understanding. The traditional Chinese learning approach emphasizes learning products (i.e., examination results) rather than the learning process (i.e., how

students arrive at the results). Mechanical memorization and the reproduction factual knowledge are stressed. The data in this study, however, indicated that participants memorized academic information in a more autonomous way. In graduate program, students were given more autonomy to improve their independent research capability. Memorization was thus given a new meaning, which focused on the production and integration of information with understanding and critical thinking.

Passive reading went hand in hand with self-regulated reading in this study. The instruction in this graduate program ranged from strong framing to weak framing. Among the seven courses (required or optional) the participants were taking, two were highly teacher-centered with the instructor lecturing for most of the time. There was little student-teacher interaction in class. In one of the two courses, students were also expected to take in-class quizzes once in a while and a mid-term exam. The teacher played a central role in deciding what and when to teach, sometimes without giving students advance notice of the content of the next lesson. Although students could choose topics for their term papers, the autonomy they had was limited. The participants rated the two controlled courses low. The reasons they gave were: (1) the instruction was poorly organized in terms of class activities and time management; (2) the course was test-driven, which was not suitable for graduate program like TEFL; and (3) the teaching content was difficult, dull, or not practical.

It was interesting to notice that while students felt uncomfortable in highly controlled classes, they sometimes took a passive role in other classes in which they had more autonomy. Consider the following three examples from the interview data:

It depends on whether the article is chosen by yourself or assigned by the instructor. Sometimes, I would read it very quickly without even taking a single

note. Sometimes I have to remember the main ideas in the article because the instructor will ask us to discuss it in class. Quite often, I won't read it very carefully because the teacher will talk about it in detail. (Jian)

The instructor asked us to read some materials, but we didn't have time to discuss. Therefore, we had little pressure. Sometimes, we didn't read the assigned readings. The teachers should organize more activities. (Guo)
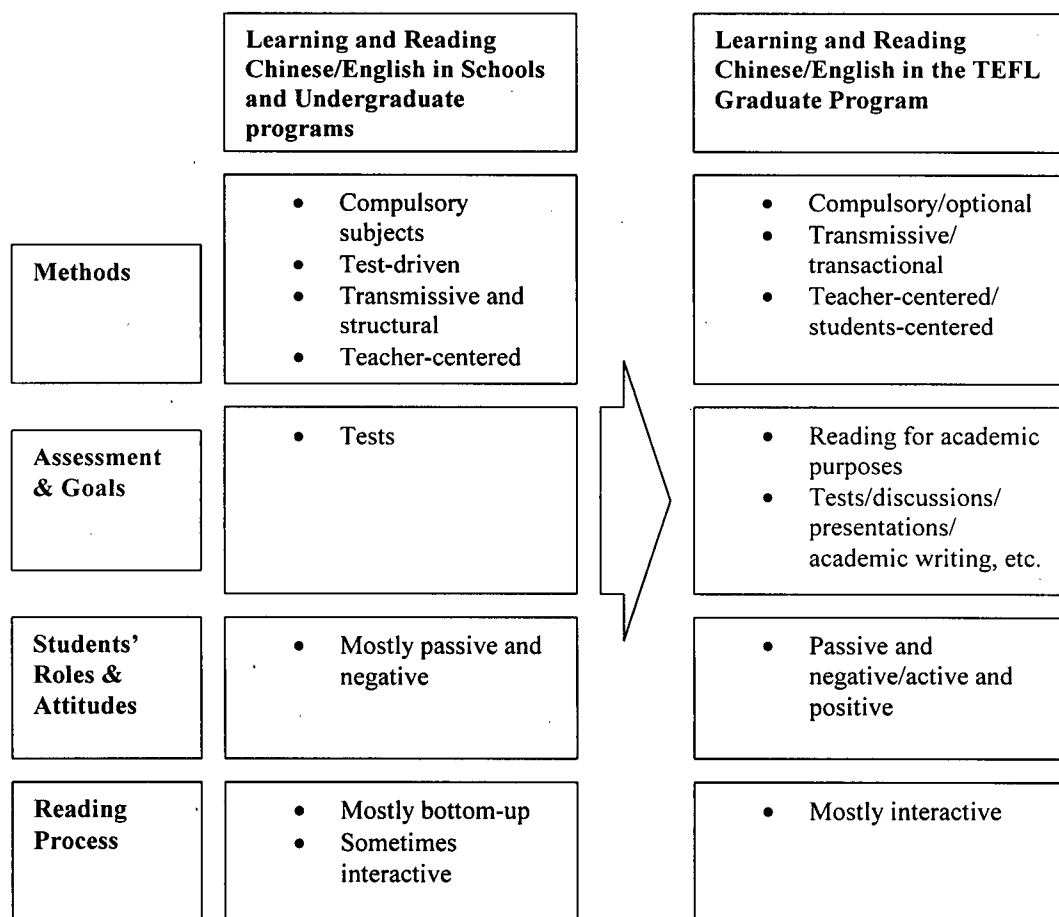
If the instructor could spend more time in preparing the class, if she could devote more time in talking to us, if she could give us more suggestions on how and what to do now and later, that would be much better. (Xin)

Students expressed both positive and negative opinions about learner autonomy and teacher control. On the one hand, they complained about lacking adequate help from the instructors to improve their learning autonomy. On the other hand, the participants expected that teachers should have more control of the class, especially in the first year when students needed time to get used to the academic requirements in the graduate program. Two possible reasons for this finding were identified in this study. These students had obtained some theoretical and empirical information related to student-centered language teaching and learning in the TEFL program. They were told that student-centered language teaching and learning was better than a teacher-centered classroom. These students were part-time teachers of English. Based on their own teaching experiences, they felt strongly that students learned more if they were motivated. Highly controlled and planned classrooms did not motivate students much and thus hampered learning. However, due to their long language learning experience (i.e., in Chinese and English) in a controlled manner, these students felt more comfortable sitting in a teacher-centered classroom with moderate student control.

5.1.5 Interaction of Multiple Factors

Academic reading in English and in Chinese, as indicated in this study, was influenced by various kinds of factors, both at the macro-level and at the micro-level. The influence at the macro-level came from educational, social, and cultural forces whereas that at the micro-level referred to cognitive and individual differences. Figure 5.1 illustrates a model that explains the influence of educational factors on the use of English and Chinese academic reading strategies.

Figure 5.1 Influence of Educational Factors on the Reading of Chinese and English

	Learning and Reading Chinese/English in Schools and Undergraduate programs	Learning and Reading Chinese/English in the TEFL Graduate Program
Methods	• Compulsory subjects • Test-driven • Transmissive and structural • Teacher-centered	• Compulsory/optional • Transmissive/ transactional • Teacher-centered/ students-centered
Assessment & Goals	• Tests	• Reading for academic purposes • Tests/discussions/ presentations/ academic writing, etc.
Students' Roles & Attitudes	• Mostly passive and negative	• Passive and negative/active and positive
Reading Process	• Mostly bottom-up • Sometimes interactive	• Mostly interactive

The descriptions of participants' learning background in Chapter 4 have shown that all of the participants began their Chinese learning when they were in Grade 1 and

their English learning when they were in Grade 6. There was nine years of age difference among the participants, i.e., the oldest being 33 and the youngest being 22. Teaching and learning Chinese and English in elementary and secondary schools were similar, as revealed in their reports. One of the similarities was that in both Chinese and English classes, the participants were asked to read aloud the texts and memorize useful words/expressions in the text. Such memorization, according to the participants, was mechanical and dull. However, they did mention that memorization had been so powerful that they could still remember many Chinese poems and parts of Chinese texts, which they had learned even ten years before. Because they had formed the habit of reading aloud in the early morning, many students, after entering the university, were still inclined to read aloud repeatedly the English texts in the mornings and tried to memorize all the useful expressions and words.

Another similarity between the participants' learning of Chinese and English was that the instruction in both classes was teacher-centered. Because of this teacher control, both classes were predictable in terms of the instructional content and in-class activities. Despite these similarities, the English class was different from their Chinese class in two respects. The first difference was that there was a drill session in the English class. Students were supposed to get familiar with the grammatical structures and thus internalize the process through repeating the sentences in the drill session. The second difference lay in the objectives of reading. The major objectives of the participants' English learning at the elementary and the secondary schools were to extend their vocabularies and to understand texts by doing comprehension questions after reading the texts. These two objectives remained the same all the way by their learning of English at

universities. In reading Chinese, on the other hand, the focus of reading instruction at the early stage, say at elementary schools, was on vocabulary extension but it shifted to literary appreciation at a higher stage, i.e., at secondary schools and universities.

The above discussion is a brief summary of the description of the participants' learning experience in Chinese and in English. These participants' learning experience lend support to the view that reading strategies are socially constructed (e.g., Parry, 1996). At the stage of English learning in secondary schools and in undergraduate programs, both the grammar-translation approach and the approach of comprehension questions and language work were the core of reading instruction. As a result, the participants tended to use bottom-up strategies more frequently than top-down strategies. However, this does not mean that the participants did not use top-down reading strategies. A possible reason was that their way of reading English might be influenced by the way in which Chinese was taught and read. The Chinese instructional approach tended to be interactive in the sense that it harnessed both word analysis at the bottom/linguistic level and literary appreciation at the top/content level. Moreover, literature has indicated that readers of Chinese tended to use context, to a great extent, to help them construct meanings from the text (e.g., Chen, 1996). Such an interactive approach in reading Chinese might, to some extent, affect the reader's approach in reading English.

At the second stage, when the participants studied English in the graduate program, with the improvement of their English proficiency and the shift of instructional objectives, they tended to use more comprehension monitoring strategies and information gathering strategies. Therefore, some bottom-up strategies such as using the dictionary and analyzing word formations and sentence structures, which had been used heavily

before, were less and less used. Other strategies had taken on a more important role in reading. These strategies included using mixed languages and comprehension monitoring. As shown in the think-aloud protocols, the participants used strategies at all the four levels: metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective.

Although the participants made transitions in strategy use, they did not always use reading strategies equally frequently. Nor did they use strategies effectively at all times. Sometimes they were either unaware of their comprehension problems or did not know how to read effectively. For example, Shun understood that she read very slowly but she did not know that her habit of pointing to words or sentences while reading actually slowed down her speed. Another possible explanation of the inappropriate strategy use was that the participants' perception of strategy use might be different from their actual use of reading strategies.

So far, we have discussed the influence of macro-level factors on academic reading. The influence at the micro-level attributes to such factors as the development of reading strategies and the actual use of reading strategies in academic reading. Previous discussion about the participants' learning experience indicates that they had, in general, similar developmental paths in academic reading strategies. Moreover, they used similar kinds of reading strategies while reading in English and in Chinese (see Table 5.1). However, variations in the frequency of strategy use indicated that the participants employed different strategies at different times. The possible factors affecting these differences in strategies were the reading task, the language in which the text was written, reading goals, interaction between L1 and L2, and individual factors such as interest and motivation. The discussion of the relationships between academic reading strategies and

these factors is beyond the scope of this dissertation. Previous research on reading strategies has only focused on the discussion of cognitive universals and cultural constraints. The role of cognitive differences and cross-cultural similarities has been downplayed. However, data in this study have indicated that the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 reading were at both cognitive and socio-cultural levels.

5.2 Summary

The following is a brief summary of the findings in relation to two research questions of this study.

1. What strategies do Chinese EFL learners use to read Chinese and English texts, respectively, for academic purposes?

The identification and the classification of reading strategies in the previous section are related to this research question. There were altogether 45 types of reading strategies identified in both L1 and L2 reading. These strategies were classified into four major categories: metacognitive, cognitive, social, and affective strategies. The second major category of cognitive strategies was further divided into four subcategories, i.e., reading strategies related to language, content, structure, and study strategies that apply to the three levels of language, content and structure.

2. To what extent are students' Chinese reading strategies similar to or different from their English reading strategies and what factors account for these similarities or differences?

The data indicated that the participants used similar academic reading strategies in reading Chinese and English. In other words, same kinds of reading strategies at the metacognitive, cognitive, social, and affective levels were used in constructing meanings

from English and Chinese academic texts. However, the frequency of strategy use varied across tasks and across cases. Moreover, some strategies were used more frequently than others. Furthermore, the participants did not use all the reading strategies effectively and efficiently all the time. These findings were supported by the data from the participants' learning logs.

The participants' language learning experience suggests that both cognitive and socio-cultural factors influenced their way of reading Chinese and English. Academic reading, as can be seen from this study, was multiple-layered, drawing upon many knowledge bases embedded within the cognitive world of individuals and within the socio-cultural system of education. The findings discussed previously render useful implications for the construction of L2 reading models as well as for future research, which will be the focus of Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6 - FINAL REMARKS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.0 Overview

Exploring the reading world of the five participants was very informative. This chapter summarizes the findings of the research, discusses implications for teaching academic reading at the university level, and provides suggestions for future research.

6.1 Findings of the Study

In Chapter 4, the researcher has attempted to answer the two research questions by analyzing the data from a socio-cognitive perspective. There are four major findings in this study. First, the participants had a repertoire of strategies to deal with various kinds of comprehension problems and to meet various kinds of reading needs. The students were mostly strategically competent. That is to say, they knew when and where to use appropriate reading strategies. There were times when they noticed a comprehension problem and managed to try different strategies to help them solve the problem. However, as noted in this study, the participants did not always use reading strategies successfully. There were other times when they used inappropriate strategies.

The second finding was based on a comparison of L1 and L2 academic reading strategies. Results of this study support Bernhardt's (2000) model of second language reading in that "knowledge and affect are linked to individual readers" (p. 798). In this study, each participant had her own personal way of responding to a text, regardless of how proficient her English/Chinese was or what reading task she was doing. Moreover, data analysis showed that same types of reading strategies were identified in L1 and L2 reading. That is to say, there was a transfer of strategies between L1 and L2 reading. Moreover, this transfer was not one-way but two-way. The data also revealed that the

frequency of strategy use varied across languages, tasks, and across individuals. This suggested that there exist generalities (e.g., cross-language strategy transfer) and particularities (e.g., personal manner of responding to a text) in L1 and L2 academic reading. On the one hand, findings of this study are supportive of the literature of strategy research in that L1 and L2 reading, in general, share similar processes (e.g., Li & Munby, 1996, Tang, 1997). On the other hand, there are special processes that are characteristic of L1 and L2 reading due to the language, the content, the task, and the individual reader. In other words, it seems that the basic elements in L1 and L2 reading processes are the same. However, the complexity of the reading strategies varied from reader to reader and from task to task due to such differences between L1 and L2 reading as linguistic and processing individual and experiential differences, and socio-cultural and institutional differences (Carrell & Grabe, 2002).

The third finding is related to the research method. As can be seen from the discussion in Chapter 4, unlike academic reading tasks like reading for writing assignments, reading for presentations, and reading for tests, the task of thinking aloud did not seem to make the participants set immediate reading goals. Xin was the only learner in the study who had a clear reading purpose right at the beginning of the task. Others gradually developed their goals. One interpretation is that the research method of thinking aloud may encourage or discourage the use of certain reading strategies. In other words, metacognitive strategies may be encouraged in think-aloud tasks because verbalizing while reading will naturally increase a reader's awareness of his/her thinking process. Social and affective strategies, on the other hand, may be limited, to some extent, due to the constraints of the thinking aloud methodology. Another interpretation is that

understanding academic reading tasks is crucial to strategic reading (see Simpson & Nist, 2000, for a review of the literature).

The fourth finding is that data in this study support the view that the process of constructing meanings at various levels, including lexical, syntactic, and textual levels, and the process of monitoring one's comprehension go on no matter what culture one brings into his/her reading and no matter what culture one is reading about. The data also support the view that common values and ideologies across cultures interact with the cognitive universals and work as a whole on academic reading. Research in the past has focused only on cognitive universals or cultural differences in reading. A more comprehensive approach, as noted in this study, is necessary.

The similarities and differences in reading L1 and L2 indicate that relationships among various factors or forces occur naturally but may not be causal. Therefore, it is the interactions of all the factors that result in the commonalities and differences in L1 and L2 academic reading at both cognitive and cultural levels. Such transfer cannot be determined in absolute terms.

6.2 Instructional Implications

Data in this study have revealed how socio-cognitive factors contributed to the use of reading strategies in academic settings. This has profound implications at both theoretical and practical levels. As previously discussed, according to Cummins (1979, 1981, 1991), there exists a common underlying proficiency (CUP) that allows transfers to take place across languages and across modalities. One of the weaknesses of this transfer model is that we know little about the CUP in terms of its size and its characteristics. The findings of this study support the view of two-way strategy transfer. In the context of

academic reading, the CUP refers to the cognitive and cultural universals in L1 and L2

reading. In other words, what and how to transfer depend constantly on the changing

relationship among many factors at various levels. The factors, to name a few, include L2

readers' L1 and L2 proficiency, L1 and L2 reading ability, the nature of instruction and

academic tasks, and socio-cultural context.

This study has explored the processes that underlie effective strategy uses. In

terms of instructional implications, it is suggested that some concepts be adjusted,

effective strategy models be applied, and English language teaching in China be

improved. To be more specific, there are six instructional implications. First, analyzing

the conflicts among Chinese traditions, educational requirements and socio-economic

demands would help educators plan language policies and design nation-wide curricula.

At the local and instructional level, it is suggested that ESL and EFL instructors have

English education tailored to their students' unique cultural needs. Moreover, teachers

should be very careful about their beliefs about language teaching because their behaviors

may directly influence their students' perceptions of language teaching and learning.

Metacognition leads to more effective learning and more autonomy. Teachers'

metacognition is as important as students' metacognition and they interact with each

other. Therefore, it is necessary that both teachers and students be kept up-to-date of the

current theoretical developments in second language teaching and learning.

Second, knowledge about cognitive, linguistic and cultural issues as well as the

use of effective and efficient reading strategies is essential for ESL/EFL students at all

levels. Fortunately, there are a number of useful resources that provide information about

delivering strategy instruction. When adopting a model of strategy instruction, students

should be informed of the usefulness of strategies. In other words, for strategy training to have long-term effect, students should learn what strategies are, why they are important, how they can be used, and when and how to transfer strategies to new situations. The reason is that the purpose of strategy instruction is "to work with students collaboratively to develop in them the habits of mind that are strategic processing at its best" (Pressley & El-Dinary 1993, p. 107). It is, therefore, suggested that through self-directed learning and with helpful guidance from teachers, students gradually develop skills of managing their reading, regulate their reading process, and finally learn to be self-motivated, self-directed, and self-regulated. To this end, apart from teaching specific reading strategy in class, teachers should also explain to their students the process that underlies effective strategy uses so as to facilitate generative use of strategies on the part of students. The reason is that gaining the declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge about strategy uses leads to greater transfer of strategy across languages and across tasks.

Third, it is suggested that TEFL graduate programs in China:

- help students develop a large English and Chinese technical vocabulary in TESOL;

- provide students with a variety of academic articles in both languages, and a supportive environment for reading for academic purposes, and;

- help students understand the importance of strategic reading and metacognitive awareness of becoming successful strategic readers.

Fourth, English classes in undergraduate programs should not focus on the teaching of linguistic knowledge exclusively. As shown in this study reading instruction in most undergraduate programs in China tended to focus on the linguistic features

including grammar points and vocabulary, which encouraged the use of bottom-up strategies. Students would benefit, to a greater extent, if they are trained earlier in the program with both top-down and bottom-up strategies with careful scaffolding. Moreover, in this graduate program, teachers should include not only English articles but also Chinese academic articles for academic activities such as presentations and discussions. Lack of sufficient experience reading Chinese articles, as indicated in the study, made the participants less motivated to read Chinese passages, let alone look for materials themselves.

Fifth, successful comprehension depends on effective strategy uses not only at metacognitive and cognitive levels, but also at social and affective levels. This indicates that the attitudes, the motivation, the interest, as well as the will to use strategies well play very important roles in academic reading (Nist & Holschuh, 2000; Weinstein, 1997). Therefore, another suggestion for EFL/ESL teachers is to help students to foster positive motivation and attitudes towards academic learning and reading.

Finally, different educational systems have different values and expectations in different cultures. Chinese educators should not rush to borrow North American techniques for teaching reading because such borrowing might be futile, given the particular requirements of the current Chinese education system, the general level of satisfaction expressed by teachers and students, as well as the high expectations of Chinese parents.

6.3 Implications for Future Research

In this dissertation I was trying to investigate the complex phenomenon underlying the use of academic reading strategies from a socio-cognitive perspective.

Discussion so far has indicated that how Chinese students deal with academic reading may be influenced by their acceptance of or resistance to a certain belief about academic reading, by their experiences in both Chinese and English education, by the particular social context where learning and reading take place, and by the cultural and philosophical forces that motivate and guide their actions. Therefore, instructors need to implement effective teaching strategies so as to help their students become strategic readers. Consequently, a tentative research topic is a long-term descriptive investigation of the amount of scaffolding that helps readers transfer strategies across languages and across situations.

Alternatively, it is suggested that researchers explore the situational nature of L1 and L2 academic reading strategies, the relationships among those strategies, as well as the relations between students' perceptions of strategies and their actual use of reading strategies.

Moreover, Confucianism, as one of the major philosophies in Chinese tradition, has influenced Chinese thinking and education for over 2,000 years. There are other traditions such as Buddhism, and Taoism, which have exerted as much influence upon Chinese people's beliefs and actions. Such influence has yet to be empirically explored. A longitudinal investigation of how Chinese traditions mediate the present political and socio-economic forces at the macro-level and individuals' cognition at the micro-level would provide useful insights for our understanding of L2 reading acquisition.

Finally, the conclusions of this study should be considered as tentative given the limitations of the research design. Three major limitations were observed. The first was the comparability of the Chinese and the English academic articles. There was no single

criterion available for assessing the passages in terms of content, structure, length, and difficulty level, which indicated that the two passages were not an exact match. The second major limitation was the influence of the researcher. Although multiple research methods were employed in this study, the researcher's role, more or less, influenced the way data were collected and interpreted. On the one hand, the identities the researcher assigned her might affect the way she interacted with the participants (i.e., both teachers and students). On the other hand, the participants' expectations of what the researcher wanted to know and their decisions of what to tell derived partially from how they looked at the researcher. The last major limitation was the small sample size. Therefore, this investigation should be replicated with larger student groups of diverse cultural backgrounds.

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183

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APPENDIX B - GUIDELINES FOR LEARNING LOGS

1. For your first learning log: Please provide background information about yourself, especially your Chinese/English learning and teaching experience.

    a. Where did you get your Bachelor degree? What was your major? How was English taught in your undergraduate program? How did you read course materials at that time?

    b. Did you have any teaching experience before you started the M.A. program? What and how did you teach?

    c. What are you teaching now?

    d. What do you know about reading Chinese and English?

    e. What courses are you taking this term? Who teaches this course? How does the instructor teach? What are the reading and written assignments for the courses?

    f. What do you do with the readings assignments?

2. Questions for your every day (if possible) learning log:

    a. What did you read today? What was your purpose? In what language(s)?

    b. If the reading materials were found by yourself, how did you find them? To what extent were they helpful?

    c. How long did you spend in reading English (or Chinese)?

    d. What was interesting? Why?

    e. What was difficult for you? Why? How did you solve the reading problems?

APPENDIX C - CLOZE TESTS

完成下面一段文字：

转基因作物同普通植物的（1）------------只是多了能使（2）------------产生额外特性的基因。（3）----------1983 年，生物学家就（4）----------知道怎样通过生物工程技术（5）------------外来基因移植到某种植物（6）---------脱氧核糖酸中去，以便（7）------------它产生靠杂交方式（8）------------无法获得的某种（9）------------特性：抗除莠剂的（10）------------、抗植物病毒的特性、抗（11）----------害虫的特性等。（12）------------移植的基因可（13）------------任何生命体：细菌、病毒、（14）------------等。

转基因作物目前在世界上（15）------------种植有碍 1000 万公顷（16）-------，种植最多的（17）------------棉花、玉米、和西红柿（18）------------。在实验室试种的（19）------------莴苣、西瓜、稻谷等（20）----------。试验的目的除了（21）-----之外，还在于提高（22）品种的抗病毒能力。

但同时也有（23）------------担心转基因作物可能对（24）------------有危险。比如在美国（25）那种能抗虫害的（26）------------和棉花，可能加快（27）----------一些更难对付的（28）------------。这些作物的所有分子（29）------------分泌出一些微量的"杀虫药"，（30）------------像任何一种农药（31）------------能选择杀死某些（32）----------的"雾剂"。尤其是那些（33）------------抗除莠剂的作物，它们一旦（34）------------野生状态下的"表姐妹"杂交后，（35）------------"表姐妹"也就会因此（36）------------成为抗除莠剂无法除掉的（37）------------了。

对于这种技术，尽管（38）------------有些问题需要继续（39）------------, 但这确是（40）------------9000 年作物栽培史上（41）------------空前的革命。

Please fill in the blanks in the following passage.

Redesigning a garden can (1)_____ a fascinating experience. Both (2)_____ first-timer and the (3)_____ gardener confronted with such (4)_____ task are full of (5)_____ hopes and grand ideas. (6)_____ them is another matter (7)_____, but great expectations certainly (8)_____ the basis of many (9)_____ creations. Inevitably, one person (10) _____ of what makes a (11)_____ garden will differ from (12)_____, and the best treatment (13)_____ a particular piece of (14)_____ will also have to (15)_____ into account regional differences (16)_____ soil, climate and plant (17)_____.

Most garden designers are (18)_____ on three requirements: function, (19)_____ and harmony. A functional (20)_____ should serve its purpose (21)_____meet the needs of (22)_____ owner. Appearance involves neatness, (23)_____ use of color and (24)_____ design which provides points (25)_____ interest in keeping with (26)_____ surroundings. Harmony is achieved (27)_____ the garden is planned (28)_____ relation to the house (29)_____ its surroundings. Although an (30)_____ setting makes designing easier, (31)_____ of great merits are (32)_____ in differing environments.

In (33)_____ case, the designer must (34)_____ be tempted to remove (35)_____ in sight and start (36)_____. Far from making a (37)_____ of unnecessary work, it (38)_____ almost certain that the (39)_____ garden will have at (40)_____ one good feature which (41)_____ worth preserving.

APPENDIX D - READING COMPREHENSION TESTS

一、 完形填空

二、 阅读下面的文字，完成1-4题。

报秋　　宗璞

似乎刚过完春节，什么都还来不及干呢，已是长夏天气，让人懒洋洋的像只猫。一家人夏衣尚未打点好，猛然却见玉簪花那雪白的圆鼓鼓的棒槌，从拥挤着的宽大的绿叶中探出头来。我先是一惊，随即怅然。这花一开，没几天便是立秋。以后便是处暑便是白露便是秋分便是寒露，过了霜降，便立冬了。真真的怎么得了！

这花的生命力极强，随便种种，总会活的。不挑地方，不拣土壤，而且特别喜欢背阴处，把阳光让给别人，很是谦让。据说花瓣可以入药。还会有人来讨那叶子，要捣烂了治脚气。我说它是生活上向下比，工作上向上比，算得一种玉簪花精神罢。

我喜欢花，却没有侍弄花的闲情。因有自知之明，不敢邀名花居留，只有时要点草花种种。有一种太阳花又名死不了，开时五彩缤纷，杂在草间很好看。种了几次，都不成功。"连死不了都种死了。"我们常这样自嘲。

玉簪花却不同，从不要人照料，只管自己蓬勃生长。往后院月洞门小径的两旁，随便移栽了几个嫩芽，次年便有绿叶白花，点缀着夏末秋初的景致。我的房门外有一小块地，原有两行花，现已形成一片，绿油油的，完全遮住了地面。在晨光熹微或暮色朦胧中，以柄柄白花擎起，隐约如绿波上的白帆，不知驶向何方。有些植物的繁茂枝叶中，会藏着一些小活物，吓人一跳。玉簪花下却总是干净的。可能因气味的原故，不容虫豸近身。

花开有十几朵，满院便飘着芳香。不是丁香的幽香，不是桂花的甜香，也不是荷花的那种清香。它的香比较强，似乎有点醒脑的作用。采几朵放在养石子的水盆中，房间里便也飘散着香气，让人减少几分懒洋洋，让人心里警惕着：秋来了。

秋是收获的季节，我却是两手空空。一年、两年过去了，总是在不安和焦虑中。怪谁呢，很难回答。

久居异乡的兄长，业余喜好诗词。前天寄来南宋词人朱敦儒的西江月：

日日深杯酒满，朝朝小圃花开，自歌自舞自开怀，无拘无束无碍。

青史几番春梦，红尘多少奇才，不消计划与安排，领取而今现在。

我把"领取而今现在"一句反复吟哦，觉得这是一种悠然自得的境界。其实不必深杯酒满，不必小圃花开，只在心中领取，便得逍遥。

领取自己那一份，也有品味把玩、获得的意思。那么，领取秋，领取冬，领取四季，领取生活罢。

1. 作者在第一自然段中写到看见玉簪花开，"先是一惊，随即怅然"。

　　（1）作者为什么吃惊？

答：因为 　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　（不超过 8 个字）

　　（2）联系全文看，作者为什么怅然？

答：因为 　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　（不超过 10 字）

2. 作者在第三自然段中写自己中太阳花的经历，这样写有什么作用？

　　答： 　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　（不超过 12 字）

3. 作者在第一自然段和最后一个自然段中，分别使用 6 个"便"字和 5 个"领取"，这样写在表达上有什么好处？

（1） 反复使用"便"字的好处是：

（不超过 26 字）

（2） 反复使用"领取"的好处是：

（不超过 26 字）

4．下列对文章的分析和鉴赏，正确的三项是

A． 玉簪花的芳香似乎有点醒脑的作用，可以提醒人们秋的到来，让人减少一些惰性。

B． 本文的主旨可以概括为主要赞美那种"生活上向下比，工作上向上必"的玉簪花精神。

C． 作者对"领取而今现在"一句的吟哦让人体味到一种悠然自得、面对现实的人生态度。

D． "领取自己那一份"，是劝慰人们要及时把握自己应得的那一份，而不要有非分之想。

E． 作者借助比较的手法，巧妙地写出了玉簪花所散发出的与其他几种花不同的芳香。

F． 作者把玉簪花的绿叶描写为"绿波"，使人联想到生活的长河，有广阔的空间感和深邃的时间感。　　　　　[　]　[　]　[　]

三、　阅读下面的白话文，完成 5-8 题

研究表明，成年人大约由 5%的人患有"自体免疫病"。这种病人的自身免疫力不但进攻侵入人体内的细菌和病毒，同时也进攻自身的机体。这会引起终身的炎

症，如风湿病。此外，心脏、肾和肠子也都可能受到攻击，在引发多发性硬化症的情况下，脊髓和闹神经细胞亦会受到破坏，后果可能是瘫痪或失明。

至今自体免疫病的患者完全治愈还很少见。现在只能用副作用很大的药物来减轻症状。这种情况将由于研究人员最近提出的一种新方法而得到改善。这种新方法叫做"免疫吸附法"，它可以从外部消除免疫系统的导向错误。在实施这种方法时，根据有目的的洗血原则从血液循环中去掉致病的防御分子。

在治疗过程中，让血液经过一个圆柱体，免疫系统的不良成员便被吸附在这个圆柱上。充当"捕捉器"的是在羊血中形成的结构，这些结构专门捕捉不良的防御分子。经过过滤的血液重新六回患者体内。"过滤"的原则虽然早就得到运用，但都没有这样的特效。例如，有一些同类的方法并不能把所有该过滤的防御分子都过滤出来，或者同时把重要的凝血因子也过滤出来了。使用新的系统还很少有副作用，如过敏反应。现在这种新方法只需在临床研究中得到验证。

5．第 1 段在全文中的主要作用是

　　A．说明自体免疫病的成因

　　B．指出自体免疫力对人体的危害。

　　C．提出多种疾病与自身免疫力的关系

　　D．引出对免疫吸附法的介绍

6．根据文意，对"免疫吸附法"的解释最准确的一项是

　　A．从外部消除免疫系统的导向错误，副作用很小的治疗方法

　　B．根据洗血原则去掉血液中的防御分子的治疗方法

　　C．利用羊血中形成的结构，吸附血液中致病的防御分子的治疗方法

D. 根据过滤原则，滤掉血液中该过滤的防御分子和凝血因子的治疗方法

7. 下列说法不符合原文意思的一项是

A. 大多数人的自身免疫力对人的机体没有损害

B. 瘫痪病人、风湿病人的病因是由自身免疫力引起的

C. 治疗自体免疫病的药物往往只能减轻症状，不能根治

D. 自体免疫病患者免疫系统的不良成员进攻自身机体可能引起终身炎症

8. 下列说法中恰当概括全文意思的一句是

A. 自身免疫力对人体有负面作用

B. 治疗自体免疫病由多种方法

C. 用免疫吸附法治疗自体免疫病

D. 免疫吸附法在临床上的运用

四、 阅读下面的白话文，完成9-13题

1) 果戈理——少年、青年、男子和妇女，掌握知识为时不久的中学生和熟悉生活聪慧颖悟的老者的永恒旅伴。

2) 一俟果戈理渗入我们的心灵，他便永不离去，永久在我们的意思和心中定居，并且像在家里那样在那里生活着——异常勇敢，从容安适。

3) 仿佛这全然不是他——机敏过人、既谦和又凶猛的诗人——以各种怪诞的、高尚的、忧郁的、温柔的、可怜的、可笑的人物形象丰富我们的想象力。

4) 仿佛这是我们亲眼看见所有这些活生生的典型，亲自在米尔哥罗德和波尔塔瓦，在季坎卡、基辅和彼得堡现实主义地作着非凡的表演。

5) "好一个诺兹德廖夫，鬼东西！"又一次我们感叹道，甚至都不曾去想，是谁

在我们的观念中一下子形成了这样一个被塑造的狡诈的无赖汉诺兹德廖夫的形象。每个这样的形象存在于我们的思维世界里，有如一个单独的、与其他概念分离的、兽类模样的东西，而果戈理本人却像个主人，仿佛独自在它们一旁生活着，打开鸟笼和兽笼，若有所思地观察着自己那些毛色不一、形状各一的小动物。

6) 把如此大量的、不胜枚举的形象化概念引入日常生活，以便人们能时常利用这些概念——这样的工作只有天才才力所能及。

7) 果戈理做到了这一点。

8) 须知他的典型们的名字好像成了俄语词汇本身。但光说它们已经成为普通名词是不够的，它们实际上已成为某类人的品质的同类语。比如我说："喂，你知道吗，这就是个泼留希金！"——谁也不会再去问，泼留希金是谁？或者泼留希金是什么？就像我说："喂，你知道吗，这就是最吝啬的吝啬鬼！"

9) 没有一个作家像果戈理那样，在自己死后永远保留那么多数量的活生生的主人公。

10) 真是形形色色！从最豪放豁达的勇士和英勇无畏的爱国者塔拉斯到爱占便宜的柯罗博奇卡；从心地朴实、只想着自己的烟袋，但经不住可怕的地鬼的目光的霍马.布鲁特到根本不需要任何修饰语赫列斯科夫，<u>因为他自己为各式各样游手好闲之徒、自吹自擂之徒、好耍嘴皮子的招摇撞骗之徒做了再好不过的描绘。</u>

11) 继普希金之后，果戈理造就了一个光荣的文学时期，成为俄国文艺小说的导师。他不仅是受读者欢迎的艺术家，而且是教导写作的艺术家，并且至今仍然

是。

9. 1）2）两段文字，意在说明作为文学家的果戈理在读者中的影响程度，1）段主要说明其影响之 _____ ；2)段则是说明其影响之 _____ 。

10. 3）4）两段都是对果戈理笔下的人物形象作出的高度评价，但 3）段突出的是人物形象的 _____ 性；4）段突出的是人物形象的 _____ 性。（每空只填两个字）

11. 5）段和下面 8）段都使用了说理论证和 _____ 论证的方法，为了增强说理的形象性，5）段还使用 _____ 论证的方法。

12. 文中划线处的"他"指的是 _____ 。

13. 用一句话（不超过 30 个字）概括这篇文章的论说中心。

I. **Cloze**

II. **In this section you will find after each of the passages a number of questions or unfinished statements about the passage, each with four suggested answers or ways of finishing. You must choose the one which you think fits best. Indicate the latter A, B, C, or D against the number of each item 1-15 for answer you choose. Given one answer only to each question. Read each passage right through before choosing your answers.**

FIRST PASSAGE

From its foundation in 1984 English Heritage has been an organization which has recognized the need to provide guidance for others on good conservation practice. Now the organization has published The Repair of Historic Buildings: advice on principles and methods, a book that sets out the principles and methods that the group believes should be applied in the repair of historic buildings and monuments.

The primary purpose of repair, it says, is to restrain the process of decay without damaging the character of building or monuments, altering the features that give them

their historic or architectural importance, or unnecessarily disturbing or destroying historic fabric. In short, the goal is to conserve as found.

The importance of understanding the historical development of a building and making records of this before and during repairs is stressed. So too is the need to analyze carefully and monitor existing defects before deciding on solutions. Existing materials and methods of construction should normally be matched in repairs, except where defects have clearly been caused by faulty specifications or design. In such cases, traditional alternatives are preferred to more recently developed and insufficiently proven techniques. Additions or alterations to a building are often important for the way they illustrate historical development. So they should be retained. There are cases where later changes detract from, rather than add to, the interest of the original, but it is now recognized by most that the restorations are important phases in the history of the building. Today, restoration back to the original structure is rare, usually only attempted when sufficient evidence exists, and where the later work is undisputedly of poor quality.

For practical measures, the book advises, the first line of defence is day-to-day maintenance that can be done by the owner of the building. This will include keeping gutters and rainwater pipes clear, removing vegetation and ensuring there is adequate ventilation. Then there is maintenance in the form of minor repairs – which usually requires the services of a builder. The longest section of the book discusses techniques or repairs for each of the main elements and associated materials ranging from structural stabilization to applying internal finishes such as plain and decorative plasterwork.

Inevitably there are techniques that are currently the subject of research, and alternatives to traditional methods which may be promising, but which have not yet been well proven. There are matters of approach about which there have long been differences of opinion among conservationists. But English Heritage intends to revise the book to take account of such developments.

Opinions differ more about the approach to repairing stonework than about almost any other element of a historic building. In the case of valuable medieval fabric, especially where there is carved work, the object should be to conserve and consolidate what is there, and replace the bare minimum. For general stonework repairs, decisions on the extent of replacement can be the subject of strong debate. Generally, English Heritage advises, stones of medieval buildings should only be replaced where they have lost their structural integrity because of deep erosion, or because of serious fracturing. A different approach may be appropriate for classical or Gothic revival buildings, particularly if they are the work of important architects and if there is a need to retain the integrity and clarity of design.

Debate of this kind will always continue to exercise the minds of conservationists. For this reason there can never be a standard specification for the repair and conservation of historic buildings.

1 The new book suggests that, when restoring a building, it is important to

A employ experts throughout the work.

B emphasize the character of the building.

C keep accurate records of the work.

D conceal damaged sections from view.

2 Alternative building materials are only recommended if

A the original choice was unsuitable.

B the building has developed defects.

C traditional materials are unavailable.

D the appearance of the building will not be affected.

3 Later additions to buildings should be removed if they are

A intended to hide original features.

B badly constructed.

C in an inferior style.

D in different materials from the original construction.

4 what is English Heritage's attitude to new repair techniques?

A They are an improvement on traditional methods.

B They should only be used as a last resort.

C They should be treated with caution.

D They stimulate useful discussion.

5 Medieval stonework should be replaced only if

A it has no carving on it.

B it has suffered severe cracking.

C its condition is affecting the foundations.

D it was not part of the architect's design.

SECOND PASSAGE

Alone in the apartment, Polly continued typing for ten minutes, then stopped to reheat her coffee. For the first time she felt the disadvantages of having become Jeanne's room mate. She didn't like being blamed for not wanting to visit Ida and Cathy, who weren't really her friends, and would probably be happier if she didn't come so they could analyze her character the way they always did with people who weren't there. They talked in a kind of catty way, even in a bitch way. Polly scowled, catching herself in a lapse of language. Jeanne, among others, had often pointed out how unfair it was that when women were compared to animals it was always unfavorably: catty, cow, henpecked. While for men the comparison was usually positive: strong as a bull, cock of the walk.

She turned on the tape recorder again and typed another page, then stopped, thinking of Jeanne again. She didn't like being called a workaholic, even affectionately. She didn't like being given permission not to see people she didn't want to see. It was, yes, as if she were a child, with a managing, overprotective mother.

Of course, when she really was a child, Polly never had an overprotective mother. Bea was only twenty when her daughter was born and she'd trouble enough protecting herself. She looked out for Polly the way an older sister or a baby-sitter might have done, without anxiety, encouraging her to become independent as fast as possible. Later, when Polly's half-brothers came along, Bea had shown impulses towards overprotection, but her husband frustrated them; he didn't want his sons 'made into sissies'.

According to Elsa, Polly's former shrink, any close relationship between women could revive one's first and profoundest attachment, to one's mother. Physically, of course, Jeanne was nothing like Polly's mother. Bea Milner was much smaller, for one thing. But to a child, all grown women are large. And psychologically there were similarities: Jeanne, like Bea, was soft and feminine in manner and given to gently chiding Polly for her impulsiveness, hot temper and lack of tact. Elsa's view had been that Polly needed Jeanne to play this role because she hadn't had enough 'good mothering' as a child and that Jeanne needed to play it because she was a highly maternal woman without children.

But I'm not a child any more, Polly thought. I don't want mothering. Anyhow, I'm four years older than Jeanne; the whole idea is stupid. She poured her coffee and added less sugar than usual.

6 What did Polly resent?

  A Jeanne's attitude to her
  B Ida and Cathy's gossip
  C having to share a room
  D being talked about

7 Why did Polly scowl?

  A because she disliked Ida and Cathy
  B because she wouldn't be missed
  C because Jeanne had criticized the language she used
  D because she was irritated by the words she was using

8 what do we learn about Polly's childhood?

  A She had felt a lack of affection.
  B She had learned to look after herself.
  C She was often separated from her mother.
  D She resented the attention her half-brothers received.

9 Which of her step-father's opinions does Polly recall?

A Boys need to be self-reliant.
B Mothers should treat all their children in the same way.
C Girls are more emotional than boys.
D Children should not be treated with affection.

10 In what respect did Jeanne resemble Polly's mother?

A her impatience
B her appearance
C her manner of speaking
D her level of intelligence

THIRD PASSAGE

There is no doubt that aggression and territoriality are part of modern life: vandalism is a distressingly familiar mark of the urban scene; we lock the doors of our houses and apartments against strangers who might wander in; and there is war, an apparent display of territoriality and aggression on a grand scale. Are these unsavory aspects of modern living simply part of an inescapable legacy of our animal origins? Or are they phenomena with entirely different causes? These are questions that must be answered since they are so clearly relevant to the future of our species.

To begin with, it is worth taking a broad view of territoriality and aggression in the animal world. Why are some animals territorial? Simply to protect resource, such as food, a nest, or a similar reproductive area. Many birds defend one piece of real estate in which a male may attract and court a female, and then move off to another one, also to be defended, in which they build a nest and rear young. The 'choking' by male kittiwakes, the lunging by sticklebacks, and the early morning chorus by gibbons are all displays announcing ownership of territory. Intruders who persist in violating another's territory are soon met with such displays, the intention of which is quite clear. The clarity of the defender's response, and also of the intruder's prowess, is the secret of nature's success with these so-called aggressive encounters.

Such confrontations are strictly ritualized, so that on all but the rarest occasions the biologically fitter of the two wins without the infliction of physical damage on either one. This 'aggression' is in fact an exercise in competitive display rather than physical violence. The individuals engage in stereotyped lunges, thrusts, and postures which may or may not be similar to their responses when a real threat to their lives arises, as from a predator, for instance. In either event, the outcome is a resolution of a territorial dispute with minimal injury to either party. The biological advantage of these mock battles is clear: a species that insists on settling disputes violently reduces its overall fitness to thrive in a world that offers enough environmental challenges any way.

The biological common sense implicit in this simple behavioral device is reiterated again and again throughout the animal kingdom, and even as far down as some ants. This law is so deeply embedded in the nature of survival and success in the game of evolution that for a species to transgress, there must be extremely unusual circumstances. We cannot deny that with the intention of tools, first made of wood and later of stone, an impulse to employ them occasionally as weapons might have caused serious injury, there being no stereotyped behavior patterns to defend their risk. And it is possible that our increasingly intelligent ancestors may have understood the implications of power over others through the delivery of one swift blow with a sharpened pebbled tool. But is it likely?

The answer must be no. An animal that develops a proclivity for killing its fellows thrusts itself into a disadvantageous evolutionary position. Because our ancestors probably lived in small bands, in which individuals were closely related to one another, and had as neighbors similar bands which also contained blood relatives, in most acts of murder the victim would more than likely have been kin to the murderer. As evolutionary success is the production of as many descendants as possible, an innate drive for killing individuals of one's own species would soon have wiped that species out. Humans, as we know, did not blunder up an evolutionary blind alley, a fate that innate, unrestrained aggressiveness would undoubtedly have produced.

11 The writer considers it important to determine the reasons for aggression in modern

life because

    A he wants to stress our links with animals.
    B vandalism is unpleasant.
    C future generations may be affected.
    D personal safety has become an issue.

12 Animals are territorial because

    A they have to protect their offspring.
    B nests are needed for different purposes.
    C they are naturally aggressive.
    D there is a limited supply of things they need.

13 In territorial confrontations, physical damage is

    A usually what happens in the end.
    B a consequence of competitive display.
    C inflicted to indicate superior status.
    D unlikely to happen in mock battles.

14 Physical damage is likely to occur during

    A courtship rituals.

B conflict with a predator.
C encounters between aggressive males.
D the search for food.

15 what is the mark of evolutionary success for a species?

A gaining control over a larger area
B developing superior methods of attack
C destroying all potential enemies
D increasing the size of the population

APPENDIX E - READING STRATEGIES QUESTIONNAIRE

Name: _____

Date: _____/_____/_____

Month   day   year

Direction: There are 41 statements about your reading in Chinese and in English in academic settings. For each statement there are 2 brackets. Please write the appropriate number in the brackets which best describes your reading of Chinese or English.

Never ←---→Always

1	2	3	4	5	6

(1) Never	(2) Rarely	(3) Sometimes
(4) Often	(5) Usually	(6) Always

READING ENGLISH	READING CHINESE
( ) 1. I try to connect what I am reading with what I already know.	( )
( ) 2. I try to somehow organize the material in my mind.	( )
( ) 3. I take note of good words and expressions.	( )
( ) 4. I read aloud words or sentences	( )
( ) 5. I analyze sentence structures when I do not understand the sentence.	( )
( ) 6. I make written summaries of information that I read.	( )
( ) 7. I translate.	( )
( ) 8. I try to relate the sound of the new words with the sounds of familiar words.	( )
( ) 9. I use the dictionary.	( )
( ) 10. I analyze the formation of unknown words.	( )

( ) 11. I ask the teacher, classmates or friends for help.	( )
( ) 12. I am aware of the format of the article.	( )
( ) 13. I pay attention to the author, the foot/end notes and the references.	( )
( ) 14. I read the graphics in the article very carefully.	( )
( ) 15. I make summaries orally.	( )
( ) 16. I ignore unknown words.	( )
( ) 17. I memorize technical terms.	( )
( ) 18. I take notes.	( )
( ) 19. I read books, magazines, and newspapers in my leisure time.	( )
( ) 20. I make comments and evaluations	( )
( ) 21. I show my written assignments to others.	( )
( ) 22. Before I read an article, I plan what I'm going to do.	( )
( ) 23. I use my time well in my reading.	( )
( ) 24. I think about how I read best.	( )
( ) 25. I test my newly-learned knowledge to new situations.	( )
( ) 26. I set goals in my reading.	( )
( ) 27. I read an article very carefully.	( )
( ) 28. I check if my understanding is correct.	( )
( ) 29. I raise questions.	( )
( ) 30. I make predictions.	( )
( ) 31. I pay attention to key words in the text.	( )
( ) 32. I pay attention to every word in the text.	( )
( ) 33. I notice the main ideas.	( )

( ) 34. I am aware of my strategy use.	( )
( ) 35. I paraphrase what I read.	( )
( ) 36. I guess.	( )
( ) 37. I pay attention to topic sentences in the text.	( )
( ) 38. I re-read.	( )
( ) 39. I mark the text.	( )
( ) 40. I discuss what I have read with others.	( )
( ) 41. I use other resources about the same topic I read.	( )

APPENDIX F - TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS[17]

(#)   Marks the length of a pause

(( ))   Comments or details pertaining to interaction

Italics English translation

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[17] The transcription conventions are adopted from Duff (2000).

APPENDIX G - ACADEMIC ARTICLES USED FOR THINK-ALOUD TASKS

Teaching ESL in an Unfamiliar Context: International Students in a North American MA TESOL Practicum

Charlene Polio and Carol Wilson-Duffy

Each year many international students from non-English-speaking countries travel to North America to study for an MA in TESOL.[1] Although these future teachers have a variety of reasons and goals for studying in North America, most plan on returning to their native countries to teach EFL (Polio, 1994). Research on preservice teachers (e.g., Brinton & Holton, 1989; Johnson, 1992; Winer, 1992) refers to international students in MA TESOL programs simply because most North American TESOL programs seem to enroll many of them. Little has been written, however, about their concerns and difficulties. Here we investigate the concerns and difficulties these students have regarding the TESOL practicum component of an MA program and make recommendations to teacher educators involved in preservice teacher education.

Although the nature of the TESOL practicum may vary, international students will have to stand up and teach a language that is not their native language, in a setting in which they were not educated. We suspect that this is a unique situation. Although North American universities and secondary schools have foreign language courses taught by nonnative speakers (NNSs), those teachers are familiar with the educational setting and share their students' L1. International teaching assistants, who may have language difficulties, are experts in the field they are teaching. Nonnative ESL teachers, however, are in a situation similar to their students'— and in some cases, may even be of similar English proficiency.

Setting

The practicum students at Michigan State University implement an independent ESL speaking and listening course, offered to members of the university and community for a nominal materials charge. The MA students are responsible for advertising, placement testing, curriculum development, and teaching. They spend the first 8 weeks planning the curriculum, microteaching, and observing classes, and the next 6 weeks teaching 2 nights a week for 2 hours a night. The semester this study was completed, 140

ESL learners from more than 30 countries participated. These students were placed into one of four levels, each containing about 35 students.

Eleven MA students were enrolled in the practicum: five from the United States, four from Asia, and two from the Middle East. (The other U.S. students in the MA program had the practicum waived because they were teaching assistants in university ESL courses.) Each ESL class had at least one native speaker (NS) and one NNS student teacher. A theme-based curriculum was developed for the course, with each week focusing on a different topic related to American culture. Each pair of MA students was responsible for a week (i.e., 4 hours) of lesson plans that they exchanged with the other students, who could modify them once they began teaching.

Data Collection and Participants

This study followed three international MA students through the practicum. Data

were gathered from three sources: interviews, journals, and assignments.

Interviews

MA students were interviewed three times—before they started teaching in the practicum; the second or third week of teaching, after the interviewer had observed them teach; and after the practicum was over.[2]

Journals

These were not dialogue journals but rather teaching logs in which the MA students recorded changes they made to the original lesson plans, how they thought the class went, even when their partners were teaching, and what they would have done differently.

Assignments

MA students wrote a description of the class observed by the interviewer and what they learned from meeting with the interviewer, as well as a letter of recommendation about themselves as ESL teachers.

Two female students from Asia and one male student from the Middle East are profiled below. All three students had scored above 600 on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and had successfully completed at least one semester of graduate study in TESOL. Like the NSs in the practicum, the international students had very little teaching experience.

Anne's Practicum Experience

Anne[3] came to the United States to expand her knowledge of U.S. culture and to "practice teaching English in English," as opposed to teaching English in the L1 of her country. She admitted, however, that students in her Asian country did not always like it when she tried to teach English in English. In her first interview, Anne summarized her worst problem by saying:

The biggest problem? I have to work in EFL setting. So far I have studied TESOL in ESL settings. I don't know how to transfer. I think that is the biggest problem. I don't know how to

transplant what I have got here to [Asian] settings.

Anne stated that she was not too concerned about teaching, although she was somewhat worried about being able to move easily from activity to activity in the classroom. In general, she was far more concerned about her language skills than her teaching skills, although her concern may not have been so much that she thought she had poor English skills but that the students might be disappointed with a NNS:

What if they didn't listen to me? What if they thought my English is poor? Because I'm a nonnative speaker they

A student had arrived late to class and had asked a question. Alice had been nervous and did not know how to handle the situation, so she ignored his question.

would expect native speakers to teach English in that course. I'm worried about that matter. All nonnative speakers are worried about that.

In Anne's second interview she appeared confident as she talked about how good she was at maintaining a comfortable classroom atmosphere by joking with the students. She even added, "If I were teaching in [my L1] I would be perfect, kinda perfect." However, when asked how she might change the lesson if she were to go back and do it again, she said that maybe she should have given a longer introduction; she had cut it short because she had been worried about her English:

So usually my introduction part is kind of short compared to native teachers speaking. So I try to talk more, but I'm just afraid. I'm just afraid that what I'm going to tell them will not work or will be misunderstood. So I'm just

worried about that kind of thing, so I'm just trying to make my introduction part short as much as I can, succinct ...You know, it's because I'm a nonnative speaker; I'm just afraid that they won't understand my speech or my introduction. I'm so depressed when I'm stressed and misunderstood. I hate that kind of thing.
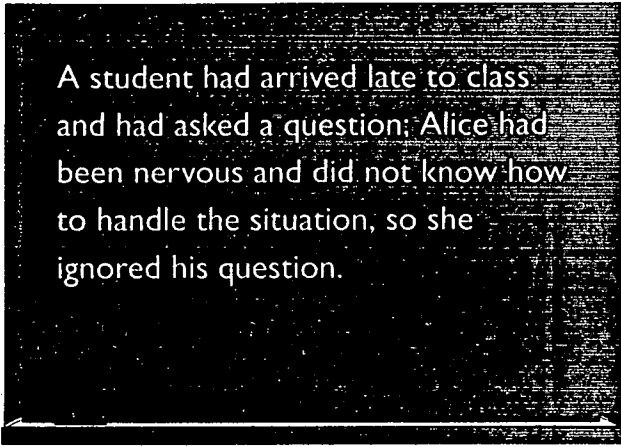
She expressed similar comments throughout the interview. One of her few nonlinguistic concerns was that the lesson plan had been too long and she had not finished it. She also wondered what to do when she could not answer a question. The interviewer explained that she could say that she was not prepared to answer the question but would find out the answer and get back to the student. Anne responded that in her country you cannot do that because "you are supposed to pretend to be perfect in your field."

In the third interview her concerns remained similar. When asked about her strengths and weaknesses, she maintained that she had a very good relationship with the students and felt comfortable about creating lesson plans. She even stated, "Well, I think I should tell you that I think that I have talent to teach. I have talent or character that is good at teaching something as well as English." She did not, however, discard the notion that her English ability was insufficient:

Well, I thought I was good at teaching English. After the practicum, I evaluated myself and I am not qualified to teach English because an English teacher is supposed to be fluent in English and I don't think I was during the practicum.

Anne said that she felt good about her teaching when the students understood her and when they gave her roses on the last day and told her she was a good English teacher.

Anne's journals reflected pedagogical issues more often than her interviews did. Her comments about teaching were similar to those of many novice teachers and included concerns about the timing of lessons, class size, use of the board, level of the students, course objectives, activities, directions, and classroom atmosphere and participation. She

occasionally mentioned problems related to being a NNS, particularly the difficulties she had with slang or idioms in some of the authentic materials. One problem occurred when a student used a word that she did not know in a role play:

> When I heard that word I thought it was not a real word because I have never heard about it and sounded strange to me. After class, the student, who said the word [ukulele], explained to me it's a kind of instrument in a island. I was so embarrassed not to know and explain it to the class. I, as a nonnative English teacher, think I might sometimes have that kind of situation. I'd better be honest with students about something I do not know or understand in class.

It seems here that Anne may be questioning her assumption that the teacher has to be perfect.

Another interesting problem was a difference in cultural norms as to a good teacher. When Anne's class did not end on time, she recognized this as a problem, saying:

> In [my country], teachers who teach a class over the time are often called good teachers. It does not the case in the United States. I think I need to keep in mind class time management whenever I teach.
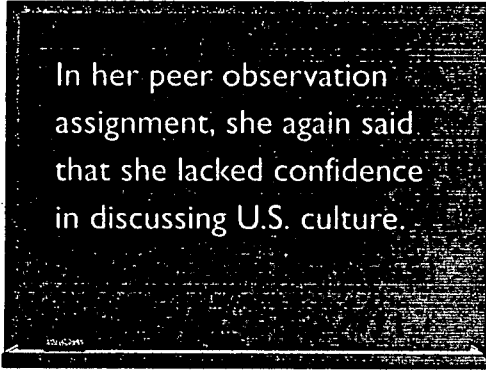
Mark's Practicum Experience

Upon graduation, Mark hopes to return to his native country in the Middle East and teach at the university level. Mark's greatest concerns regarding the practicum were his perceptions that he had not had enough previous teaching experience and that the students would prefer a NS teacher; he also worried about the amount of preparation time the practicum would take. When asked if he felt prepared to begin teaching, Mark replied, "No, not at all. I need more experience related to teaching English because that's what I'll do." He said that learning how to execute lesson plans would be his major concern. Mark's apprehension regarding the practicum focused on the different levels of the students and his unfamiliarity with these levels.

Although Mark said that he generally did not worry about his English proficiency ("I mean, all the international students, even though they are ambitious, make mistake sometimes"), he said that from his experience, students preferred NS teachers. When

asked how he would overcome this problem, he said:

> Well, I'm trying to prepare myself to speak the language even though they wouldn't like it, you know. I heard they were even complaining, you know, about British accents.

During the second interview, Mark said that each time he taught he felt more comfortable, although there were many ways he could improve. His main concerns were with vocabulary and spelling. He reported that while attempting to elicit vocabulary concerning the topic of crime, he had difficulty deciphering a student's response of *blackmail*. Thinking that the student was stereotyping a criminal as a Black man, the teacher attempted to ignore the student's apparent racist response, yet the student continued to repeat the answer. Finally, Mark asked him to spell the word. As soon as the word was spelled, Mark understood the student.

> In her peer observation assignment, she again said that she lacked confidence in discussing U.S. culture.

Another problem was that students would sometimes respond to a question with a vocabulary word that Mark did not know how to spell. In order not to embarrass himself, Mark would repeat the word, but avoid writing it on the board:

> For me, it's not the meaning of things that's the problem, but it's the spelling. But sometimes I use another strategy. When they brought something up that I didn't know how to spell, I discuss it with them orally instead of writing it on the board. It's not on my list, but I'm not ignoring the things they brought up. I just figure it out—can I write it right? If not, then I discuss it with them orally.

During the third interview Mark mentioned the problem of students responding to

his questions with unfamiliar vocabulary. But when asked about his impression of his teaching abilities, he answered, "You can't compare it with my ability before this course. For sure it has been improved. I feel OK now." Yet Mark felt that he needed more practice dealing with students, and would have liked to have taken another practicum to help him bridge the gap between theory and practice. Like Anne, however, Mark found confidence in the students' reactions at the end of the course.

> You know, when you are only practicing, to find the student happy with what you did is a really good indication that you might be a good teacher. So at the end of the course, when some of the students came to me and thanked me and they said they had a wonderful time and that I did a good job and that it was a good course and they liked the way we were teaching, ... it gave me sort—I don't know how to express it—sort of a self-confidence that indicated that I might be a good teacher.

The concerns expressed in Mark's journal and assignments were not related to being an international student but rather to activities, class participation, classroom management, materials, and difficulty and length of the lessons.

Alice's Practicum Experience

Our third participant, Alice, said that she was studying in the United States to learn more about the methodologies of teaching English and to improve her own English. In her first interview, Alice stated that her biggest concern was the accuracy of her English. "... If I teach the students in [my L1], I would do much better—yeah, I'm confident. But speaking English, maybe I'll be shaking again." She said that she also needed to work on classroom management skills:

> Stuff like please be quiet, should I have to say please be quiet, or I can use another way to make the students be [quiet], to draw students' attention to here or there ... even though I don't know where I should stay, where I should stand.

Later in the conversation the topic turned to cultural differences involved in classroom management. Alice said that if a student was disruptive in class, she would not reprimand him regardless of how many times the situation occurred. Instead, she would behave in the Asian way, which she interpreted as talk-

ing with the student after class. She also mentioned that using certain classroom media such as the overhead projector, blackboard, and computers would be difficult because she had never done so.

During all three interviews Alice mentioned that working with other student teachers as part of a team was extremely helpful. When asked what she thought would be the easiest part of the practicum, she quickly answered, "Developing lesson plans and materials." When asked why, she answered:

> Because we have teams. It's teamwork. So we can help one another. You know what, teamwork is really good. We can help each other, and we get better information, very good information, or good suggestions from other students.

During the second interview Alice discussed her concern with the perceived dullness of the lesson plan and a classroom management problem. A student had arrived late to class and had asked a question; Alice had been nervous and did not know how to handle the situation, so she ignored his question.

> At that time should I tell him about the classroom again? Right? I don't know. I don't know. Just ignore it ... oh you're late ... I was just nervous ... I didn't know what to tell him, so it was hard to respond to that situation.

Alice said that although she felt that her English was getting better, she still did not feel comfortable teaching in it. She also discussed some problems she might have transferring skills. She said that she would not be teaching in English when she returned to her native country, and that the use of group work was not very common in her country; judging from her own experience, it was mostly used there by American teachers.

Although in the final interview Alice discussed many areas that she still needed to improve, she proudly said that she was happy with her ability to develop lesson plans and her relationship with the students. She also said that she felt her English had improved, as well as her teaching ability. "It was a good experience. Actually it was my first experience to teach. It was a really, really good experience." When asked her most successful moment, she answered:
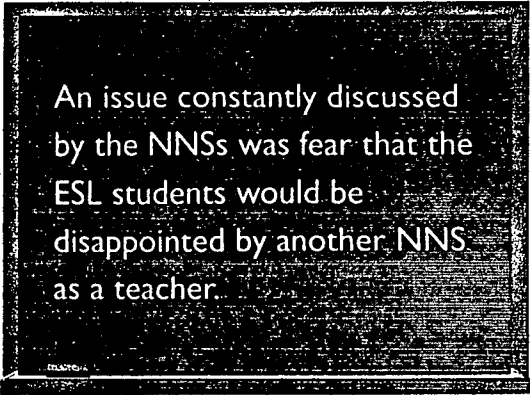
> When I was explaining what *choking* was, I illustrated with my own experience with my nieces and nephews—lit-

tle children and they are very vulnerable; they can even swallow hard and round candy, so they can be choked by that .... So, I can draw a picture of the story on the blackboard based on my own experience. It was very funny. We were enjoying my drawing .... I suc-

An issue constantly discussed by the NNSs was fear that the ESL students would be disappointed by another NNS as a teacher.

cessfully made them understand what the choking was.

Other difficulties for Alice included the fact that she spent a great deal of time preparing to teach—an average of 3 to 4 hours for each 2-hour lesson—and that she had to discuss U.S. culture. "The daily culture—what's really happening to Americans. I don't have much self-confidence with that."

The last concern that Alice expressed was shared by the other participants: She wanted more observations, feedback, and practice in teaching other skills, including grammar.

Alice's journals revealed concerns similar to Mark's with such concepts as giving instructions, techniques and activities, transitions between lessons, the difficulty level of lessons, and the interest level of the students. In her peer observation assignment she again said that she lacked confidence in discussing U.S. culture.

Summary and Recommendations

The international MA students had concerns similar to those of all preservice teachers. However, they also had concerns that were specifically related to their linguistic backgrounds. First and foremost were the problems they faced as NNSs of English. Specifically, they were afraid that the ESL students would not understand them, that they would misspell words, and that they

would not understand U.S. slang, idioms, and cultural references in authentic texts. Even when they felt somewhat confident, they were afraid of the ESL students' attitude toward being taught by a NNS.

Other problems were more cultural, such as U.S. classroom management styles (e.g., ending class on time, dealing with late students) and the expectation that the teacher could not be less than perfect. Finally, the MA students were concerned with transferring skills to an EFL setting, where often English was not used and some kinds of activities, such as group work, were not common.

Based on the discussion above, we devised the following recommendations with the MA students. The suggestions assume the free ESL course practicum format; such a course was suggested in a recent article on intensive English program (IEP)/MA TESOL program integration (Savova, 1997) to give beginners experience teaching.

Use a Team-Teaching Model

We believe that the pairing of NSs and NNSs is essential for international MA students to take on an English course in a new culture. In the practicum discussed in this article, the NNS always had a NS practicum student in the room who could address linguistic or cultural matters unknown to the NNS and assist with slang, idioms, and cultural information in the authentic materials. In addition, the NNSs had a better sense of the ESL students' background knowledge of U.S. culture.

Encourage Better Communication

Given that the classes are team taught, the teachers must decide ahead of time how they want to interact in the classroom. For example, when NNSs misspell or mispronounce a word, do they want their partner to interrupt? Would NNSs be willing to ask a NS for judgment on a structure? Similarly, do the NSs want the NNSs to help out when the NNS shares the ESL student's L1 and is better able to understand the ESL student?

Develop Lesson Plans in Teams

In addition to team teaching, team lesson plan development is important. In the practicum, the NNSs had a sense of what the ESL students might like to cover for topics,

and the NSs could assist the NNSs in working with authentic materials.

Discuss Compensation Strategies

The MA students interviewed were concerned about being understood. In the practicum, the use of the blackboard as a compensation strategy was emphasized. This backfired for Mark, however, who had trouble spelling; thus the same strategies may not be appropriate for everyone. Teachers also need to be aware of ways to get the ESL students to repeat and modify when they do not understand a student's response. In our observations, it often appeared that when an ESL student was not comprehensible, the NNS teachers seemed to think it was poor listening comprehension on their part. Engaging the student in interaction may repair the communication breakdown.

Provide Additional Language Assistance

The students interviewed wanted more practice and help with language; one student specifically mentioned a content-based ESL class for MA TESOL students. Although this is an excellent idea, low enrollment may preclude offering it. When giving feedback on microteaching, little time was left to discuss

language. This year a few extra sessions for international students were added to the practicum, allowing them to teach each other and receive feedback on language.

Tell ESL Students Who Their Teachers Will Be

An issue constantly discussed by the NNSs was fear that the ESL students would be disappointed by another NNS as a teacher. After students signed up for the course, they were told that their teachers would be graduate students who were just beginning to learn how to teach; this year we included the fact that half of them were international students. It should be noted, however, that throughout the course and on course evaluations from the ESL students, no one complained of having a NNS teacher.

Have Large Classes

The practicum participants had large classes to teach because we wanted to give more students an opportunity for free ESL classes and feared that the attrition rate might be high. In retrospect, it was beneficial for the international students, who would be returning to their countries where classes of 15 to 20 were not common. Large classes allowed the MA students to consider, for example, how to organize group work with

35 students. This issue can be addressed further by having students seek out resources specifically for large classes (e.g., Cross, 1995).

Hold Periodic Discussions on Teaching

Once the practicum participants began teaching, they stopped meeting as a group. In retrospect, the MA students and professor should have met periodically during this time to discuss unanticipated problems for everyone—not just the international students. For the international students, such meetings may have facilitated communication with their team teacher. Also, the group could have discussed the cultural problems some members were having, such as dealing with late students and avoiding running overtime.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we feel that our program is well suited to giving U.S. and international students intensive practical training and is preferable to placing international students in an IEP, where tuition-paying students may protest about having a preservice teacher, or an English for academic purposes (EAP) course focusing on academic skills primarily for North American university students. Although the cultural differences will always

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Vocabulary teaching:
looking behind the word

Diana Ooi and
Julia Lee Kim-Seoh

This paper discusses some findings on the lexical competence of a group of undergraduates who are not native-speakers of English, but who have been through an education system in which that language is the medium of instruction. The data indicates that they have a problem which is related to use rather than to inadequate knowledge of word-meaning. It is argued that the teaching of vocabulary depends on the integration of lexis, grammar, and discourse, and that this can be achieved if lexis is taught through reading. Given the evidence, it is suggested that traditional criteria for item selection might have to give way to new ones that would allow specific learner needs to be more directly attended to.[1]

Introduction

In a state-of-the-art article McCarthy (1990) made the observation that, in recent years, vocabulary teaching has come into its own again in ELT, but with a difference—practitioners now had much more to think about (and draw from). Computer-aided research was giving us vast amounts of information about how words behave and the relationships they form in real-life communication; psycholinguistic studies were providing further insights into how the mind processes and stores vocabulary, and we also knew more about effective teaching and learning strategies. As a result, traditional ideas about what is involved in the teaching of lexis appeared to be no longer tenable.

This article discusses evidence that corroborates this observation. First, we present findings that indicate clearly that lexical competence must be understood as competence for use rather than just knowledge of word-meaning. We then consider the implications for classroom teaching.

The study

There were a total of 110 subjects: 20 native-speaker faculty members (NS), and 90 non-native-speaker (NNS) first year students from Nanyang Technological University, Singapore. The subjects were asked to complete two general-interest texts, each containing 50 deleted items. The student sample was discriminated to reflect three levels of proficiency—high (SH), intermediate (SI), and low (SL).

The fixed-ratio method of deletion was employed, and responses were judged according to the acceptable-word scoring method. A response

was deemed acceptable if it was the original word, or a replacement that met both semantic and syntactic constraints. A response would be unacceptable if it was contextually appropriate but did not fit syntactically or stylistically; an altogether wrong answer would be any item that was clearly contextually inappropriate, that contained two words instead of one, or was not attempted.

Results Data analysis showed that the only qualitative difference between the performance of native speakers and SH learners lay in the fact that native speakers were able to provide original word answers more often; otherwise SH approximated very closely to native speakers. However, the activity did very clearly discriminate against the non-native speakers.

The rest of this paper focuses on lexical competence as reflected in the subjects' performance on some selected verb items. Our observations about verbs would, we believe, apply equally to nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

The data indicates that SI and SL performance was marred by (a) incomplete appreciation of 'contrast within similarity', (b) inadequate knowledge of correct collocations, and (c) inadequate knowledge of word derivations. Below we consider examples from the data.

Incomplete appreciation of contrast within similarity In languages with a very rich vocabulary we are unlikely to find words that are completely synonymous with one another. A set of words may share certain semantic features but not others. It cannot be presumed that learners will be aware of this possibility unless it has been explicitly taught. Generally speaking, incidental learning will not inculcate this awareness. Tables 1 to 3 show responses to test items which indicate this incomplete appreciation.

Table 1 **Item 43 Passage 1**

And this alone, even if (40) we went no further, would be an excellent reason (41) for not merely brushing dreams aside. . . . Whose life would not be improved (43) by a little additional reflection?

Responses	NS	SH	SI	SL
improved	5	13	3	–
enriched	6	7	1	–
enhanced	4	2	–	–
bettered	–	1	–	–
brightened	–	1	–	–
affected	1	2	9	11
changed	1	–	1	1

Unacceptable: better, filled, interesting, complete, added, stimulated, meaningful, benefitted, liven, richer, happier

In item 43 of Passage 1 (see Table 1), we accepted *affected* and *changed* as contextually appropriate answers. Both words convey the idea of change, yet when represented along a continuum it becomes obvious that they lack the positive evaluation found in *improved, enriched, enhanced, bettered,* and *brightened.*

Vocabulary teaching: looking behind the word 53

negative	neutral	positive
marred	affected	improved
spoilt	changed	enriched
ruined		enhanced
worsened		bettered
		brightened

Whether a verb is neutral or positive makes a difference to the pragmatic or communicative value of a statement.

Table 2   Item 22 Passage 2

Asked <u>simply</u> (15) 'Are you lonely?' women are more <u>likely</u> (16) than men to say yes. On <u>other</u> (17) more subtle measures of loneliness, however, <u>men</u> (18) often have higher scores. . . . Men <u>reveal</u> (22) more loneliness when the question taps <u>the</u> (23) quality of their relationships.

Responses	NS	SH	SI	SL
reveal	2	1	1	–
indicate	1	–	–	–
reflect	1	1	–	–
display ?	2	1	–	–
admit ?	8	2	3	1
acknowledge ?	2	1	–	–
express ?	3	4	1	2
show ?	1	4	10	2
exhibit ?	–	1	–	–

In item 22 of Passage 2 (see Table 2), the writer is talking about the general reluctance of men to openly admit their feelings of loneliness, and the necessity, therefore, of using inferential data in order to elicit information of this nature. Consequently, the required word would not only have to convey the sense 'to make known', it must also possess the additional semantic feature of *volition*. Given this context, the following set of words must be differentiated:

+ volition	+/− volition
admit	reveal
acknowledge	reflect
express	indicate
	display ?
	show ?

The required response cannot be selected from the set that has the + volition property. The words *show* and *display* are rather tricky. They could be read as − volition. But we think the semantic feature that is central to both items is not the notion of 'to make known' but 'to cause to be seen'. The use of these two words would suggest something that can be visually perceived. Consequently, we consider them unacceptable.

To be able to give a correct response to item 35 of Passage 1 (Table 3), the learner must distinguish between *use* and *meaning*.

Table 3 **Item 35 Passage 1**

In <u>fact</u> (32), the dreaming mind may be compared to a <u>movie</u> (33) director, picking up things from waking life that <u>need</u> (34) more attention than we have given them and <u>reflecting</u> (35) on them in depth by composing stories.

Responses	NS	SH	SI	SL
reflecting	3	4	–	–
focussing	5	2	2	1
working	2	7	5	1
developing	1	1	1	–
pondering	1	1	1	–
elaborating	–	4	3	–
dwelling ?	3	4	1	–

The expression *dwelling on something* is often used in a context where the speaker wishes to register disapproval or disagreement of a sort, e.g. 'Why are you dwelling on this? It's rather a depressing thought, isn't it?' The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines the meaning of *dwell on* as 'to think or speak a lot about esp. to an unhealthy or annoying degree'. While the COBUILD Dictionary does not specifically draw attention to this negative overtone, it describes *dwelling on* as synonymous with *brood about/on*, and its definition of *brood about* contains the phrase 'often with strong feelings of bitterness, resentment or revenge'.

Learners with limited experience of use will not realize that since there is nothing the speaker has said so far (or subsequently) to suggest that he sees anything negative in what the movie director is doing, *dwelling on* would not be an appropriate response.[2]

Inadequate knowledge of correct collocations

In item 27 of Passage 1, it is interesting to note the large number of NNS subjects who responded with *told* (see Table 4). But the verbs *told* and *taught* do not habitually co-occur with the noun *idea*. Elsewhere in the cloze task, similar collocational errors were made with adjective-noun and noun-noun associations.

Table 4 **Item 27 Passage 1**

... the day or so before the <u>dream</u> (25), while the dead person appeared perhaps in order <u>to</u> (26) remind us of an idea he or she <u>gave</u> (27) us many years ago, which ...

Responses	NS	SH	SI	SL
gave	15	12	4	–
left	–	1	4	9
told ?	3	16	18	8
taught ?	–	–	–	1

Inadequate knowledge of word derivations

The unacceptable responses for item 43 in Passage 1 (see Table 1) show that the problem lay not with comprehension but with knowledge of derived forms. Because of the syntax, item 43 would have to be a passivized verb and not an adjective like *better* or *richer*. But with one exception (the lone SI who supplied the word *enriched*), only two SH could produce an acceptable derived verb, *bettered/brightened*, in its passive form. Another clear example of this kind of inadequate knowledge is the word *liven*.

Vocabulary teaching: looking behind the word   55

Implications for classroom teaching

The following discussion assumes that learners are already at the intermediate or advanced level.

The findings of this study indicate that lexical competence implies more than just knowing what a word means. It subsumes a number of other kinds of knowledge, including knowing what differentiates one word from other words that appear to mean the same; what other meanings a word might have; what other words derive from it; what kinds of associative links it has with other items in the lexicon; how it behaves syntactically and, just as importantly, its limitations of use according to situation and function (Richards 1976).

This means that vocabulary instruction should go beyond just helping the learner to internalize dictionary meaning. A central purpose in teaching should be to encourage and help the learner to become more aware of how native speakers and other proficient speakers use the target language, and to be more sensitive to differences in nuances and shades of meaning. Traditionally, vocabulary instruction has been equated with teaching word meaning, and students have learned lists of words, synonyms, and antonyms in the belief that vocabulary extension work has been taken care of. But this does not give learners a better understanding of the kind of lexical choices available to proficient users of the language, or of why one alternative is preferred to another. Learners should be encouraged to make a habit of comparing and contrasting particular uses of language.

Lexical sets

To achieve this goal, it is suggested that new items should be taught with reference to a set of other words, to draw attention to conceptual differences as well as differences in use. It is known, for example, that the semantic set comprising the items *chat, talk, discuss*, and *debate* reflects a scale of increasing formality or seriousness with which the activity is pursued (Macaulay 1976). So an invitation to new neighbours will be 'Do drop in for a *chat* any time you feel like it', rather than 'Do drop in for a *talk/discussion/debate* any time you feel like it'. Consider another example of contrast within similarity—the set of adjectives that includes *generous, hospitable, liberal, charitable*, and *magnanimous*. The expression *generous parents* does not mean the same as *liberal parents*, nor does *hospitable friends* mean the same as *charitable friends*. We are *generous* with our friends but *magnanimous* with our enemies. Teaching any one member of sets such as these in isolation from the others would be less efficient than presenting a fuller range that will allow us to contrast use. (Notice it is not suggested that the *complete* set should be taught.)

Collocations

In like manner, it is argued that it would be more useful to the learner for target items to be presented in collocation with at least one other word, e.g. by teaching a verb with a noun, an adjective with a noun, an adverb with a verb or adjective, and a verb with a preposition. In this way, attention can also be drawn to syntagmatic relationships. Ideally,

Diana Ooi and Julia Lee Kim-Seoh

the learner who happens to be an engineer, for example, should be able to use the verb *collapse* not only to talk about buildings, but also about people, talks, negotiations, the economy, the stock market, a pair of lungs, etc.

Teaching vocabulary through reading

To accomplish these wider goals for vocabulary instruction, it is suggested that lexis, grammar, and discourse should no longer be thought of as separate strands in the language syllabus. An integrative approach would allow the teacher to shift attention from one to the other and back again, in a manner that is natural and unforced. For example, immediately after explaining what a word means semantically, the teacher might want to talk about its discourse or pragmatic value (the concept of marked and unmarked terms), teach or revise word formation processes in relation to that particular item, or show how syntactic configurations change depending on which form of a root word is used.

This can be achieved without too much strain by reorientating the more established approach, and thinking in terms of 'activities' rather than clearly demarcated 'lessons'. This would mean no longer having the 'vocabulary lesson' as such, but instead teaching vocabulary through reading, and selecting passages for the reading skills lesson with a view to incorporating vocabulary and grammar activities.

The avoidance of predetermined word lists of disparate items based on frequency counts, concepts of learnability, coverage, etc., is also recommended. Pedagogic word lists can be derived from a corpus of written texts, and learners should be strongly urged to contribute to this data bank according to their own interests and aims.

There are certain advantages to this approach. Breen (1984) has argued in favour of teaching content that is jointly constructed by the learner and teacher, since all learners ultimately create their own learning syllabus out of what they are given in class. Rivers (1983) believes that retention of taught items is enhanced if the learner understands them in relation to his or her own goals and purposes. Gairns and Redman (1986) also regard learner engagement as of primary importance, and recommend that learners should be encouraged to contribute items they want to learn. McKeown *et al.* (1985) and Channell (1981) believe that learning will be facilitated if the learner is able to develop semantic networks around learned words. Stahl (1983) says that effective learning involves making connections between new and known information, and that for this, deep-level processing is necessary. Vocabulary taught through reading would give the learner more opportunities to process language use at a deeper level and to develop semantic networks and other kinds of associative links that will ultimately enhance learning.

A good deal has been written in the same vein on techniques for learning and teaching (see Oxford and Crookall (1990) for a review). More recent approaches focus on the teaching of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships, and describe the use of such devices as

scales, hierarchies, grids, and matrices for illustrating the semantic differences between items or their collocability, both syntactic as well as semantic (for example, Rudzka *et al.* 1985). There is sufficient published material, in other words, to help refine personal insights and educate intuitions.

Conclusion   It has been argued that the purpose of vocabulary instruction should be to make the learner more discriminating of word meaning and word use. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to integrate lexis, grammar, and discourse. This can be accomplished by teaching vocabulary through reading and thinking in terms of 'activities' with varying focus rather than clearly demarcated 'lessons'. This approach has advantages, in particular the fact that learners can be involved in the process of deciding what should be taught, and when. This should enhance motivation and engagement.

It has also been argued that teaching content should address specific learner needs. This would mean that, for intermediate and advanced learners, traditional selectional criteria (frequency, coverage, availability, etc.) might be given a lower priority than items that lend themselves to particular kinds of treatment, such as comparison and contrast, derivational processes, and collocabilty.

Received November 1994

Notes

1 The findings discussed here were first presented at the Guilin ELT International Conference, Guilin, People's Republic of China, 19–24 July, 1993.
2 Our purpose is to highlight the distinction between *use* and *meaning*. We do not, therefore, discuss the relative merits of the other responses listed in the table as acceptable substitutions for the original word.

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Culture and foreign language teaching

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INTRODUCTION

This essay considers various approaches to the teaching of culture in connection with foreign language (FL) teaching with a view to making a realistic suggestion as to how to integrate the language and culture elements. I am particularly concerned with FL students at the lower and intermediate levels, where the cultural input is often omitted on the basis that students' linguistic skills do not allow them to study authentic information sources.

There are many good reasons for considering which aspects of culture can be taught in the FL classroom. These can be divided roughly under two headings: motivation and cognitive development. Many students appear dissatisfied with language courses which aim to teach either 'essential' transactional phrases or the elementary grammatical rules governing basic structures. Students often say that they feel they are not 'making progress' despite the fact that the number and complexity of structures introduced by the teacher increase as the course goes on. I think that this is due largely to the neglect of non-linguistic elements in certain courses, which fail to challenge students' preconceived attitudes to what they are studying. The emphasis is on the rehearsal of 'realistic' situations without the need to communicate thoughts and feelings. The consequent demotivation leads not only to a high drop-out rate, but also to inertia in the cognitive development of those students who persevere. Many of our students want to see more of the culture of the countries where the target language is spoken. It is crucial to use this natural curiosity to present students with alternative sets of cultural values and concepts which enable them to look critically at their native culture.

There is also the desire on the part of many teachers to break down cultural barriers and undermine the dominant association of certain languages with certain economically powerful nation states and the stereotypical images many people have of foreign countries. FL learning has traditionally been associated with the assumption of a deeper knowledge of the countries where that language is spoken. In practice, much of the knowledge which FL students gain of the target cultures is unsystematic and incidental. In addition to choosing which items of socio-political knowledge we want students to study, we need to consider the extent to which we ought to be enabling them to raise their consciousness of the process of language learning, undertake research projects, ask questions about their awareness of their own culture, etc.

However, it continues to be easier to describe the benefits of FL learning which are not specific to the language than to plan a syllabus which incorporates areas of non-linguistic competence. Whilst everyone agrees that teaching a FL involves introducing their students to that culture, few agree on which parts of that culture their students would most benefit from getting to know.

A RADICAL SOLUTION

The various arguments in this debate are centred around the question of whether FL teaching should take place in an independent study field, or be attached to some other subject, in order to present language in natural communicative contexts. This is a reaction against the perceived failure of language teachers to teach real language use. Instead of this they are said to have emphasised discrete aspects of language performance which their students have had to learn out of context through unnatural grammar drills or stiff role play exercises. The trend toward communicative language teaching techniques has not significantly altered the end result, because these tend to put students in unrealistic rehearsal situations which do not contribute to a wider awareness of the cultural parameters associated with the target language and as such are often demotivating. A widespread conclusion seems to be that language should not be taught as an isolated skill, but needs to be embedded in a content-based

area of the syllabus. This begs many questions about which area would be most suitable and how language competence could be achieved at all.

One of the most radical alternative approaches to this problem was put forward by Lambert (1974). It is interesting to note that his proposals were a response to 'growing dissatisfaction among students with standard programmes of FL instruction' in US Institutions of Higher Education, reflected in, among other things, a drop-off in enrolments.Lambert sees part of the problem as the rigidity of the FL teaching profession and its unwillingness to change according to the changes in the nature of the demand for FL courses. One of the reasons why standard FL courses were perceived to be anachronistic was, according to Lambert, their focus on distant countries and cultures when large numbers of citizens from those countries were living in the States. This influenced students' perception of the value of those cultures in two ways. Firstly they saw how people who came from those countries usually occupied menial jobs and suffered poverty in the States. This was unlikely to convince students of the benefits of learning the language of the target group. Secondly, the aim of inspiring students with an interest in a foreign culture was misguided, as students perceived that the character of the countries from which those people came was being systematically misrepresented in the language classroom.

Having identified the main culprit as the misguided cultural focus within FL classrooms, Lambert goes on to suggest that the language teaching element should be taken out of the traditional teaching centre altogether, which would free FL teachers to get on with the business of teaching culture. Lambert suggests that 'a good part of the routine task of teaching languages in schools and universities might be shifted to training centers where native speakers of the languages could provide a more natural language learning experience'. This would allow language teaching in the schools and universities to be centred around the study of 'people and language', a discipline which would be based in the human or behavioural sciences i.e. anthropology, political science, sociology, psycholinguistics and socio-linguistics. He then gives examples of certain academics from the FL sphere who have drawn on the behavioural sciences for their work and vice versa.

The examples given are a fascinating insight into areas of research where psychology and language meet in various socio-cultural settings. The examples of international exchanges and visits abroad might help teachers seeking new approaches to introducing authentic cultural elements into advanced classes. For teachers of *ab initio* and intermediate FL classes the problem is more complex. This is partly because the lower level of FL competence in these classes makes it difficult to exploit the authentic materials provided by such exchanges, unless care is taken to ensure careful grading of the material and provision of appropriate

reference materials. The funding of such exchanges is given low priority status in most institutions and the necessary investment would probably be considered unwise for beginners, given that traditional approaches offer cheaper alternatives.

Lambert's conclusion side-steps the issue when he suggests that 'the practitioners in the new field should become fully trained in the behavioral sciences so that they can have a deeper base for learning and teaching about people's ways of life, language included.' This points out yet another deficiency in the knowledge and practice of FL teachers, without showing how the suggested remedy would improve the quality of their classes.

The main objection to Lambert's approach is that he seems to be encouraging FL teachers to turn away from their subject altogether and do something else. Such a radical solution is surely not called for when what we are really trying to achieve is a better understanding of how to improve the quality of a process which is already recognised as taking place, i.e. the learning of socio-cultural and other 'non-linguistic' elements in the FL classroom. A less radical approach seems to be one which analyses the corpus of cultural knowledge into its constituent elements and integrates these into the syllabus.

THE 'CULTURE TEST'

Rebecca M Vallette (1977) considers the solution to be a more conscious inclusion of cultural elements within the FL syllabus than has traditionally been the case. She outlines several aims of a cultural syllabus which a foreign language course ought to achieve and suggests ways of assessing these skills. Vallette is clearly thinking of a certain age group and level of education when she warns against the 'dangerous polarization' which can result from ill-advised attempts to 'free these young people from the strait jacket of monoculturalism'. Nevertheless, her ideas are more generally applicable and it is worth quoting her four cultural goals in full:

- developing a greater awareness of and broader knowledge about the target culture;
- acquiring a command of the etiquette of the target culture;
- understanding differences between the target culture and the students' culture;
- understanding the values of the target culture.

It is easy to see how these aims can be broken down or elaborated and included at appropriate levels in various language syllabuses. Vallette includes examples from 'the culture test' which show how thoroughly these aims can be assessed. The advantage of this model is that it forces the teacher to separate the non-linguistic elements and examine their worth as items of knowledge to be taught either alongside or through the FL. It is assumed that

C SIMPSON

students' competence in these skills will vary as does their language ability, and that they can be graded accordingly.
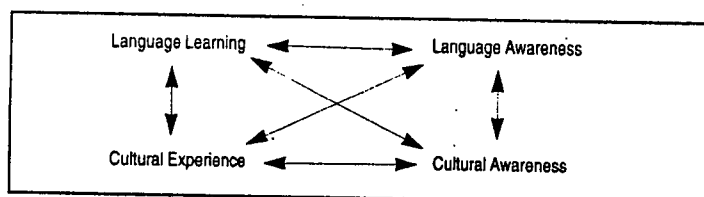
Vallette's aims are useful for any analysis of what constitutes culture in a FL setting, but they need to be treated with caution. Apart from the relative notions of 'greater awareness' and 'broader knowledge', there is the difficulty in defining the 'target culture'. If one takes students of Spanish, for example, there is a wide range of cultures, depending on the geographical area with which the students are primarily concerned. The presence of very large German and Italian speaking minorities outside their countries of origin raises the question whether it is correct to assume that our students will be mainly interested in those countries. We need therefore to be very clear about which target culture we are teaching. Another difficulty is in the selection of the teaching objectives or non-linguistic skills which we expect our students to learn. Etiquette is an area which carries very specific details for each situation and which is subject to frequent change. It might prove quite difficult to select aspects of etiquette which are appropriate to our students' needs.

TOTAL IMMERSION

It would seem appropriate to establish clear non-linguistic aims for our FL classes in much the same way as we select aspects of syntax or style appropriate to each level. The question is whether this area should be incorporated into the language teaching e.g. via carefully selected materials, or whether it would be advantageous to teach aspects of culture in the first language. This could be taken to the point of planning each language lesson around carefully selected items of knowledge. Widdowson (1978) calls this the adoption of 'use criteria' and contrasts these with 'usage criteria', the latter usually leading to unrealistic rehearsals of unlikely linguistic situations. Widdowson actually goes as far as suggesting that FL teaching can only be meaningful in bilingual or immersion contexts where pupils study their mainstream subjects through the medium of the FL. It is possible to imagine certain advantages of such an approach, e.g. pupils' motivation, elimination of inauthentic drills of units of FL usage etc., but this again is expecting language teachers to teach something which they may not be competent to teach. It is possible, however, to see how adopting this approach in a limited form, by carefully selecting materials in view of their cultural content, could

> "It would seem appropriate to establish clear non-linguistic aims"

Figure 1

contribute to the cultural competence of students.

TEACHING CULTURE FOR TERTIARY SOCIALISATION

There is a growing awareness of the need to study language in context, as one can see in the proliferation of published materials attempting to teach language for specific purposes e.g. German for Business, French for Hotel Management, etc. At the other end of the spectrum, much language teaching is informed by the assumption that students are all potential tourists who will need to learn how to survive in a given range of typical situations, such as buying groceries or booking in at a hotel, etc.

Michael Byram (1992) points out the shortcomings of this approach which fails to have any effect the on students' view of their own identity and that of others: 'they are implicitly invited to remain firmly anchored in their own values and culture.' Against this he proposes teaching FL as a means to achieving 'tertiary socialisation':

> 'If young people are led, through learning a language, to integration into their own concepts and value system of the value system and concepts of another mode of thinking and acting – another culture – they can be said to move into what I call 'tertiary socialisation'.

Byram stresses that it is not the aim of FL teaching to undermine primary and secondary socialisation (i.e. the internalisation of general social roles e.g. gender roles on the one hand and specific social roles and values peculiar to a given society on the other) by creating a sense of anomie in language learners, but by providing other sets of concepts and values to open 'a perspective which is dependent on neither native nor foreign culture.' Byram believes that exposure to a FL is not sufficient to achieve tertiary socialisation and mentions new teaching methods currently being developed in Durham and London which take their starting point in ethnography. This approach attempts to adapt the methods of fieldwork to the FL situation and use insights from ethnography and anthropology to select the culture domains to be studied and analyse data gathered in 'fieldwork'.

In an earlier work, Byram (1989) had suggested the integration of a range of different types of knowledge within a syllabus which would have the FL as their binding element, and each of which would contribute to the other (Figure 1).

This spread of elements has the advantage of aiming to enable students to increase their cultural and linguistic awareness even if they are not particularly competent language learners. It also has the advantage of making explicit some of the aspects of the cultural experience which FL learning aims to provide, e.g. experiencing being foreign, seeing the native culture from the outside etc. Against


```
Language Learning  <------->  Language Awareness
      ^          \    /           ^
      |           \  /            |
      |            \/             |
      |            /\             |
      v           /  \            v
Cultural Experience <------->  Cultural Awareness
```

these advantages there is the objection of the greater amount of L1 use in the class than would be the case with a communicative approach. However, this could be seen positively in modern teaching situations where contact time is at a premium and emphasis is laid on students' use of self-access facilities to supplement their lessons.

Many FL text book authors seem to be well aware of the demand for non-linguistic knowledge associated with FLs (see the Breakthrough series (Macmillan), BBC language courses, the Working With Series (Stanley Thornes), which gives abundant cultural information in the target language, and numerous 'Business Language' courses which include so-called 'cultural briefing' sections). Given the impossibility of communicating this knowledge in the target language to beginners and intermediate students, they include sections in L1, which aim to increase students' stock of general knowledge. It is interesting to note that few authors include material for testing students' cultural knowledge, whereas the use of L1 in language testing material is widespread, presumably on the grounds that students might be able to understand target language text, but not necessarily the questions written with the aim of testing this comprehension.

SOCIO-CULTURAL RESEARCH PROJECTS

One of the activities which can meet some of the non-linguistic aims mentioned above is the socio-cultural research project, which can be carried out in libraries and reference centres and submitted in the forms of oral/audio/video presentation and/or extended written dissertation. It is important that these projects should be seen as an integral part of the course and not an added extra. For this reason the topics for research must be chosen with care and research for its own sake should be avoided.

Jenks (1974) gives an example of a library project with two procedural models, both of which would work for a whole range of research projects. Unfortunately, the example given is to find out the price of steaks per kilo in local currency in Bogotá. Jenks makes helpful suggestions as to how one would go about solving the problem if primary sources were not available, such as contacting stock brokers, meat dealers and penpal agencies. The point here is that we cannot expect our students to take seriously research projects which are the FL equivalent of 'Trivial Pursuit'. Clearly the availability of sources should be a major criterion in the selection of individual projects. Of greater importance, however, is the extent to which such knowledge will deepen the students' understanding of the target culture.

INTEGRATED SYLLABUS AND COLLABORATIVE MODULES

A solution which draws together various elements from the above approaches is to create a syllabus which refers explicitly to the socio-cultural, geopolitical elements for each module. For example, complete beginners at a language should be expected to know by the end of the module where their target language is spoken and by approximately how many people it is used. Intermediate students might be expected to know something about the countries concerned, including capitals, basic economic information such as the main industries, products etc. More advanced students might be expected to be able to differentiate between native speakers from different areas, and make appropriate inferences using their knowledge of the institutions and historical and political background of the countries concerned.

In addition to the integration of explicit non-linguistic criteria to be taught and assessed, thought should be given to the possibility of creating common modules for students of different FLs, e.g. an introduction to socio-linguistics or language awareness for all students of FLs enabling them to compare their FL with others. There is no reason why such modules should not be made available to students outside the FL field who have an interest in such areas, e.g. from the fields of sociology, psychology, cultural studies, etc. Such modules could be delivered by staff from various fields and would involve FL teachers making contributions without having to learn whole new areas of subject knowledge. There are obvious resourcing advantages in creating modules which are made accessible to wider student participation, but one of the benefits of such modules would be that FL students would sit alongside students from other fields, enabling a cultural cross-fertilisation to take place. Collaborative modules of this type would also help to locate FL teaching in relation to other subjects.

"FL students would sit alongside students from other fields"

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英语学习成功者与不成功者在方法上的差异

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提要：本文运用定性研究的方法，分析了一对英语学习成功者和不成功者使用的学习方法。研究结果表明，不同的学习方法是造成她们英语成绩有明显差异的主要原因。

关键词：英语学习、方法、差异

自1975年 Rubin 率先描述了英语学习成功者的共性特点后，从学生的角度研究如何学习英语的日益增多。有的描述学习者的语言学习观念，有的调查学习者的元认知策略，有的考察学习者的认知策略。

我国虽是学英语的"超级大国"，但这方面的研究不多。1984年黄小华对"学习策略与英语口语能力的关系"这一课题进行了研究。北京外国语学院1987－1991年间就"影响英语成绩的各种因素"对从全国六所外语院校随机抽样的两百五十名英语专业学生进行了调查（吴一安等，1993）。该项研究共涉及18个变量和13种因素，学习策略是其中的一个变量。

笔者曾在1991年就"学习者可控因素对英语成绩的影响"这一课题进行了试探性研究。研究分三个阶段进行。第一阶段，由近两百五十名二年级英语专业的学生填写"学习者因素"问卷，他们分别来自南京和上海五所不同类型高校。两个月后这些学生参加了全国英语专业的四级统考。根据学生对问卷的回答和他们统考的成绩，笔者运用路径分析的统计软件，建立了影响英语学习成绩诸因素的模型图。结果表明在对成绩有影响的因素中有部分是学生可以控制的因素，它们是管理策略、词汇策略、回避母语策略和容忍含混语言的策略。这其中唯有容忍含混语言的

策略对成绩所产生的是负面影响。第二阶段，重点就四个对成绩有影响的可控因素考察高分组和低分组各五名学生的具体差别。这一阶段的调查不仅以大量生动的事实验证了第一阶段的结果，而且补充说明了学习策略运用的复杂性。第三阶段，在这十人当中挑选了一对（一名高分者和一名低分者）进行个案研究，其主要目的是为了深入探究高分者和低分者在学习方法上存在的本质差别。由于篇幅所限，本文仅报告第三阶段个案研究的结果。全文分四部分。第一部分简要介绍笔者所提出的学习方法的理论模式。第二部分描述个案研究的设计。第三部分报告结果。第四部分讨论结果，并根据结果对改进今后的教学提出建议。

一、英语学习方法的结构框图

一提起英语学习方法，学过英语的人很可能会立刻想到记单词、学语法的决窍。这是对英语学习方法的片面理解。英语学习方法包含一系列要素，有些在高层面上，有些在低层面上。高层面上的能对低层面上的要素起制约作用。这些要素形成一个系统。该系统由两大部分组成：观念和策略。观念指学生在学习英语过程中通过自身体验或别人影响所形成的一种看法体系。它有一定的稳定性，对学生的英语学习会产生潜移默化的、较为深远

的影响。英语学习者的观念大致分为两类,一类为管理观念,另一类为语言学习观念。管理观念指学生对确定目标、制定计划、选择策略、调控策略等一系列管理活动重要性的认识。语言学习观念是指学生对如何才能掌握好语言知识、语言技能和交际能力的主张。语言学家、心理学家、教育工作者都在探讨学习外语的理论。从某种意义上说,学生对外语学习的一系列主张就是一种学习理论。近二十年来的研究结果表明,学习者形成的学习理论对他们自身的学习行为有着直接的影响。如要调整学习者的语言学习行为,必须使他们的观念发生变化。(见图)

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观念                     管理观念                        语言学习观念
(beliefs)          (management beliefs)        (language learning beliefs)
                           │                              │
                           ▼                              ▼
策略                     管理策略          ────────▶    语言学习策略
(strategies)       (management strategies)      (language learning strategies)
                                                          │
                                                          ▼
                                                       英语学习
                                                 (English achievement)
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英语学习方法的结构框图

策略指对学习过程最理想的调控。调控内容可分为两个方面:一是与过程有关,二是与语言学习材料本身有关。前者称为管理策略,后者称为语言学习策略。管理策略涉及目标的制定、策略的选择、时间的安排、策略有效性的评估和调整。这一系列活动都以自我评价为前提。语言学习策略直接用于英语学习。应该说语言学习策略本身并没有明显的好坏之分,它们的成效高低要看学习者使用得是否恰当。这种恰当性就是执行管理策略有效性的最好标志。换句话说,学习者如果能用管理策略来合理地调控语言学习策略的使用,就会收到预期效果。

以上学习方法框架结构已在定量研究中得到验证。本文将用该框架结构来分析一个高分者和一个低分者的学习方法,从而找出两者之间的本质差别。

二、研究方案

1. 研究对象

参加个案研究的学生有王红和李华。她们于1989年秋进入南京某高校英语专业学习。至调查之日,她们已在同一个班级学习了两年。她们有着类似的家庭背景,高考入学考试的中文和英文成绩几乎一样。两人都抱怨中学的英语教学忽视了听说技能的训练。两人都很想把英语学好,但根据两人每星期课外花在英语上的时间,李华似乎比王红更加发奋。王红每星期大约花二十一个小时,李华却花了约四十一个钟头。尽管她们几乎在同一个条件下学习,但两年后,她们的英语水平出现了惊人的差异。最为令人不解的是,李华几乎是付出了双倍的代价,但在全国四级统考中,成绩(64.25)却比王红(90.5)低二十六分之多,达三个多标准差,而王红却成了1991年全国四级统考中的佼佼者。鉴于王红和李华的其它情况基本相仿,造成她们学习成绩有明显差异的主要原因似乎可以归于学习方法上的不同。

2. 数据收集

在个案研究时,王红和李华参加了面谈、记日记和阅读文章。这三项活动都是个别进行的。面谈的内容紧紧围绕她们的观念和策略。例如,"你认为从上下文中猜词义是不是学单词的一种好方法?为什么?""你平时用不用猜词义的方法学习单词?"如果她们的回答

是"用了",下一个问题便是:"你是如何使用这一策略的?"一个星期日记的内容包括:(1)课外做的与学习英语有关的事;(2)每项活动所花的时间;(3)进行每项活动时的生理和心理状态(即是否精力充沛,是否思想集中);(4)进行每项活动时所采取的策略。随后,还就日记内容不清楚的地方进行了询问。阅读的文章有850个字。阅读时间不限。要求是象平时阅读综合英语教材一样,该查字典时,查字典,该作笔记时,做笔记。她们阅读的情况还分别摄了像。阅读任务完成后,立即将摄像放给她们看,并就有趣的地方停下来,进行询问,例如,让她们回忆当时为什么要停下来或用笔做记号。

表1:王红和李华的个人简况

姓名	性别	年龄	父母职业	英语成绩(高考)	语文成绩(高考)	课外学英语时间(每星期)	英语成绩(四级统考)
王红	女	19	父亲:大学教师 母亲:大学教师	95	75	20.5	90.5
李华	女	20	父亲:医生 母亲:护士	96	75	40	64.25

三、结果

下面首先考察王红和李华在课外所从事的听、说、读、写活动,目的在于探究她们在语言观念和策略上的差异。然后报告她们在管理观念与管理策略上的不同之处。

1. 语言观念和策略上的差异

1) 听力练习

如何在课外进行听力训练?在面谈中,王红对这一问题作了如下回答:

我听 VOA 的新闻广播。我喜欢一边听一边作笔记,听完之后,根据笔记写内容摘要。有时我把英语广播节目录下来,反复听,直到听懂每一个字,象这样的活动大约要花四十分钟

到一个钟头。有时我也去听力室听磁带,有的听得细,有的听得粗。听得细的,就象做 dictation 一样。

根据她的描述可以看出,她课外练习听力的活动有两种:一种是半精听,另一种是精听。这两种活动有着明显的区别。半精听时,只听一遍,精力主要放在内容上,但不忽略语言形式。她一边听一边记笔记,至少有三个好处,一是促使注意力集中,二是提高对语言形式的意识程度,三是可以训练自己的写作能力。精听时,她要求听懂每一个字、每一句话。

李华意识到她的听力比较差。根据日记的记载,她每天至少花半个小时听英文广播,但感到进步不快。当被问及她是如何听时,她说道:

我经常去听力室听录音,磁带内容各种各样,但我很少记录听的内容。我的目的是要听懂大意。对我来说,听 VOA 或 BBC,就是要听懂意思。

可以看出,李华无论是听磁带,还是听广播,都不注意语言形式。从她的日记还可看出她虽然花了很多时间练听力,但有百分之六十八的时间心不在焉。常常是一边听一边做其它的事情,有时甚至听着听着睡着了。因此她富有成效的听力活动并不多。

2) 口语练习

当王红被问及如何提高自己的口语能力时,她作了如下描述:

我上课非常积极,因为我认为这是练口语的好机会。我也喜欢和同学或老师说英语,我还喜欢自己对自己说英语。有时我在厨房一边做家务一边说英语,妈妈听到奇怪的声音时,以为我在和她说话,她就从房间里大声问:"你在说什么?"我认为自己对自己说英语是练习口语的好方法。……在英语会话时,如有生词想不起来,我通常不用手势,因为手势不能清楚地表达思想,我喜欢用简单的英语解释或用其它的语言手段。假如不知道如何用英语来表达自己,我就问别人而不采用回避的方法。

以上的描述清楚地体现了王红练口语的两个特点。第一,她充分利用一切机会,不仅

积极用英语进行交际,且自己对自己讲英语。第二,她不用回避的策略,也不用非语言手段来解决交际过程中语言知识不够的情况。

面谈中,李华却是这样回答同一问题的:

> 我不愿在课堂上回答问题,有时知道了答案也不想讲。课外我也不练,因为根本没有说英语的环境。偶尔,我会对自己讲。交际时想不起某个英文词时,我用手势或者就干脆不说,偶尔会查查字典。

3) 阅读练习

在面谈中,王红主动分出了两种阅读:自选读物和教材。在第一种阅读中,她把重点放在阅读速度和整篇文章的内容上,但遇到有趣的生词,她查词典,不仅弄清词意,还注意它的用法;在第二种阅读中,她努力读懂每一句话和每一个字,同时弄懂整篇文章的内容。下面就是她对阅读练习的描述:

> 假如读的是自己找的材料,我就不一字一句的抠。只要能弄懂大概内容,我就不查生词了,但遇到有趣的词,我还是要查。如果读的是老师布置的内容,我总是非常仔细,因为老师就喜欢挑我们不注意的地方出考题。平时我不喜欢背诵课文,但喜欢朗读课文。我通常提前半个小时到教室,朗读课文。我不太精通语法,因为有时我不能说出句子每个部分的语法作用,但如果句子结构非常复杂,我要找出主句和从句。

当王红被问及如何处理阅读材料中的新单词时,她讲:

> 如果单词不重要,我不查字典,特别是读自己选的东西。但读教材时,我先把课文通读一遍,猜生词的意思,不用字典。第二遍读的时候,我才用字典查生词。除了看词义的解释外,还看短语和例句。我不重复个别的单词,但重复短语。一个单词要是查几次字典,我就能记住了。课文中有些词很冷僻,我不花时间记它们,至多考试前看一看。我不喜欢把单词抄在笔记本上,我的习惯是把词义直接写在课本上,通常是英文,但有时英文的解释太长又不清楚,就写中文意思。我喜欢把记单词和读课文结合在一起,我感到这种方法比单独记单词

效果要好得多。

根据王红的描述,我们可以归纳出她学习单词的几个显著特点。首先,她能区分重要的和不重要的,并对此采取不同的策略。第二,她把猜词义这一策略与查字典有机地结合在一起。第三,她不孤立地记单词,而是记短语,并且把这一任务和读课文连在一起。第四,她能对英语解释的清晰程度作出判断,对不清楚的,就改用中文。简言之,她的单词学习涉及了一系列的自我决策和选择。

李华在面谈中没有主动区分两种不同的阅读,她的描述仅限于阅读教材。然而,在一周的日记中,她所记载的活动也有两种。这说明她对这两种不同性质的阅读在意识层面上没有清晰的区分。根据日记记载,她在阅读课外书时,速度非常快,目标是弄懂大意,难得查字典。但预习课文时,速度慢得惊人,有时一课书竟花了她三个半小时。观察李华的阅读过程,850个字的文章,她共花了65分钟,其中竟用了三分之二的时间查字典,抄词义和例句。她在抄词义和例句时,没有进行必要的选择,而是一古脑儿地抄下来。当问及如何记新单词时,她说她没有什么方法,就是反复读,但是今天记住了,明天又忘了,复习对她来说似乎没有什么用处。笔者认为她对生词的重要性不加区别,一律采取同样的方法。什么单词都想记,不分重要不重要,平均使用力气,其结果,花了许多时间,但成效仍不尽人意。另外,李华不记课外阅读中出现的单词,这就限制了她词汇学习的范围。

最有趣的是当问及阅读时用不用中文翻译时,王红立即回答,她从不做解释,除非老师要求做翻译练习。她认为在阅读过程中依赖中文翻译是有害的。但李华的看法和做法与王红成明显的对照。她说:

> 中文翻译对理解应该是有帮助的,当然光用翻译未免有点单调。……一般我不做一字一句的解释,但碰到复杂困难的句子,我会停下来,分析句子的结构,想它中文的意思。如果课

文容易,脑子会自动翻译。

4)写作练习

王红对发展自己的英语写作能力也非常重视。平时除了完成老师布置的作业外,她坚持用英语作笔记,用英语记日记,她还将练听力和练写作结合起来。特别值得指出的是,她每写一篇作文,都要经过反复修改,既改内容,也改语法和用词上的错误。在日记中,她叙述了写小故事时所用的策略:

尽管这几天我一直在想这个故事,但故事的内容直到写之前才在脑海里出现。因此,我一口气把它写下来,这是第一稿,放一两天后,再写第二稿,然后给同学看,让她们提意见。

李华承认她除了完成老师布置的写作任务外,自己不进行额外的练习。写作文时,她打草稿。但修改时,只注意内容,不太关心语言形式上存在的问题。她认为"写作是锻炼我们对整体结构的安排"。

2. 管理观念与策略上的差异

在学习过程中,王红有杰出的宏观调控能力。她经常对学习进步情况和策略的成效进行反思,并及时做出调整。在面谈中,当问及如何评价自身的学习情况时,她说道:

我喜欢读带有自测题的书,读这种书,容易进行自我评价。如果课堂上不能流利回答老师的问题,或考试成绩不理想,我喜欢晚上睡觉前躺在床上思考其中的原因。

当问及如何评价自身的学习策略时,她作了如下的描述:

我非常喜欢对自己用过的学习方法进行反思。例如大学一年级时,许多同学花很多时间记单词。起初,我也这样做。过了一段时间,我就意识到这样孤立记单词没有什么成效,因为即使记住了,也不知道怎么用。因此我就改变了方法。我读课文,记有生词的句子。那时我自学《新概念英语》,就用这种方法学习单词,比起老方法要有效得多。

王红不仅有很强的宏观调控能力,而且有突出的微观调控能力。这种微观调控发生在进行某个学习活动之前、之中或之后。例如,阅读前,她要区分不同类型的阅读任务,从而采取不同的策略。在教材中碰到新单词时,她区分常用与不常用的词,只记常用词。阅读任务完成后,她反思自己所选用策略的有效性。李华在管理策略上有明显的弱点。首先她从不有意识地选择或评价自己的学习策略。下面是她的描述:

我说不清楚我用了什么学习方法。预习、复习、做作业、记单词,好象就这些。其实也没什么方法。

她自我报告的情况和平时的行为是一致的。例如,她知道自己听力差,她想通过多听来提高听力水平,但当她的努力没有带来明显进步时,她没想过她练听力的方法会存在问题。下面是调查者和她的一段对话:

调查者:你知道你听力为什么差吗?
李华:不知道。要是我知道原因,听力就不会那么差了。
调查者:你有没有考虑过原因呢?
李华:没有。大概是听得不够吧!

同样,她知道她记单词有困难,但从来没有花气力考虑过她记单词的策略是否得当。其次,在微观调控上,她也做得比较差。在完成某项学习任务时,她往往不能有意识地区分不同的学习任务,因此使用的学习策略缺少针对性和灵活性,致使学习效果不尽人意。

以上个案研究表明,王红和李华在学习方法上的不同导致了她们在学习成绩上的明显差异。这既很典型,也具普遍性,因为242名大样本的研究结果也得到同样的结论。

四、讨论

下面就她们在学习方法上存在的主要差别进行讨论。

第一,王红对听说读写各项活动没有偏废,既认真完成老师布置的任务,又有自己的学习计划,两者相辅相成,达到全面发展。李华显然不重视说和写的训练,特别是说。课内不主动参与,课外也不利用时间自己练,其结果不言而喻。幸好四级统考不包括会话,否则

李华与王红的成绩差距比现在还要大。

第二、王红能对所从事的听和读的学习活动有意识地分为两种:精听和精读;半精听和半精读。不同的活动,有不同的要求,但不走极端。前一种活动注重语言的形式和理解的深度,后一种活动侧重于内容和速度,但不放弃学习新语言知识的机会。这两种活动互相补充,一方面她的语言知识不断增加,另一方面,她的听力和阅读能力也不断提高。

李华自我设计的听力训练中,既没有精听,也没有半精听。她每天从事的听力活动倒很接近日常的交际活动。她听英文广播的方式就和我们平时听中文广播一样,一边做事,一边听广播,或睡觉前,起身前听广播。按照西方交际法的理论,李华的活动更具有真实性和交际性。令人费解的是这种活动对提高她的听力并没有起多大作用。

李华的阅读活动虽有两种,但和王红的不完全一样。她阅读课内教材时注意力几乎完全放在个别字词上,结果花了比别人多的时间,而得到的成效却比别人低。她阅读自选材料时又走向另一个极端,只看内容,生词一律不记。这后一种阅读活动和她的课外听力活动很相似。为什么这种真实性强的交际活动对她的帮助不大呢?笔者猜想作为外语学习活动应该有双重目的:一是扩大自己的语言知识,二是训练语言技能。如果忽视第一个目的,那就无形中减少了接受新知识的机会。这可能在外语学习的环境中更为明显。在外语学习的环境中,接触外语的机会很有限,因此应该利用每一个机会,达到一箭双雕的目的。

第三、王红在英语学习中能有意识地避免使用母语,这对提高英语水平有促进作用。英语习得的过程也就是和母语干扰进行斗争的过程。随着英语水平的提高,对母语的依赖程度就会降低。而外语学习者通常有依赖母语的惰性,如果没有自身的努力,就很难摆脱对母语的依赖。李华不仅没能有意识地克服

母语的干扰,相反还认为翻译是学习英语的有效手段。这就形成了一个恶性循环,越依赖于母语,英语水平提高得就越慢;英语水平越低,对母语的依赖程度就越高。

第四,她们学习方法上的最重要差别体现在管理策略上。王红成功地管理了自己的学习过程,掌握了学习主动权。对自己有分析有评价,对语言学习策略有选择,有评估,一发现问题,及时调整。而李华对自己的学习过程的控制远没有达到意识层面上。对自身的学习缺少反思,对语言学习策略的使用盲目性、随意性强,因此效果的好坏就无法预测。

从上述两个典型的个案,我们可以清楚地看出学习方法对学习成绩有着直接的影响。作为外语教师应在方法上给学生加以点拨,从改变学生的不恰当观念入手,把培养学习者自我评价能力作为自始至终的中心任务。此外还要有意识地结合教学内容,训练学生运用管理策略去监控语言学习策略的技能,这对提高我国英语教学质量将有重要意义。

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英语学生课堂焦虑感与口语水平的关系

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提要

对英语课堂焦虑感进行调查并就结果进行统计分析，发现课堂焦虑感可以分为性格型焦虑和环境型焦虑。它们之间呈正相关，并且都与学生口语水平呈负相关，分析结果将有助于教师加深对课堂环境因素的认识，创造更为宽松有利的外语教学环境。

一、引言

笔者经过多年来对外语教学实践的观察，深深感到目前中国学生的课堂参与积极性较低，课堂气氛不活跃。许多学生也有类似感触。一些学生认为内向、腼腆，容易紧张这些性格特征阻碍了他们积极参与课堂口语练习。也有部分学生指出，教师的某些课堂行为和态度抑制了他们的参与欲望。

那么到底是何种因素抑制了学生的参与热情？是学生自身因素，还是教师的影响，亦或两者兼而有之？它们与学生的口语水平又有何联系呢？笔者就此对南京外国语学校高二年级的 35 名学生作了问卷调查，以下是本次调查的结果及分析，希望对外语教学有所借鉴。

二、理论背景

早自本世纪四十年代初，一些学者就学生的性格因素对外语学习的影响进行了研究。焦虑感(anxiety)是研究重点之一。

Witternborn, Larsen 和 Vigil (1945, 见 Pimsleur, Mosberg 和 Morrison 1962 年的报告) 对学习法语和西班牙语的大学生进行了调查，发现成绩优秀的学生和成绩欠佳的学生对焦虑的感受程度有明显不同。

Dukel (1947, 见 Pimsleur, Mosberg 和 Morrison 1962 年的报告) 对拉丁语学生进行了一项性格测试。结果表明，成绩不好的学生容易表现出"激动，情绪波动和焦虑"。Chaistain (1975) 对美国大学生举行了一次焦虑感测试。测试结果与学生的外语期末成绩呈负相关(r = -0.48)。这说明焦虑感越严重，学生的成绩就可能越不好。该结论和前面所述的各项结果一致。

但是，正如 Ely (见 Krashen, 1981) 所指出的，绝大多数这类研究重点在于学生本身的一般性格特征 (general personality traits)，而没有涉及环境对性格的影响。

与以往的研究者不同，Gardner, Smythe, Clement 和 Gliksman (1976) 将目光投向了课堂。通过调查一千多名在加拿大学习法语的高中生，他们发现在七年级到十一年级的学生中，课堂焦虑感 (classroom anxiety) 与学生的口语水平呈负相关。学生的课堂焦虑感愈强，他们的口语水平则可能愈低。经过对多伦多市八年级到十二年级法语学生的调查，Naiman, Frohlich, Stern 和 Todesco (1978) 也得出了相同结果。

Gardner 等人将有关焦虑感的研究从一般性格特征具体到特定环境下的性格表现，这无疑是一个明显的进步。可惜的是，他们没有进一步发掘其中人和环境的相互作用，而这正是本项研究的重点所在。

2.1 焦虑感的定义

很多研究者使用了"焦虑感"来形容学生学习外语时的紧张，忧虑状态，如 Carroll

(1963)、Gardner (1976)和 Naiman (1978)。本项研究将沿用"焦虑感"一词。鉴于"焦虑感"包括"促进性焦虑"(facilitating anxiety)和"妨碍性焦虑"(debilitating anxiety)(Scovel, 1978),而本项研究主要讨论的是后者,为保证结果的准确明晰,这里将"焦虑感"进一步定义为"可能影响外语学生课堂参与积极性的紧张和不安情绪"。

2.2 "焦虑感"的分类

笔者预先将"焦虑感"划分成两类,然后通过调查所得数据的统计分析来验证分类的可行性。一种是由性格决定的"焦虑感",称之为"性格型焦虑"(trait anxiety)。它具有长期性和稳定性,属于性格特征的一种。另一种是受环境影响而引起的"焦虑感",称之为"环境型焦虑"(environmental anxiety)。这是一种相对短期,易变的状态。本项研究中所指的"环境型焦虑"主要针对由教师引起的学生焦虑感,这是因为教师是课堂学习环境的主要决定因素。

2.3 口语水平的衡量

本项研究中用于衡量学生英语口语水平的是他们高二上学期期末口语考试成绩。鉴于这是最近的一次口语水平测试而且该测试由其任课教师进行,该项成绩可以被视作是这些学生英语口语水平的较准确衡量。

三、研究方法

3.1 研究对象

本次定量研究的对象是南京外国语学校高二年级的 35 名学生,其中女生 20 人,男生 15 人。年龄(1996 年)从 16 岁到 18 岁不等,平均年龄为 17.0 岁。

3.2 工具

调查采用"英语学生焦虑感测试问卷",由笔者自制而成。问卷分两部分:第一部分为姓名、性别、年龄、所在年级、学校等个人信息;第二部分包含一些关于焦虑感的测试项目,要求调查对象根据实际感受从五个选项中选取一个。

3.3 数据收集

笔者于 1996 年 4 月 29 日将问卷发给研究对象填写并当场收回。填写前,笔者对有关项目进行了说明和解释,以消除因误解而产生的误差。

对数据进行统计分析采用的是 SPSS(社会科学统计软件包),在 MS Windows Release 6.0 下运行。涉及的统计过程包括:可靠性分析、相关分析和 T 检验。

四、统计结果

表一显示的是两种焦虑类型的可靠性分析结果:

表一:

分 类	所含项目	Alpha 值
性格型焦虑	1,2,3,6,7	.5703
环境型焦虑	4,9,10,11,18	.6316

从表中可以看到,所分两类的 Alpha 值均较高,分别为 0.5703 和 0.6316。这说明各类所含项目间均具有较强的内在一致性,分类具有统计意义,客观上是成立的。

表二显示的是两类课堂焦虑感与学生英语口语水平的相关分析结果。

表二:

变 量	相 关 值	p 值
口语水平 性格型焦虑	-.40	.018
口语水平 环境型焦虑	-.46	.006

从分析结果看,两组变量的相关值分别为 -0.40 和 -0.46。这表明性格型焦虑和环境型焦虑都和学生英语口语水平密切负相关。换句话说,焦虑感越强烈(无论是由性格因素还是环境引起的),学生的口语水平则可能越差。此外,结果还显示,第二组变量的相关值的绝对值较第一组变量的相应值偏高。这说明相对来说,环境型焦虑与学生口语水平的相关性更高。由此我们可以推测,环境型焦虑对学生口语水平可能更有影响力。

表三显示的是两种课堂焦虑感的 T 检验结果。

表三:

变量	相关值	平均值	SD	T-value	2-tail Sig
性格型焦虑	.523	2.274	.572	-2.07	.046
环境型焦虑		2.500	.707		

如表所示，性格型焦虑与环境型焦虑的相关值为 0.523，呈密切正相关。这就是说，学生的性格型焦虑越强，他们对环境型焦虑的抵抗力就越弱；同样，学生感受到的环境型焦虑越强，他们就越有可能表现出严重的性格型焦虑。此外，从表中还可以看到，性格型焦虑的平均值为 2.274，而环境型焦虑的平均值达 2.500。这一差异表明，学生对环境型焦虑的感受更加强烈显著。这也再次说明环境对学生有着非常重要的影响。

从表二和表三的结果看，有两点值得重视：1）课堂上所表现出的焦虑感，无论是由性格因素造成还是环境影响所致，对学生外语口语水平的提高均无益处。这点可以从焦虑感与学生口语水平负相关看出。2）两种课堂焦虑感中，环境型焦虑更应引起重视，各项结果均显示它与学生口语水平的联系更紧密。如果测试面更广，这一结果可能更为明显。

五、讨论

由前面的统计结果我们看到无论何种课堂焦虑感对学生口语水平的提高都是不利的。因此，课堂焦虑感必须给予控制，从课堂中表现出的两类焦虑感来看，环境型焦虑感对我们更有意义，这不仅是因为它对学生口语水平的影响更大，还因为它本身受教师影响居多，因此也更易于调控。下面我们将讨论问卷中有关环境型焦虑的项目，以期获得一些启发。

问卷第四项表明，当教师用批评性眼光注视学生时，学生在发言过程中就容易紧张，局促不安。这可能使他们感到自己表现不理想，自己的长处，能力并没有完全表现出来，从而产生压抑感。这抑制了学生使用目标语的欲望，使他们难以通过频繁练习提高口语水平。

问卷第九项显示，课堂上提出的大题目通常使学生感到不安。大题目总是占用较长的回答时间，而长时间地在众目睽睽之下使用一门并不娴熟的语言容易使学生感觉欠佳，易于犯错，从而招致批评甚至同学的嘲笑。由此引起的紧张感和局促不安也会降低学生的自信和练习口语的热情。

问卷第十项表明，教师站在发言者身边容易使后者情绪产生波动，发言者可能会感到教师的注意力完全集中在自己身上。这种聚焦感容易降低学生自信，使错误增加，从而会抑制学生练习口语的热情。

问卷第十一项显示，当学生被教师一次次叫起回答提问时，也容易感到局促不安。教师的这一行为可能使学生认为他们一直在受注意，而相当一部分学生一想到这点，就会紧张，易于犯错甚至缺乏自信，这对那些本身性格就较脆弱的学生更是如此。

最后一项，第十三项告诉我们，单是教师的不良情绪也会影响到学生，使他们对课堂参与反应消极，这可能是因为他们不想成为教师的泄气桶。

以上讨论的各项均与教师的课堂行为和态度有关。很明显，教师是影响课堂焦虑感的重要因素。教师的课堂行为和态度，如不引起足够重视并加以适当调控，则极易造成学生过分紧张，使他们不能充分表现自己，从而影响他们积极参与课堂教学的热情。同时我们应该看到；由于环境型焦虑和性格型焦虑具有相互放大和相互衰减的作用，因此，如果学生环境型焦虑严重则可能引起性格型焦虑的强烈表现。相反，如果教师能多注意自己的课堂行为和态度，则他们完全可以创造出一个更为宽松的教学环境，从而降低学生的环境型焦虑，这也将同时减轻性格型焦虑的表现，提高学生的参与热情，使他们从频繁

练习中获益。由此可见，正确处理这些关系对提高教学质量是很有裨益的。

六、结束语

本次定量研究结果显示，课堂焦虑可以具体划分为环境型焦虑和性格型焦虑，它们均不利于学生口语水平的提高。同时环境型焦虑与性格型焦虑之间也存在着相互增强和减弱的作用。此外，环境型焦虑对学生口语水平的影响似乎更大。

这些结果表明，课堂焦虑感作为一项消极因素，在教学中应给予控制。教师作为引起环境型焦虑的关键因素，对控制外语学生课堂焦虑感起重要作用。此外，这些结果也告诉我们，学生本人的一般性格特征对他们口语水平的提高并不起决定性作用。他们的某些妨碍性性格因素是可以在教师的影响下被控制甚至于弱化的。这一结果也有利于振奋学生精神，使他们放下包袱，重新积极地投入到外语教学活动中去。

几十年来，研究学生课堂情绪对其学习质量的影响一直很活跃（例如 Carroll 1963, Gardner 1976）。正如本项研究结果所示，课堂焦虑感虽然不利于英语口语教学，但可以受到教师的干预和控制。因此我们不能忽视教师对学生性格和精神状态的影响。他们应该尽量消除引起学生课堂焦虑感的源头，为学生的课堂参与创造更为宽松有利的环境。这也正是本项研究结果给我们的重要启示。

Carl Rogers (1969)和 Curran (1976)指出："学生不是单纯的信息处理机。当他们步入课堂时，并没有把自己的个性特征置于室外。他们是活生生的人，具有全部个人特性和感觉。如果我们希望他们能得到提高和进步，那么这一切必须予以尊重。"

同样，教师也并不仅仅是信息传送机，他们应该关心学生的感受并尊重这些感受，让学生在学习过程中有充分的安全感。只有这样，环境型焦虑才能被最大限度地消除，性格型焦虑也才能被尽量弱化，而这一切对学生外语口语技能的提高是非常有益的。

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文化与外语教学的关系

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语言是文化的重要组成部分，又是传达文化的媒介，语言教学必然包含了文化教育（胡文仲　1991：12—13）。文化在母语教学中的地位是毋庸置疑的，但在外语教学中就变得复杂起来。文化教学是个有争议的问题，因为它涉及到向学生灌输外国文化这一敏感问题。笔者认为导入目的语（target language）文化既有必要也不可避免。

当今许多外语教学专家认为学习外语并不仅仅是学习这门语言，学习外语实际上是一个既学这门语言又学该语言的文化的过程。这也是对传统外语教学观念的挑战，因为以往的教学模式通常是只重语言形式（language forms），忽视语言的运用（language use），而语言的运用是在一定的社会文化背景下完成的。现今西方外语教学中的文化研究实际上是受到了近几十年来社会科学发展的启发，特别是受到了与语言研究相关的文化人类学和社会学等学科的影响（Stern 1983；Brogger 1992），其结果是，在过去的二十年中教材里越来越多地融合了有关目的语国家的文化内容，诸如艺术、教育制度、历史、文学、音乐、政治、宗教以及日常生活、社会习俗和价值观等等。限于篇幅，本文只述及文化与外语教学的关系以及在外语教学中导入目的语文化的必要性。

一、什么是"文化"？

汉语的"文化"一词有多种解释，通常可以理解为某一个社会在历史发展过程中所创造的物质和精神财富的总和，特指精神财富，如文学、艺术、宗教、教育、科学、意识形态、社会制度等等。这一定义与英语里 culture 一词的定义基本相同。

在西方，传统上外语教学的目标是要培养学生阅读目的语文学作品及用目的语写作的能力（Stern 1983：246）。今天的外语教学基本上是以获得交际能力（communicative competence）为目的的，交际能力要求能"直观地把握社会与文化法则以及任何话语所包含的意义"，并认为"语言教学应注意到社会、人际和文化等诸方面的因素（Stern 1983：229）。

随着这种教学目的的转变，外语教师已开始把注意力转向语言的社会文化成份，因为学生将来需要凭外语的交际能力与来自不同社会和文化背景的人进行交流，而仅仅通过文学和语法的传统教学方式是不足以达到那一目的的。

也许有人会说文学蕴含了文化。的确如此，但光有文学还不够。文学只是文化的一个层面。Robinson（1985：7）的研究显示文化包括三大类，即一个文化群体共享的思想（ideas）、行为（behaviors）和产品（products）。思想指信念、价值观和制度等，行为指语言、风俗习惯、饮食等，产品包括文学、艺术、音乐、工艺品等等。所有这些内容可以显性地或隐性地、有意识地或无意识地贯彻在课堂教学中。所以说外语教学里所谓的"文化研究"（cultural studies）可以是指"有关目的语文化的任何信息、知识或态度（Byram 1989：3）。

二、回顾外语教学中的文化

文化研究并不是什么新鲜的概念，许多

年来有丰富经验的外语教师从未忽视过文化教育（胡文仲1991:12—13），只不过从上个世纪至本世纪初语言学的研究没有划分语言、文学与文化之间的界限，文化研究没有成为一门专门研究而已。但是在二十世纪三十年代到六十年代间，由于形式主义和结构主义理论大受欢迎，文化问题也就被限制在外语教学与研究的边缘，外语教学研究逐渐发展成为语言学和文学研究这两门相对独立的学科，二者失去了相互之间的紧密联系（Brogger 1992）。到了五六十年代，人类学和社会学开始有限地影响语言理论和语言教学（Stern 1983:246）。自七十年代起，文化问题重新被提出来，人们对外语教学中的文化问题再次产生了兴趣并加以认识。虽然还有些学者仍局限于纯语言学研究或文学研究之中，但也有许多教育专家融会了传统的语言研究和近期的社会科学，并就外语教学中的文化问题进行了一系列的探索，他们认为文化研究这一跨学科研究极其重要（Brogger 1992）。

尽管外语教师越来越对文化研究感兴趣，但在实践中文化教学仍处于从属地位（Stern 1983:249）。文化教育在课堂实践中发展缓慢的原因是多方面的，主要一点是外语课程过于注重"经典"文学，并把重心放在语法教学上。

语言教师和语言学家们处于两难的境地：

> 如果他们太注重语言形式，而忘记了在日常交流中使用语言形式的人的话，那么他们就扭曲了语言运用的现实。反过来说，如果他们太强调人和社会的因素，而忽视了语言形式的细节的话，那么其教学便显得肤浅和无用（Stern 1983:191）。

因此如何将文化教学与传统教法相结合是一个很值得探讨的问题。对于那些试图在外语课堂进行文化教学的人来说，也还存在着一个缺乏理论指导的问题，比如应从无限的文化内容里挑选什么来进行教学（Byram, Esarte-Sarries and Taylor 1991）。除了"选择的问题以及组织原则"之外，文化教学"还提出了一个问题，即应该培养学生对外国文化持什么样的思想态度"（Stern 1983:249）。

三、语言和文化的关系

语言与文化不可分离，这是毫无疑问的。Rivers（1981:315）说："语言不能与文化完全分离开来，因为它深深地扎根于文化中"。Newmark（1995:94）给文化下的定义是："以某一语言为表达方式的某个群体的特定生活方式及其各种表现形式"。

语言与文化的紧密联系是显而易见的。一种自然的语言只能由同一文化的人群创造出来，并与同一群体的文化共同发展。不同文化的群体创造不出相同的语言；不同的群体即使使用相同的语言，经过相当长的时间以后，那一语言也会衍化为不同的语言。当以英国人为主的欧洲移民形成美利坚民族之后，"美语"便产生了，它不仅在发音、拼写和某些语法规则等方面不同于英国英语，而且，也许更重要的是美语拥有大量不同于英国英语的词汇、成语、表达方式等等，这些东西在那片土地上孕育产生，为那一文化所独有。于是今天就有了美国英语、加拿大英语、澳大利亚英语、南非英语、印度英语等等语言。如果在中国文化为主的地区英语也被当作日常语言来使用的话，肯定会产生一种新的英语变体——中国英语。例如在汉语为第一语言、英语为第二语言的新加坡可能已经出现了这种现象。

要回答语言为什么与文化不可分这个问题，我们至少要从以下几个社会文化角度来考虑。首先，语言是种族和民族特性的重要标志，譬如英语的美国化（Americanisms）。一个群体一旦意识到自身的民族特性，便常常会提出政治地位的要求，并导致民族主义

运动；这是因为语言是社会生活里最广泛、最重要的特征。同一语言的不同变体也是民族性的标志，比如英语的各种变体，著名的例子有印度英语、西印度群岛英语以及美国黑人英语和白人英语(Crystal 1987)。因此语言是一个民族及其文化的最为显著的特征。

其次，语言也常常显示一个人的社会地位。一个人的谈话方式往往能展示其社会地位和文化程度。例如 Trudgill (1983:41-42)的金子塔图解就揭示了英国社会语言与社会阶层的关系，处于塔尖部分的是上层社会，讲的是"标准英语"，越往下就越接近社会的底层，讲的英语就越不标准，文化程度也就越低。因此语言特征常被用来判断一个人的社会角色，语言也就具备了区分或认同社会文化群体的功能。

第三，在某一特定文化里，语言特征表现了语言环境背景的特点。语言的主要特征如信息传递的渠道(channel)、代码(code)、形式(message form)和主题(subject matter)等均受交谈的场景(setting)、参与者(participants)和活动(activity)等因素的制约。这些关系在不同的文化里各不相同。例如电话交谈常常能显示场景对语言的影响。什么样的话该讲，什么样的话不该讲，特别是电话的开头和结尾，不同的文化有着不同的规则。比方说英国英语里私人打电话的模式一般为：

1. 电话铃响。

2. 接电话者自报电话号码。

3. 打电话者要求与某人通话。

但法语的通常模式是：

1. 电话铃响。

2. 接电话者说 "Allo" (喂)。

3. 打电话者报对方号码，询问是否正确。

4. 接电话者回答 "Oui" (是)。

5. 打电话者自报姓名，道歉，然后要求与某人通话。

如果英国人按英语习惯打电话给法国人，法国人便觉得受到了冒犯，因为英国人没有自报姓名，也没有因为打扰别人而道歉。相反，英国人接到法国人的电话可能也会感到不快，因为英国人已经报了自己的号码，而法国人还要核对一遍。(Crystal 1987:48-65)

上述几点语言的社会文化功能使得语言成为文化的最显著特征。因此说语言和文化密不可分，学外语而不懂其文化等于是记住了一连串没有实际意义的符号，很难有效地加以运用，而且每每用错。

四、文化教学的必要性

西方外语界流传着一句话："一旦学了一门外语，你就不再是以往的自己了。"这句话揭示了学习外语和学习外国文化之间不可避免的联系，尽管有些语言学家对外国文化教学存有疑虑，怕戴上文化侵略或文化帝国主义的帽子。比如以英语为母语的教师在向来自非英语文化的学生教授英语时，就生怕被人指责为把本国文化的价值观和信仰强加给外国学生。然而教英语而同时传授一点西方观念是不可避免的(Barrow 1990)，Damen (1987:4) 也说："语言学习隐含了文化学习"，因此一个操双语者 (bilingual) 至少在一定程度上是双重文化者 (bicultural)。

既然语言是文化不可分割的一部分同时又担负着传达文化的任务，那么一个语言教师同时也就是个文化教师(Stern 1983:251)，因此语言课堂就是联系语言与文化的场所。在中国尤其如此，因为课堂是学外语的主要场所，要学生完全通过直接同外国人接触而学外语、了解外国文化，在目前几乎是做不到的。

综上所述，语言以多种方式同文化紧密相连，因而外语教学也必然涉及到外国文化的教育问题。从文化方面着手，或许能使外语教学事半功倍。但是语言和文化的必然联系是否说明外语教学就等同于文化教学，或者教一门西方语言就必须"传播西方信仰和价值观"呢？当然不是那么一回事。这里有一个教什么和如何教的问题，还有一个本国

238

文化在外语教学中的地位及作用的问题。由于中国文化与西方文化迥异，因而这些问题对于中国的西方语教学来说便显得特别重要，有待于深入探讨。

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• 4 •