Reading in a foreign language: A miscue-based study of Korean primary school students

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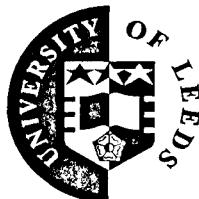
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Acknowledgements

For my parents,
Im, Young Sup and Lee, Jung Hee

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This PhD thesis has produced two conference presentations and one article. Contents of the presentations and paper were used in the thesis with some alterations where needed. A list of work from this thesis is presented below:

Abstract

Using a range of complementary methods (miscue analysis, interviews, and questionnaires), this thesis aims to explore the reading processes of some Korean primary school students in English. The questionnaire was collected from 78 Korean primary school students in Seoul. Of those students, 12 were selected to provide miscue data. Interview data was collected from the miscue participants as well as six adult participants (three state school teachers, one private lesson teacher, one parent, one member of staff at a children's bookshop). Established miscue analysis techniques were adapted to accommodate the research context of Korean primary school students; participants were asked to read the same text twice without any significant pause, and, after the second oral reading, were asked to translate what they read in English into Korean. Data analysis was carried out quantitatively as well as qualitatively. The number of miscues were counted and categorised into five types: substitutions, insertions, omissions, repetitions, and reformulations. In the qualitative analysis, translation and interview data were used to provide more information about reading processes. The analysis shows that more than thirty percent of miscues, mostly substitution miscues, were repeated across the two oral readings. They also show that a lot of non-word substitutions were produced and that most of the real-word substitutions produced were based on graphophonic cues, rather than syntactic or semantic cues. The translation data suggest that many students experience difficulty in using syntactic cues. The mismatches between miscue and translation data show that the students' difficulties in decoding do not necessarily reflect difficulties in reading comprehension, or vice versa. The analysis of the interview transcripts show that many students consider reading to be an oral activity and associate reading difficulties mainly with pronunciation and vocabulary. The results suggest that they approach reading in English in a disconnected way, failing to integrate cues from different levels. The discussion suggests that miscue analysis can perform a helpful role in allowing researchers to gain a greater understanding of readers' expectations of reading. It is also suggested, however, that Goodman's 'window' metaphor for miscue analysis may be misleading and that miscue data should be used with a degree of caution, without the assumption that it can serve as a transparency that will reveal all aspects of reading processes.

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EFL – English as a Foreign Language

ELT – English Language Teaching

ESL – English as a Second Language

FL – Foreign Language

L1 – First Language / Native Language

L2 – Second Language

that most Korean primary school students are exposed to written language in their private lessons outside the classroom and therefore it is desirable to consider an integrated national curriculum of four skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing). Song (2000) highlighted four benefits of teaching reading as part of English education for Korean students: in a context with few native speakers, it is the most practical way to teach English; it provides the most viable input to EFL learners; it is one of the most important parts of university entrance exams and tests for promotion in the workplace; and it is the means of obtaining information from books or the internet. As a primary school teacher in Korea, I have noticed several issues which arise mainly from apparent gaps in the understanding of young learners' reading processes in English. In order to improve understanding of these reading processes, I decided to explore, in depth, the English reading processes of Korean primary school students.

1.2 Rationale for the research

I conducted this study for three reasons: theoretical, pedagogical, and methodological. The theoretical reason is that more empirical evidence is needed to contribute to our understanding of reading processes among young foreign readers. This is partly due to the inappropriate transfer of findings between foreign and second language reading. Any theory draws on a considerable body of research in an attempt to synthesise general findings in a specific area. In this work, analogy is quite often made between different contexts. Brown (1994) presents a matrix with four dimensions; children's first and second language acquisition, and adults' first and second language acquisition in Figure 1-1:

CHILD   **ADULT**

	CHILD	ADULT
L1	C1	A1
L2	C2	A2

L1 = First language
L2 = Second language
C = Child
A = Adult
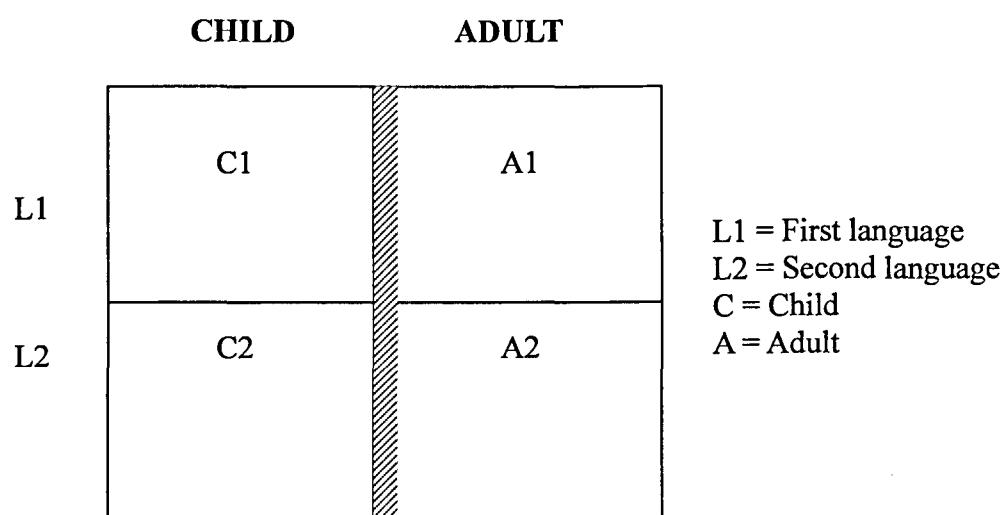
Figure 1-1 First and second language acquisition in adults and children

(Reproduced from Brown, 1994:51)

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This matrix makes us aware of the comparison we often make between children and adults or first and second language learning. He argues that each dimension has to be treated cautiously before any comparison can be made between them; he states that a comparison between children's first language acquisition and adults' second language acquisition is especially inappropriate. Although his argument was made regarding language acquisition theory, his matrix can be useful in understanding analogies made in reading theory. Here, I would like to point out three possible analogies of this type- between:

- Adult and young learners;
- Proficient and non-proficient readers;
- First language and second, or foreign language learners.

Quite often, reading theories are based on a highly skilled, or 'ultimate', reading process, based on the example of first language readers. One possible reason for this is offered by Grabe and Stoller (2002:11): 'At very advanced levels, L1 and L2 reading abilities tend to merge and appear to be quite similar. So, to understand the end-point of reading abilities, that of the fluent, critical reader, the research on L1 reading development offers us a much more complete understanding'. It would be ideal that readers aim to achieve a native level of reading, but in this idealisation we may lack the ability to explain the reading processes of young foreign readers who may not have reached a high level in a foreign language. As Porte (1988:171) puts it, 'poor' EFL learners do not need merely to copy their 'betters' in order to improve'. They may have their own ways to approach reading, possibly influenced by several factors, which may be different from L1 readers.

However, the transfer of findings to a different kind of learner seems inevitable, since we lack studies on young foreign readers. Macaro and Erler (2008:6) point out that 'most studies have involved adults or university students, not young learners'. For example, the journal *Reading in a Foreign Language* has produced two issues per year since 1983. Most studies in *Reading in a Foreign Language* have been conducted with university students. Up until this point (Spring 2008), there have been only five articles published on young foreign readers (Raj & Hunt, 1990; Amer, 1992; Williams, 1993; Fender, 2008; Gardner, 2008).

This paucity of research on young foreign readers is also observable in local Korean journals. Joh and Seon (2007) reviewed 77 papers about reading from three major Korean academic journals (*English Teaching, Foreign Language Education, Journal of the Applied Linguistics Association of Korea*), published between 1995 and 2005; they assessed them for their participants, themes, and research apporaches. Out of these 77 papers, 42 (approximately

Chapter 1

Introduction

This study was designed to explore the reading processes in English of some primary school students in Korea, from a socio-cognitive perspective and to investigate the role of miscue analysis in helping us to understand reading processes. In this chapter, I offer an overview of the research, beginning with a brief explanation of the research context, in which I acquired my initial motivation. I then present a rationale for the research, explaining the value of research into reading at primary level. Next, I state the research focus, aims, and finally describe the outline of the thesis.

1.1 Background of the research

English was incorporated into the primary school curriculum in Korea in 1997. The main focus of the curriculum is the development of oral English skills (MoE, 1997); however, my experience as a primary school teacher leads me to believe that students are more likely to be exposed to written, rather than oral, English. Korean students have limited chances to meet native speakers, unless they attend private language institutes employing such teachers. As English is a foreign language in Korea, students are more likely to be exposed to English input through reading rather than listening. For example, students get English input through the Internet or books. Today, it is increasingly normal for primary school students to access the Internet, which they enjoy using for activities such as web surfing, e-mailing, searching out information for homework assignments, and so on. The use of the Internet will inevitably provide primary school students with increased chances to read English. Parents also encourage students to read English by purchasing English books for them. Schools also contribute to providing English written input. As a teacher, I had many chances to observe English classes in other schools. I found that the classroom environment in those schools was full of English letters, words, and sentences. For example, even the toilet signs were written in both English and Korean. It was likely that these schools wanted to show that they tried their best to provide an English-rich environment for their students.

There are several studies which point out the mismatch between the focus of the national curriculum and the actual needs of Korean primary school students, with regard to reading in English (e.g., Lee, W. K., 2004; Boo, 2005; Lee Y., 2005)[1]. For instance, Boo (2005) argues

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[1] When different references have the same surname and year, I have presented them with initials following the surname.

62%) dealt with university students and only 11 (approximately 17%) used participants of primary school age or younger. In the journal *Korean Association of Primary English Education* (KAPEE), just 15 articles out of 221 from 1996 to spring 2008 are concerned with reading (Kang, 1999; Kim, 1999; Kang, 2000; Cho & Seo, 2001; Lee & Lee, 2001; Rha, 2001; Chang, 2004: Kim S., 2004; Park & Jeong, 2005; Yim, 2006; Cho, 2006; Kim J.S., 2007; Han & Cha, 2007; Park, 2008; Seo & Lee, 2008). Kim S. (2004) mentions that reading processes in Korean EFL young learners have been paid little attention by researchers.

This scarcity of research on young readers of English in Korea has partly been caused by the focus on oral skills prescribed in the national curriculum for Korean primary school students; according to this, reading is heavily controlled, so as to avoid de-motivating students. Only 10% of English teaching time is allocated to reading (Lee Y., 2005). However, there are a number of researchers who claim that greater integration of the four skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) can benefit students' learning in English (e.g., Lee, 1998; Kang, 1999; Lee W. K., 2004). Lee Y. (2005) notes that most studies into reading for young learners have discussed the most effective teaching methods, but there is a lack of studies that examine the actual reading processes of Korean EFL young readers.

A further theoretical justification for my study may be found in the relative scarcity of studies in reading that favour the socio-cognitive perspective. Many researchers have highlighted different aspects of reading processes; the views of cognitive theorists tend to favour innate ability, while socio-cultural theorists tend to emphasise the influence of environmental factors. The socio-cognitive perspective, meanwhile, generally falls somewhere between these two extreme positions. Nowadays, reading is generally considered to be both cognitive and social (e.g., Bernhardt, 1991; Cameron, 2001). Given this consensus, it seems more appropriate to take a socio-cognitive perspective in understanding reading processes.

The pedagogical purpose of the research is to help teachers in designing reading lessons for young learners and to provide suggestions for the improvement of reading materials for young foreign learners. This area needs to be explored (e.g.; Richards, 2002; Arnold & Rixon, 2008). Richards (2002:1) points out that 'in many countries English is now being introduced at primary rather than secondary level, necessitating considerable new investment in textbooks and teacher training'. Arnold and Rixon (2008) note the frequent scarcity of materials for teaching English to young learners:

One feature that is common to many contexts is the speed at which EYL has been introduced into mainstream education by the authorities. This has often outpaced the teacher education and creation of suitable materials that ideally should prepare the ground for such an innovation.

(Arnold & Rixon, 2008:39)

As the above quotations suggest, teacher education and materials for young foreign readers are in high demand and Korea is not alone in experiencing this situation. In particular, teacher education and the development of materials for reading in English do not follow the current needs of students, due to the mismatch between the focus of the national curriculum and that of students' private lessons: the national curriculum emphasises oral aspects of English for Korean primary school students, in actuality, many students are asked to read in English in their private lessons. This mismatch suggests that understanding of the reading processes of young learners is very limited among teachers, especially those in state schools, as well as designers of reading materials and this lack of understanding has limited the development of suitable reading materials or teacher education with regard to reading in English for young learners.

The methodological reason for the research is that most reading methodology has developed in first or second language situations, and that methodology has been applied to a foreign language context without being properly adapted. Reading is a complex process, which demands the use of many kinds of knowledge, interactively and simultaneously. If these different kinds of knowledge are studied in isolation from each other, the process will be more difficult to understand. As a result, analysis of our research methodology is required and several different research tools will be necessary to study these separate sources of information. Consequently, my study has adopted a synthetic approach, combining several research tools, with miscue analysis serving as the main research tool.

1.3 Focus and aims of the research

The theoretical basis of my research is a socio-cognitive framework; I provide a more detailed explanation of the socio-cognitive perspective as part of my literature review, but, in brief, it refers to attempts to develop understanding of reading processes from a cognitive, as well as socio-cultural perspective. Methodologically, I employed a naturalistic framework and I provide a detailed explanation of why I believe my research adheres to this definition on page 85, in Table 4-2 of Chapter Four. My theoretical position influenced my methodological framework. In the light of socio-cognitive theory, I do not consider reading to be a single, unified process. Rather, I view it as a number of connected, situated processes. From this theoretical viewpoint, it seemed more appropriate to adopt a naturalistic paradigm, rather than a scientific one. My starting point is the cognitive perspective on reading and I

try to show how the socio-cultural perspective can be integrated within a cognitive framework.

There are two reasons why I started from a cognitive perspective to integrate the cognitive and social dimensions of reading processes; firstly, all the reading theories in ESL or EFL have been firmly based on the cognitive perspective, which means that the research methods employed are also more cognitive-oriented. Consequently, it is likely to be more productive to start from the cognitive side. Secondly, the types of participation of EFL learners in reading are rather limited compared to those of native learners; for EFL learners, the socio-cultural dimension is more likely to be limited to the classroom context. In view of this, the focus of my study is to understand how the internal processes of reading are affected by social expectations.

This study is entitled 'Reading in a foreign language: A miscue-based study of Korean primary school students'. I use the term 'miscue-based' study, rather than 'miscue study', for three reasons; first, I adapted the classical version of miscue analysis for the purposes of the present study. Students were asked to read the same text twice without any significant pause between the two readings. They were then asked to translate what they read during the second oral reading: Second, my interpretation of the miscue data is based on socio-cognitive theory, rather than psycholinguistic theory, on which miscue analysis was originally based. Third, I used other research tools such as questionnaires and interviews to gain a more in-depth understanding of the participants' reading processes.

1.4 Outline of the thesis

The thesis is divided into three sections and consists of ten chapters. The areas covered by each section are as follows:

Section I (Chapters 1-3): Theory and practice of reading in a foreign language;
Section II (Chapters 4-5): Research methodology and data arrangement;
Section III (Chapters 6-10): Findings and discussion of the study.

The first section (Chapters One to Three) shows the process by which the research questions were constructed. This chapter has provided a rationale for the study, including my motivations, as well as the focus and aim of the research. Chapter Two presents the socio-cultural context in Korea with regard to English education. In the first part, the Korean socio-cultural context is discussed, including the role of education in Korea and the place of

English; in the second part, I discuss the structure and implementation of the English curriculum in Korean primary schools. Chapter Three opens with a discussion of relevant contemporary ideas concerning reading processes and then moves on to discuss theoretical perspectives on reading. The use of cues in reading is discussed, including coverage of relevant studies regarding young foreign readers. Two main research questions are presented in the final section of Chapter Three: theoretical and methodological, both based on socio-cognitive theory. The theoretical research question seeks to explore the reading processes of Korean primary school students, whereas the methodological one seeks to investigate the role of miscue analysis in understanding reading processes.

The second section of the thesis describes the way in which I address the research questions of the current study. Details of research design and implementation are described in Chapter Four and the process of data arrangement, when dealing with miscues, translation, and interview data is explained in Chapter Five.

The third section of the thesis reports the findings from the data analysis and explains why those results occurred; Chapter Six presents an analysis of the questionnaires and background interviews. This analysis addresses the first research sub-question, which enquires into perceptions of reading. Chapter Seven presents a miscue analysis; this is to answer the second research sub-question, which seeks to identify types of miscues, and the methodological question, which seeks to examine the possible role of miscues in understanding reading processes. Chapter Eight adds more information concerning the miscue analysis, including translation and interview data. This serves to address the third research sub-question, which concerns the relationship between decoding and comprehension, and the fourth research sub-question, which enquires into the reading of Korean EFL learners. However, it also addresses the methodological research question. One case study is presented in Chapter Nine, in order to provide a more in-depth understanding of reading processes through the study of an individual student. Chapter Ten contains a summary and conclusions, including limitations, implications, and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2

Research context: The social context of English primary school education in Korea

In this chapter, I present some background information on the research context of English primary school education in Korea, using data I collected while working as a teacher. There are many areas to be examined under the title 'the social context', because the words 'social' and 'context' can be discussed at different levels of discourse. Halliday and Hasan (1989:4) identify two possible meanings for the term 'social'; the first is 'social system', which is synonymous with the culture as a whole, while the second is 'social structure', which is taken to be one aspect of the social system. The first section of this chapter discusses the social context as 'social system' and the second deals with the social context as 'social structure'. Holliday (1994) divides the social context of language education into two levels: macro and micro. The former refers to 'wider societal and institutional influences on what happens in the classroom' (p.13), while the latter refers to 'what happened between people' (p.14). This chapter starts with an explanation of the macro level of 'social context' and moves on to the micro level. Tudor (2001:18) identifies context as 'a complex phenomenon, which may be seen as having two main sets of components: pragmatic and mental'. The pragmatic context refers to aspects of the teaching situation, such as the number of students in one classroom, whereas the mental context denotes what learners bring with them to the learning situation, such as beliefs, attitudes, and expectations. In this section, I use the term 'context' to refer both to mental and pragmatic contexts.

The first set of data came partly from newspaper articles, as well as local journal articles, and the second set from a preliminary study in which a questionnaire was administered, in 2003, to 112 sixth grade primary school students. The students who filled out the questionnaire are not the same individuals as the participants in my main study. I did not approach the same students for the preliminary study, so as not to contaminate the data in the main study; the participants for the preliminary study would have matured in the time between the preliminary (2003) and main (2004) studies. In that questionnaire, I asked questions to evaluate the private English lessons they attend, the time they spend studying English, and their thoughts about the national English textbook. The other set of data came from an examination of the national curriculum, my observations as a teacher, and interviews with students.

Making use of this data, I discuss the context of English primary school education in Korea. First, I discuss the social context of Korean education, including the importance of education in Korea and the place of English there. After that, I examine the educational context, under which heading I discuss the English national curriculum for Korean primary schools and analyse the English primary education situation. Finally, I sketch the issues that emerge from this discussion.

2.1 Korean socio-cultural context in education

2.1.1 The importance of education in Korea

Education is a central concern of Korean society. Whenever a new president is elected and sets up a new cabinet, the most debated appointment (and usually the final one) is that of education minister. In the previous Korean government (2002-07), the education minister was changed several times, and before each appointment there was considerable discussion as to whether that person was appropriate for the position. This demonstrates the importance of the role that education plays in Korean culture. Choi (2006:22) describes the role of education in Korea as follows: 'Koreans traditionally have a very strong zeal for education. Because of the social atmosphere that links one's educational background (including English ability) with social or career success, or the quality of life, they place high priority on a good educational background'.

Ihlwan and Woyke (2007) reported that Korea spends the largest share of its gross domestic product on education of all industrialised countries. Kim (2000:95) argued, in his analysis of the historical correlation between education policy and industrialization strategies in Korea, that 'rapid expansion of Korean education is one of the most important factors behind its economic growth' between 1945 and 1995. Kim and Park (2006) reported, in their psychological analysis that Koreans consider education to be the most important factor in one's success in life and that sacrifice and support provided by parents make an essential contribution to their children's educational achievements. In their open-ended questionnaires, with 1211 students, they reported that 35% of students deemed their parents to be the most supportive influence in their education. As for the type of support received, emotional support was the most frequently cited (35%), followed by informational support (30%).

In Korea, a 6-3-3 education system is used; six years of primary school, three of middle school, and three of high school. For those accepted by a university, an average undergraduate degree lasts four years. *EIU ViewsWire* (2005) reports high enrolment rates in Korea:

...In numerical terms enrolment rates are impressive, including the achievement of nearly 100% primary school enrolment by 1970; secondary school enrolment was then only 42%, but rose to nearly 100% by the late 1990s. At around 50%, enrolment in tertiary education now exceeds that of Japan, the UK and Germany. The literacy rate rose from around 22% in 1945 to 87.6% in 1970 and further, to 97.2% in 1997...

(EIU ViewsWire, 2005)

These high enrolment rates reflect the great importance attached to education in Korean society. Students also undertake a great deal of additional study outside of the education system, usually in preparation for more advanced levels of learning. For example, children in kindergarten have private lessons to improve their ability to read and write before they enter primary school; also, primary school students have lessons to learn mathematical equations that are normally taught in middle or high school. Parents attempt to ensure that their child is outstanding in their class and private lessons are seen as an effective way of achieving this. The *Korea Herald* made the following remarks on this competitive atmosphere:

...In a meritocracy such as Korea, education is regarded as the means to getting ahead in life. No sacrifice can be too great to obtain admission to a top college... Thus, in the minds of many parents, these highly competitive schools are the link to getting into top-tier colleges, and children are enrolled as early as in the fifth grade, in private institutes that offer preparation courses for the special high schools...

(Korea Herald, 2007)

This intense competition in education may arise from an over-reliance on human resources, which is due to Korea's lack of natural resources, as well as a high population density. According to the United Nations World Populations Prospects Report (2004 revision), South Korea's population density was estimated to be 480 people per square kilometre (almost double that of the UK). Given such a high density of population, it is not surprising that the society itself has become very competitive. The 2006 edition of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) factbook shows that Koreans' expenditure on private education per GDP was the highest level of any country. Kim and Kim (2003), in their questionnaire, with 207 third-grade primary school students, reported that 79.7% of students started learning English before they began state school lessons.

The Korean National Statistical Office (KNSO) reported a survey about private lesson expenditure in Korea in February 2008. Its data was gathered in 2007, through a survey to investigate private lessons in primary, junior, and senior high schools across the country. They approached 34,000 parents in 272 schools (74 primary schools, 82 junior high schools,

and 116 senior high schools). According to this survey, the total amount spent on private lessons in 2007 was 20 trillion and 40 billion won (approximately £11billion). They reported that, of this, ten trillion and two hundred billion won (approximately £5.5billion) went towards private lessons for primary school students. The proportion who took private lessons was 77.0% and among three types of students, primary school students' participation rate was the highest (88.8%). Based on their results, Korean parents will need 43.7 million won (approximately £24,000) to educate their child until junior high school. If they have two children, they will spend about one hundred million won (approximately £54,000).

The subjects in the private lessons were maths (58.6%), English (55.6%), and Korean (39.3%). The types of private lessons involved were individual tutoring (9.6%), group tutoring (11.8%), hagwon (47.2%), worksheet (25.2%), and charged internet and telephone lessons (3.2%). Here, the third type, hagwon, refers to a private institute in Korea and the fourth type to studying with worksheets that certain private educational companies distribute. That company usually allocates one teacher, who visits once each week. Students receive assignments for one week from their teacher and work on their own with the worksheets, before having their assignments checked by their teacher. The last type, charged internet and communication means having private lessons through a charged internet service or telephone connection. This survey illustrates how much Korean parents spend on private education for their children and provides further evidence of Korean students' heavy study-load. Thatcher (2008) notes that South Korean society places a high premium on education. He points out that 'there's a cultural perception that academic ranking will make or break their marriage and career.'

2.1.2 The place of English in Korea

English plays an important role in Korean society. Li (1998) mentions that 'The South Korean government has placed English learning and teaching high on its agenda, to ensure that South Korea will play an active and important role in world political and economic activities' (Li, 1998:681). When describing English education in a Korean context, Nunan (2003) claims that 'English is a major concern in all areas of government, business, and education' (Nunan, 2003:600). He describes the huge amount of money spent in this area:

> A tremendous amount of money has been spent on teaching and learning English. On average, Korean families spend one third of their income on private lessons for their children in English, art, and music. Increasing numbers of English-medium schools are also beginning to appear, and the largest of these have student enrolments running into the hundreds of thousands.
>
> (Nunan, 2003:601)

He refers to this as an 'explosive demand for English language' (Nunan, 2003:601) in Korea. As Li and Nunan pointed out, a strong command of English is needed to gain entrance to premier universities, as well as to secure a job with good prospects for promotion. I wish to discuss two cultural terms, widely used to illustrate the prominent place of English in Korea, in relation to English education. One is 'English divide' and the other is 기러기/gireogi/, meaning 'wild goose father'[2]. The term 'English divide' is used to refer to the socio-cultural environment in which people are divided by their command of English. This term is adapted from popular cultural discourse concerning the effect of digitization on society. In the same way that people are divided according to their computer skills in a digital world, people in Korea are classified by their ability in English. This term highlights the importance of English in Korean society. Since English plays a critical role in Korea, parents strive to ensure that their children have a favourable environment in which to study English. There is a Korean saying that suggests if you want to know to which socio-economic class a child belongs, you can find out just by listening to their English. Several years ago, expensive products, such as electrical goods or clothes, indicated the class to which a child belongs; but now Koreans seem to believe ability in English is a much stronger indicator of social standing. This is due to the fact that it costs a large amount of money, over a long period of time, to pay for a high standard of private English tuition.

The term 'wild goose father' stems from this high level of parental ambition. The phrase 'wild goose' is used to refer to people whose family ties are so strong that they will 'sacrifice' their lives to help other family members. Thus, a wild goose father refers to a father who sends his family abroad for the sake of his children's education (mainly to learn English). The father will then remain in Korea to work and send money to his family, located overseas. Surprisingly, this scenario is not limited to the rich. Some men, although they are not rich enough to support their children's study abroad, still act as wild goose fathers by selling their possessions or property. The following is an excerpt from a news article in the *Korea Times* (2005) describing a wild goose father:

> ...Being lonely is not Hong's only problem. Financially supporting them [his children] is also a big burden as he sends roughly 60 million won [approximately £ 32,500] to his family a year. [...] "I had to sell a hard-earned apartment last year because I cannot afford the cost with my salary alone.   So I moved to a small one-room apartment," he said...
>
> (Korea Times, 2005)

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[2] All Korean words used in this thesis are presented using the official Romanization rules of the Republic of Korea, 2000.

In this newspaper, Hong is presented as a wild goose father. The amount of money he sends to his children is more than double the salary I used to get as a primary school teacher. A poor wild goose father like Hong is called a 'penguin father', who is not rich enough to fly to the countries in which his family stays. A rich wild goose father is called an 'eagle father' because he is rich enough to travel to meet his children in the countries where they are studying. This newspaper uses a survey by the Korean Educational Developmental Institute (KEDI), which shows that one in three parents hopes to send their children abroad to study at a young age. Choi (2006:20) notes that 'although one of the causes for studying abroad is to avoid extreme competition for college entrance, the main purpose is to learn foreign languages, particularly, English'. Kim (2008) reports that this phenomenon of the 'wild goose father' has been interpreted as a social problem by the transition committee of the new president:

> ...Since the presidential transition committee recently announced plans for a revolutionary reform of English education in secondary schools, the whole nation has been boiling over the issue. "The increasing number of the so-called 'wild geese families' and the astronomical amounts spent on private English lessons have now become a serious social problem," proclaims the committee...
>
> (Korea Herald, 2008)

The two terms 'English divide' and 'wild goose father' clearly indicate the motivation that Koreans have to learn English. Lee and Park (2001:58), in their questionnaire with 674 children, stated that 'the majority of children across the grades (76%) answered that English is a very important subject, while only 3 percent of their counterparts replied negatively'. In this local context, it is not surprising that private English lessons are in high demand. The following quotation from the Jackson(2007) shows that private English lessons are often one of parents' highest priorities:

> ...parents sacrifice and scrape together what they can to send their children to private after-school language institutes (hagwon). English programs take half of the 30 trillion won a year ($32 billion) spent on Korea's private supplemental education system...
>
> (Korea Times, 2007)

There are several studies that highlight the fact that parents are willing to pay for additional lessons in English for their children (e.g., Lee & Park, 2001; Lee M. J., 2006; Yim, 2008). Lee M. J. (2006) conducted a survey study with 486 parents and reported that 59.5 % students started learning English private lessons even before they started formal education in primary school and 90.9% students started English learning before the third grade, which is the point at which they officially begin learning English in state schools. He reported the average starting point for learning English was 5.08 years of age. I have written about one

classroom located in southern Seoul in which the whole class, which consisted of thirty-four students, were also taking private lessons in their spare time (Yim, 2008). The following diary entries from three sixth grade primary school students suggest that students spend a large amount of time studying English, even during vacation (The first entry was originally written in English, and I translated the other two into English):

> Goodbye Philippines

> Yesterday is my best day for study English. My teacher's are very kind, and humble. So I want stay more time but my parent disagree my opinion. I regret my life. Because if, I came here early, I will speak English very well and I learn wisdom. I esteem many staffs because they have good personality. So I want to come Philippines in winter vacation. But maybe I can't. Because I have to prepare middle school. I like Philippines. I miss ECI Academy and Philippines. (2007/08/11)

> Meaningless vacation

> After the vacation started, I changed to a different type of English hagwon. This lasts four hours. Here, I have as much work per day, as I had at the previous hagwon in a week. We have listening, grammar, reading, eight comprehension questions, and re-test. It ends at 9:30 but if I don't do assignments or my test results are below 80, I come home around 10:30. How will I be able to do these assignments, when the school vacation ends? (2007/08/13)

> Ah, ENTOP...annoying...ahhhhh!!!

> Today, I also did English assignments in the morning. Today, I have four kinds of tests and a lot of assignments. I felt today, and before, that in the listening conversation, people talk so fast, especially in the underlined part [left blank for students' answers] in the question. There was a plethora of unknown words, so I looked up their meanings with the dictionary of my mobile phone. However hard I try, I have never finished the assignments from my private lessons. The other students are also unable to finish, since the assignments are too large. Anyway, En top [the name of an English hagwon]... I hate assignments, I hate tests, and I hate retests. (2007/08/10)

Sixth grade primary school students in Korea are equivalent to year seven students in England; so, children of the same age are primary school students in Korea and secondary school students in England. In this thesis, I will use the term 'sixth grade' rather than 'year seven', since the systems of primary and secondary schools are very different.

2.2 Analysis of current TEYL practice

2.2.1 The English national curriculum for Korean primary schools

Since 1997, English has been taught as a subject in state primary schools in Korea, and during that time, the national curriculum has been revised twice. In the first curriculum period, 1997 to 2001, English classes took place twice per week, from third to sixth grades, with each lesson lasting 40 minutes. However, during the second curriculum period, from

2002 to the present, lesson times have been reduced. With this changed curriculum, third- and fourth-grade students are only allowed to have one English lesson per week. Fifth- and sixth-grade students are allowed two lessons per week. Throughout the two national curricula for English, oral skills have received greater emphasis than written skills. The reason for this is found in the history of secondary ELT in Korea, which spans more than five decades. Historically, English education focused on reading and grammar and, as a result, many Koreans could not have even a basic conversation, after many years learning English. This was one of the major criticisms of secondary ELT and frustration with the secondary ELT system came to a head in the 1990s.

Before English was adopted as a school subject in primary school, there was much discussion and debate over the need to teach English at that level. In that debate, the Ministry of Education tried to take a different approach to ELT, by avoiding a disproportionate emphasis on written English. This is clearly apparent when one examines the national curriculum policy. The policy states that the role of lessons in written English is to be minimized and presented in such a way as to support English oral lessons. This emphasis on oral communication is revealed by an examination of the national textbook. Most of its pages are composed of pictures. Reading is restricted to a minimum level. For instance, the textbook for third grade students resembles a picture book, with most of the pages taken up by illustrations. Written English is limited to titles of chapters or instructions for the students to follow. Even when songs are used, the lyrics for the songs are not provided in the textbook. Although there are more English phrases and sentences in the English textbooks of the upper grades, the amount of extended written language in English is still carefully limited. Kim J. S. (2004) describes the reading requirements specified by the 7th national curriculum:

> Since the 7th national curriculum requires elementary students to learn approximately at least 340 and at most 500 English words for four years, sixth graders' vocabulary is assumed to range from 300 to 450 words. Therefore, the amount of vocabulary indicates that they are able to read only easy and simple English texts.

(Kim J. S., 2004:107)

Although oral skills such as speaking or listening are more emphasised in the national curriculum, Korean primary school students are exposed more to written than oral English. Kim and Kim (2003) reported that most of their third grade participants (out of 207 questionnaire respondents) had already been exposed to written English by their private lessons and, as a consequence, are usually keen to learn it. They reported that 71.5% of students hope that their school textbook contains written English as well as pictures. They

also surveyed 93 primary school teachers, 49.5% of whom expressed dissatisfaction with the third grade textbook, due to its lack of written English.

Kim (2002) reported that, in a questionnaire with 72 primary school teachers, 65% of his participants thought that the way written English is controlled in the national curriculum is undesirable. The reason given by 11% of these respondents was that, in actuality, many students have private English lessons, in which they are exposed to written English. It is therefore unreasonable to pretend that we are unaware of this situation.

Park (2003) analysed 895 students' feedback on primary English textbooks used in the third and fourth grades and reported that, out of eight learning activities (listening to a CD, repeating after the CD, chanting, singing, games, role-play, speaking with picture cues, and reading), reading was least popular among fourth grade students. The reasons given for this were that they find it boring (41.6%) or too difficult (22.6%). Park (2003:118) suggested that 'reading activities should be varied and designed to appeal to the students' interests' (translated from Korean). Lee W. K. (2004) conducted a survey with 278 primary school teachers to provide suggestive information on the revision of the 7th national curriculum. Based on the data, he argues that written English should be emphasized for the fifth and sixth grade students. Empirical studies, quoted above, show the clear mismatch between the focus of the national curriculum and its implementation in the classroom. In the next section, I describe my preliminary study, which was conducted in 2003, along with observation as a primary school teacher, with regard to reading in English.

2.2.2 Issues emerging from preliminary study

In the questionnaire, which I administered in 2003, as a preliminary study to help me better understand the research context (the full questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix I), out of 112 students, 35% considered reading the English national textbook to be 'very easy' and 27% considered it 'easy', while 32% considered the textbook to be of an 'appropriate' level. Only 6% said it was 'difficult' and none chose the option 'very difficult'. The data from the questionnaire suggested that the meaning of reading difficulties varied from student to student. For some students, the number of unknown words encountered when reading makes reading difficult. For others, the grammatical difficulties caused reading problems and, for still others, the story itself made reading difficult. Although the students understood the concept of reading difficulties differently, what was interesting was that well over half of the students did not consider themselves challenged by the contents of the national English textbook.

It can be argued that actual learning may differ from classroom to classroom, since a teacher may utilize their own reading materials in the form of supplementary worksheets, if they have time. However, most teachers would feel more secure in following the national curriculum, rather than employing their own ideas. It is natural that state school teachers feel more comfortable when they are following the national curriculum; private tutors tend to have different aims in their teaching of English. Unlike teachers in state schools, the aim of teachers in the private sector is to teach the students in such a way that they retain them or attract new students. With these different aims in mind, it is very probable that these teachers have developed their own strategies, one of which would be that they teach students in order to prepare them to pass the entrance exam for a good high school. Attendance at a good high school increases a student's chance of attending a premier university, which, in turn, will provide them with an excellent opportunity of gaining a good job. If a private teacher has such aims, they will try to include reading skills in their teaching, since reading still plays a major role in English tests, from secondary school onwards. Therefore, the limited emphasis on reading skills in the national curriculum for primary schools does not represent the full extent of primary school students' learning in English, since the majority of them spend a good deal of time taking private English lessons.

According to my questionnaire, most candidates (96%) had private English lessons after school and 15% of students had taken private English lessons for more than five years. The questionnaire showed that students spent a range of hours studying English after school. 47% studied it for more than seven hours a week and 38% did so for between three and seven hours. The questionnaire for my preliminary study demonstrated again the students' devotion to studying English.

There are issues within the English primary school education context, especially in terms of English reading. The first problem arises from the gap between the national English curriculum and the current needs of students in English reading. My questionnaire data suggest that the national English curriculum does not meet the current needs of Korean students in English reading. As a teacher, I also noticed this problem a lot. One day, one of my co-workers read his student's diary entry at the next desk to me (It is normal for Korean classroom teachers to read students' diary entries and comment on them in Korean). He showed me one of his students' diary entries, which is shown below:

Extract 2-1 A diary entry from a sixth grade student

> June 28, 2003, Saturday, Sunny.
>
> ## Wislearn
>
> Last night, father said to me, "tomorrow we will go to an institution." When I heard it, I felt not so good. Because I hated Institutions.
>
> Wislearn was a name of an institution. It was a combination word of wise and learn. So it means wise learn by the words itself. The institution was set up by a woman. Her name was Sun-Hyun Kim. She is one of my father's friends, so I knew her since I was a little child.
>
> After school our family ate lunch and I and my father started for the Wislearn Institution. When we got there, I was guided to a classroom. While I was waiting in the classroom, three more students appeared to take a lesson. So there were three students except me in the classroom. A teacher taught us mathematics. The problems we solved during the class were very hard. Though they were problems for the fifth grade, I have never seen them before. Father said, "probably you will study in this institution." If I go and study there I'll study harder. I hope I can get a good grade after I study at Wislearn Institution.

This student is in sixth grade and writes an English diary entry once a week. This diary entry demonstrates his language level, as well as his experience of private lessons. The content in this diary is also worth thinking about. It is of interest as it shows the child's knowledge and experience of institutions. Below is an extract from the English national textbook for the sixth grade:

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Extract 2-2 A page from the national textbook for sixth grade students

② 다음 문장을 읽고, 진아의 가족을 찾아봅시다.

This is my family.
My grandfather is a police officer.
My father is a nurse.
My mother is a pilot.

For the student who can write a weekly English diary entry like the sixth grade student above, reading the national English textbook is not challenging. I do not assume, however, that all sixth grade students can write an English diary entry like this student. This student may rank among the upper level in terms of ability for his grade. However, the question still remains. *'Does the national curriculum accommodate current primary students' needs?'* If we take into consideration that 96% of my 2003 questionnaire respondents take private English lessons after school, then the answer to the question will be likely to be in the negative, although it depends on how much they learn in class. Consequently, it seems useful to investigate the current needs of Korean students and the reading processes in English amongst these students, so that the gap can be bridged.

More evidence of the problem is apparent when we examine the English reading levels of the students. My 2003 questionnaire data suggest that reading the national English textbook does not provide a proper challenge for students. This problem also occurs with the textbook that is used in private English lessons. A case in point involves Sumi, a fifth grade student, who I taught in primary school. One day I had a chance to look at the textbook that Sumi used in her private English lessons. I was surprised by the big difference in reading levels between the national English textbook and the private one. To highlight this difference, below I have reproduced one page from the national textbook:

Extract 2-3 A page from the national textbook for fifth grade students

Let's Read

1 다음 낱말의 뜻을 생각하며 읽어 봅시다.

breakfast	lunch	dinner
study	homework	bed

Contrast this with one page from Sumi's textbook from the private institute she attends:

Extract 2-4 A page from Sumi's textbook at the private institute

Looking for Love

JOHN is 52 years old. He is not married. Every day he comes home from work and eats dinner alone. Then he watches TV alone. At 11 o'clock he goes to bed alone.

John is not happy. He has a good job and a nice house, but he doesn't have love. He wants a wife.

How can John find a wife? One day he has an idea.

John is a painter, and he drives a small truck. He paints these words on his truck:

> **WANTED—A WIFE**
> ARE YOU 35–45 YEARS OLD?
> DO YOU LIKE CHILDREN, PETS, AND QUIET TIMES? PLEASE WRITE ME.
> MY ADDRESS IS 307 S. SIXTH ST.
> I AM A HARD-WORKING MAN.

Hundreds of women write letters to John. He reads all the letters. He likes one letter very much.

The letter is from Bobbi. Bobbi is 33 years old, and she is divorced. She has two children and a dog.

John calls Bobbi, and they meet. One week later, John paints his truck white.

"I'm not looking for love now," John says with a smile.

One year later, John and Bobbi are married.

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For Sumi, the national textbook appears too easy and the private textbook too difficult. Besides the level of difficulty, the topic in the private English textbook does not seem appropriate for an 11 year old student. This is evident not only in Sumi's case: as a teacher, I actually came across this type of issue quite often. This case suggests that neither the national nor the private English textbooks match the current needs of Korean students in English reading.

Besides the issues in the English reading levels, Sumi's case highlights another issue in English reading, namely, reading materials. Sumi's private textbook, 'Easy True Stories', is a book published by Longman. This book has been used without any adaptation to the local context. The passage 'Looking for Love' is quite inappropriate in many ways. First, this topic is not suitable for primary school students. Also, the story is not likely to be understood by Koreans. The story is about a 52 year-old single man looking for a woman. One day he puts a 'personal ad' on his truck and, as a result, finds himself a wife. In Korea, such a situation would be inconceivable; if someone placed an advertisement for marriage on his truck, it would be considered bizarre. It would also be fairly unusual in the West, but would be considered amusing rather than shocking.

The passage 'Looking For Love' is followed by some discussion topics. The discussion topics in Sumi's textbook are about marriage and the way to meet a lifelong partner. We cannot expect primary school students to discuss this actively. This case suggests that some private institutes are not adapting material, which has been prepared for use in other English speaking countries, in order to render it appropriate for Korean primary school students. The private textbooks also vary according to individual institutes. Some institutes may have some placement tests before assigning the students to particular classes. Sumi's case suggests the need to explore the reading processes of primary school students in order to provide them with a supportive reading environment.

The second issue is from varying perceptions of reading. On one occasion, one of my students, Changsu, asked me to say out loud the words he did not know. However, he did not ask me about the meaning of those words. Once, I pronounced the words to him, he went back to his seat and continued reading, without asking for their meanings. At that time, he was not reading aloud. He was just reading the English books silently. His action suggests that, to him, reading involves sounding out in his head the written words, regardless of whether he is reading aloud or silently. This may be a clue as to the way he is taught to read English in private lessons.

His perception of what reading entails may have influenced the way he approaches the text. He appears to be using a bottom-up process, since he cares about the pronunciation of the unknown word, rather than its meaning. This is quite interesting, since phonics receive little attention in the national textbook. According to Lee Y. (2004), the national English textbook failed to provide chances for students to develop the relationship between sound and spelling. Changsu may have picked up this approach outside the classroom, perhaps through his private lessons. This case highlights the fact that reading is a complicated process with a number of factors influencing it.

In the eyes of some foreign language students, reading appears to be a translation task. On another day, I interviewed several students about reading in English. One of my students, Tami, said that "translation" made English difficult. At first, I could not understand what "translation" meant for her. But, to my surprise, the other students seemed to understand what she meant. I found out later that "translation" meant "relocation" from the grammar system of English to the grammar system of Korean. Korean is syntactically quite different from English, with a Subject-Object-Verb sentence structure, whereas English uses the order Subject-Verb-Object. Here is one case that illustrates this view. Let me give a simple English sentence:

'I like hamburgers.'

When the Korean students read this sentence, they change the organization of the sentence, according to Korean grammar, into: 'I hamburgers like.' This helps the students to understand its meaning. When these students read English, they continuously relocate English words in their head so they match Korean grammar. By performing these relocations, students will increase the amount of processing time that they need during reading, which will place heavier cognitive demands on them.

Students seem to be encouraged to learn a list of English words by heart in private lessons. of English words in private lessons. As a teacher, I have observed two students preparing for word tests that they will have in private lessons. Two of them went to the same private institute to learn English at that time. During break time, at school, one student asked questions and the other student gave answers. Below is their conversation:

Student A: 책(/chek/: Korean word meaning 'book')?
Student B: Bi, Ou, Ou, Kay
Student A: 벌(/barl/: Korean word meaning 'bee')?
Student B: Bi E E

In this conversation, student A gives the Korean word and student B spells out the equivalent English word, without speaking the word as a whole. This exercise seems to be being used to memorize the correct spelling of English words. This would not be unusual, since Korean students have to memorise many words for tests.

2.3   Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have provided a discussion of the research context, which involves the socio-cultural context, as well as the structure and implementation of the English curriculum in primary school education in Korea. The discussion covered several issues, which arise mainly from apparent gaps in the understanding of young learners' reading processes in English among those involved in English education. In order to improve understanding of these reading processes, there is a need to explore the reading processes of Korean primary school students. The focus here is not on covering all aspects of reading processes, rather, to look at what students think of reading in English and how much their perception affects their approach to reading. In the following chapter, I provide a review of literature related to these issues.

Chapter 3

Literature review: Young foreign readers

In the previous chapter, I presented an overview of the Korean context of primary English Language Teaching (hereafter ELT). I claimed there was inadequate understanding of the reading processes in English amongst those involved with primary ELT, such as teachers, curriculum designers and private tutors. In order to be able to address those issues, so as to provide a more favourable reading environment, we need to have a fuller understanding of reading processes.

This chapter aims to focus on key issues in the study of young foreign readers and identify unexplored territory in this area. In the first part of the chapter I engage in a theoretical discussion of research findings, with the aim of helping to develop an understanding of the processes involved in young learners reading in a foreign language. In the second part of this chapter, I discuss the methodology employed in research into reading. In the discussion, I differentiate between first language and EFL reading, and suggest some theoretical and methodological gaps in the research on young foreign readers.

I begin the theoretical review by raising issues relevant to the definition of reading, and then discuss the main theoretical perspectives on the reading process: the cognitive and the social-cultural. After that, I discuss three factors that appear to affect Korean students in their attempts to read in English. This is followed by a discussion of the kinds of cues that students draw upon during the reading process. Finally, I discuss the methodology that is employed in reading research.

3.1 Reading in a foreign language

I begin this section by attempting, tentatively, to define 'reading', especially with regard to consideration of foreign language learners. Reading is considered to be cognitive as well as social (e.g., Bernhardt, 1991; Cameron, 2001; Gee, 2004). It is cognitive because it involves mental processing, but it is also social, partly because the mental work involved is profoundly influenced by the social contexts in which reading is situated and partly because people read in a wide variety of social situations. Historically, cognitive researchers offer a rather narrow definition, which focuses on internal mental processing, whereas social-cultural researchers provide a much broader definition of reading, which includes significant emphasis on the social dimensions of reading. The following definitions are taken from the

work of cognitive theorists of reading:

> Reading is viewed as a complex cognitive process, wherein the reader engages in meaning construction based on the information presented in text.
>
> (Koda, 1996:450)

> Reading is a complex cognitive activity in which lower-level and higher-level processing occur simultaneously. Readers extract visual information from the text to identify words while they may integrate the text and monitor comprehension at the same time.
>
> (Taguchi, 1997:98)

> Reading is a receptive language process. It is a psycholinguistic process in that it starts with a linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer and ends with meaning which the reader constructs. There is thus an essential interaction between language and thought in reading. The writer encodes thought as language and the reader decodes language to thought.
>
> (Goodman, 1988:12)

> Reading can clearly be viewed as a cognitive activity, which makes it difficult to ascertain what readers actually do while reading and how 'poor' readers can be helped in class.
>
> (Lee, 2000:191)

> Reading is viewed as an interaction of the reader's text-based and knowledge-based processes.
>
> (Alptekin, 2006:494)

The above quotations imply that there is only one reading process, which is cognitive. The underlying assumption of this unified individual reading process is that there is little difference between readers, in terms of background (e.g., schooling, language proficiency, perceptions of reading). Although they do not explicitly ignore this point, cognitive researchers assume that differences begin to merge into one unified reading process, as the level of reading becomes more advanced (e.g., Grabe & Stoller, 2002). This cognitive perspective has been the mainstream theory for decades and is mainly concerned with finding effective reading models that can explain what happens inside the brain, in order to help students who are illiterate or have problems with reading.

Cognitive theorists pay little attention to the impact of reading contexts, although they may acknowledge that they play some role. In this sense, the cognitive viewpoint is not always fruitful, given that reading takes place in various contexts. As Cameron (2001) points out, in many cases, young learners are given texts by adults. In this case, Koda's phrase '...the reader engages in meaning construction...' may appear questionable, since it would exclude the case where a young learner might engage in reading without attempting to understand what they read. Despite the cognitivists' notion that reading is the construction of meaning from printed words, some students might not necessarily connect reading with meaning

construction. To them, it could be about decoding words, without necessarily involving comprehension. Anderson (1999) points out the following:

> Many of my students are able to "read" anything they are given. They have the ability to name (sound out) words and this causes confusion in other classes. Teachers see that they can "read" the words and then assume the second language readers understand the words or have the skill to use a dictionary or "figure out" the meaning. Most of the time the students have no comprehension of the words they "read". They are simply naming words.
>
> (Anderson, 1999:32)

Anderson's observation concerning second language readers is particularly relevant to EFL readers and I have observed it in Korean primary school students. For EFL readers who have little spoken input and may possess a relatively weak understanding of the relationship between spoken and written language, simply decoding the words alone may be a considerable task. Consequently, most of their attention is likely to be focused on decoding the words and they may regard reading in English as a decoding task. Cognitive theorists attribute such different perceptions of reading to limited language proficiency. Devine (1988) classified readers' beliefs about reading into three categories: sound-centered, word-centered, and meaning-centered. It is usually accepted that language proficiency affects readers' beliefs about reading; for example, if you are not a proficient reader, you may think of reading as sound- or word-centered; however, if you are a good reader, you are likely to believe that reading is about meaning construction. However, if we consider the issue from a socio-cultural perspective, what matters is the type of participation you engage in (e.g., Van Enk, Dagenais, & Toohey, 2005; Van Steensel, 2006). In this case, we can imagine that even proficient readers may view reading as decoding, depending on the nature of their previous participation in reading. Kim and Krashen (1997) provide some evidence for this. They report that their five participants, who were adult Koreans living in America, regarded reading in English as a decoding process. They explain that 'English education in Korea convinced them that English books existed to be dissected and thoroughly analyzed; reading in English for them was a laborious, time-consuming task' (Kim and Krashen, 1997:27). Since Krashen and Kim's participants are reported to be happy to read newspaper or novels in Korean, it seems that they have a different understanding of the term 'reading', depending on whether it is written in English or Korean. Their understanding of reading as 'decoding' appears to be limited to reading in English. Yang and Wilson (2006:366) mention that 'for many students decoding text is synonymous with 'reading' because this is the social practice they have been taught in schools.'

As seen above, cognitive definitions of reading tend to neglect its social dimensions. Being aware of the limitations of such definitions, social theorists provide a much broader

definition of the nature of reading. The term 'social' is defined differently by different researchers; it can refer to social function, or, sometimes, it can refer to the idea that readers may derive meaning from their social context. In an EFL context, the social function of reading in English is mostly limited to classroom situations, since people do not use English in a variety of social situations. Although the social function is limited in the EFL context, we need a social-cultural perspective to understand the classroom context. Widdowson (1998) states that 'the classroom context serves a learning community, and the purpose of any discourse enacted therein is a pedagogic one.' Bearing in mind his point, it is useful to think of foreign language learners in the context of a language community, since the way they approach reading in a foreign language will be influenced by those with whom they learn. Tudor (2001:35) notes that 'the classroom is a socially defined reality and is therefore influenced by the belief systems and behavioural norms of the society of which it is part'. Here, when I use the term 'social', it usually refers to the effect of social contexts on cognitive processes.

The underlying assumption of the social-cultural definition of reading is that there is no single reading process. As Bernhardt (1991:10) puts it, 'there are basically no generic or generalized readers or reading behaviours.' His point is clarified by researchers' adoption of plural rather than singular terms to refer to some concepts in this area (e.g., Wallace, 1992; Street, 1995). For example, Wallace (1992) used the term 'literacies' to indicate that there is not only one form of literacy, but many, depending on the reading purpose and context. The concern of socio-cultural theorists has been focused on obtaining a fuller understanding of reading processes, through the consideration of reading contexts, rather than on the search for a unified reading model. Therefore, the crucial differences between the cognitive and socio-cultural perspectives on reading lie in the ontological concerns of the socio-cultural perspective (Zuengler & Miller, 2006).

Adopting the socio-culturalists' broader definition, I am using the term 'reading processes', rather than 'reading process', throughout my study. The term 'process' is often used by cognitive researchers with regard to reading: first, it is used to emphasise mental work. Alderson (2005:119) differentiates between the processes of reading and the product, or 'between how one reads and what one understands as a result of that reading'. That is, the term 'reading product' implies a view of reading as a product, something which can be extracted from a text, while the term 'reading process, for example, highlights the mental processing taking place during reading. Second, the term 'process' conveys the meaning of information processing, in which cues are extracted and used for comprehension while reading. It should be noted that although I use the term 'reading processes' throughout my

thesis, it does not mean that I take a purely cognitive view of reading. I use the term 'reading processes' to mean internal processes, influenced by readers' socio-cultural environment.

In this study, my main focus is on reading as repeated reading aloud and reading as translation because these are the most frequently occurring reading practices amongst Korean primary school students (A detailed explanation of how I know these are the most frequent is provided section 3.3.1 p.38). I am, however, aware that there are other types of reading such as shared reading, silent reading and so on, and I will not assume that reading as reading aloud and reading as translation involve the same processes as other types of reading events.

3.2 Theoretical accounts of reading

3.2.1 Reading as a cognitive process

The main concerns for cognitive theorists are what type and amount of information readers need in order to understand texts and what type of cues contribute most to comprehension while reading. Psycholinguists (e.g., Goodman, 1967; Smith, 1973; Thomson, 1978) have focused on what readers bring to the text, and have tended to emphasise top-down processes, while cognitive psychologists (e.g., LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Balota, Pollatsek & Rayner, 1985; Anderson, Reder & Lebiere, 1996) have pursued a more text-bound approach and placed more emphasis on bottom-up processes. Gough (1972) suggested the early version of bottom up processes, in which readers are viewed as passive entities, who simply decode texts. This linear way of understanding reading has been challenged by psycholinguistic researchers and has lost some of its validity. In my discussion of cognitive accounts of reading, I start with the psycholinguistic point of view.

Guessing model

The 'guessing' model has been used for a long time in the area of reading, since Goodman (1967) first used the term 'psycholinguistic guessing game'. This model is predominantly based on the psycholinguistic perspective, which is concerned with the relationship between language and thought. This 'guessing model' is based on the assumption that reading is a process of attempting to reduce uncertainty. In other words, there are unknown parts in a text, which necessitate a guessing game. Readers will need to fill in the sections of which they are uncertain, in what they are reading, by making a guess, using syntactic and/or semantic cues. Goodman maintains that graphophonic cues are only needed to refine and check predictions made with semantic and syntactic cues. Because of this emphasis on semantic and syntactic

cues and the relative neglect of graphophonic cues, this psycholinguistic view is often described as 'top-down'(Wallace, 1992). The top-down model assumes that guessing words based on contextual cues is an effective way of reading. Goodman argues that:

> The skill in reading involves not greater precision, but more accurate first guesses based on better sampling techniques, greater control over language structure, broadened experiences and increased conceptual development.
>
> (Goodman, 1967:504)

Smith (1973) shares Goodman's view that visible cues are not as important as non-visible cues. Based on readers' selective attention to cues, the psycholinguistic perspective considers reading to be a selective process, in which partial language cues are extracted from texts according to readers' expectations. This psycholinguistic view of reading was well supported by a large number of miscue studies (e.g., Davenport & Lauritzen, 2002; Goodman & Goodman, 2004) which demonstrated that reading was not word-by-word based: in reality, many words are skipped during reading. This was a significant theoretical insight, but may have been applied in too general a fashion. Brown, Goodman, and Marek (1996) provided a comprehensive list of miscue studies. Most of these studies were conducted with L1 or proficient L2 students. I discuss this research method in more detail in the sections on research methods (Sections 3.5.3 and 3.5.4). Birch (2002:61) claims that psycholinguistics' selective models cannot apply to non-native readers, asserting that 'the term sampling does not describe the reading process for beginning or intermediate readers, or ESL and EFL readers, who must process more of the cues in the text to grasp the meaning'. Many the assumptions of psycholinguists were based on first language readers. This is argued in the following quotation:

> Why do people create and learn written language? They need it! How do they learn it? The same way that they learn oral language, by using it in authentic literacy events that meet their needs. Often children have trouble learning written language in school. It's not because it's harder than learning oral language, or learned differently. It's because we've made it hard by trying to make it easy. Frank Smith wrote an article called '12 Easy Ways to Make Learning to Read Hard.' Every way was designed to make the task easy by breaking it up in small bits. But by isolating print from its functional use, by teaching skills out of context and focusing on written language as end in itself, we made the task harder, impossible for some children.
>
> (Goodman, 1986:24)

As the above quotation suggests, Goodman sees a parallel between written language and oral language and feels that both of these can be acquired naturally. By using the term 'naturally', he associates written language with its function. He assumes that written language can be learned naturally, if it is functional, and, just as with oral language, if the learner is exposed

to a literate environment. However, this assertion cannot be applied effectively to foreign language learners or readers, whether in oral or written language. Indeed, it is generally accepted that, even for first language learners, reading is not naturally acquired (e.g., Cameron, 2001). Goodman's assumption was later criticised by cognitive psychologists (their detailed criticisms will be discussed later in this section).

Although the cognitive perspective seems more applicable to the reading of one's first language, it can also contribute to research in foreign language reading in several ways. Firstly, it provides an insight into individual contribution to texts, shifting the attention from texts to the role of readers in comprehension. This observation has yielded many studies in schema theory (e.g., Carrell, 1983; James, 1987; Anderson, 2004). Secondly, it highlighted the importance of the guessing strategy. Although its over-emphasis on this strategy provoked much criticism from later researchers, it has contributed to our awareness of the importance of reading strategies. In spite of these two significant contributions, the 'guessing model' has been challenged by later researchers (e.g., Stanovich & Stanovich, 1995; Paran, 1996; Eskey, 2005; Macaro & Erler, 2008). Most criticisms have focused on over-emphasis on the use of contextual cues and the ambiguity of the concept of guessing: the meaning of 'guessing' has never been explained with complete clarity; in particular, it remains unclear how much, or what type of knowledge and skills are needed to make a guess and whether 'guessing' refers to random or informed attempts to construct meaning.

Interactive reading models

Interactive reading models were initiated by cognitive psycholinguists, who challenged the psycholinguistic 'guessing model'. First, the association of contextual cues with word-identification led to criticism; as Stanovich and Stanovich (1995:89) put it, 'an emphasis on the role of contextual guessing actually represents a classic case of mistaken analogy in science and has been recognized as such for over a decade'. They challenged the association between good readers and use of contextual cues, by asserting that 'the effects of background knowledge and contextual information attenuate as the efficiency of word recognition processes increases,' (Stanovich & Stanovich,1995:91). Paran (1996:28) notes that 'the differences between good readers and poor readers may lie not in their ability to guess, but in their decoding skills'. Paran's argument is based on the assumption that if word recognition is automatic, guessing is minimal; therefore, the more important issue for him is how to encourage automaticity in readers, rather than guessing. Snow and Juel (2005:507) stated that 'numerous studies in the 1980s indicated use of context for word identification is both inefficient and minimally useful.' Eskey (2005:567) warns that we should not 'reduce reading to a kind of guessing game'. The importance of bottom-up processes is supported by

the evidence from "threshold" theory (Clarke 1980; Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995; Lee & Schallert, 1997; Ridgway, 1997; Song, 2001), which argues that a minimum level of language competence is essential for the effective use of higher-level processes. I provide a more detailed explanation of threshold theory in section 3.3.2 (p.45).

However, it is difficult to assume that young foreign readers are engaged in automatic word recognition. Although the ideal is to encourage automaticity, so that they can minimize guess work, it is inevitable that young foreign readers will encounter unknown sections in their reading, which they will be forced to guess at. Given the inevitability of guess work for such readers, the issue is how different good and poor readers are in their guessing. Guessing is not necessarily associated only with contextual cues. Rather, guessing can make use of all kinds of cues in the text. Some people may resort to picture or graphic cues, whereas others may rely more on contextual cues. In this sense, the difference between good and poor readers may lie in the different level of their guessing.

The second criticism concerns the question of awareness of uncertainty. Awareness of uncertainty is not always as clear-cut as recognising a gap in a damaged newspaper. If readers are unaware of their uncertainties during reading, their guesses will not necessarily lead to fuller understanding of texts. Macaro and Erler (2008:5) use the word 'wild guesses', when readers overuse prior knowledge, without considering possible bottom up strategies. Consequently, Macaro and Elder highlight the importance of metacognition in interactive reading models. Here, the question is how readers become aware of uncertainty. Sometimes, readers may think they know words even when they do not and this kind of lack of awareness means that readers miss the chance of correcting their uncertainty. If readers believe they are certain when they are actually not, the chance of them reducing their uncertainty is limited and consequently, guessing can often obstruct precise understanding. If readers are able to create a plausible meaning by guessing, they may not subject it to further analysis. Several researchers mention these kinds of pitfalls (Oakhill, 1993; Song, 1998; Anderson, 1999; Laufer & Yano, 2001); Oakhill (1993) claims that younger children are not critical enough to monitor their own comprehension:

> Poor comprehenders, like younger children, do not have a clear awareness of what comprehension is and when it has been successful – they often fail to realise that they have not understood a text properly.
>
> (Oakhill, 1993:72)

Song (1998) in a study with university students, found out that they use guessing during reading but hardly show any effort to check their guessing. Anderson (1999) says that 'Sometimes readers think they're understanding when they're not' (Anderson 1999:40).

Laufer and Yano (2001) also note that the value of the guessing strategy has been rated too highly. In the following quotation, they explain this clearly:

> Guessing and verification are important and useful reading strategies, but their efficacy depends on two conditions: a. that learners are accurate in recognising words as unfamiliar and b. that they are either accurate in their guesses, or critical enough to admit defeat in their attempt to guess.
>
> (Laufer & Yano, 2001:550-551)

Cognitive psychologists have provided an insight into the 'individual processing' elements of reading, such as word recognition, researched by, among others, Adams (2004), Warrington (2006), and Segalowitz, Segalowitz, & Wood (1998), and transfer issues between first and second languages, which has been explored by researchers such as Benson (2002), Jiang (2004) and Koda (2005, 2007). Hall (2003) summarised the difference between psycholinguists and cognitive psychologists:

> Cognitive psychologists view the understanding of the alphabetic nature of written language as key and that is considered the major hurdle for the beginner reader. It's important to emphasise though that both schools of thought view reading as a search for meaning and as a goal-directed activity. They agree on the destination, so to speak, but disagree on the journey to that destination.
>
> (Hall, 2003:69)

In this quotation, Hall illustrates the differences between psycholinguists and cognitive psychologists: the destination is identical but, while the psycholinguistics journey is top-down, the cognitive psychologist's journey is bottom-up. That is, these two perspectives share the same ontological stance in understanding reading, but take different epistemological viewpoints. The definition of reading has remained the same: it is considered to be a cognitive individual process.

Although cognitive psychologists highlighted bottom-up processing, it did not mean that they ignored the top-down model; most cognitive psychologists emphasised bottom-up processing, to argue that we need an interactive reading model. Later cognitive theorists attribute greater validity to interactions between readers and texts and contributions from both to comprehension while reading. Block captures this trend:

> We have ceased debating whether reading is a bottom-up, language-based process or a top-down, knowledge-based process. Most people now accept that the two processes interact.
>
> (Block, 1992:319-20)

For example, No (1999) suggests an interactive reading model, by shedding light on bottom-up processing, which had been neglected at the expense of top-down. In her experimental study, she addressed two groups: fifty seven Korean college students and twelve American native speakers. She conducted a test with thirteen nonsense words (not real English, but using similar sounds) to investigate the students' knowledge of the correspondence between grapheme and phoneme. Her results show that Korean college students did not develop the same level of phonic knowledge as their native counterparts. By demonstrating the weak understanding of the grapheme-phoneme relationship of foreign language learners, No argues that they need more attention to be paid to phonics learning, but she suggests this attention as part of an integrative approach to reading, rather than an extreme focus on bottom-up processing. Using similar research techniques, later researchers combine top-down and bottom-up and create interactive reading models (e.g., Stanovich, 1980; Eskey, 1988; Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, Cameron, 2001). Celce-Murcia and Olshtain explain the interactive process as follows:

> A less familiar text, for instance, may require more top-down evaluation, whereas a linguistically more difficult text may require more bottom-up considerations (such as the meanings of difficult words). Similarly, the same text may be processed differently by different readers, depending on their prior knowledge and their knowledge of the target language.
>
> (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000:121)

Cameron (2001), when examining the reading processes of young learners, discusses the various types of knowledge required in the reading process and provides a comprehensive model of reading, reproduced in the following figure:

knowledge		skills
• background knowledge of topic	THE WORLD	• activate relevant knowledge of topic
• functions of literacy in	↑↓	• activate vocabulary
• uses of different genres / text types		
• organisation and structure of texts	TEXT	• recognise text type
		• locate key information
• paragraphing	↑↓	• identify main points / detail
• use and meaning of discourse markers		• follow the line of argument
		• work out explicit / implicit meaning
• co-ordination and subordination	SENTENCES	• work out how clauses relate to each other
• word order		• identify verb and relation of other words to the verb
• meaning of punctuation	↑↓	
• clause grammar		• recognise formulaic chunks
• sight vocabulary	WORDS	• recognise by sight
• affixes		• guess meaning of new words from context
• spelling	↑↓	
• morphemes		• break words into morphemes
		• break words into syllables
• spelling patterns	SYLLABLES (spoken)	• break syllables into onset and rime
• meanings of common morphemes	MORPHEMES (written)	• spot same rime / morpheme in different words
		• use analogy to work out word
• grapheme-phoneme correspondences	↑↓	• relate letter shape to sound
• the alphabetic principle	SOUNDS –	• notice initial and final consonants in words
• script	LETTERS	
• names / shapes of letters of the alphabet		• blend sounds to syllables
• letter cluster / digraphs		

Figure 3-1 Skilled reading in English

(Reproduced from Cameron, 2001:135)

Cameron sees word recognition as a good start to reading and points out the need to develop,
upwards, from there to sentences and downwards to smaller, intra-word features. The model
is useful to understand the knowledge and skills required for the interactive reading process,
but it does not include the interaction between such knowledge and skills.

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In this section, I have summarised two mainstream cognitive theories: the guessing model and interactive reading models. Although they offer a comprehensive model of individual processes in reading, they do not pay attention to the social factors that are part of the reading process. This neglect of social factors is due to the assumption that reading is a purely individual matter. Reading, however, cannot be a wholly individual experience, since individuals are inevitably influenced by their environment. The socio-cultural perspective highlights the social factors in the reading process and I discuss this in the next section.

3.2.2 Reading as a social process

The importance of the social dimension in reading processes has been recognized by researchers in a number of different ways. Some researchers (e.g., Baynham 1995, 2001; Wallace, 2008) have tried to understand reading through consideration of the reader's identity, which they argue is significantly influenced by different social and cultural contexts; others (e.g., Ruddell & Unrau, 2004; Snow & Juel, 2005) have emphasized the influence of classroom contexts. Ruddell and Unrau (2004:1513) emphasised 'the role of the social context of the classroom and the influence of the teacher on the reader's meaning negotiation'. Other theorists highlight the importance of studying the home environment in order to understand reading processes (e.g., Heath, 1983; Wallace, 1998; Lie & Lick, 2007). Lie and Lick (2007:75) note that 'the home environment includes not only the encouragement given by the family members but also the availability of reading materials in terms of quantity and variety'.

Atkinson (2002) points out that the effect of socio-cultural factors on reading practices has been paid little attention. In the figure below, which encapsulates the main areas in reading studies, Ridgway (2003) also implies that not many studies have been done in reading from a socio-cultural perspective:

L1 reading   >   Transfer   >   L2 reading

Skills
                                Much discussed
Strategies

_____

Styles
                                Not so much discussed
Attitudes
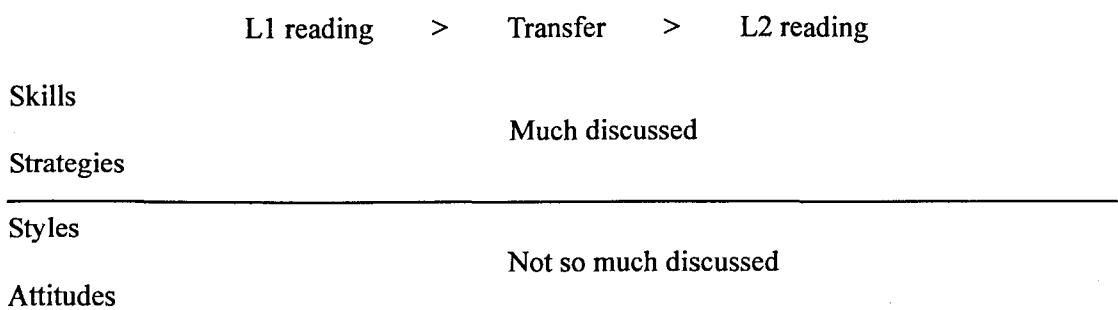
Figure 3-2 Orientations toward L1 reading to L2 reading transferability
(Reproduced from Ridgway 2003:118)

Skills and strategies were the main concerns of the cognitive theorists; psycholinguists focussed on strategies, whilst cognitive psychologists emphasised skills. As Ridgway notes, styles and attitudes (which are the main concerns of socio-cultural theorists) have been under-researched.

Although socio-cultural theorists acknowledged the importance of the social dimension in reading processes, they made relatively little attempt to synthesise the cognitive and social theories of reading. This effort was left to socio-cognitive theorists such as Lenski and Nierstheimer (2002) and Gee (2004), who have argued that all cognitive work is embedded in a social context. In this context, it is important to understand the society in which reading is required for pedagogical purposes. Bandura (2002:271) illustrates the essence of the socio-cognitive perspective.

> A group, of course, operates through the behaviour of its members. The locus of perceived collective efficacy resides in the minds of group members. It is people acting in concert on a shared belief not a disembodied group mind that is doing the cognising, aspiring, motivating, and regulating. There is no emergent entity that operates independently of the beliefs and actions of the individuals who make up a social system.
>
> (Bandura 2002:271)

The above quotation explains that individual behaviour cannot be based on a totally individual decision. Therefore, in order to understand individual decisions, we have to understand the socio-cultural environment surrounding the individuals. If we apply this socio-cognitive interpretation to reading processes, then, to be able to understand individual cognitive reading processing, it is necessary to understand the socio-cultural environment in which reading in a foreign language is practised.

As we have seen, different perspectives on the reading process lead to significant variations in the way researchers interpret different aspects of reading; this seems to indicate that reading is complex and multi-dimensional. Psycholinguistic and cognitive-psychological theorists understood reading to be a predominantly internal process within an individual; however, socio-cultural research introduced an external dimension, social context, to the process, something previously neglected by cognitive theorists. More recently, socio-cognitive researchers (e.g., Wilkins, Ian A. G. & Anderson, Richard C. 1995; Lenski & Nierstheimer, 2002; Gee, 2004) have tried to understand reading processes as an interaction between cognitive and socio-cultural dimensions; this is the stance that I adopt for the purposes of my study. In the next section, I review factors affecting reading in English as a foreign language.

3.3 Factors affecting reading in English as a Foreign Language

In the previous section, I reviewed the main theoretical perspectives on reading. In this section, I discuss the relevant literature on factors that may influence foreign language reading in English. Three important factors have been given different emphasis by different theorists; Kern (2000) encapsulated these factors in a diagram which is reproduced in Figure 3-3:

Sociocultural

- Collective determination of language uses and literacy practices
- Interweaving of literacy practices with other social practices
- Apprenticeship into ways of being (social acculturation, acquiring Discourses, joining the literary club
- Social and political consciousness: problematizing textual and social realities
- Awareness of dynamism of culture and of one's own cultural constructedness

Linguistic
- Lexical, morphological, syntactic, semantic, pragmatic knowledge
- Familiarity with writing system and graphic organizational conventions
- Awareness of interdependencies at all levels (orthography, lexicon, sentence, paragraph, text)
- Awareness of relationships between oral and written language (including awareness of distinction between medium and mode of expression)
- Familiarity with genres and styles

Cognitive/Metacognitive
- Existing knowledge (schemata)- allowing a person to establish relationships among pieces of information and to predict, infer, and synthesize meaning
    - Declarative knowledge- the 'what'-facts, ideas, stories embedded in cultural contexts
    - Procedural knowledge-the 'how'- strategies for reading, writing, and understanding, also embedded in cultural contexts
- Ability to formulate and discern goals and purposes-including planning, monitoring, and revising-in line with cultural norms
- Ability to create and transform knowledge

Figure 3-3 Summary of linguistic, cognitive, and socio-cultural dimensions of literacy (Reproduced from Kern, 2000:38)

In this diagram, Kern lists three aspects of literacy: socio-cultural, linguistic and cognitive/metacognitive. He (2000:38) states that these three factors are 'overlapping, interdependent and infused'. Adopting Kern's model, I employ two categories: socio-cultural factors and cognitive/linguistic factors. The relationship between cognitive and linguistic factors has been actively researched by theorists who investigated the threshold concept

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between language and cognitive ability (e.g., Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995; Ridgeway, 1997; Lee & Schallert, 1997; Lin, 2002). In view of this, it seems to be more fruitful to discuss these factors in the following way, with Cognitive and Linguistic factors combined in a single category:

- Socio-cultural factors
- Cognitive/Linguistic factors

3.3.1 Socio-cultural factors

I discussed socio-cultural factors in Chapter Two, where I discussed contextual issues, including the importance of education in Korea, the place of English in Korea, and offered an analysis of current TEYL practice in Korea. In this section, I add to my discussion of the socio-cultural context a consideration of EFL learners, especially in Asia. The reason I limit my discussion to East Asian EFL learners is that they apparently share similar learning styles (Liu & Littlewood, 1997; Littlewood, 1999; Rao, 2002). I start this section by highlighting the importance of distinction between L2 and EFL readers and the reading practices in East Asian countries and finally discuss readers' expectations.

Distinction between L2 and EFL

Unfortunately, there is a paucity of research on the effects of socio-cultural factors on the reading processes of young EFL learners; this is partly because some researchers still fail to distinguish between English as a second language and English as a foreign language. However, the overlap is complex, especially in the US; Bernhardt (1991:3) notes that 'second language groups are so diverse.' When one takes note of the wide variety of different contexts, the word 'second' ceases to be a unitary term. Mitchell (1991) maintains that it is detrimental not to display awareness of the differences in skills and needs between ESL and EFL learners. Han (1998) mentions the potential pitfalls of using the terms EFL and ESL interchangeably:

> 'The mixed use of these terms might create danger that some teaching theories made to apply to ESL situation would actually apply to EFL or other situations and vice versa.'

> (Han, 1998:219)

As Han points out, it is not fruitful to always use the word 'second', regardless of the different contexts to which it refers. Block (2003:55) argues that 'the term 'second' is used

in a loose fashion' and illustrates different kinds of second language context, in a diagram reproduced in Figure 3-4:
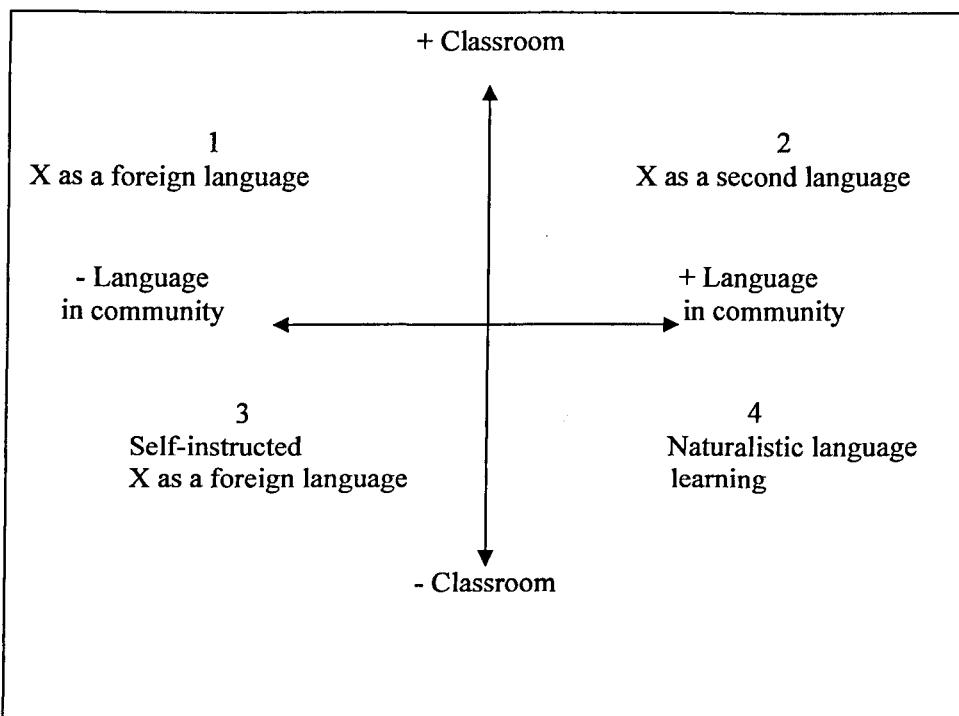
Figure 3-4 'Second' context scenarios

(Reproduced from Block, 2003:34)

Following Block's quadrant, Korean learners of English would belong to section 1, in which English is mainly used in a classroom context and not within the community. Tomlinson (2005) provides a definition of EFL which describes Korean learners:

> EFL is learned by people who already use at least one other language and who live in a community in which English is not normally used. This community is inevitably influenced by norms that are not those of English-speaking countries and those norms influence the teachers' and learners' expectations of the language learning process.
>
> (Tomlinson, 2005:137)

Although the distinction between Second Language and Foreign Language learners is not always clear-cut, students in a second language context are more likely to be situated in their target language and culture (although there are some cases such as Singapore, where students use English as a public language in their own culture), whilst foreign language students are generally located in their own culture, learning the target language. Ellis (1996:215) calls EFL 'a cultural island'. Examination of the characteristics of second language readers shows different characteristics from those of foreign language readers.

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Koda (1996) describes three differences between L1 and L2 readers:

> In this context, L1 and L2 reading differ in at least three fundamental ways: (a) L2 readers learn to read their second language(s) in diverse social and instructional contexts and for a wide variety of purposes; (b) L2 readers have a prior reading experience in their L1s; and (c) L2 reading is cross-linguistic, involving two or more languages.
>
> (Koda, 1996:453)

Among these three characteristics, the last two apply to FL learners, but the first difference between L1 and L2 is not applicable to the relationship between L1 and FL, since foreign language learners will have a rather limited context for reading English. This is why it is dangerous to apply L2 theories to the understanding of foreign learners' reading processes. This situational difference means that students can be differently motivated in reading English. Foreign language readers, like Korean students, are more likely to be inspired by instrumental motivation in reading English. In the case of Korean primary school students, there will be few opportunities for reading for information in English. Most of the students would read English for purposes of learning, though some students do also read in English for pleasure.

Reading practices in East Asian countries

Yang and Wilson (2006:365) maintain that 'what we learn and how we make sense of knowledge depends on where and when, such as in what social context, we are learning.' As Zuengler and Miller (2006:37-38) point out, 'These researchers focus not on language as input, but as a resource for participation in the kinds of activities our everyday lives comprise. Participation in these activities is both the product and the process of learning.' Acknowledging the importance of learner participation, it is essential to understand the reading practices in which they usually participate

There are several studies which illustrate prevalent reading practices for East Asian EFL learners, including Chinese, Japanese and Korean students, such as those by Song (2000), Takeuchi (2003), Huang (2005), and Yang and Wilson (2006). Rao (2002) describes the reading practices of East Asian learners, as follows:

> In most reading classes, for instance, the students read new words aloud, imitating the teacher. The teacher explains the entire text sentence by sentence, analyzing many of the more difficult grammar structures, rhetoric, and styles for the students, who listen, take notes, and answer questions.
>
> (Rao, 2002:6)

Table 3-1 lists some empirical studies of socio-cultural factors among East Asian students and gives the data source for the study and findings concerning learning practice:

Table 3-1. Studies of socio-cultural factors of East Asian students

Study	Country	Age	Data source	Learning practice
Takeuchi (2003)	Japan	12 and above	67 books containing reading strategies of 160 successful language learners	Repeated reading aloud, frequent reading
Nunan (2003)	China Hong Kong, Japan, Malaysia, Vietnam, South Korea and Taiwan	68 educational professionals	Document analysis and interviews	Korea – grammar-translation method
Huang (2005)	China	University students	84 diary entries by 57 students	Speed of reading, reciting
Carless (2006)	Japan, South Korea and Hong Kong	Various	Observations from 3 cases of team-teaching and interviews with 4 primary school teachers	Choral speaking and response
Ding (2007)	China	University students	Interviews of 3 students	Memorisation

Takeuchi (2003) carried out a qualitative study to investigate the preferred reading strategies of good language learners in Japan. For this, he analysed 67 books, written by successful language learners, which offered learning strategies that they had used. He reported that repeated reading aloud and frequent reading are the favourite strategies of Japanese FL learners of various ages:

> Reading aloud many times and reading a lot are the two strategies preferred most by GLLs [*Good Language Learners*] in the Japanese FL context. They seem to regard reading aloud as a strategy effective for internalizing the linguistic foundation or resources of the language they are learning. Through reading aloud many times, while paying attention to the phonological and the semantic aspects, they reported that they had internalized the linguistic system and obtained a "feel" for the language. This strategy was preferred especially at the beginning and the early intermediate stages. After gaining a "feel" for the language, they reported that they had begun reading a lot in the field in which they had an interest.
>
> (Takeuchi, 2003:388)

Repeated reading seems to be favoured by foreign language students and teachers in the hope of making word recognition automatic. Taguchi (1997) used repeated reading of short passages over a 10-week period with 16 beginning Japanese college students and found that this method led to improved reading rates in oral and silent reading. He argues that repeated reading may be an effective way to develop word recognition skills.

Huang's research (2005) used diary entries from two Chinese EFL students to investigate their perceived difficulties and found that students are preoccupied with speed of reading. She quoted a diary entry from one of her participants:

> During my reading, I met a few difficulties. And here are the main three. First, the speed. Although I have read many article (sic) on how to improve reading speed, it seems to do no help (sic). Every time I read, I can only read word by word. If I try to read fast, in phrase by phrase way (sic), I will know nothing after reading (sic). It is really terrible, I don't know how to deal with the problem.
>
> (Huang, 2005:613)

Huang attributes this obsession to the national curriculum, which focuses on skills. She also reported that reciting is one of the most frequently used strategies for her participants to increase linguistic competence. She provided another diary entry to illustrate that, despite initially being reluctant to do so, the participants eventually came to appreciate reading aloud:

> I hate reciting very much. I seldom recited text, and I thought it is useless for my study. Last week, Teacher X [the *Intensive Reading* teacher of Class X] wanted us recited a text in this week. I had no idea but reciting. From day to night, I recited the text whenever I had time. After a week, I can recite the whole text. Finally, I understood what Teacher X did is good for us. Now, I can recognize all of the text word. In my mind, there are dozens of words.
>
> (Huang, 2005:614)

Huang (2005:617) notes that the strategies used by her participants when they read English are functional in an 'examination-oriented context'. Oxford (1996) points out that memorisation is a favoured strategy in Asian cultures; this point is well supported by Ding's study. Ding (2007) interviewed three Chinese university students who were given awards in English-speaking competitions; all the interviewees regarded memorisation as a good strategy for improving their English. At first, they were forced to use this technique, but later came to find it useful. They memorise in various ways: they sometimes listen repeatedly to plays or drama series and memorise the dialogue; at other times, they listen to an audio tape with the accompanying transcription and memorise the text. Ding's study raises the interesting issue of how reading is used by EFL learners: if they use reading materials to memorise text, their understanding of reading English may be different to the way they understand reading in their mother tongue.

Yang and Wilson (2006) argue that 'in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, reading aloud is one common classroom reading practice' (Yang & Wilson, 2006:366). Studies which illustrate the role of oral reading as an effective teaching method in an EFL context will be discussed in more detail, in a later section (see section 3.5.2, p.59). The

popularity of oral reading practices among Asian EFL students seems to arise from the role of reading in EFL learning generally. In the EFL context, reading is regarded as a primary way to enrich language input for foreign language learners. Cameron (2003:111) mentions that literacy skills provide a 'valuable source of new vocabulary'. This point was recognised by other researchers (e.g., Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Krashen, 1993; Dupuy, Tse, & Cook, 1996; Kim & Krashen, 1997; Song, 2000; Celce-Murcia, 2000; Min, 2008). As those researchers point out, reading has a potentially very important role in the foreign language context, since it can compensate for the students' otherwise limited exposure to the target language. In this situation, reading might play several roles. It might be used to support speaking, writing and listening, or, for some students, reading might function as the source of new vocabulary. In all these scenarios, reading can be employed as complementary input to compensate for limited spoken experience. This point is well explained by Masuhara (2003):

> In L2, however, reading is often taught as a means of learning language. If L2 reading pedagogy is intended to nurture reading ability, I would argue that there should be a clear separation between teaching reading and teaching language using texts. Most of the reading materials try to kill two birds (language and reading) with one stone and seem to fail to hit both targets.

> (Masuhara, 2003:345)

Gorsuch and Taguchi (2008:254) point out that L2/FL readers are disadvantaged because their 'oral language and reading development may start at the same time'. This is why reading is usually connected with speaking, especially for young learners. Dlugosz (2000) reported that reading can improve speaking skills. The document of the Korean national curriculum states that reading is taught to help oral skills. Although it does not specify how it is supposed to support oracy, what is an interesting point here is that it does not state any association of reading with construction of meaning. It illustrates that reading, for young Korean EFL learners, plays only a supplementary role, to improve oral skills. Given this point, it is not surprising that reading aloud is a prevalent practice for them.

Along with oral reading, translation has been a prevalent reading practice among Korean students. Song (2000) states that reading as translation is the main reading activity for Korean students in class. Kim H. (2004) also describes that grammar-translation method as the most common activity in the reading practices of Korean students. Liao (2006) conducted a survey, questionnaire, and interviews with 351 Taiwanese college students regarding the role of translation in their learning of English and found that, overall, they think that translation helps their learning: among the 24 statements from this questionnaire, the most positive responses were elicited by the statement 'Translating helps me understand

textbook readings'.

Taking into account Vygotsky's (1978) proposition that cognition can be developed through participation, we can expect that frequent reading practices may shape EFL learners' perceptions of reading in English. This is likely to be especially true for young EFL learners: they tend to be more susceptible to their environment and, therefore, the experiences they have as learners may well affect the way they perceive reading in English (No, 2000; Cameron, 2001).

Readers' expectations

Goodman (1967) emphasised the need to acknowledge what readers bring to the text in order to understand their reading processes. However, his attention was confined to the background knowledge of readers. In actuality, readers also bring their own perceptions, or socio-culturally structured habits, to the text. Tomlinson (2005:140) mentions that 'learners have expectations about how they will be taught EFL, that are shaped by cultural norms and by previous experience.' Yang and Wilson (2006:367) claimed that 'our students have expectations of how texts can and should be used based on their prior experience of texts as social practice.' Parry (1991) provides interesting evidence of the effects of socio-cultural factors on reading; she provided a case study with two participants, a Greek-Cypriot named Dimitri and a Korean, Ae Young. She illustrated how differently these two participants approach reading; Dimitri used a predominantly top-down approach, whereas Ae Young was more engaged in bottom-up processing. Parry attributes this stark contrast to differences of socio-cultural background; in a later study (1993), she cited Hatano's study of Japanese students that approach reading in their mother tongue using bottom-up processing. She explains that the analytical way of reading in English adopted by these students is due to the reading practices they employ in their own language. Parry's studies pay attention to the socio-cultural factors in understanding reading processes, but she fails to mention that the way people approach reading can be influenced by the different roles it plays in society. For instance, someone can read in their mother tongue using top-down processing, but at the same time that person could adopt a bottom-up approach to read in a foreign language (Kamhi-Stein, 2003; Yamashita, 2007). Yamashita (2007) used a sample of adult EFL learners in Japan to study the relationship between students' attitudes to reading in L1 and L2. For this, she used a Likert scale to estimate students' attitudes to reading in L1 and L2 and a test to measure reading proficiency. She claimed that the notion of linguistic threshold does not apply to the transfer of reading attitudes from L1 and L2.

This issue is closely related to the purposes of reading; why, and in which cases, do people

read in their mother tongue, and are the same factors relevant to reading in a foreign language? Even for an individual, the nature of reading can differ significantly, depending on which language they are dealing with: the role of one's mother tongue may differ greatly from that of a foreign language. English plays a big role in Education in Korea. Park *et al.* (2001) conducted a questionnaire with Korean students from the third grade of primary school to the third grade of middle school (aged 9-15). When the students were asked about their motivation to learn English, most of them selected the same answer out of twelve possibilities: 'because English is an important language'. In this case, Korean students would encounter reading in English, mainly to improve their English and use reading strategies for its enhancement. Parry's comment highlights this point:

> It seems likely that the strategies themselves, as well as readers' decisions as to when to use them, were 'socially constructed', that is, that they grew out of individuals' experience of text, or written language, as used in the society in which they grew up, and, more specifically, of schooling, the social process by which they were explicitly taught to read.
>
> (Parry, 1993:151)

Parry (1996) compared the reading strategies of Nigerian and Chinese students and concluded that 'cultural background is an important factor in the formation of individual reading strategies but that this fact should not lead to a simple cultural determinism; individual variation must always be acknowledged, and so must the fact that both individuals and cultures may change in the very process of L2 learning' (p.665). As Parry points out, the consideration of socio-cultural factors should not be taken as an absolute; rather, it needs to be included to enrich understanding of reading processes.

3.3.2 Cognitive/ linguistic factors

EFL readers are usually literate in their mother tongue when they come to reading in a foreign language, although they can be quite young, in some cases. This point draws attention to the 'transfer issue': whether they can transfer their reading ability from their mother tongue to a foreign language and in which cases this transfer is more feasible for EFL learners. This issue, initially raised by Alderson (1984), has since been explored by other researchers, who believed in the notion of a language threshold (e.g., Clarke, 1980; Carrell, 1988, 1991; Taillefer, 1996; Lee & Schallert, 1997; Lin, 2002). Such researchers assumed that there is a language threshold in reading and argued that, until readers reach this threshold level, language proficiency is more important than reading proficiency. For L2 beginners, it is generally accepted that reading difficulties are more likely to be linked to problems associated with learning a second language, rather than those associated with

reading ability (Lin, 2002; Nassaji, 2002, 2003). Koda states that decoding plays a role as a threshold:

> Lacking decoding competence, children have insufficient information to construct text meaning. And, in the absence of automaticity, the attention required for decoding substantially detracts from what otherwise would be available for comprehension. Thus, decoding creates a threshold for exploiting the comprehension competence children bring to their reading acquisition processes.
>
> (Koda, 2005:5)

However, the threshold theorists take a rather simplistic view of a complex issue. First, the problem with language threshold theorists is that they assume that, once he or she reaches a certain level of language proficiency, an 11-year old child will read roughly in the same way he or she reads in his or her mother tongue. However, they may be missing the point, in the sense that they do not consider the influence of the child's previous socio-cultural experience in reading. Flavell's remarks on heterogeneity (1982) make this argument:

> As to person-specific environment, differences in past experience could also make for considerable heterogeneity of mind. For example, two tasks that appear similar in logical structure or difficulty level might be approached and dealt with in very different ways by a child who can bring a wealth of relevant and useful previous experiences to bear on one task but not the other. Transfer and generalization is a continuing problem for child and adult alike, not something we can assume will automatically happen.
>
> (Flavell, 1982:4)

Second, young EFL readers are on the way to reaching the threshold level, if such a thing exists; that is, they have to deal with mismatches between cognitive and linguistic abilities, in their reading processing. However, this does not mean they can read books that deal with such ideas in a foreign language, since Korean students will have a different linguistic ability from their native counterparts and may be unfamiliar with some of the words in the text.

Third, cognitive ability can be language specific. McDonough (1995) illustrates this point:

> There are also language-specific reading skills: consider only the difference between word recognition in alphabetic writing and word recognition in Chinese or Japanese characters. For a person learning to read English, therefore, there are a number of things to learn about written English and how to decode it that they cannot bring from their mature L1 reading skills, because the decoding problem is different.
>
> (McDonough, 1995: 40)

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In this sense, we do not know a great deal about EFL learners' reading processes: whether they are able to transfer their reading abilities from their mother tongue to a foreign language, or whether their transfer processing is blocked by their lack of language proficiency. If the latter is true, how they cope with this difficulty is unknown.

Another difficulty for EFL learners is that, as Cameron (2001) notes, they tend to use their first language in their mental processing:

> Although the story may be told in the foreign language, the mental processing does not need to use the foreign language, and may be carried out in the first language or in some language-independent way, using what psychologists call 'mentalese'.
> (Cameron, 2001:40)

Kim H. (2004) states that half of the students in his study reported that they make use of this strategy. Earlier, I mentioned Liao's survey of 351 Taiwanese college students (2006) of English to illustrate the role of translation in helping improve their reading. If Korean students constantly translate information that they are reading from English into Korean, they will encounter conceptual difficulties when they cannot find an equivalent Korean term. Their ability to conceptualize what they read will be hampered, particularly when they encounter some concepts which contain cultural knowledge.

In this section, I have discussed several factors that may influence reading processes. These factors have been highlighted differently, according to various theoretical viewpoints. In the next section, I discuss foreign learners' use of cues in reading English.

3.4 Use of cues

In this section, I am going to show the importance of the use of cues in the reading processes of young foreign learners of English. Readers have to draw on different kinds of sources to understand the meaning of a text. These sources are sometimes labelled as information, knowledge, or cues. For example, Goodman (1967) takes account of three different cues for reading: graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic. Cameron (2001), on the other hand, identifies three different types of information to rely on in reading: visual, phonological, and semantic knowledge. Here, I would like to use the term 'cues' rather than 'knowledge' or 'information'. This is because information is something considered to be contained in the text, whereas the term 'cues' suggests more interaction between the reader and the text. Knowledge may be considered to be information that is gleaned from a text, with the use of cues. However, researchers often use these terms interchangeably to refer to the same things. In the following section, I provide detailed explanations of five types of cue:

- Non-textual cues
- Graphophonic cues
- Morpho-syntactic cues
- Contextual cues
- Cross-linguistic cues

3.4.1 Non-textual cues

Non-textual cues refer to anything but language which readers can extract from a text, including pictures, layout of texts, exclamation marks, question marks, and commas. I do not include contextual cues under the heading of non-textual cues here. Scott and Ytreberg (1990:53) write that 'the illustrations in a book for young children matter almost as much as the words themselves'. Most research with regard to picture cues for beginner readers has focused on the issue of whether pictures are beneficial for readers. Willows' articles (1978a, 1978b) suggest that picture cues may have a negative effect on reading; he shows that the students who read texts that include pictures cues read aloud slowly and less accurately than the students who read texts without. He also argues that less skilled readers are more influenced by picture cues. However, it is not surprising that reading speed and accuracy is affected, when the reader has to deal with more perceptual information. The most important issue regarding picture cues is whether pictures help readers in constructing meaning. Holmes (1987) suggests that picture cues may have a positive effect; he conducted a study in which 116 fifth and sixth grade students were asked to answer inferential questions under three conditions: using pictures, print, and print with pictures. He reports that students' performance is better in conditions that include pictures.

Beveridge & Griffiths (1987) investigated the different impact that pictures have, depending on the different level of the texts they accompany. For this study, they asked nineteen children to read illustrated and unillustrated texts at three levels of difficulty. Their results showed that with less difficult texts, reading performance is improved by illustrations, but with more difficult texts, pictures had a deleterious effect. Yaden, Smolkin & Conlon (1989) conducted two longitudinal studies with preschoolers (aged 3 to 5) to investigate the type of questions children ask during reading with their parents. They collected the questions for two years and classified them into categories. Their analysis showed that the most frequently asked questions refer to pictures (40-50% in study 1 and 50-60% in study 2). This result clearly suggests that young learners pay attention to picture cues. Walsh (2003) conducted a study with twenty three kindergarten children to examine the effect of pictures in pictorial texts. He asked his participants to offer an oral response to questions such as 'Tell me what

you remember about the story', or 'What did you like about that story?' (p.123), after they read picture books. He reports that most of the participants' oral responses were related to pictures. Based on this result, he argues that the children were 'using pictures for understanding and retelling events in the story' (p.125).

Other than picture cues, there are not many empirical studies which focus on the impact of non-textual cues on reading processes. Campbell (1995:101) notes that 'when children read, it is likely to be speech marks, question marks and exclamation marks, rather than commas and full stops, which are noted first'. These problems are not specific to English: the same punctuation marks are used in Korean.

3.4.2 Graphophonic cues

Graphophonic cues are more likely to be relevant to decoding: decoding can either be achieved with graphic or phonic cues alone, or can be based on the relationship between sound and spelling. Browne (1998) noted that young native readers pay more attention to the first letter of unfamiliar words:

> Young readers often recognise the first letter of words and use this information to produce words that begin in visually similar ways when they encounter unfamiliar words. When they do this they are using graphic knowledge to inform their guesses. They may also use graphic information such as the length and shape of a word to help them remember words that are important or that they see frequently. More precise graphic information can help readers to distinguish between words that are similar. For example by looking at the graphic detail in a word the reader may be able to see the difference between words such as *where* and *when*.
>
> (Browne, 1998:26-27)

Some miscue studies (e.g., Hwang 2001) have reported that beginner readers produce more miscues using graphophonic cues than syntactic or semantic cues. However, as they improve their reading, their reliance on graphophonic cues reduces. Skilled readers use graphophonic cues automatically. However, this would not be easy for young learners, since, as Pinter points out, the relationship between sound and spelling is often unpredictable:

For English-speaking children, the process of learning to read and write takes rather a long time because in English the letter and sound correspondence is not at all direct and consistent. Esther Geva and Min Wang, researchers interested in cross-linguistic perspectives of learning to read, refer in their 2001 survey article to languages such as English as 'deep' orthographies. In English, sounding out the word does not always help with working out how it is written. For example, think of words such as 'enough' and 'thought' or 'height' and 'weight'. The written similarities between these pairs of words do not lead similar pronunciation. Many other languages that use the Roman alphabet, such as Spanish or German, for example, are called more 'shallow' orthographies because there is more consistency between what a word sounds like and how it is written. In such languages the process of learning to read and write takes less time and appears to be less complicated.

(Pinter 2006:67)

The contribution of oral vocabulary to reading is emphasised by many researchers including Verhoeven (1990) and Akamatsu (1998). Cameron (2001) says that oral language activities will contribute to phonological awareness in the foreign language. Phonological awareness is the awareness of phonological features, such as onset and rime, in syllables. Let me offer one word as an example: ring. The 'onset', which is the first consonant in a syllable, if there is one, in this case is /r/. The rime, which is the vowel and final consonant in the syllable, in this case is / iŋ /. Phonological memory is related to memorising the oral knowledge of the words.

According to Passenger, Stuart, and Terrell (2000), phonological awareness is useful in the prediction process of subsequent reading of single-words and phonological memory contributes to the development of decoding strategies needed for later reading. They insist that enhancing the phonological memory will help to develop literacy. However, it seems inadvisable to apply their research to foreign language readers for two reasons; firstly, foreign language learners, although they are phonologically aware of words they read, would not necessarily pay attention to onset and rime features. The possible difference between native and Korean readers is discussed in a later section, when I review cross-linguistic cues. Secondly, the phonological memory of young foreign readers will not necessarily be correct, because they may encounter words in written, rather than oral, form. Pino-Silva (1993:847) notes that 'in many cases L2 vocabulary items are learned, stored and retrieved by the students without their being able to pronounce them with native-like quality.' As Akamatsu (1998) says, most L2 readers have to memorise simultaneously the spelling and pronunciation of a word when they learn to read. Given this, it is not surprising that word identification in reading for young foreign learners would be demanding, and the relationship between decoding and comprehension can be complex. Busbee (2004) mentions that 'most Korean students have been introduced to English by the written word, so there is a

strong tendency for them to speak English with a "reading pronunciation", which ignores English phonology' (Busbee, 2004:5).

One difficulty for foreign language readers is that they are less frequently exposed to oral language than second language readers, which Koda (1994) points out is one of the main differences in learning to read between L1 and L2 readers. Several studies indicate that this skill is not automatically acquired, especially for non-native speakers (e.g., No, 1999; Goswami, 2001; Lee Y., 2004, 2005). I mentioned No's study earlier, on page 33. Lee Y. (2004) claims that phonics has been widely criticised due to the difficulty of using it in an EFL context, which provides limited oral input to learners, and that it is therefore only taught in private lessons. In her study with 208 fourth- to sixth-grade primary school students, she explored their English phonemic awareness and found out that they lack awareness of vowels. They approach English words with reference to the Korean consonant-vowel system: she gave the example that students insert vowels between all consonants.

3.4.3 Morphosyntactic cues

"Morphosyntactic cues" refers to grammar within, as well as beyond, word level; morphology denotes grammar within words, whereas syntax is defined as the grammar that relates words to each other. Browne (1998) explains the role of morphology in reading as follows:

> Recognising known words within unknown words may also help readers to read unfamiliar words. This applies particularly to root words or singular versions of words.
>
> (Browne 1998:27)

Syntactic cues are very important, especially when readers encounter polysemous words. For example, if students read the word 'well' it could be used as a noun (meaning 'a deep hole in the ground containing water') or an adjective (meaning 'in good health'). Readers can only understand the meaning of it by relating it to other words in the sentence.

Choi (2001) conducted an interview study with three primary school teachers in Korea to investigate their perceptions of the English ability of their sixth grade students. He interviewed the participants for an hour, once a week for one semester, and discovered that their students spent a large amount of time on learning English as a knowledge-based, rather than usage-based, subject. For example, students can speak out words when prompted by teachers, but when asked to speak out a sentence containing words they know, they seem to struggle. Choi said that word games (e.g. 'happY → YeaR → Rabbit') are among the most

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popular activities in the primary school classroom and that their popularity indicates that learning words is a high priority for students. His second finding concerns passive learning; according to the three participants, even their good students were very passive. They could understand what teachers said, but did not try to use their knowledge actively. Choi interprets this passivity as a potential obstacle to automaticity.

Wallace (1989) claims that lack of syntactic cues will contribute to 'mechanical decoding':

> If the learner is unable to predict even basic structures in the second language because control of the English language system is still weak, reading, that is reading for sense, will not take place. What may occur is mechanical decoding, especially with L2 learners who are literate in their L1 and have therefore learnt or acquired decoding skills which may equip them to decode English, without, however, necessarily understanding what they read.
>
> (Wallace, 1989:278)

Vocabulary and grammar are considered to be the most important factors in foreign language reading (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984). If young foreign readers are unable to make full use of morphosyntactic cues, they will only obtain a partial or incorrect meaning. Some researchers have tackled the use of syntactic cues (e.g., Tunmer et al, 1987; Nation and Snowling, 2000; Kim B., 2007). For example, Kim B. (2007) compared 32 native speakers of English to 130 Korean EFL learners, to investigate whether there is any difference between the two groups' sentence-processing strategies in acquiring the easy-to-V structure; both sets of participants were made up of university students. She discovered that, in understanding the easy-to-V structure, Korean learners relied primarily on animacy cues, such as 'the book is easy to understand', whereas native speakers depended on both grammatical and animacy cues. She interprets this result to mean that Korean EFL learners are more influenced by lexical semantics in understanding the structure.

3.4.4 Contextual cues

A good deal of research has been done on readers' use of contextual cues by researchers in the cognitive tradition (e.g., van Parreren & Schouten van-Parreren, 1981; Cooper, 1984; Faerch and Kasper, 1986; Li, 1988; Gardner, 1998; Eskey, 1988; Stanovich, 1990; Kim & Lim, 2006; Webb, 2007; Pulido, 2007). However, it seems that the term 'contextual cue' is differently used by different researchers (some researchers use terms such as 'context cue' or 'contextual clues'). Some researchers (e.g., Park, 2001; Cain, 2007; Frantzen, 2003) treat contextual cues as referring to local textual cues i.e. related to the contents of texts, whereas others (e.g., Kim J.S., 2000; Kim & Lim, 2006; Corrigan, 2007) use the term to mean global textual cues, by which they mean various forms of knowledge about the topic, as well as

local textual cues. Here, I use the term 'contextual cues' to refer to information from beyond the individual sentence which is used for guessing and verification; it can mean the context of the text (local textual cues), or can refer to the reader's background (global textual cues). The use of contextual cues has been a very controversial issue in debates between psycholinguists and cognitive psychologists. Cziko (1980) analysed oral reading by French learners and showed that less competent learners use less contextual information and rely on the words of the text. Cooper (1984) argued that unpracticed readers are less likely to employ contextual cues because their attention is wholly directed towards unknown words and their immediate context. Palmberg (1987) notes the difficulty of guessing for young foreign readers:

> For young learners, who have an imperfect knowledge of the foreign language, both the willingness and the ability to guess will be further hindered by the memory span which, according to Yorio (1971), is effectively shortened due to lack of training and unfamiliarity of the foreign material, making it much more difficult to remember what has been previously read.
>
> (Palmberg, 1987:74)

Eskey (1988) also believes that L2 readers will have difficulty in using contextual cues because of their more limited linguistic ability. Zhang (2001:280) also mentions that 'guessing is advocated as an effective strategy by researchers, but the subjects, particularly the low scorers, seemed incapable of using contextual clues to guess meanings'. Kim & Lim (2006) conducted a study with 116 sixth-grade primary school students in Korea and discovered that those who scored in the top 30% on a vocabulary test were more likely to use contextual cues to infer the meaning of unknown words.

Stanovich (1990) offers a different interpretation of the use of contextual cues. Where other researchers emphasise unpracticed or young foreign readers' difficulty in using contextual cues, Stanovich argues that such readers are more likely to use contextual cues, whereas fluent readers are less likely to require them, as their word recognition is automatic. Taguchi (1997) takes a similar view to that of Stanovich:

> Good reading is likely to involve rapid, context-free word recognition. That is, good readers identify most words very rapidly before non-automatic higher-level processing of contextual information influences their word recognition. Poor readers, in contrast, are considerably slower to identify words, and they use context to access meaning, but without much success.
>
> (Taguchi, 1997:98)

Whether or not it is the case that contextual cues are used more by skilled readers, it appears to be agreed that contextual cues are useful for reading. Kim (2000) notes that when L2 readers have to deal with difficult texts, contextual cues are of particular assistance to them

in dealing with unfamiliar words. Park (2001) reports that Korean secondary school learners use contextual cues actively to guess unknown words.

3.4.5 Cross-linguistic cues

In this section, I identify seven of the ways in which Korean and English differ as language systems, which seem to cause particular problems for learners. An examination of these cross-linguistic characteristics suggests the possible advantages and difficulties that Korean students may have in using cues reading in English. These are morphophonemic spelling; arrangement of letters in one syllable; word order; subject and object markers; reliance on contextual cues; body-coda awareness; acquisition rate of morpheme -s.

Hangul, the language of Korea, was formalised by King Sejong in 1446. Its original name was *Hwunmin cengum*, which means 'the correct sounds for the instruction of the people'. As the meaning implies, Hangul was made to help ordinary Koreans, who did not have the benefit of education, to read and write easily. Given this original purpose, it is not surprising that Hangul was based on phonemic principles. Sohn (1999) suggests that Hangul was created on the basis of 'an intensive analysis of the sound pattern of Korean and the phonological theory available at that time' (Sohn 1999:13). However, Hangul, in its present form, does not follow the principle of phonemic spelling. After several changes, Hangul became focused primarily on morphemic spelling. This means that no matter how various sounds change in context, morphemes remain constant. A language with such a spelling system is known as morphemic or morphophonemic; Hangul and English can both be described as being morphophonemic (Birch, 2002). This shared characteristic of Hangul and English means that Korean students may have an advantage in English reading. They will know that morphology affects pronunciation and spelling; although the way in which morphology influences pronunciation and spelling will be different, at least, Korean students will be morphologically aware.

Secondly, Hangul is presented as syllable blocks in a square-like shape, in a similar way to Chinese characters. The stroke order of left-to-right and top-to-bottom is the same as that of a Chinese character. A syllable block begins with a consonant symbol and then a vowel or diphthong symbol is added to it. If needed, a consonant symbol is placed after that. An example is given below:

하 늘/haneul/

하늘/haneul/ means sky in English. In this word, 하/ha/ is composed of consonant(ㅎ) and vowel(ㅏ), whereas 늘/neul/ is composed of consonant(ㄴ), vowel(ㅡ) and another consonant(ㄹ). The important thing is that if another consonant is added after a vowel, it is located under the vowel as 늘/neul/. So, in Korean, a consonant cannot be placed at the end on the same line with a vowel. If a consonant appears after a vowel, it is always located under the vowel, forming a square block. However, English is not a square-type language: text is normally written on the same line. 하늘 written in the English way, appears as 하ㄴㅡㄹ. Primary school students who are already used to Hangul as syllable blocks may have difficulty reading in English, which is a left to right linear and alphabetic language.

Hangul is different from English in terms of word order, with Subject-Object-Verb syntax, in contrast to the Subject-Verb-Object order of English. For example:

Original English: Hansel (S)   drops (V)   the pebbles. (O)

Korean version: 헨젤은 (S)   자갈을 (O)   떨어뜨립니다. (V)
                  /Hanjeleun/   /jagaleul/   /tteoleotteulibnida/

Re-translation: Hansel   the pebbles   drops.

This difference in syntax could lead to other cross-linguistic demands being placed on Korean students. I have mentioned the difficulties caused by the difference between Korean and English word-order, earlier in Chapter Two, on page 22. A post-morpheme may attract excessive attention from Korean students. This is because, in Korean, the post-morpheme that is attached to the noun indicates whether the word is subject or object. For example, if the post-morpheme '이'/i/, for nouns ending with consonants, or '가'/ga/, for nouns ending with vowels, is attached to the noun, the noun becomes the subject. However, with the same noun in the same location in the sentence, a different post-morpheme (such as /eul/ for consonant endings or /leul/ for vowel endings) makes the noun the object. Consider Table 3-2:

Table 3-2 Comparison of Korean and English sentences

English sentence	Korean sentence	
See Hajin.	하진이를	본다.
	/hajinileul	bonda/
Harin sees.	하진이가	본다.
	/hajiniga	bonda/

In the above examples, we can see the difference between English and Korean. In the English version of the sentences, the verbs have a different location and are marked for singularity or plurality. The Korean sentences look similar, in that, regardless of whether it is subject or object, the noun is in the first part of the sentence and the verb in the final part of the sentence. The only difference is in the propositional morpheme; for example, '–를 /leul/' and '–가 /ga/'. '–를 /leul/' is a post-morpheme for object and '–가 /ga/' is a post-morpheme for subject. Translating these morphemes into English will provide little information. Korean students' familiarity with these morphemes may lead them to pay little attention to the location of the word, so that when they attempt to translate something into English, they make errors in determining whether a noun is a subject or an object.

Reliance on contextual cues in Korean leads to a lack of use of articles, plural ending '-s', or subject. In Korea, the use of articles or the plural ending '-s' is not as strict as in English because speakers expect that listeners can work out what is being said from the context of the phrase. For example, in English there are three sentences you could use to refer to eating an apple: "I ate apples", "I ate an apple", and "I ate the apple". However, in Korean, we can simply say this without an article or the plural ending '-s': e.g. "I ate apple". Moreover, when used in conversation, this sentence often appears without a subject, so that 'I ate apple' becomes simply 'ate apple'.

Phonological awareness in Korean is connected more with body-coda boundary rather than onset-rime one. The figure below illustrates the different categorization of phonemes.
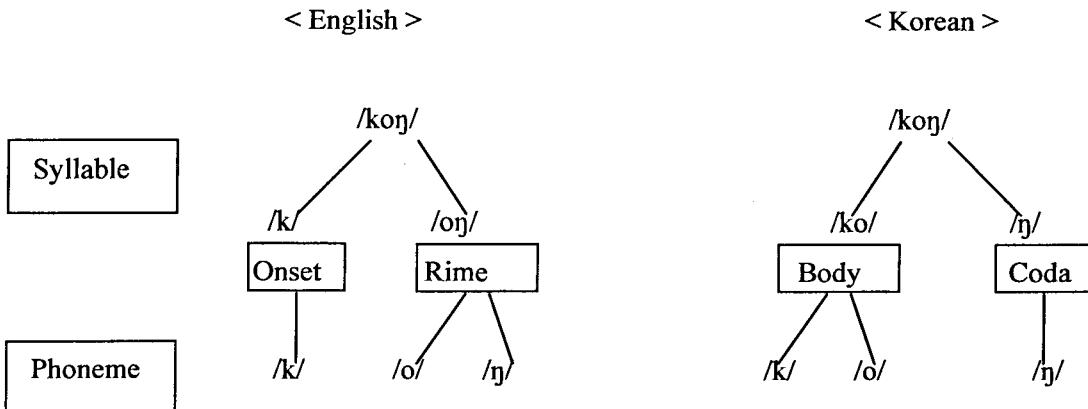
Figure 3-5 Proposed subsyllabic structure for English versus Korean.
(Reproduced from Kim 2007)

As seen in Figure 3-5, body unit refers to first consonant and vowel sound while coda unit refers to the final consonant sound. Kim (2007:72) describes 'body' and 'coda' by saying that 'body refers to for the word *cat*, both *mat* and *flat* are rime neighbors, *cap* and *catch* are body neighbors, and *kit* is a consonant neighbor'. Kim (2007) examined phonological awareness and literacy skills in Korean beginner readers with 41 kindergarteners and 40 first graders, and the reported results suggest that 'body-coda boundary (e.g., *ca-t*) is more salient than onset-rime boundary (e.g., *c-at*) for Korean children and show that children's body-coda awareness is an important predictor of word decoding and spelling in Korean.'

Finally, in the studies of the acquisition rate of English morphemes by Korean EFL students in America, the three morpheme types (the article, third person singular ending –s, and plural ending –s) are reported to cause the difficulty for Korean participants (Shin and Milroy, 1999). Shin and Milroy explains one of the difficulties in acquiring the ending –s morpheme with the absence of the pronunciation /s/ in the end of words. They explained that 'when this phoneme occurs word-finally, it is either neutralized to /t/, as in os "clothes" (pronounced [ot]), or is deleted, as in kaps "price" (pronounced [kap]).' They said this difference could hinder Korean children's ability to pay attention to the ending morpheme –s .

In this section, I have discussed several cues that can be used for reading in English, with a particular focus on Korean learners. These cues have been differently highlighted by different researchers. For example, Goodman considered the use of syntactic or semantic cues to be important in reading, whereas Koda (1994, 2005) tried to explain reading processes in terms of cross-linguistic cues. In the next section, I review research methodology in reading.

3.5 Research methodology in reading research

3.5.1 Research methods

One of the difficulties raised in reading research is how to investigate reading processes. It is not easy to understand reading processes, since they involve internal cognitive processes influenced by social factors. In reviewing current research, I now discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the methods used, in order to select the most appropriate for my study.

In the previous section, I discussed theoretical approaches to reading processes. Different perspectives view reading in very different ways. Cognitive theorists regard reading as an individual mental process, whilst social theorists view reading as a socially embedded process. This kind of ontological difference between cognitive and social theorists leads to different research questions and different research methodologies. For example, cognitive theorists tend to use research methods such as study of eye movements, miscue analysis, think-aloud protocol, and experimental study, whilst sociocultural theorists tend to employ methods which require a longer time-scale, such as ethnographic and multiple case studies.

Cognitive psychologists often favour eye movement studies, but used this method to investigate word recognition skills. (e.g., Irwin, 1998; Pollatsek, Lesch, Morris & Rayner, 1992; Drieghe, Rayner & Pollatsek, 2005). They focus on the slow decoding process of poor L2 readers and make a connection between eye movement and cognitive capacity. For example, Oller and Tullius (1973) noted that poor L2 readers demonstrated longer periods of eye fixation while reading. This empirical data is used to argue that such readers exhaust their limited cognitive capacity in decoding, hindering their comprehension. If the research is designed to investigate the perceptive dimension of reading processes, this method seems useful for gathering quantitative data and demonstrating significant connections between, for example, reading proficiency and word recognition skills. Although such a method may offer interesting insights, it does not fully capture the complex nature of reading processes, since it only focuses on eye fixation, without providing much insight into how much information is used during fixation.

The think-aloud technique asks participants to articulate their mental processes in the context of problem-solving tasks. Cognitive theorists, who consider reading as a problem-solving task, use this method in the hope that their studies (Wade, Buxton & Kelly, 1999; Fukkink, 2005; Lau, 2006; Lee & Oxford, 2007) will reveal the beliefs or strategies of the readers. Not surprisingly, it is difficult to explain one's mental processes during the performance of certain kinds of tasks. When using this method, researchers should consider

two basic conditions: i) whether participants are cognitively mature enough to articulate their thoughts, and ii) whether they may be distracted by the think-aloud protocol during the tasks (e.g., Soria, 2001; Lau, 2006). Because of these two conditions, think-aloud protocol demands proper training, for researchers and participants, before it is conducted. Soria (2001) suggests using a retrospective interview, together with the think-aloud method, in order to clarify incomplete reporting from participants Think-aloud method is sometimes used as an instructional tool to develop students' metacognitive awareness. Schellings, Aarnoutse and van Leeuwe (2006) point out that think-aloud protocol may not reveal automatized word identification which does not require attention. This method may not necessarily be appropriate for young learners who may have more difficulty than older learners in articulating their thoughts. Reading is unobservable, and so if students are not aware of their strategies or beliefs, little information will be produced.

Observation is often used by socio-cultural theorists who investigate the social dimension of reading, but the problem with this method is that it takes time to establish a rapport with participants. In some cases, participants' awareness of being observed can affect their behaviour. To prevent this, researchers need to make the research context familiar to the participants. For this reason, observation is more suitable for longitudinal studies.

Miscue analysis is another frequently used method. In this method, students are asked to read aloud and their mistakes are analysed. This method helps us to understand their reading strategies and the difficulties that they face. Miscue analysis seems particularly valid for a study of young Korean readers of English, since oral reading is a prevalent reading practice among this group (in the next section, I provide more detailed explanation of the popularity of oral reading for EFL learners, using empirical studies). A further reason for employing miscue analysis is that reading is not easily observable. There are other research methods that make use of what is observable, such as eye movement studies. However, the data obtained from such a study only represents one of the processes involved in reading, whereas miscue analysis allows us to study multiple aspects of the reading process, particularly the use of various forms of cues, such as graphophonic, morphosyntactic, contextual, and cross-linguistic.

3.5.2 Popularity of oral reading in foreign readers

The rationale for using miscue analysis as my main research tool arises from an acknowledgement of the important role of oral reading for EFL learners. Reading aloud is considered to be one of the most effective methods for teaching EFL readers (e.g., Foss and Reitzel, 1988; Wallace, 1989; Dhaif, 1990; Amer, 1997; Kailani, 1998; Cho and Seo, 2001;

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Cho & Choi, 2003; Takeuchi, 2003; Kim, 2004; Yang & Wilson, 2006; Ding, 2007; Gibson, 2008). Dhaif (1990) designed an experimental study, involving 140 university students in Bahrain, to investigate the functions of reading aloud; in one session, students silently read three different passages and then were issued with a multiple-choice comprehension test. In another session, they read aloud three more passages of equivalent difficulty and were subsequently given a comprehension test. Students displayed better understanding of the passages that were read aloud than the silently read passages; he also reported that 77% of the students felt positively about the teacher reading aloud to them. Foss and Reitzel (1988) suggest oral reading as a way to reduce communication anxiety. Wallace (1989) explains how the 'oral reading event not only offers insights into the learner's existing language and reading competence, but is potentially a language learning activity, in the sense that an opportunity is offered the learner to discover more about English' (Wallace, 1989:279).

Amer (1997) recommends reading aloud as a beneficial teaching method, especially for young foreign readers. He conducted an experimental study with 75 male sixth-grade EFL students in Cairo; in the experimental group, a teacher read a short story aloud to the students, whereas, in the control group, students engaged in silent reading. He also conducted pre- and post-tests; his results showed that students in the experimental group showed a higher level of comprehension of the subject matter than the control group.

Cho and Seo (2001) showed the role of oral reading in vocabulary acquisition; 120 fifth-grade students (79 in the experimental group and 41 in the control group) participated in the study. The experimental group was taught by the teacher reading aloud, while the control group studied from a textbook. The experimental group performed better than the control group in vocabulary tests and also showed greater interest in reading. Cho and Choi (2003) conducted a similar study, illustrating the function of oral reading with 64 third-graders. Their experimental group was taught by reading aloud, whereas the control group was taught using a textbook-based curriculum. The students that had reading aloud sessions showed a marked increase in their level of interest in reading generally and outperformed the students from the control group in reading and writing tasks.

Kim J. S. (2004) mentions that an observation of reading aloud can provide evidence about the reading strategies of young learners: she argues that 'listening to children read can show what they do when they encounter an unknown word, how they sound it out, how they look back in text' (Kim J. S., 2004:109). She investigated the relationship between oral reading and comprehension; 17 sixth-graders were asked to read aloud a simple text and then to write down, in Korean, whatever they could remember about what they read. Her results

showed that the ability to read aloud is closely related to the ability to comprehend.

Yang and Wilson (2006) argue that 'in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, reading aloud is one common classroom reading practice' (Yang & Wilson, 2006:366). Ding (2007) showed that three university participants, winners of the English speaking contest in China, considered 'reading aloud' to be one of the most effective ways to improve reading. Kim, J.-S (2007) mentions that, at the beginning stage of learning to read, oral reading is a much more prevalent reading practice than silent reading. Gibson (2008) highlights the role of reading aloud and adduces six potential benefits: efficient word recognition, diagnostic use, focus on pronunciation and prosodic features, reducing anxiety, oral proof-reading in writing and individual language learning strategies. She conducted a survey with three groups of participants: teachers, language learners, and autonomous learners. The results showed that 82% of the autonomous learners were using reading aloud in their private study. Considering that reading aloud is a prevalent reading practice among EFL readers, the use of miscue analysis as a research tool is likely to be productive.

3.5.3 Miscue analysis: An historical overview

In the previous section, I discussed the most widely used research methods for understanding reading processes. In this section, I provide a more detailed explanation of miscue analysis, which is the main research tool in this study. In doing so, I provide a historical overview of miscue analysis to identify the theoretical position that the use of this research tool implies. I also discuss the information that miscues provide to researchers and which assists them in understanding reading processes.

Miscue analysis was introduced by Goodman in 1967, when the influence of the psycholinguistic perspective was pervasive in reading theory. Goodman (1967) coined a new term, 'miscue', which refers to any oral reading that deviates from the text. In explaining the term 'miscue analysis', Goodman used the terms Expected Response (ER) and Observed Response (OR); a miscue can be defined as a situation where the OR differs from the ER. For example, if the word 'house' is a part of the text, the ER would be 'house'; however, if the reader reads 'house' as 'home', then that reading is the OR. In this case, the OR differs from the ER and can therefore be identified as a miscue. Following this logic, Goodman uses the term 'miscue' to refer to any unexpected response to a text during oral reading. He employs 'miscue' rather than 'mistake' to give a positive connotation to any change made by readers during oral reading and because he believes that readers are using cues to understand the text. Goodman studied miscues in order to understand reading processes. The method used in these studies is referred to as 'miscue analysis', which is certainly influenced

by the idea that readers are active. He assumes that miscues are caused by active participation in the construction of meaning and it is, therefore, worthwhile investigating them.

When miscue analysis was first used in analyzing reading, error analysis was beginning to be popular among researchers of second language acquisition. In studies of second language acquisition, errors are distinguished from mistakes. Ellis (1997) points out that:

> Errors reflect gaps in a learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses; the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows.
>
> (Ellis 1997:17)

If researchers accept Ellis's definitions of errors and mistakes, they will be likely to pay more attention to errors than to mistakes. A similar idea could be applied to miscue analysis in relation to error analysis. Some of the unexpected responses are caused by miscuing the text, while others could just be due to a slip of the tongue or tiredness. They could also occur because of the language acquisition order. For example, it is not easy for Korean primary school students to remember to add the singular verb ending –s in their speech. If they do not acquire this in their speaking, they will, in naming out words with the singular verb ending, omit –s. In Goodman's approach to miscue analysis, he distinguishes different kinds of unexpected responses from the text; however, he does not make a distinction as to whether a miscue could be due to a slip of the tongue or a mis-processing of the words in the text. I will use the term 'miscue' in this way also but, when categorising the miscues, I will be alert to the possible reasons for their occurrence.

It is important to note that, although Goodman analysed this behaviour and created new terms to describe it, this reading behaviour was not a new phenomenon; before miscue analysis was created, researchers referred to the same phenomena as 'oral reading errors'. They made few attempts to investigate these 'errors' in a qualitative way. Leu Jr. (1982) pointed out that the theoretical analysis of oral reading errors can be divided into two separate periods: the first up until 1968 and the second from that date to the present. He explains that during the first period, there was no theoretical framework for investigating oral reading errors, which were simply considered to be something undesirable in proficient readers. During this period, Leu Jr. reports, analysis of oral reading errors remained at a superficial level, and was mainly concerned with counting miscues or describing the oral reading behaviour of research participants. During the second period, miscue analysis was introduced and offered researchers a more systematic theoretical and methodological

approach to the problem. Goodman claims that miscue analysis is not merely a quantitative research tool, but is also qualitative in the sense that it investigates the source of linguistic, as well as cognitive, information (Flurkey & Xu, 2003).

There are two types of miscue analysis: initial miscue analysis and retrospective miscue analysis. Initial miscue analysis was used to infer comprehension by analyzing miscues. Later, a modified version, created by Goodman, Watson and Burke (1987), used more information to make this kind of inference; this version is known as retrospective miscue analysis (RMA). In this procedure, researchers include a summary after oral reading; they encourage readers to comment on their own miscues. While, initially, miscue analysis was used as a research tool to diagnose reading problems (Goodman 1967, 1972; Donald, 1980; Campbell, 1988) or to aid understanding of reading processes, retrospective miscue analysis was also used as an instructional tool (Martens, 1998; Lee, 2001; Moore and Brantingham, 2003). Goodman (1987) claimed that RMA enables readers to become more aware of their own use of reading strategies.

In addition to this, he notes that miscue analysis can yield information concerning readers' beliefs about reading. As an instructional tool, RMA has been used to improve students' reading strategies. Hwang (2001) conducted a longitudinal study using miscue analysis, to investigate the development of the reading strategies and the improvement in the reading comprehension of one student, over four years. Over time, this student, named Dasomi, reduced the number of miscues and, during the study, she gained more confidence in her own reading and realized that reading was not merely decoding, but also comprehension. With four Korean students at a junior high and a high school, Lee (2001) demonstrated the role of RMA as an instructional tool. In his study, he gave the participants strategy lessons on their miscues and showed that all of them improved their comprehension skills. Chang (2004), in her study with an 11-year-old EFL student demonstrated that the student was able to read at an improved speed, with less hesitation, regression, and repetition after the remedial sessions of miscue analysis.

Although the three studies discussed above were conducted with Korean participants, RMA is not always feasible for foreign young readers; if I asked my participants to summarize what they read, it would function as a speaking task as well as a test of reading ability. It would place high linguistic and conceptual demands on them, whereas for an L1 child, the demands are much lower. Miscue analysis has been conducted mainly with first or second language readers, so, it needs to be adapted to accommodate the linguistic and socio-cultural differences that young foreign readers may have.

In the forty years since Goodman introduced miscue analysis, miscue research has focused on a number of different areas: developmental stages of reading, reading processes, reading strategies, self-monitoring, and speed reading, to name a few (Brown, Goodman and Marek, 1996). Although miscue studies can be differently directed, there are general results which are commonly found across miscue studies with L1 readers:

- Substitutions reveal the most valuable information on readers' use of cues
- Real-word substitutions occur more often than non-word substitutions
- Proficient readers use semantic and syntactic cues, rather than graphophonic

Substitution miscues comprise more than half of miscues in most miscue studies. Substitution is the most highly valued miscue, since it is believed to yield information about the use of cues during reading. Substitutions are examined to assess whether they possess graphophonic similarity, or syntactic or semantic acceptability (e.g., Evans, Barraball & Eberle, 1998; Davenport, 2002; Goodman, 2004). For example, if a student reads the sentence 'the sly hen felt dizzy' as 'the sky chicken felt sad', one can identify three substitutions: sly for sky, chicken for hen, and sad for dizzy. The first substitution (sky for sly) only shows graphophonic similarity between the two words. There is no semantic or syntactic acceptability in this substitution, so the meaning is totally changed. The second substitution (chicken for hen) has both syntactic and semantic acceptability. Therefore, it does not change the meaning. The third example (sad for dizzy) only has syntactic acceptability, so this substitution also changes the meaning of the sentence.

No miscue study has reported that non-word substitutions outnumbered real-word substitutions. To reproduce real-word substitutions, readers are expected to have a certain amount of oral vocabulary. Goodman believed that if students use contextual cues to understand what they are reading, they make semantically acceptable miscues, such as reading 'house' for 'home'. The basic assumption here is that readers are actively engaged with reading and pay little attention to form in detail, in the sense of whether the actual printed word is 'home' or 'house'. (Although we can say that these two words share a similar form in 'ho..e'. The detailed attention to every single letter is not fully paid by readers to make this kind of substitutions.) However, for this to occur, readers need some knowledge of synonyms for the words they are reading. Even if the reader actively uses contextual cues, if they have a limited vocabulary they may not produce real-word substitutions. For example, a young EFL reader's vocabulary is not necessarily well developed before they begin to read, unlike their native counterparts. Because the present

study uses miscue analysis and focuses on young EFL learners, it will be interesting to see whether it produces results consistent with the three main results from previous studies, mentioned above.

Goodman (1978, 1994, 2004) claims that, while reading, readers perform operations such as hypothesizing, checking, and confirming. In order to perform such operations, readers use cues from the text. According to him, readers make use of three kinds of cues: graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic. Goodman values the syntactic and semantic cues above the graphophonic and goes on to say that graphophonic cues are only needed to refine and check the predictions made with semantic and syntactic cues. Since Goodman suggested this, a number of miscue studies have been conducted to support this argument (e.g., Argyle, 1989; Wilde, 2000; Moor & Brantingham, 2003).

Although miscue analysis is considered a powerful instrument for the understanding of reading (Arnold, 1982; Goodman, Watson, & Burke, 1987; Campbell, 1988; Wilde, 2000), like other research instruments it has limitations and disadvantages. In the next section, I discuss theoretical and methodological issues that have arisen in my reading of the literature on miscue analysis.

3.5.4 Issues in miscue analysis

Here, I review the issues that are discussed most often by theorists of miscue analysis. I devised Figure 3-6 to illustrate the ramifications of these issues:
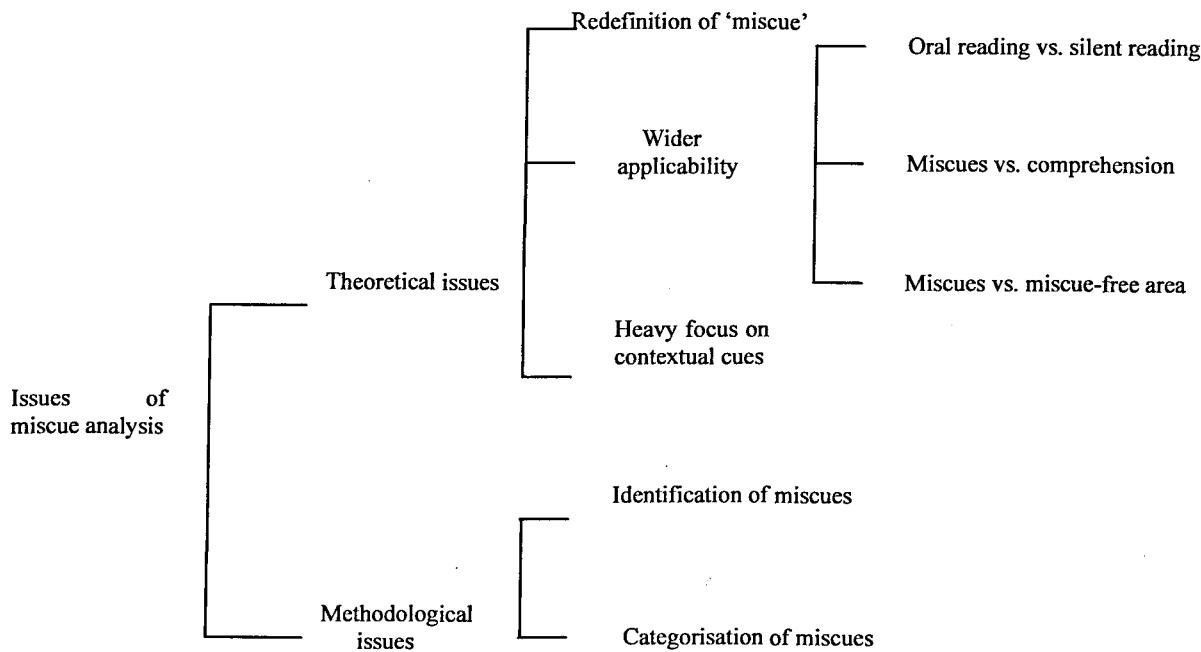
Figure 3-6 Issues in miscue analysis

Theoretical issues in miscue analysis

Redefinition of 'miscue'

The first theoretical issue arises from redefinition of the term 'miscue'. Bloome and Dail (1997) suggest a redefinition of miscue analysis from a socio-cultural perspective; in redefining the term 'miscue', they point out that the terms 'unexpected' and 'expected' are derived from 'normative behaviour' (Bloome & Dail 1997:612). How young learners approach reading in English is influenced by socio-cultural expectations; when researchers conduct miscue analysis with their participants, they bring their own expectations to the research context, as do the participants themselves. Their interpretation of the word 'miscue' is illustrated in Figure 3-7:
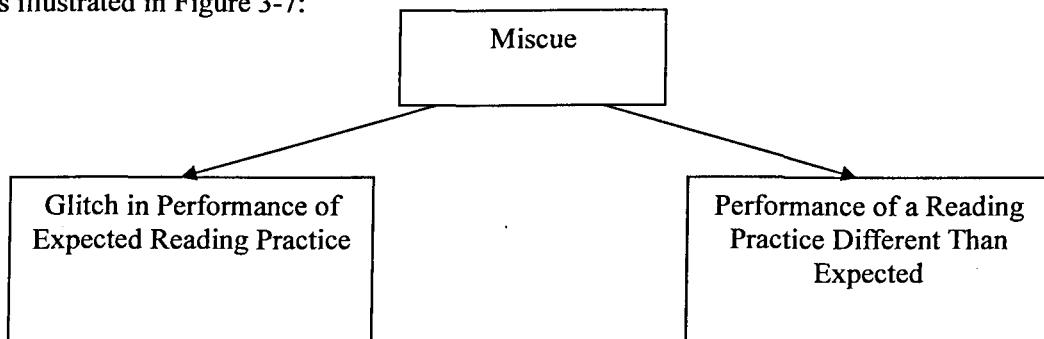
Figure 3-7 Definitions of the term 'miscue'

(Reproduced from Bloome & Dail 1997:613)

Miscue researchers have ignored the expectations of the participants. This is why previous miscue analysis only reveals cognitive processes and lacks an explanation of why readers from a variety of socio-cultural backgrounds react differently to the task of oral reading.

Goodman claims that readers make hypotheses while reading and perform tasks such as checking and confirming. In performing such tasks, readers use cues from the text. However, I recognize that there are some unexpected responses which may be accidental slips of the tongue, arising from tiredness or other reasons. So, we cannot expect that all unexpected responses will be from miscues. Although I am aware of this, in this study I will use the term 'miscues' as miscue researchers use it. By using the term 'miscues', I hope to focus on unexpected responses to the text and also the unexpected reading practices which students bring to their reading that will assist me in understanding their reading processes.

Wider applicability

The second theoretical issue is the problem of inferring a wider applicability for miscue research. The first example of this is the assumption that miscue analysis is as helpful in understanding silent reading as it is for oral reading; this has been doubted. Alderson (2000) points out that reading aloud is not the normal way of reading. There are some researchers who equate oral reading with silent reading, but I do not regard them as identical. Although we do not assume they are identical, for several reasons this method can be considered to be a useful instrument for understanding the reading of Korean primary school students. First, reading aloud is widely practised in Korean and English in Korean primary classrooms. Although the process of reading aloud may be different from the process of silent reading, it will be meaningful to practice miscue analysis with Korean primary school students, since, in the classroom, they are more frequently engaged in reading aloud than in silent reading. Cho and Seo (2001) demonstrated that reading aloud positively affects students' interest in reading and improvement in vocabulary in EFL. In their experimental study with 120 fifth-grade Korean students, they reported that the experimental group in which the teacher read English materials aloud showed significantly more interest in reading and attained a higher average mark in the vocabulary test than the control group. There are some studies which show that reading aloud increases the motivation of young readers (Glazer, 1981; Morrow & Weinstein, 1982, 1986; Trelease 1995). Trelease goes on to say that reading aloud can also provide a reading model. Secondly, there is a possibility that Korean primary students may be reading aloud in their heads, even when they appear to be reading silently, as Chang Su's case suggests. This is also something that I still do, as it both helps me to understand the meaning clearly and ensures that I do not lose track of the meaning of what I am reading. I do this more often when I am silently reading in English and less so when engaged in

silently reading Hangul books.

The second example of this inference that miscue analysis may be more widely applicable is the assumption that miscue analysis can help us to understand the process of comprehension. The following figure shows Goodman's understanding of oral reading:
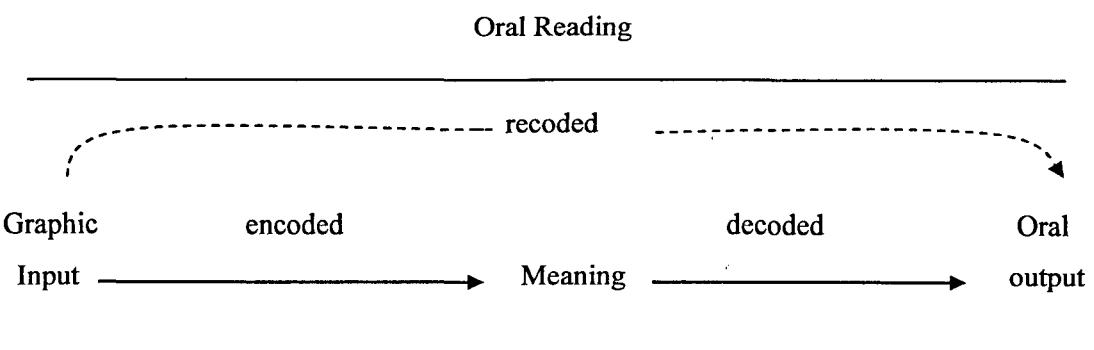
Oral Reading

Figure 3-8 Oral reading process
(Reproduced from Goodman, 1976:483)

The figure shows that, in Goodman's model, the reader addresses meaning before producing oral output. According to this model, Goodman understands decoding as the process of translating graphic input into meaning; this is quite different from the conventional definition of 'decoding'. Although there is some confusion in reading theory about the term 'decoding' (for example, some researchers interchangeably use 'decoding' and 'comprehension'), it generally refers to the matching of graphic input to phonic output (Koda 2005). Goodman's view of decoding could limit interpretation of miscues. This model suggests that oral output is part of the encoding, rather than the decoding, process; therefore, if miscues occur in reading, this implies problems with encoding rather than decoding. This view limits the possible interpretations of miscues. Goodman explains the possible mismatch, during this oral reading process, between graphic input and oral output:

> Primarily oral output is produced *after* meaning has been decoded and hence, though comprehension may be high, the oral output is often a poor match for the graphic input. The reader sounds clumsy and makes numerous errors.
>
> (Goodman 2004:12)

In the above quotation, Goodman demonstrates his awareness of the mismatch between oral output and comprehension, in the case of high comprehension and poor oral output; but his assumption of a mismatch does not extend to other possible cases, such as low comprehension and high oral output. He excludes other possible mismatches because he

assumes that comprehension comes first, before decoding, in oral reading. This assumption can encourage miscue researchers analyse oral reading, since they believe that miscues are a product of comprehension; moreover, the assumption may exclude two cases, since these researchers will believe that they do not occur: i) students produce oral output before comprehension ii) students are mechanically engaged in oral reading, or overloaded with the decoding task itself, without comprehending what they are reading. Goodman's Model of Oral Reading simplifies the complex processes of decoding and comprehension. This theoretical flaw has been mentioned by several researchers (Potter, 1980; Leu Jr. 1982; McKenna & Picard, 2006). For example, Connor (1981) notes that fluent oral reading by ESL students does not reflect their level of comprehension, although miscue analysis provides researchers with valuable insights. I concur with this view, in the sense that readers may not necessarily construct meaning while they are reading a text; they may merely be engaged in decoding, with the aim of being seen in a positive light by the researcher.

Although readers actively construct meaning, their processes are less observable when they encounter polysemous words, since here the pronunciation alone does not yield useful information. For example, when students read the word 'park', as in the sentence 'There is no sign for car park', some may interpret the word 'park' as an area where people can walk or play for relaxation, rather than a reference to the act of 'parking' a vehicle. In this case, it is not easy to identify what students understand by the word 'park', since although they may understand it as having the former meaning, they would pronounce it in the same way. I am not arguing that oral miscues do not reflect comprehension; to some extent, oral reading can reveal comprehension. As Goodman (2003) suggests, when he argues that it is not easy to identify words out of context, when reading the words 'read', 'lead', 'dove', and 'record' there is a much stronger relationship between decoding and comprehension. Miscue analysis relies heavily on the student's pronunciation. If the student is good at reading aloud unknown words, it will be difficult to understand their comprehension regarding those words. However, the validity of the data should not be challenged simply because some students are good at naming out words without understanding their meaning. If there is a disjunction between appropriate pronunciation and poor understanding, it is still worthwhile exploring why it exists. If we try to use miscue analysis, while applying a socio-cognitive perspective rather than relying solely on a psycholinguistic perspective, it could yield valuable information.

The third example of inferring a wider applicability for miscue analysis is the assumption that miscue analysis affords us insight into miscue-free areas, as well as the miscue areas themselves. Goodman argues that miscues are used as a window to understand reading

processes but that they only reveal the reading processes where the miscue occurred. Leu Jr. (1982) points out that the reading processes where miscues occur might be different from those in the miscue-free area. Hwang (2001) reported that his participant, Dasomi (a ten-year-old ESL student), produced fewer than the expected number of miscues, but noted that she could not recall the story after reading it. Lee (2001), in his study with four Korean ESL students at junior high or high schools, demonstrated that fewer miscues do not guarantee full comprehension of texts. For example, Nari, one of his participants, produced 98% syntactic acceptability and 95% semantic acceptability at the beginning of the study, but was not able to recall the characters and the main events in the story. This suggests that readers may have difficulty in comprehending even where they do not produce miscues. However, it is not reasonable to expect that readers will be engaged in the same process whenever they are reading. Although the miscue area in the reading may have involved different processing from the miscue-free area, it is better to consider this possible difference as part of the nature of the reading process rather than as a criticism of miscue analysis.

Heavy focus on contextual cues

The third theoretical issue arises from the heavy emphasis that miscue theorists place on contextual cues. Goodman does not consider reading to be a series of word identifications; rather, he considers it to be a process of constructing meaning. Following his argument, a number of miscue studies suggest that proficient readers use fewer graphophonic cues and rely more on syntactic or semantic cues. These results have been challenged by cognitive psychological reading theorists, who claim that less proficient readers use more contextual cues. A detailed explanation was presented in section 3.4.4 (p.52). Potter (1980) provides a new interpretation, by suggesting categorizing the miscue according to whether it has a graphophonic similarity or syntactic acceptability. He points out that, sometimes, a miscue that seems to have syntactic acceptability is actually based on graphophonic similarity. He gives a nice example of this, using Burke's (1977) case study:

Child	Printed word	Error	Syntactic acceptability score
Jane	Wandered	Wendy	0
	Coming	Cold	0
Richard	Despairing	Disappearing	4
	Furiously	Fiercely	4

Figure 3-9 Burke's case study (Reproduced from Burke 1977)

In this example, Richard's miscues have syntactical acceptability, but Jane's do not. By simply focusing on syntactic acceptability, one can conclude that Richard uses syntactic cues,

while Jane does not. But Potter interprets this data differently from previous miscue researchers. He emphasises the difference between Jane and Richard in terms of graphic similarity between printed word and error. For Jane, the erroneous words have the same initial letter as the printed word but a different final letter, whereas the words Richard uses in error have the same initial and final letter as the printed word. Potter claims that words with the same final letter are often syntactically similar. For example, some words which end in – y are used as adjectives: for example, snowy, sleepy, and happy. Therefore, in this case, Potter argues that although Richard appears to rely on syntactic cues, he may actually be using graphophonic cues. Most miscue studies have been conducted with first or second language readers. In the case of young foreign readers, we do not know how much information miscues provide in terms of linguistic or cognitive cues.

Methodological issues

Identification of miscues

The first methodological issue concerns the reliability of miscue analysis. There are two separate points with regard to this issue. The first concerns the researcher's role in identifying miscues; the second regards the effect of different reading materials in miscue analysis. Researchers like Potter (1980, 1981), Leu Jr. (1982), Bloom (1997), and Hempenstall (1999) challenge the way in which miscue analysis identifies and categorizes miscues. Goodman defines a miscue as an unexpected oral response. This means that whoever listens to oral reading (whether they are researchers, teachers or parents), the listener's expectation is crucial to the identification of miscues. Goodman, Watson and Burke (1987) further maintain that the term 'miscue' is based on the teacher's or researcher's interpretation. They comment as follows:

> It is important to keep in mind that teachers/researchers who are involved in analyzing or evaluating miscues bring their own language, concepts, and knowledge about language and cognition to the interpretation of miscue analysis and that this interpretation influences the analysis and evaluation by the reader, anyone listening to the reader, or anyone evaluating or examining reading.
> (Goodman, Watson, and Burke 1987:60)

To some extent, categorizing a response as a miscue is a matter of individual interpretation. This is particularly so in the case of English: because English is an international language, its words are pronounced in many different ways. For example, in America, the sound /t/ is softened but in England, it retains a harder sound. If an American researcher collected miscue data from English participants, he/she may identify miscues differently, based on his/her expectations. However, this does not invalidate the data itself. We simply need a cautious identification process for miscues. The researcher has to remember that the role of miscue analysis is not to investigate the decoding process of oral reading. More discussion

of ways of identifying miscues will be provided in Chapter Five (p.110).

Potter (1980, 1981) points out the crucial impact of reading materials on miscue analysis. He asserts that different types of miscues can be produced when different reading materials are used. It is more appropriate, however, to regard this as a natural part of the reading process, rather than a criticism of miscue analysis.

However, these issues have mainly been addressed from a psycholinguistic perspective, which considers reading to be a unitary process. If we use the socio-cognitive perspective to interpret miscue data, it is more readily comprehensible that we observe different types of miscue and different reading processes, according to the nature of the reading materials. This is because reading is not one single process; it can involve different processes with different purposes, in different situations. The issues raised by Leu and Potter do not invalidate miscue analysis as a research tool for understanding reading processes.

Categorisation of miscues

The second methodological issue regards the categorization of miscues. Initially, Goodman proposed twenty-eight categories (1969) to classify miscues, but, later, he formulated a much simpler version, with Burke (1972), comprising nine categories. Later miscue researchers modified these categories to accommodate their own research contexts. Although different researchers offer different versions of these miscue categories, certain miscues such as substitutions consistently receive more attention from miscue researchers. Leu Jr. (1982) makes the point that different definitions and categorizations of miscues make it difficult to unify miscue studies. However, categories may, or perhaps should, differ when research captures unexpected data. Consequently, it may be more reasonable to accept a large number of different categories.

As I am aware of the theoretical and methodological issues related to miscue analysis, I consider it necessary to adapt the research tool to get more valid information from miscue analysis. Although I use and develop miscue analysis as a research tool in this study, I do not intend to interpret miscue data exclusively from a psycholinguistic perspective, since I do not believe this approach does justice to the multi-dimensional nature of reading. If a reader thinks pronunciation is important in oral reading, he or she will focus more on decoding than on comprehending the meaning of the text. In this case, reading without miscues does not necessarily mean that the text is easy for the reader or that the reader understands the part in which he or she does not produce any miscues.

In this section, I have discussed the issues raised by the use of miscue analysis. With these issues in mind, I have adapted miscue analysis for my research questions. A detailed explanation will be provided in Chapter Four (see 4.3.1, p.94). In the next section, I provide a review of several miscue studies conducted with young Asian learners.

3.5.5 Miscue studies in young learners

It might be fruitful to take an overview of miscue analysis in the ESL and EFL contexts. Thus far, there have been fewer miscue studies conducted in the EFL context than in the ESL context. Table 3-3 offers a summary of such miscue studies conducted with young learners in an ESL or EFL context. I selected studies that shared similarities with the design of my own research. In particular, I collected studies that were conducted with non-native learners in East Asia. The rationale for this is that Asian students are more likely to share similar socio-cultural experience with my participants.

Table 3-3 Miscue studies with non-native young learners

Study	Participants	Research aims	Results
Chang, J. Hung, D. L. Tzeng, O. (1992)	32 Chinese primary readers (disabled and non-disabled) in Taiwan	To examine the qualitative nature of basic processes in reading Chinese texts	All readers used various language cues in oral reading. However, there were orthography-specific effects, due to the unique Chinese writing system. Disabled readers were unable to use speech as a means of holding seemingly disjointed Chinese characters together.
Harji, M. B. (2002)	25 5-year-old ESL pre-schoolers	To describe and evaluate the early ESL literacy project of parents reading English storybooks to their children	Early reading skills in English had been increased and positive attitudes and behaviours among parents towards involvement with their own children's ESL literacy had been developed.
Kim, J. Y. (1996)	An 8-year-old ESL student	To identify reading difficulties	He does not use graphophonic cues effectively.
Hwang, S. (2001)	10-year-old Korean ESL student	To investigate how Dasomi develops her reading strategies and how she improved her reading comprehension skills over four years	The reliance on graphic similarity was reduced from 89% to 51%.
Lee, S (2001)	Four Korean ESL students at junior high or high schools	To examine the role of miscue analysis as an instructional tool	All the participants improved their comprehension skills after strategy lessons. Fewer miscues do not guarantee full comprehension.
Rha, K.-H. (2002)	A Korean third-grade ESL learner	To investigate the reading processes and literacy proficiency of the student	Miscue analysis provides evidence of reading processes and proficiency of the student.
Chang, K. (2004)	11-year-old Korean EFL student	To diagnose and remedy reading difficulties	After the remedial sessions, the child's performance revealed that she could read at an improved speed, with less hesitation, regression, and repetition.

Kim, J.-S. (2004)	17 sixth-grade Korean EFL students	To examine the relationship between reading aloud and comprehension	Reading aloud is a good indicator of comprehension ability.
Yim, S. Y. (2006)	8-year-old Korean ESL student	To investigate miscue analysis as a research tool and identify methodological issues	There is a need to modify miscue analysis when it is used for non-native learners.
Kim, J.-S. (2007)	77 sixth-grade Korean EFL students	To investigate the reading stages of Korean primary school students and analyse their miscues	They are at the 'partial-alphabetic' phase of reading development. Students make errors on high-frequency words with irregular letter-sound relationships.

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ORIGINAL

As seen in Table 3-3, the participants of each miscue study were various; Chang et al (1992) applied miscue analysis to Chinese primary readers learning their native language, whereas all the other studies were conducted with participants who were learning English. Harji (2002) had Malaysian students as participants, while the other studies listed in the table used Korean students. Five out of eight articles on Korean learners deal with ESL students. Only three studies (Chang, 2004; Kim J.S., 2004, 2007) analysed Korean EFL learners. Among these three articles, the participants of two studies (Kim J.S., 2004, 2007) were 6th grade primary school students, whereas Chang (2004) studied 11-year old students. I suggest that the reason for this emphasis on 6th grade students may be that they are in the final year of primary school, which means that they are exposed more often to written English, although the amount of written input may vary according to the individual student's private English lessons.

The studies mentioned above are varied in the focus of their research. Chang's study was intended to examine reading processes in Chinese, while Harji (2002)'s study focused on an early literacy project involving parents. Some studies dealt with reading difficulties (Kim, 1996; Chang, 2004), whereas others were focused on 'miscue analysis' as a research or pedagogical tool (Lee, 2001; Yim, 2006). With four Korean students at a junior high and a high school, Lee (2001) demonstrated the role of RMA as an instructional tool. In his study, he gave the participants strategy lessons on the miscues and showed that all of them improved their comprehension skills. In his study, he showed that correct oral reading does not guarantee full comprehension of texts. For example, Nari, one of his participants, produced 98% syntactic acceptability and 95% semantic acceptability at the beginning of the study, but was not able to recall the characters and the main events in the story.

Other studies were concerned with developmental stages in reading (Hwang, 2001; Kim, 2007). Hwang conducted a longitudinal study with miscue analysis to investigate the development of reading strategies and the improvement in the reading comprehension of one student over four years. In her first reading, Dasomi produced fewer than the number of miscues stipulated by researchers as the minimum for analysis, but Hwang reported that Dasomi could not recall the story after reading it. Over time, Dasomi reduced the number of miscues. Kim J. S. (2007) analysed the oral reading errors of primary school students to identify students' stages of EFL reading development and the most frequently occurring reading errors. She reported that her participants were consistently unable to sound out unfamiliar words or words with irregular sound-letter patterns. Based on these findings, she explains that her participants belong to the 'partial-alphabetic phase'. Most of these studies produced similar results to the studies with first language learners: students produced more

substitutions, while graphic related miscues diminished as their ability to read in English improved. With the exception of my article (Yim, 2006), the above miscue studies do not question the role of miscues in understanding reading processes. The miscue researchers above view miscues as by-products of comprehension while reading. However, recognizing the important theoretical and methodological issues of miscue analysis (see section 3.5.4, p.65), this study questions the role of miscue itself instead of what has typically has done by miscue researchers. The detailed research questions will be presented in the next section.

3.6 Research questions

Earlier I discussed the social and cultural context of English primary education in Korea and then reviewed the relevant literature on the reading processes of young learners, with a view to providing a justification for my study. In this section, I present two overarching research questions: theoretical and methodological. The theoretical question was directed towards exploring reading processes in English of some primary school students in Korea, while the methodological question was concerned with investigating the role of miscue analysis in helping us to understand reading processes. The first of these questions is broken down into four sub-questions. The main question is:

R1: How do Korean sixth grade primary school students approach reading in English? 'Approach reading' means reading processes which are cognitive as well as social. The purpose of this question is to investigate the reading processes of young foreign readers. Here, I do not necessarily define reading as constructing meaning. As I mentioned earlier, I will use a fairly open definition of reading, which includes a variety of types of interaction between text and readers. For some readers, it could be only decoding, or comprehension, or both.

At this juncture, I would like to point out three things. First, I will investigate reading as a process, rather than a product. According to Alderson and Urquhart (1984), a product view focuses only on what the reader has 'got out of' the text, while a process view is concerned with how the reader approaches the text and interprets it. Secondly, this study focuses on reading processes, rather than the processes of learning to read. In this context, 'reading processes' refers to reading in the moment. Learning to read refers to reading from a long term perspective, including the developmental stage. My aim here is to examine the processes that primary school students experience when they engage in reading in English. Thirdly, I will think of 'processes', rather than 'process', as I am aware that there could be various processes, depending on the contexts. By saying 'processes', I will avoid the

assumption that everyone will use the same process in their reading. To answer the main theoretical research question, several sub-questions follow:

- RQ1-1: How do Korean sixth grade primary school students perceive reading in English?
- RQ1-2: What types of miscue can be identified in Korean EFL learners in the two oral readings?
- RQ1-3: What is the relationship between decoding and comprehension in the reading of young foreign learners?
- RQ1-4: What characteristics can be identified in Korean EFL learners' reading?

RQ1-1 is important in assisting us to answer the main theoretical research question, since the way readers approach reading is influenced by their perceptions, which, in their turn, influence, and are influenced by, reading purposes and reading practices. Goodman (1994:1116) states that 'to understand how reading works, it is necessary to understand why people read'. Although Goodman emphasises the importance of reading purposes, in an EFL context, where people read purely for the purpose of learning, the concept of reading purposes is less useful. This is the primary reason I emphasised reading perceptions in my research question. However, I believe that reading perceptions simultaneously inform, and are informed by, reading practices and purposes. Again, these are influenced by the larger context, including the role of reading and the role of the target language. I would classify reading purposes, reading practices, and perceptions of reading as part of the immediate context and the role of reading and the role of the target language as part of the socio-cultural context. To understand reading perceptions, it will be necessary to understand both the immediate context and the socio-cultural context.

RQ1-2 aims to investigate the cues that learners use in reading. By investigating the types of miscues produced by my participants, I hope to be able to understand their use of information in reading. RQ1-3 aims to investigate the relationship between decoding and comprehension. RQ1-4 aims to examine the reading strategies which are used by young foreign readers. By answering these four research sub-questions, I hope to go some way to answering the main theoretical question: how do Korean sixth grade primary school students approach reading in English? This central theoretical research question is represented in Figure 3-10:

Socio-Cultural Context

Immediate Context

Text

Reader

Perceptions

Cognitive
ability

Role of
reading

Linguistic
ability

Reading
Purposes

Reading
Practices

Role of
English in society
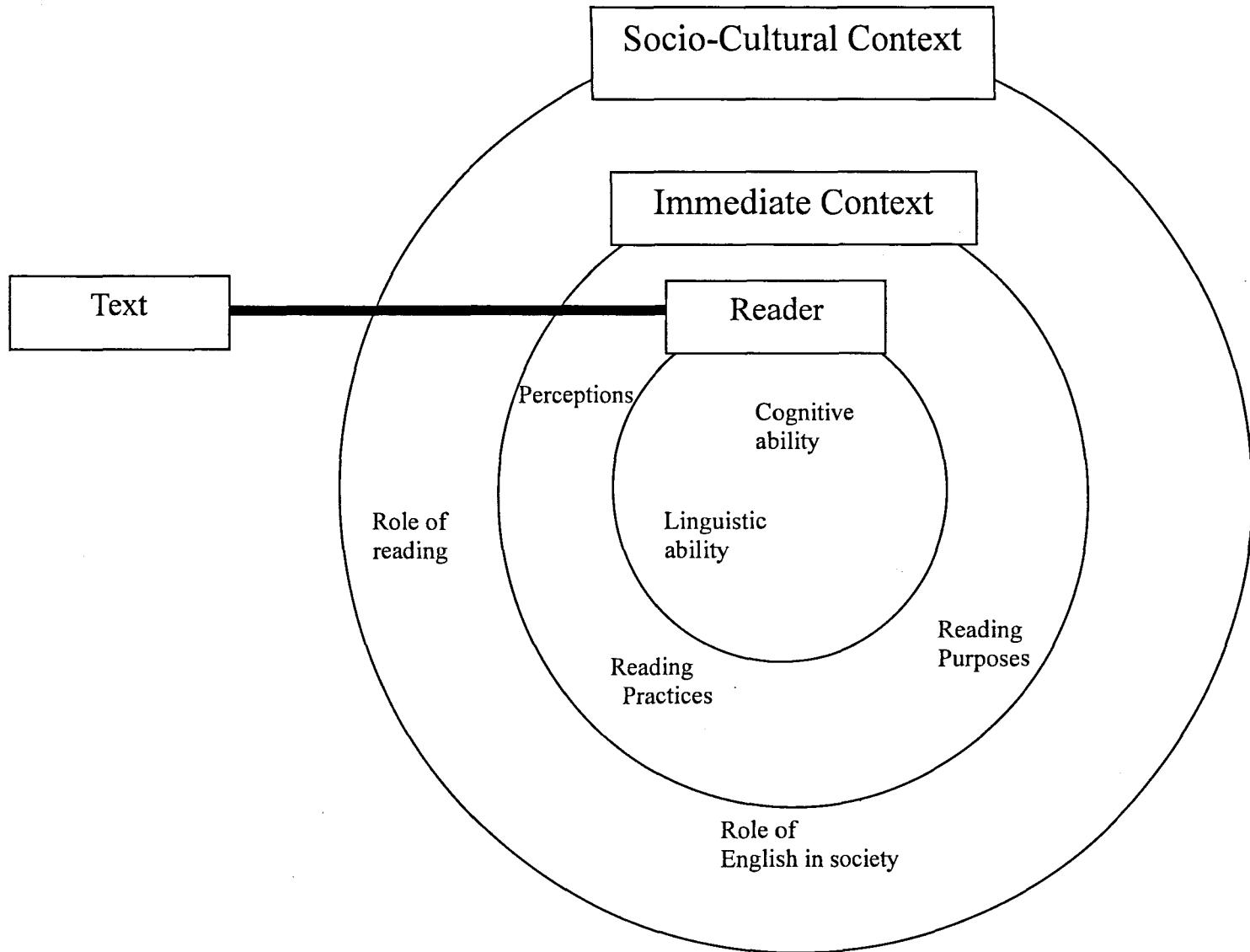
Figure 3-10 Representation of theoretical research question

The bold line between 'text' and 'reader' refers to a variety of interactions between the two, which are the main focus of my theoretical research question. 'Reader' is located in the immediate context which, in turn, is part of the social context. Although the word 'text' is located outside the context circles, I do not mean to imply that text is free of context. Indeed, I seek to emphasise the reader's context as part of my study; I simply mean that, because it was a researcher (me) who gave the text to the participants, the context of the text is self-evident, being that of my research. To enlarge our understanding of reading processes, we need to better understand the factors illustrated in Figure 3-10.

The methodological question is:

RQ2: How can miscue analysis usefully be applied to young foreign readers?

Here I question the role of miscue analysis as a research tool in understanding foreign language learners' reading processes. Miscue analysis has been used for forty years, since Goodman (1967) first introduced the term. Most miscue studies were conducted in a first or second language context. The information miscue analysis provides in these contexts is necessarily different from what it would offer in a foreign language context. Considering that miscue analysis can function as a useful research tool, especially since oral reading is among the most frequent reading practices, it would be fruitful to identify the differences in the information that miscue analysis can reveal in first and foreign language contexts. To my knowledge, this kind of research has not been conducted by miscue researchers, so it would be a useful area to investigate.

3.7 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have reviewed key theoretical and methodological issues with regard to young readers in a foreign language, and then presented the research questions which were borne from this review. In my theoretical review, I discussed the two main theoretical accounts of reading: cognitive and socio-cultural. I highlighted the ontological difference between these two views and argued for the adoption of the socio-cognitive view, which combines these two views, to better understand the reading processes of foreign language learners. This argument is supported by the theoretical gaps identified from the examination of empirical studies from each perspective. In my methodological review, the popularity of oral reading as a teaching practice for foreign language learners was supported by several empirical studies. These justify the present research method: miscue analysis. I provided an historical overview of miscue analysis, which laid out the theoretical assumptions behind

miscue analysis and then I considered the methodological issues pertaining to this research method. I included a detailed explanation of how I dealt with these issues for my study in Chapters Four and Five.

The key implication of this theoretical review is that a relatively small number of studies have addressed the way foreign language young learners read in English; the researchers have sometimes made an analogy with the reading processes of first or second language learners, but this has failed to provide a fuller understanding of the reading processes of young foreign readers, who have different linguistic and socio-cultural backgrounds from first or second language learners. These issues helped me formulate my research questions.

Chapter 4

Methodology I: Design and data collection

This chapter presents a description of the design of the study and data collection, which, as I noted in the research questions, seeks to examine reading processes in English amongst some Korean primary school students. In section 4.1, I explain the dimensions of the study. After that, the development of the design of the main study is explained with the use of two pilot studies. Next, I describe the research design of the main study, which will include a discussion of blended methods (triangulation), the rationale for their use, and my adaptations of miscue analysis. After that, I will explain the procedures I followed for data collection.

4.1 Dimensions of the study

It is important to identify the dimensions of the study before embarking on designing research and collecting data. Neuman (2003:21) suggests four dimensions of research: use of research, purpose, time, and data collection technique. To explain the dimensions of this study, I adopt Neuman's categories here, but add one more dimension: paradigm. Table 4-1 illustrates these five dimensions.

Table 4-1 Dimensions

DIMENSIONS OF RESEARCH	TYPES OF RESEARCH
How research is used	Basic
Paradigm	Naturalistic
Purpose of the study	Exploratory, descriptive
The way time enters in	Cross-sectional, case study
Technique for collecting data	
For Quantitative Data	Questionnaire, miscue analysis
For Qualitative Data	Interview

In terms of how research is used, this study is basic, since it aims to understand the reading process, rather than to discover the solution to specific reading problems or issues. With regard to the 'paradigm' dimension, this study adopts a naturalistic approach. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the positivist view assumes reality to be singular and fragmentable, whereas the naturalistic approach considers reality to be multiple and inter-related. The table below demonstrates the characteristics of positivist and naturalist paradigms:

Table 4-2 Contrasting positivist and naturalist axioms

Axioms About	Positivist Paradigm	Naturalist Paradigm
The nature of reality	Reality is single, tangible, and fragmentable.	Realities are multiple, constructed, and holistic.
The relationship of knower to the known	Knower and known are independent, a dualism.	Knower and known are interactive, inseparable.
The possibility of generalization	Time- and context-free generalizations (nomothetic statements) are possible.	Only time- and context-bound working hypotheses (idiographic statements) are possible.
The possibility of causal linkages	There are real causes, temporally precedent to or simultaneous with their effects.	All entities are in a state of mutual simultaneous shaping, so that it is impossible to distinguish causes from effects
The role of values	Inquiry is value-free.	Inquiry is value-bound.

(Reproduced from Lincoln & Guba, 1985:37)

This study adopts the naturalistic paradigm in four ways. First, in theoretical terms, I used a socio-cognitive framework in my research. My theoretical position influenced my methodology. In light of socio-cognitive theory, I do not consider reading to be a single, unified process. Rather, I view it as a number of connected, situated processes. From this theoretical viewpoint, it seemed more appropriate to adopt a naturalistic paradigm, rather than a positivist one. Second, I treat reading as a complex process, involving various levels of knowledge and skills, which is, therefore, not fragmentable. Each level of knowledge and skills affects reading. If it were fragmentable, the process would not lead to effective reading. Every level of knowledge and skill should be integrated to help produce effective reading. Third, as a researcher, I am not independent of the data, since my interpretation of it contributes to the way it is presented. For example, researchers' expectations influence the identification of miscues (see section 5.2.1, p.110). Fourth, I start with a working hypothesis on reading, rather than a fixed definition of it; my working hypothesis is that reading is a variety of interactions between text and readers. Then, I develop this idea, as the study goes on. That is why I pursued an exploratory study. This type of study is required when little research has been done in a particular area. Reading in a foreign language is well researched, in general, but when it comes to young foreign learners, few studies have been conducted. This study starts with a rough plan, which is then developed by one preliminary study and two pilot studies. This study is also a descriptive study, in the sense that I provide a detailed

description of the socio-cultural context in Korea, regarding reading in English.

In terms of time, the present study is a cross-sectional study, rather than a longitudinal study, since my focus is on a snapshot of the reading process at the moment of analysis, rather than on a long term process of learning to read. Also, it is designed as a case study. I singled out one student from the participants in order to gain a more in-depth understanding of reading processes. Regarding my data collection technique, I used qualitative as well as quantitative research. Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) pointed out the misunderstandings that are possible, when using the terms 'qualitative' and 'quantitative'. They explained that these are caused because the two terms are used for different levels of discourse; one refers to approach and the other to method. Here, I would like to use the terms 'qualitative' or 'quantitative' to refer to methods of collecting data, rather than types of approach. This study derives its numerical data from the use of a questionnaire and miscue analysis and qualitative data from interview.

4.2 Developments in designing the main study

The advantage of an exploratory study is to allow researchers to gain a deeper understanding of what is studied, but the disadvantage of this type of study is that it is difficult to make a detailed plan at the starting point of the study. By using an exploratory study, I hope to include unexpected valuable findings from my research and also to deepen my understanding of young foreign readers. To make the most of the advantages and diminish the disadvantages of an exploratory study, I created a research design in which one preliminary and two pilot studies were conducted in order to improve the research design gradually, before I conducted the main study. There are several researchers who emphasise the importance of a pilot study (e.g., Nunan, 1992; Yin, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007). Dörnyei (2007:75) states that 'by patiently going through the piloting procedures we can avoid a great deal of frustration and possible extra work later on.'

The preliminary study was conducted to gain an augmented understanding of the research context and to decide on contextually appropriate methods. Based on the data from the preliminary study and a literature review of the relevant area, I was able to narrow down the research topic and identified the most practicable method. The two pilot studies were conducted more specifically to refine the tools that will be used for the main data collection. The preliminary study has already been discussed in Chapter Two, with accompanying explanation of the social and cultural context of English primary school education in Korea. So, in this section, I will discuss two pilot studies. Table 4-3 summarises the contribution of these three studies to the main study:

Table 4-3 Development in designing the main study

	Preliminary study	First pilot study	Second pilot study
Goals	To better understand the research context To find contextually practicable methods	To train myself to become a more analytic listener to children's reading To see if it is possible to gain insights about the reading processes through miscue analysis To become familiar with using miscue analysis To check the practical considerations in conducting miscue analysis	
			To choose reading materials To check how to record reading
Participants	112 six grade students of Korean primary school	Year 2 in a Leeds primary school	5 sixth grade students of Korean primary school
Findings	62% considered reading the national English textbook as either 'easy' or 'very easy'. 96% had private English. Chang reads English aloud in his mind.	Refuse to summarize One participant refuses to read aloud storybook, although his mother consents to the study	Students refuse to summarize Graded books do not reliably reflect student's reading ability. Video recording did not prove to be effective.
Implications	Need to do research on reading Choose miscue analysis as a research tool	Need to adapt miscue analysis Reconsideration of the way to approach participants Emergence of important research questions: the relationship between decoding and comprehension and awareness of uncertainty	One reading material used Audio-recording used

4.2.1 Pilot studies for miscue analysis

The purpose of the two pilot studies was to investigate the effectiveness of the research tools. The aims are as follows:

- To see if it is possible to gain insights about the reading processes through miscue analysis;
- To check practical considerations in conducting miscue analysis.

First pilot study

One participant of the first pilot study was a Korean primary school student, Yuri (pseudonym), living in Leeds. At the time of the study, she was seven years old and in Year Two in primary school. She had been living in Leeds for four months. First, I contacted Yuri's parents to see if they agreed to my plan. After gaining their agreement, I showed them the consent letter, which contained a detailed explanation of the study and asked them to sign it, thus giving their consent for Yuri to take part.

At first, I planned to use two participants, Hojin and Yuri; later, however, I decided to use only Yuri. The reason I excluded Hojin was that he would not have participated voluntarily. On my first visit to him, I asked him to read English books aloud but he refused. Only after his mother had coaxed him several times and promised to buy him ice cream did he, grudgingly, read aloud for me. After reading aloud, he also refused to retell the story. It seemed that I would need a long time to establish a rapport with him, so I gave up on him as a participant and focused on Yuri. Hojin was reluctant, not because he was a weak reader for his age, indeed, he could read better than Yuri. His reluctance seemed to be linked to his personality. He was not generally friendly to strangers and was not happy having to read aloud in front of a stranger.

With Yuri, I explained the procedure in detail. I told her that she would be asked to read aloud on her own without any support from me during the reading. I encouraged her to imagine a situation in which she was alone in the room without any support available. I also explained the recording and retelling procedures. She agreed to be recorded, but strongly refused to retell the stories she would be reading. So I had to change the original plan and decided to ask her a number of comprehension questions to check if she had understood the story.

Yuri's readings were audio-taped in such a way that she was not distracted by it. I wanted to mark the miscues on the spot but this seemed to affect her reading. Every time I marked something on the paper, Yuri stopped reading and looked at what I had written, so I stopped checking on the spot and just made a mental note. The reading aloud process went as follows: Yuri took about ten minutes to choose the books she wanted to read. She took ten minutes to read each book aloud. When she needed it, she was given a ten minute break. She then continued reading. After she completed her reading aloud, we spent ten minutes talking about her reading. Thus, the whole process, from beginning to end, took approximately forty minutes.

There were three main issues in the first pilot study. First, Hojin was unwilling to participate in the research, although his English is better than Yuri's. If I coerced him into participating in my study, it would not be ethical. Second, Yuri refused to summarize what she read. It does not surprise me, since children are often reluctant to take part in a task that is not reciprocal. Third, Yuri enunciated some words correctly, but appeared not to know their meaning. This type of confusion often occurs with words that sound similar. For instance, she had problems with the sentence below:

The wolf took a short cut, and was soon at Grandmother's cottage.

Although Yuri had no problem in 'naming out' words in this sentence, she actually confused the word *short* with *shirt*. Thus, she interprets the sentence as: *the wolf took a shirt and went to Grandmother's cottage.* What is interesting here is that she thinks that she knows all the words in the sentence. Her belief stems partly from the fact that she can name out the words correctly and partly from the fact that she can construct a meaning, although it is not the correct one. She knows the words *shirt* as well as *short* in oral English; however, she does not know the spelling of those words and the compound word *short cut*. She may have decided to choose the meaning of *shirt* for *short,* since this would make it easier for her to make sense of the sentence. This example shows that students sometimes make successful attempts to decode words even when they are confused with the meaning of them. Although the first pilot study shed light on three potential issues I could encounter in conducting a miscue analysis, there were some issues which could not be addressed, since the context in the first pilot study was different from the research context of my main study.

Second pilot study

I made minor alterations to my method, taking into account the issues that had arisen during the first pilot study. I removed the first problem regarding the consent of the participant, by gaining the participant's consent before approaching their parents. Although I reversed the order in my method of gaining consent from 'parents-child' to 'child-parents', I acquired the consent of headmasters and home-teachers before I approached the children. I included the third issue in the research questions in the main study: this is the relationship between decoding and comprehension and the awareness of uncertainty. But, I left the second issue, the consent of participants, unchanged, since I wished to examine them further in the second pilot study. Also, the second pilot study was conducted to check some other practical considerations, such as suitable reading materials for the main study and the way of recording reading. Five students were involved in the second pilot study. They were chosen from students who had not participated in the main study, to avoid contamination of the data. Dörnyei (2007) states that practice may invalidate research.

It is of paramount importance to choose the appropriate level of reading materials for the miscue participants, since if the reading material is too demanding for the students, they may feel frustrated while reading it and give up constructing meaning in the middle of reading and merely focus on naming out words. Alternately, if the reading material is too easy, there may not be enough miscues to be analyzed. Poorly selected reading materials would not produce the data that the researcher is hoping for.

To choose reading materials for the main study, I started with graded books, which were recommended to me as very popular books at a book shop in Korea, which specializes in texts for young foreign language learners: the 'I can read books' series, published by Harper Trophy. However, these graded books generated two problems. First, they did not reflect students' reading abilities, partly because they were designed with first language readers in mind, and were graded according to the requirements of first language readers, rather than foreign language learners. There are several issues regarding the use of graded books for young foreign readers; one of them is frequency of words. It is assumed that if a book is written using frequently-used words, then that book is more suitable for beginner readers. Of course, children's books, in particular, use a great deal of informal language to create intimacy, so they include a large amount of language that is associated with speech, such as idioms. However, the concept of frequency is not clear-cut, especially when it applies to foreign language readers; for example, onomatopoeic words such as 'smash', 'whoosh' and 'bang', are frequently occurring words in the experience of young native readers, but not for young foreign language readers. For example, none of the participants in the second pilot

study knew the words 'rat-a-tat' and 'pit-a-pat', which are familiar expressions for first language users, and thought that the books which contained the onomatopoeic words were difficult.

Young foreign readers are more likely to be exposed to classroom English, rather than that which is used in daily life, so in this sense the frequency level differs between first-language and foreign language readers. Here is another example: five students in the second pilot study could not understand the word 'chilly', in the sentence 'Eliza felt chilly. She opened her bag to get her sweater.' The term 'chilly' is an informal word, which is frequently used to describe cold weather in English-speaking countries, but is not usually used in classroom English with foreign language users. They probably do not understand the difference between 'cold' and 'chilly'. This demonstrates that we need to define the word 'frequency' in relation to socio-cultural context. Frequently written words are not necessarily the same as frequently spoken words.

With graded books, students could often read some of the level two books more easily than some of the level one book. As a result it was very challenging for me and the students to choose the most appropriate book for them. Within each level, there were, in practice, various levels. I tried using other series of books, including Ladybird's *Read It Yourself* series. But, these were also unsuitable, since, because they were aimed at first language learners, they did not reliably demonstrate my students' varying levels of reading ability.

Second, the students did not appear comfortable with choosing their own reading texts. They were not experienced in choosing books that they would be able to comprehend. Firstly, I put the graded series of books in front of the participants and let them choose. Some participants chose a book because of its layout or illustrations, while other participants chose on the basis of the vocabulary level. When I asked Jimi, one of the second pilot study participants, to choose a book she would like to read, she looked through the books I brought and said that level two looked too easy for her- she wanted to try to read level three. However, she could not finish the reading, since it proved to be too difficult for her. After that she tried to read a book from level two, but it was still difficult for her; so I had to suggest books that would be appropriate to her level. This episode shows that some students found it difficult to cope with the opportunity to choose books for themselves. Young foreign readers usually read books provided by teachers or parents. In this situation, they might believe that their reading ability is reflected in the books they read. However, this is not always true: sometimes, as in Jimi's case, students are given books far beyond their level of ability (see section 6.2.4, p.131). In Korea especially, where competition among students is

very high, they may have been trained to choose higher level books. Consequently, I disregarded my initial intention to use several books, differentiated according to students' reading ability, and decided to use the same book from Ladybird's *Read It Yourself* series in order to compare the way participants approach the same reading material. This seemed to be more productive of readily comparable results.

When it came to recording the data, at first, I tried to use video recording to catch their eye movement and any gestures made during reading, since I hope to gain data on eye fixation and compare it with miscue data, to investigate the possibility of a relationship between the production of miscues and time spent focusing on words. However, after the first few trials with the students, I decided to use audio recording, rather than video, for several reasons. Firstly, it was not easy to catch the students' eye movements. To catch the eye movements, I needed to angle the video recorder and it made students aware of being recorded. Video recording seems to add to the unnaturalness of the setting, which made participants uncomfortable throughout whilst producing few advantages. Secondly, students do not make that many gestures during reading and I was able to record the gestures students made in my notes without the help of video equipment.

4.2.2 Developments for questionnaires and interviews

There is a possibility that the participants could interpret the same question on the questionnaire differently. Scott (2007:102) maintains that 'to discover discrepancies between the children's understanding and the researcher's intent, pre-testing the survey instrumental is crucial.' The participants' possible misunderstanding of the questions may lead to questions being raised about the validity of the research. I did several things to reduce any possible misunderstandings between me and the participants. First, I showed several teachers the draft of my questionnaire and asked whether there were any questions which could lead to misunderstandings on the students' part. Also, I approached several sixth grade students who were not questionnaire participants and asked them the same questions. With the feedback obtained from them, I was able to make the questionnaire much clearer.

In order to carry out such an interview successfully, I needed to train to be a good interviewer, since my skills as an interviewer may affect the response of the interviewees. For this, I have done pre-trial interviews with Ph.D. students in Leeds and primary school teachers in Korea. All the pre-trial interviews were recorded. After conducting these, I analysed my interview technique. By means of these pre-trial interviews, I was able to begin my training to become an effective interviewer.

4.3 Design of the main study

The main study was designed to obtain two types of data: contextualized information and information about reading performance. In order to address these two types of data, I employed various methods of data collection and analysis, including miscue analysis, interviews, and a questionnaire. Several researchers have mentioned the advantages of mixed methods (e.g., Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, 2003). Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), for example, view mixed methods as a pragmatic way to conduct research.

The questionnaire was designed to highlight general information about the educational contexts of the miscue participants and to investigate the general Korean contexts in which English is read. The aim of the interview was to gain background information on the miscue participants, with regard to reading of English, as well as to approach the participants for miscue analysis. The purpose of miscue analysis was to obtain information on the reading process that students were engaged in. The data from the miscue analysis was also used to interview students. The post-reading interview was to gain in-depth data concerning the students' perceptions of reading, the demands they face when reading, and the support that they feel they need. The interview with non-students was intended to identify the views on reading held by people in the students' immediate social environment.

Although I had a clear reason for using each tool, this does not mean that each method was conceived of as a discrete means of data gathering. Rather, each method fed back into the others. For example, the data from the first interview helped me to adapt the miscue analysis (see 4.3.1). Also, I used the miscue analysis data to do post-reading interviews with students. So, each research tool was closely connected to the others. This type of cross-referencing allowed me to modify the research methods during the data collection, permitting a great flexibility. The overall design of the project, concerning which research tools I would use, and in what order, was fixed, but I allowed an element of flexibility, in order to adapt the design, when it came to considerations that are more context-specific, such as reading materials. Rubin and Rubin (2005:35) acknowledge the benefits of flexible design, arguing that 'research design and questioning must remain flexible to accommodate new information, to adapt to the actual experiences that people have had, and to adjust to unexpected situations.' Figure 4-1 shows the design of the main study for the student participants:
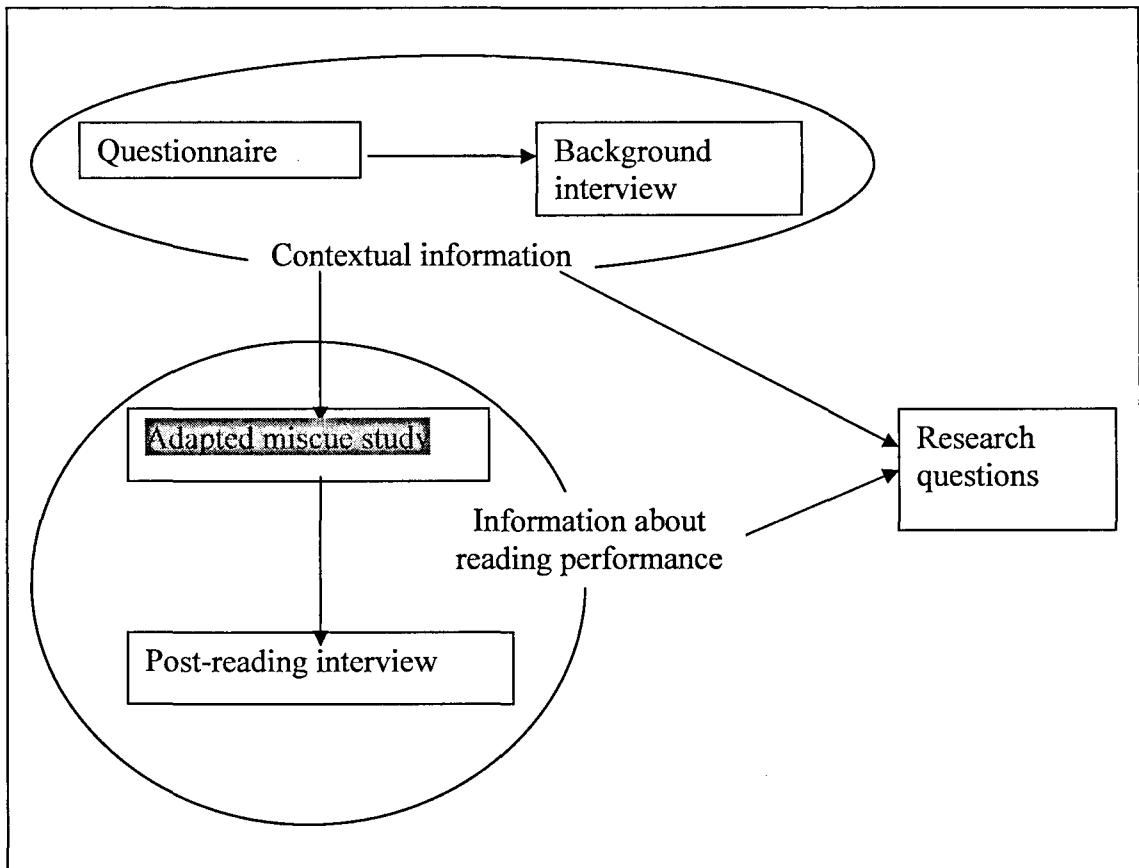
Figure 4-1 Design of the main study for the student participants

4.3.1 Adapting miscue analysis

The first major way in which the miscue analysis was adapted was by the addition of a translation task after reading. I decided to use the translation task after the two pilot studies. Simply by listening to the oral reading of the students, I could not glean rich data, since they guessed the pronunciation of unknown words and simply engaged in naming out. There were several reasons for adopting a translation task for my research. First, translation is one of the assignments that private teachers frequently give students. Here are some comments from the first interviews:

> ... if one student reads one sentence, the next person translates it into Korean. And the next person reads the next sentence and his neighbor translates it into Korean. So most of the students have the chance at least to read English or translate it...
>
> (Jamin)
>
> ...The private teacher sometimes sets us an assignment to write the translated version of an English story...
>
> (Wongu)

...When my teacher points to the words in an English sentence, I have to say the equivalent Korean word....We don't talk about the story after reading it...When I read English books, I just give the Korean equivalent of each word in the English sentences...

(Kilsu)

As this is a frequent reading practice for Korean primary school students, it would be meaningful to investigate how they approach the translation task. Also, Tami, a participant in the preliminary study, said that relocation makes English reading difficult. It shows that students are actually engaged in translation when they read English.

Second, translation will reveal inaudible confusion during reading. For foreign learners, reading aloud and retelling might represent different stages of comprehension. Even if foreign learners do not make many miscues in reading aloud, they could make mistakes in constructing meaning, so I asked them instead to translate English sentences into Korean. My participants seemed to feel more comfortable with this translation task than with a retelling after reading aloud.

The second adaptation to the miscue analysis was made in the retelling stage. From the two pilot studies, I found that students were sometimes unwilling to retell the story. Although I supported their retelling with several questions, some of my participants seemed to have difficulties retelling what they had read. Even when they managed to retell the story, it did not produce the results I expected. Initially, in line with the claims of other miscue researchers, I expected to find a correlation between verbal miscues and comprehension, but, in fact, my results did not bear this out. Sometimes very different stories were produced and it was difficult to find the source of the misunderstanding.

The third adaptation was in the number of times they read the texts. From the first interview, I found that students usually read the same story several times in their normal reading practice. If they were to do this type of repeated reading, it is likely that they would not make so much effort to construct meaning in their first reading. The data from the first interview showed that the children actually try to construct the meaning of a story after reading the story more than once, so I decided to give students two opportunities to read the storybooks.

4.3.2 The reading material

The study was undertaken with only one story, which is *Hansel and Gretel* published by Ladybird as a simplified version. I chose *Hansel and Gretel* for the fairy tale because of its suitability for miscue analysis for children of this age (the whole book is presented in Appendix IV). The story is complete with a clear beginning, middle and end. With 427 words, it has sufficient length and difficulty to produce miscues. Usually, it is recommended that a text for miscue analysis is of 500 words in length (Campbell, 1993). I contacted the publishers, Ladybird, informing them of my research, and requesting permission to reproduce the text and pictures in this thesis. Despite my efforts, I have not received a reply to date.

The story structure employs classic fairy tale motifs: The main characters are Hansel and Gretel, who are brother and sister. The stepmother creates a problem by planning to abandon the stepchildren. Hansel and Gretel are abandoned in the forest twice by their parents. The first time they come back home by themselves, but the second time they encounter a witch who lures them into her house to try to eat them. They manage to defeat her and discover a great treasure; upon returning home with the money they find that their stepmother has gone and the family is now rich and reunited. The story is organised in chronological order. Narrative and dialogue are intertwined in the story and for the narrative, an omniscient voice is used as normal in children's stories. All the participants said that they knew the story 'Hansel and Gretel', although the extent of the knowledge that was claimed differed from participant to participant.

The story of *Hansel and Gretel* is familiar to young learners in many countries. Their knowledge of the story is likely to help them construct the meaning of unknown words. The story's plot is quite typical of fairy tales in general and therefore predictable. Hansel and Gretel begin by facing difficulties and gradually progress to the resolution of those difficulties.

4.3.3 The questionnaires and interviews

There are various types of questions that the researcher can consider: dichotomous, multiple choice, rank orderings, rating scales, closed, and open questions. Each type of question has its own advantages and disadvantages. The questionnaire in the present study consists mainly of multiple-choices with some dichotomous and open questions which can best fit the aim of the questionnaire; the questionnaire was to get a general picture of English reading in the context of Korean primary school students.

To make the interview flexible, I designed a semi-structured interview format. I planned to interview state school teachers after they had listened to one of the students reading English books aloud. This was likely to be a time-consuming process, so, given the generally busy schedules of teachers, I involved as small a number as possible.

4.4 Data collection

4.4.1 The participants

With regard to sampling strategy, I used a mixture of 'quota sampling' and 'convenience sampling' (Dörnyei, 2007:98). I used these two strategies because for my research I needed participants who could read at least some English sentences; consequently, I used a smaller group for the sampling. Once this group was set up, I chose the participants based on their willingness to participate. The participants consisted of two groups: primary school students and non-students. The student group was again broken down several times. First, 78 primary school students from two classrooms of different schools were asked to complete the questionnaire and then 12 students were chosen from among the questionnaire participants for the miscue analysis and interview. After that, one student from the miscue analysis and interview was selected for the case study. The non-student group was set up to supplement the case study and was composed of one private tutor, the mother of the case study participant, three state school teachers and one member of staff at a children's bookshop. Figure 4-2 shows the participant groups visually:
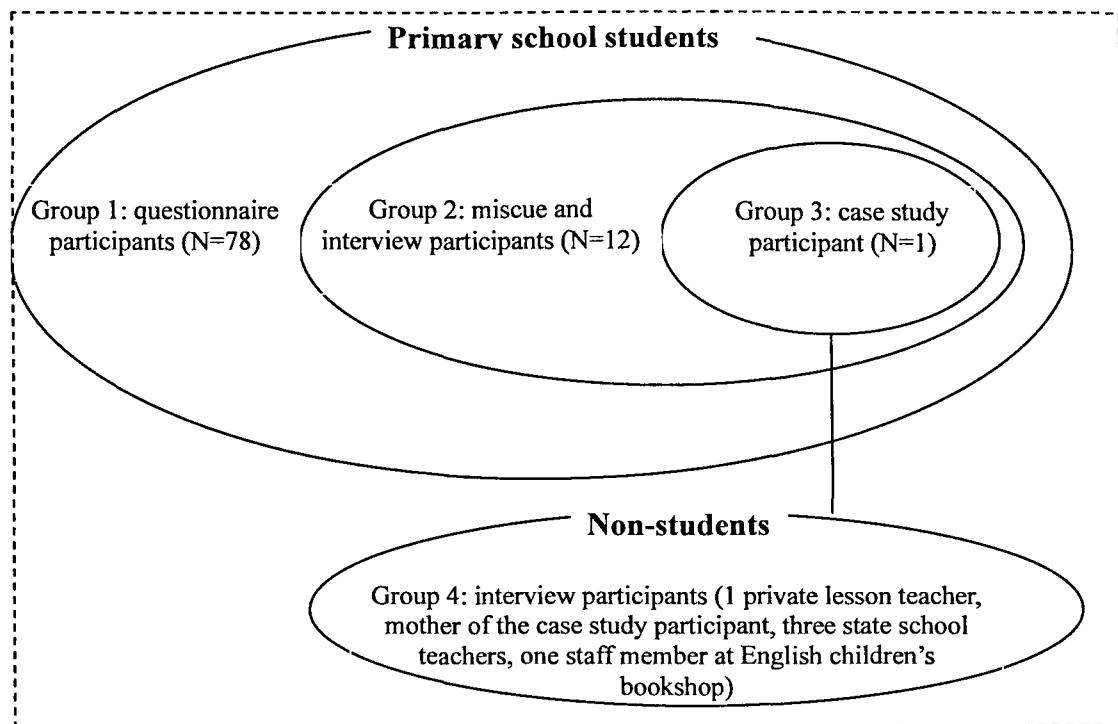
Figure 4-2 Participants of the study

I chose sixth-grade students because this is the stage at which Korean primary school students start to read English sentences in state primary schools, although they might have started reading more challenging materials in private lessons. I chose an equal number of boys and girls for my participants to control for gender bias. Sixth grade primary school students in Korea are equivalent to year seven students in England; so, children of the same age are primary school students in Korea and secondary school students in England.

The participants had been learning English for three and a half years in the state school system. However, their reading level varied according to their history of private lessons. They were selected from students who can read English at above sentence level, and all the children come from backgrounds where they have had private lessons. The differences between the students' experience of private lesson were not possible to control, although it is recognized that these differences can play a role in their reading processes.

As reported earlier, in the first pilot study I began by approaching the parents of the participants. After obtaining their consent, I approached the students. Because I proceeded in this way, I had to give up one of my participants, since he was not happy to be a participant, although his mother agreed to it. So, I reversed the sequence in my main study. First, I made preparatory visits to the school and met the participants to develop a rapport with the students. After that, I interviewed the potential participants for background information. Only after the students agreed to participate in the study did I ask their parents for their consent.

Group1: Questionnaire participants

The survey questionnaire collects a sample of the target population, to represent the whole of it. Choosing the sample to represent the target population is a source of difficulty. If the sample is large enough, there is a greater possibility of the sample resembling the target population. However, if the sample is not large enough, it should be chosen carefully, to attempt to represent the target population. This difficulty is closely related to the validity issue already raised about the questionnaire.

78 students from the two classrooms, from two different schools, were chosen for the questionnaire. The two schools were from different districts of Seoul. The reason for this is that the socio-economic levels of the parents might be expected to differ according to the district they inhabit. The nature of private lessons taken is largely influenced by the parents' socio-economic status. By differentiating the districts, I hoped to be able to include some

investigation of the differences between the private lesson contexts of the two schools approached.

Group 2: Miscue and Interview participants

I required the cooperation of the participants to enable the research to be valid. If the participants were unwilling to cooperate with the research, it would be difficult to gain valuable data from them as well as unethical. I did not aim to secure a certain number of participants, but focused on how to get the participants to cooperate voluntarily with the research.

Twelve students were chosen from among the questionnaire participants for miscue analysis and interview. The procedure for reducing the number of students from 78 for the questionnaire to 12 students for the miscue analysis, was as follows: first, after I finished conducting the questionnaire, I explained my study to the respondents and then asked them to indicate their willingness to participate in my study by writing yes or no. I got 32 yes responses and 47 no responses. I did not include all the students who showed an interest in participating in my study, as some of them could not read a certain amount of English; in miscue analysis, it is usually recommended that participants have a vocabulary of approximately 500 words (Campbell, 1993), but some students were not able to read sentence-level English. Other students could not make time to participate, because of their tight schedule of private lessons. After this screening procedure, I was left with 12 participants for the interview and miscue analysis.

All the participants were having English lessons in the private sector at the time that I met them for the research. There was great diversity in the students' experience of private English lessons, including different starting points, length of time spent having private tuition, types of private lessons, whether or not the private tutor speaks English as a native language, and whether they change the type of private lessons they are taking from time to time. Table 4-4 summarises this diversity, at the time of the background interview (the names of the participants are abbreviated with capital letters):

Table 4-4 Miscue and interview participants' private lesson history in group 2

Name	Age	Starting point	Length	Types of Private lessons at the moment	Private teacher at the moment	Change of private lessons
K	12	2nd (8 years old)	4 ½ yrs	Worksheet company	Korean teacher	1
B	12	Pre-school (6 years old)	6 ½ yrs	Private institute/ Phone learning	Korean teacher/ Native speaker	1
J	12	3rd (9 years old)	3 ½ yrs	Private language institute / Phone learning/ Worksheet company	Korean teacher/ Native speaker	1
Y	12	Pre-school (3 years old)	9 ½ yrs	Private language institute/ Worksheet company	Korean teacher/ Native speaker	1
D	12	3rd (9 years old)	3 ½ yrs	Worksheet company	Korean teacher	0
G	11	1st (7 years old)	5 ½ yrs	Private institute	Korean teacher	1
W	12	3rd (9 years old)	3 ½ yrs	Private language institute	Korean teacher	1
S	11	6 years old	6 ½ yrs	Private language institute / Worksheet company	Korean teacher	1
C	12	3rd (9 years old)	3 ½ yrs	Private language institute	Korean teacher	1
H	12	Pre-school (5 years old)	7 ½ yrs	Worksheet company	Korean teacher	0
N	12	3rd (9 years old)	3 ½ yrs	Private language institute	Korean teacher	1
M	12	1st (7 years old)	4 ½ yrs	Worksheet company	Korean teacher	0

Table 4-4 gives a flavor of the diversity of private lessons that there was among the participants. This diversity implies that the miscue and interview participants are not selected from one specific group. It would be particularly interesting if, even with their diverse variety of private lessons, there turns out to be any shared pattern in the amount and type of miscues. I provide a more detailed explanation of this diversity in Chapter Six.

Group 3: The case study participant

Kilsu has been chosen for the case study for two reasons. The first reason is the accessibility of his private tutor, which is often considered to be one of the most important considerations in selecting participants for a case study (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). It was not easy to conduct interviews with the other students' private tutors, partly because eight students out of twelve had several different tutors at that time and partly because the tutors were frequently changed, while Kilsu had been taught by one teacher for almost a year. Hemi, Minsa, and Darim also had this rather simple arrangement of private lessons, like Kilsu. Second, there was an interesting change in Kilsu's perception of the difficulty of *Hansel and Gretel*. Kilsu reported that *Hansel and Gretel* was okay for him, after he read it orally for the first time, but he later said that *Hansel and Gretel* was difficult for him to read after he read it orally and translated it. It would be useful for us to discover what caused this change.

Group 4: Non-student participants for interview

For the parent interview, I chose the mother of the case study participant, partly because she had more time than his father and partly because she is more involved with matters relating to Kilsu's education, such as choosing private lessons. I approached Kilsu's private tutor, Song. At first, he was unwilling to be interviewed, and had particular concerns about whether he would receive bad publicity as the result of the interview, so I had to reassure him several times that the data would be used anonymously and confidentially and, especially, that it would not be reported to Kilsu's parents.

Three state school teachers were approached to discuss Kilsu's English reading processes; they were all from different schools and one of them was Kilsu's school English teacher. Aside from Kilsu's state school teacher, two teachers were selected based on their teaching experience. I focused on English teaching experience and in-service training in English language teaching. General teaching experience was not counted, since this does not necessarily match with English teaching experience. In some schools, English is taught by an English subject teacher who teaches only English to all the classes of one particular grade/year. A more detailed explanation of the profile of the three state schools teachers is

provided in Chapter Nine. One member of staff from an English children's bookshop was also interviewed.

4.4.2 The procedure

In this section, I will describe the data collection procedure I employed and the difficulties I faced during the process. In so doing, I will go over the research tools in the following order: the questionnaire, the background interview, miscue analysis, and the post-reading interviews. This order parallels the chronological order in which the research was conducted. All the data were recorded with the consent of the participants. The translation and interview data were initially written in Hangul and later transcribed and translated into English.

Questionnaire

The questions on the questionnaire enquire about the students' affinity for learning English, their English study time after school, their private lesson history, reasons for reading English, ways of reading English, and so on (see Appendix II, p.253). To enhance students' understanding of questionnaire questions, I administered the questionnaire during class time, with the headmaster's consent, and therefore I was able to check their understanding of each question in the questionnaire and provide explanations when needed. For example, I explained the meaning of the term 'study'. In this category 'study', I included time spent in private English lessons and doing English assignments. In this way, I had time to share my understanding of my terminology with the participants.

Background interview with students

The same twelve participants were chosen from the two participant schools as the questionnaire, and they were the same students for the miscue analysis. A semi-structured interview in Korean was conducted for the study, following fixed questions and also using the response of interviewees to generate further questions to get more in-depth responses. Each participant was interviewed twice, once before the miscue exercise, and once again afterwards. The first interview involved general questions to gain background knowledge of the participants. Table 4-5 illustrates the topics covered in the first interview.

Table 4-5 Topics covered in the responses to the first interview

Breakdown of interview data
Types of private teachers
Types of private lessons
The actual period of private lessons (in yrs)
Hours studying English per week outside the classroom
Actual time spent reading English per week
Amount of vocabulary memorized per week
Degree of affinity for studying English
Degree of affinity for reading in general
Degree of affinity for reading English
Activities before reading English
Activities after reading English
Ways of reading English
Reading level evaluated by students themselves
Self-suggested ways to improve reading in English

Miscue Analysis

I briefly explained my study to students and then asked them to participate in it, giving them a rough idea of its duration and the number of meetings it would involve. However, I did not mention that they were going to read aloud in front me. In the pre-session meeting I asked them to show me the texts that they used in their private lessons. In the second session, I asked them to read aloud from their textbooks and talk about them. In the third session, I brought '*Hansel and Gretel*' to them and asked them to read aloud from it.

Twelve students were asked to read aloud the same storybook, twice without any significant break and then to translate what they read into Korean after their second oral reading. Their oral reading and translation was audio-recoded and they were told that they would not have any help from me during reading. Although I did not intend to give them support, I chose a text which contains a lot of support in terms of pictures and familiarity; this is because I was concerned about whether students could read approximately 500 words without interruption (the amount considered appropriate for miscue analysis).

Post-reading interview with students

The second interview focused on difficulties encountered during the miscue exercise and strategies used to tackle those difficulties.

Interview with non-students

In Song's interview, I asked general questions about his background and way of teaching reading. After that, I showed him the book that Kilsu had read and asked him questions about the book. In this case, I could not persuade him to listen to the recorded data, because he was unwilling to discuss his student's weaknesses or mistakes in reading *Hansel and Gretel*. Nevertheless, I was able to persuade him to talk, in general terms, about some of the teaching strategies he has used with Kilsu. In the interview with Kilsu and his private teacher, I could understand how they learn during a lesson. I initially attempted to observe one of their lessons but was unable to do so. The private teacher agreed with my observation plan in his interview but later he changed his mind and would not allow me to observe the lesson.

The interview with three state school teachers was conducted after they listened to Kilsu's oral reading and translation. They were asked to comment on Kilsu's reading processes, including weaknesses and strong points of his reading and encouraged to discuss what they observed among their own students. The interview with Kim, who is a member of staff at a children's bookshop, was focused on the reading materials which are in high demand and the trend of customer's needs for reading in English.

All the interviews were conducted in Korean and carried out in a semi-structured way. The reason I used Korean for the interview was to get more in-depth insights from the interviewees. If I had chosen English, it would have affected the way they responded. They would have offered only those opinions that they were able to articulate in English.

4.5 Methodological issues

4.5.1 Ethical considerations: consent and confidentiality

I consulted the parents of the students identified for the study, and, because they were under sixteen years old, I informed their parents, in detail, of the purpose and procedure of my study and requested them to sign consent slips, which I kept all the way through my research. I asked the same things of the teachers interviewed. I guaranteed anonymity to the participants. For the sake of confidentiality, I use pseudonyms for all the participants throughout the study. I informed the students that the research would not have any effect on their grades and that nothing would be revealed to their teachers.

4.5.2 Trustworthiness

Validity

In order to enhance the validity of the data, I tried several things. First, I used the contextualised information gained from the questionnaire and background interview. For example, I discovered that oral reading, reading as translation, and repeated reading are common reading practices in English for young Korean learners. This information was used to adapt the miscue study. Second, primary school students may encounter problems in articulating their thoughts or may hesitate to share their thoughts aloud with an unknown adult. For the first problem, I checked whether the students understood my questions correctly and whether I understood what they were saying to me. To reduce their potential anxiety, I spent time with my participants to develop rapport with them. I also strived to establish a comfortable research situation. Third, to enhance the validity of the data from my case study participant (Kilsu), I asked three state school teachers to listen to his reading, and then asked them to comment on the reading difficulties in English of young Korean learners, based on their teaching experience. Three teachers confirmed that Kilsu's case is not atypical. Fourth, as Kilsu's private teacher, Song, was initially reluctant to participate, I tried to gain valid data by asking him questions that he would not find intimidating, such as what he is most proud of among his teaching strategies, or his views on the policy of the private lesson company for which he works.

In order to enhance the validity of my interpretation of the data, first, I used a mixture of methods: miscue analysis, translation data, and interview data. Second, I approached non-native co-raters to mark and categorise miscues. I have mentioned this issue in Chapter Five, section 5.2.1.

Transferability

Although this study used a sample of Korean primary school students, it aims to make it meaningful not only to the participants and schools in the study, but also to other Korean primary schools. To do this, I attempted to analyse the findings of the study, while bearing in mind current theories about reading and the English primary education context in Korea. The learning of students is likely to be influenced by the educational environment they are in. That educational environment is also likely to vary from school to school, from neighbourhood to neighbourhood, and from province to province. Therefore, I am not assuming that the small sample of my study is representative of all Korean students. Rather, I propose a way of understanding reading processes, which includes a consideration of the Korean educational environment, and which are influenced by political and cultural factors. These factors vary, whereas some L1 psychological factors will be the same. Therefore, I

have provided detailed descriptions of my research procedures, to encourage other researchers to replicate the study, or to make their own connections. A detailed explanation about the research procedure is suggested to enhance validity of the study (Dörnyei, 2007). He (2007:55) maintains that 'thick description' for the data processing which includes recursive processes, enhances the validity of qualitative data.

4.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the research design for this study and its method of data collection. The dimensions of the study, which enable the reader to better understand the overall structure of the research, were explained in the first section. To show the way in which the main study developed, I have discussed the preliminary study and the two pilot studies. In the next chapter, I will explain the ways in which I arranged and coded the data.

Chapter 5

Methodology II: Coding the data

In this chapter, I elaborate more on the analysis of my data: miscues, translation data, and interview data. In the first section, I explain the recursive process of data presentation, demonstrating the relationship between the three types of data. After this, I provide a more detailed explanation of my procedure for arranging miscue data. Firstly, I raise the issue of marking the miscues. After that, I review the categories of miscue data from previous researchers and note some issues that arise in identifying miscues, using examples from my data. Then, I discuss my focus in categorising data and identify patterns to code them. Each type of data is discussed in terms of inter-rater reliability. For miscue analysis in particular, intra-rater reliability checks were essential.

5.1 Presentation of three types of data

There were four types of data in the current study: questionnaire data, miscue data, translation data, and interview data. The questionnaire data were used to provide information about the context of the study and were very easily analysed. Consequently, I limit my discussion, here, to the presentation of the other three sources of data. My analysis of data was inductive as well as deductive; I started my analysis using tentative categories and revised them, using the results of my research. For example, with the miscue data, I initially employed categories established by other miscue researchers. The pre-established categories were a good guide for categorising the miscues, but they were unable to present the whole picture, since the research context was different from that encountered by the previous researchers. The analysis of translation data was initially based on the main results from the miscue analysis, along with emergent data from the translation. The presentation of interview data was shaped partly by the results of miscue and translation data, but also, in part, by their own emerging themes. This system of coding three types of data involves complex interconnections, as shown in Figure 5-1:
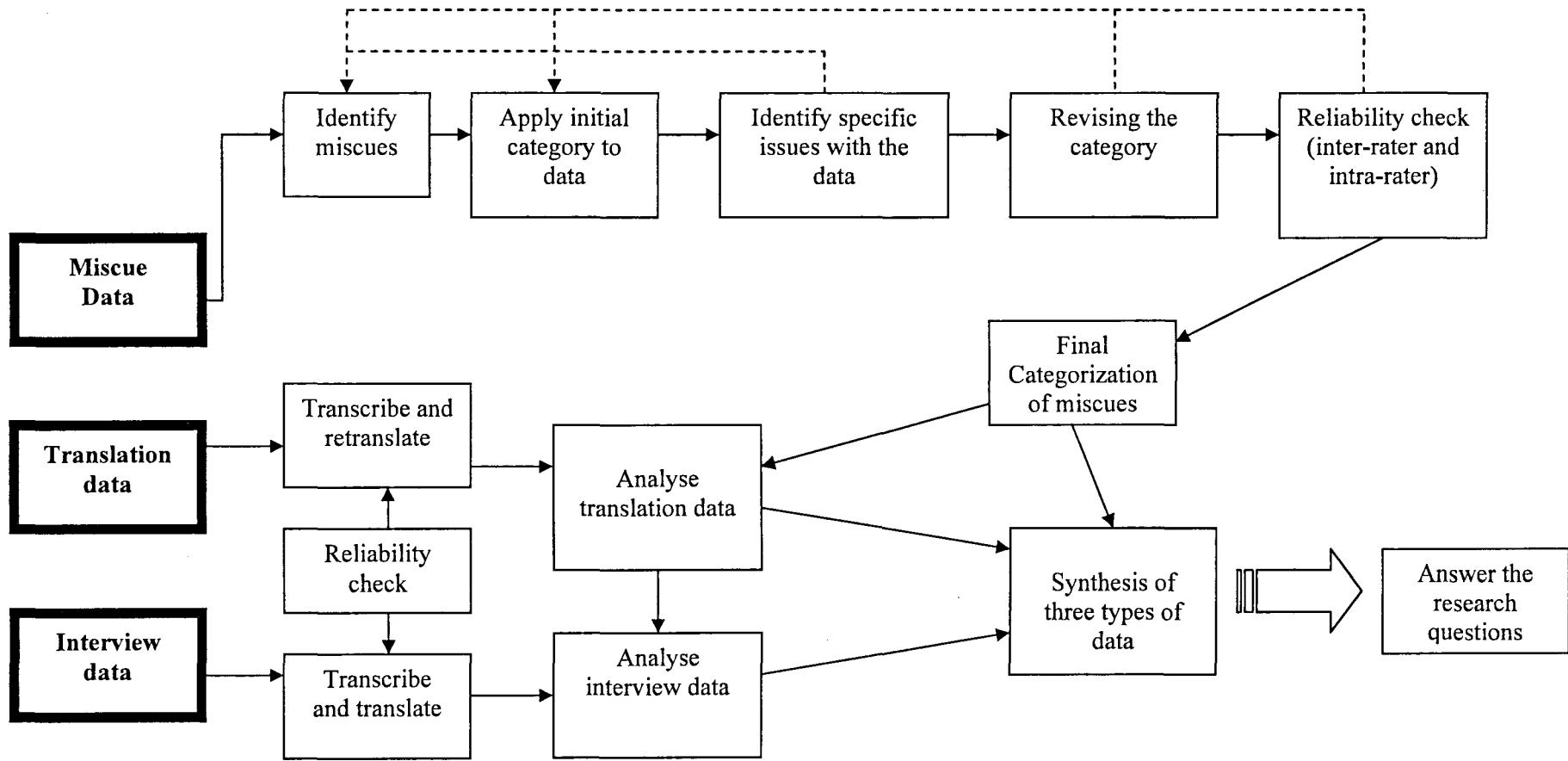
Figure 5-1 Analysis of three types of data

The three types of data are presented in bold boxes, located on the left-hand side of the figure. As the figure shows, the first stage of the process is to provide miscue data, which included a number of recursive processes (represented by dotted lines); first, I identify miscues and apply initial categories to the data. This initial identification was then categorised into several types of miscue, based on previous categories suggested by miscue researchers. During this initial identification and categorisation stage, several issues were raised; for example, originally the 'reversal' category was adopted, but it was later discarded, as no instances of this were observed. Also, previous research on miscues has been limited to word-level miscues, but with my participants there were a great many part-word or multiple-word miscues. By including more than word-level, I can better understand the complexity of reading and the demands that it places on different levels of knowledge. After several recursive applications of miscue analysis, I conducted a reliability check, in an inter-rater, as well as an intra-rater fashion. After these reliability checks had been done, I presented the final categorisation of miscues, which influences the analysis of translation data. The analysis of interview data is conducted with reference to analysis of translation data. And, finally, three types of analysis (miscue analysis, analysis of translation data, and interview) were synthesized, in an effort to answer the research questions.

I transcribed all the translation and interview data and then translated it from Korean into English. Categorizing the translation data is a complex process, for several reasons. First, there were times when students could not find the proper Korean equivalents for the words they were reading in English. In this case, it is difficult to identify substitutions since there is no single correct translation, but several possible words with similar meanings. Secondly, translation demands Korean language ability in order to produce a sentence, as well as the comprehension necessary to understand texts in English. Students may insert or omit words to make their translation sound more plausible. In this case, reformulations during translation may be made for the sake of production as well as comprehension. Having become aware of these complexities in categorizing the translation data, I decided not to use the same miscue categories again. Rather, I have chosen to adopt a selective focus, which will enable a better understanding of the reading process. To analyze the translation data, I first looked for translation data related to the issues raised by the examination of miscue data; for example, I examined whether the participants had problems with translating the passages where they had made miscues. Also, I included issues that emerge from an examination of the students' translations.

With the interview data, I tried to translate literally what they said during the interviews. The background interview was more straightforward, as they simply described their private

lesson history and reading practices, but, in the post-reading interview, it became more difficult to understand their comments, partly because some students were not very articulate and partly because some were still developing the meta-cognitive abilities that they require in order to talk about their reading process. For example, Darim said that he finds reading difficult, whenever he encounters 'long words'. At first, I did not understand what he meant by the term 'long words'; later, I realized he meant 'sentence'. He may not have known the word 'sentence', even in Korean. In other cases, interviewees used pronouns to indicate a meaning that was obvious to the interviewer and interviewee, but is likely to be confusing for readers. Because of this, I put words in brackets, [   ] to indicate that they have been added for clearer understanding. I present the participants' comments on interview questions thematically and provide interview quotations from the data, when required. Quoted data will be in italics.

For the present study, I have developed a mnemonic code system to present miscue and translation data.

S0101   Here are Hansel and Gretel.

T0101B   헨젤과 그레텔이 여기에 살고 있었습니다.

               Hansel and Gretel have lived here.

S represents script and T represents translation. The first two numbers, for example in S0101, are page references and the other two numbers are line numbers. The last letter is the initial of the participant. The highlighted English sentence is the retranslation from Korean into English, based on what the participants say (translate). The storybook does not have page numbers on it; it contains 40 single pages, but the text is always on the left side with the illustration on the right. So, here I will consider a double-spread page to count as one, for convenience of analysis. In the next section, I elaborate more about the presentation of miscue data.

5.2 Data presentation for miscues

5.2.1 Marking miscues

'Miscue' is defined by Goodman (1967) as an unexpected response. Based on this definition, there are two issues to be addressed in marking miscues. One is the expectations of researchers: to some extent, marking a response as a miscue is a matter of individual judgement. The definition of a miscue as an unexpected response to a text may sound very straightforward, but, in actuality, it is not. Where is the line to be drawn between an expected response and an unexpected one? Marking miscues is affected by the researcher's

expectations, which can differ according to their nationality, among other factors. Here, I admit that I am going to analyze oral reading, based on my expectations as a Korean researcher. I will not focus on whether my participants pronounce particular words as correctly as native readers, since my research aim is not to discover how they develop pronunciation. Instead, I wish to explore reading processes by analyzing my participants' oral reading performance in terms of their strategies for comprehension.

In my research, miscue analysis is not used primarily as a tool to investigate correct decoding skills; rather, it is used to analyse meaning construction. Although I recognize that decoding is part of word-recognition, my main focus will be on how students understand the meaning of words, in so far as this understanding is visible to researchers. Therefore, my identification of miscues is based on my expectations as a Korean who is familiar with Korean English pronunciation. Pronunciations specific to Korean English occur in different forms. Sometimes, they occur in loan words; for example, the word 'Hansel' is pronounced '/Henzel/', although the English version is '/Hænsəl/'. This particular pronunciation is already used popularly by Koreans, so children naturally adopt it. In this case, I will not consider this as a miscue. If I focus on this type of mispronunciation, I will become distracted from my original research aim. Korean English pronunciations also occur when we do not have any equivalent sound to the one required by English. For example, the sound /w/ does not exist in Korean pronunciation; in this case, Korean students make a slightly different sound from native readers. One of my native co-raters points this out. She identifies Kilsu's pronunciations of 'woodcutter' as miscues, since, to her, Kilsu pronounces it as /ʊd/ omitting the /w/ sound, although I never identify those pronunciations as miscues. I will discuss the differences between native speakers and myself in identification of miscues, when I address co-raters and the reliability of my coding.

5.2.2 Categories of miscues

Categories of miscues have evolved since Goodman (1967) first introduced miscue analysis. Goodman's categories have consistently focused on substitutions (although he did later add some others). Compared to his discussion of other categories, he gives an in-depth explanation of substitutions: whether they are graphophonically, syntactically, and semantically acceptable.

Arnold (1982) suggests eight miscue types: non-response, substitution, omission, insertion, reversal, self-correction, hesitation, and repetition. This range represents a modification of

Goodman's categories for general use. Arnold introduces further classification in the form of positive or negative strategies. She clarifies:

> Positive strategies evidence the child's attempts to read for meaning, and are usually demonstrated by the same sort of mistakes that an adult reader might make. Negative strategies are typified by immature errors, showing little attempt at successful word-attack.

(Arnold, 1982:62)

Campbell (1988) suggests seven main categories: substitution, insertion, omission, self-correction, repetition, hesitation, and sounding out. One major difference between his work and that of other researchers is that he includes 'sounding out' as a category. According to him, 'sounding out' occurs when 'the reader makes an attempt at a word through the use of graphophonic knowledge'. He gives examples such as 'She is /n/-/n/—not a big doll she is a little one' (1988:50). Sounding out could be useful in analysing miscues made by readers who have not established a sound-symbol relationship and therefore do not decode words automatically.

Davenport (2002) provides more comprehensive categories. She notes eight types: substitutions, omissions, partials, insertions, regressions, pauses, related miscues, and complicated miscues. She subcategorizes three types of miscues: substitutions, omissions, and regressions. Under the category of substitutions, she lists nine subcategories: one-word substitutions, high-quality miscues, complex miscues, reversals, non-words, dialect usages, misarticulations, intonations shifts, and split syllables. She breaks down omissions into three (word, phrase or line, and end punctuation) and divides regressions into four (repetition, abandoning the correct form, unsuccessful attempt to correct, and correction). Although previous miscue researchers provide comprehensive categories and explanations for analyzing miscue data, care should be taken in adopting those categories, since the research context may differ from that encountered by previous researchers. Those categories are based on first or second-language research contexts, which differ from my own EFL context.

One of the ways in which EFL learning contexts differ from others is 'the types and amount of input' (Cameron, 2001:11). In miscue analysis especially, reading is not dissociated from oral production and the miscues of EFL learners would not be the same as those of their first- or second-language counterparts, so, my system for categorizing my data became a recursive process in which I sought to discover more suitable categories. In this procedure, I did some initial analysis of my data and adapted the categories where needed. For the initial analysis, I developed tentative categories which were based on the work of previous researchers (Goodman, 1967; Arnold, 1982; Campbell, 1988; Goodman, Watson & Burke,

1987; Davenport, 2002). The initial miscue analysis reveals the complexity of the analytical procedure. Four issues emerged from my initial data analysis. Firstly, some miscues rarely occur. For example, reversal occurs only once – with Wongu's reading. In his second reading, he reverses words once, but this reversal is quickly reformulated:

Original sentence: Hansel gets up to look for some pebbles.
Wongu's reading: Hansel *looks to get gets up* to look for some pebbles.

Although, in my discussion of reformulation, I will discuss the types of miscues prior to their being reformulated, this reverse is not coded under the reverse category, because it was corrected immediately. It is interesting that although my participants were asked to read the same book aloud twice, they did not produce any reverse miscues. One might expect a second reading to produce more reverse miscues, because readers are more likely to make this type of miscue when confronted with texts they have recently seen. The reason this did not happen is probably that my participants were still engaged in a word-by-word process, even in the second reading.

Secondly, self-correction does not necessarily result in the second version being correct. In fact, I have placed students' attempts at self-correction in four different categories; from right to wrong; from right to right; from wrong to right; from wrong to wrong. Most miscue researchers (e.g., Goodman, 1967; Arnold, 1982) use the term 'self-correction', but Davenport places this type of response into three sub-categories, under the heading of regression: abandoning the correct form; unsuccessful attempt to correct; and correction. Although Davenport's three subcategories are more comprehensive than the categories suggested by previous researchers, she did not include the case of 'right to right' response. For example, some students read the word 'says' as /sez/ in the first attempt and then change it as /seiz/. Although these two responses are different attempts at the word 'says', both can be considered right. Consequently, in this study, I have chosen to use the term 'reformulation', rather than 'self-correction'.

Thirdly, some miscues need to be broken down. For example, repetitions occur at three levels: part-word repetition, word repetition, and multiple-word repetition:

Original sentence: The woodcutter and the stepmother go to sleep.
Kilsu's reading: The woodcutter and the **step** stepmother go to sleep.

In this case, the closest categories that Campbell and Davenport would be able to offer would be sounding out and partial categories, respectively. But this miscue cannot fall into either of these two categories, since parts of certain words were repeated rather than individual phonemes being produced. In this case, I want to suggest a new subcategory, 'part-word repetition'. In the previous miscue categories, repetition has not been subcategorized. This probably stems from the difference between first or second and foreign-language learners. For foreign-language learners, word-identification would be less automatic than for first- or second-language learners, so they would need more time for their reading process. Davenport explains possible reasons for regression:

> One reason readers regress is to mark time; that is, to allow themselves an opportunity to reflect on what has been read, to look ahead and anticipate what might be coming up in the text, or to reassure themselves that what they have just said is correct. In these instances, readers simply repeat a phrase they have just read with *no miscues*, which is called a *repetition*.
>
> (Davenport, 2002:77-78)

If repetition occurs to mark time, as Davenport explains, it is not surprising that my participants – EFL readers – have more complex repetition miscues. Fourthly, there is a complex miscue which belongs to more than one type of miscue:

Original sentence: he looks for some pebbles.

Boram's reading: he looks for some *pe pe pebble pe peblus*.

In this case, I identify two types of miscues: reformulation and part-word repetition. This reader names out the word 'pebble' after he repeats the syllable 'pe' twice, and after that he produces a part-word repetition once again, before he finally reformulates the word from 'pebble' to 'peblus'.

In order to cover these three issues, which arose from my initial analysis, I have had to develop my own categories for dealing with such miscues. My categories are based on the previous categories I mentioned earlier. I have divided them into five main sections: substitutions, insertions, omissions, repetitions, and reformulations. I subcategorize these five sections when needed. In some cases, I refine pre-existing terms and, in others, I introduce new terminology. Table 5-1 is the summary of my categories with markings:

Table 5-1 Types of miscues

Types of Miscues		Example of marking
Substitutions	Real-word substitutions	It looks <u>hot</u>. Not
	Non-word substitutions	Hansel has no <u>pebbles</u>. Preebles
Insertions		In you go, says ^ Gretel. The
Omissions	Part-word omissions	The witch puts Hansel into a cage.
	Word omissions	Hansel has no pebbles.
	Multiple-word omissions	They eat and eat.
Repetitions	Part-word repetitions	The <u>stepmother</u> says, Yes. step – stepmother
	Word repetitions	They have <u>to go</u>. to- to
	Multiple-word repetitions	<u>They want</u> to go home. They want – they want
Reformulations	Part-word reformulations	Gretel says, This house is good to eat. Ket – Gretel
	Word reformulations	It is good to have you home. go – good
	Multiple-word reformulations	We are going to get some wood. He is - we are

In the following section, I will describe various types of miscues with examples in more detail.

5.2.3 Identification and examples of miscues

Substitutions

If students change the original text in any way, I label this a substitution. I include two subtypes under the category of substitutions: real-word substitutions and non-word substitutions. I do not include unexpected responses, which seem to be from dialect usages. For example, many of my participants read the word 'Hansel' as /Henzel/, rather than /Hænsəl/ (see 5.2.1). For marking, I underlined the word in the original texts and noted the substitutions.

Real-word substitutions

One word is substituted for real-word:

Original sentence: it looks hot.

Kilsu's reading: it looks *not*.

This is marked as: it looks <u>hot</u>.
                              not

Non-word substitutions

One word is replaced with non-words:

Original sentence: Here is some treasure.

Darim's reading: Here is some **treeseshure.**

Insertions

Words are inserted during reading. I did not include part-word insertions, due to the difference between the phonetic systems of Korean and English. For example, some students often put an unnecessary syllable, /ee/, after witch. This is probably due to the difference between the phonetic systems of Korean and English. In Korean, consonant sounds /t/ and /ʃ/ cannot be pronounced together as a final consonant cluster. I will not consider this unnecessary vowel insertion under the insertion category. I will only consider word-level and larger insertions i.e. multiple-word insertions. For marking, I put ^ between words and write the insertion in:

Original sentence: in you go, says Gretel.

Sunny's reading: in you go, says *the* Gretel.

This is marked as: in you go, says ^ Gretel.
                                                    the

Omissions

I include three categories with omissions: part-word omissions, word omissions, and multiple-word omissions. For marking, I circle the word or the part of the word that has been omitted.

Part-word omissions

Parts of words are omitted. Sometimes only one letter is omitted:

Original sentence: the witch puts Hansel into a cage.

Minsa's reading: the witch *put* Hansel into a cage.

It is marked as: the witch puts Hansel into a cage.

Sometimes more than one letter is omitted:

Original sentence: Gretel says, this house is good to eat.

Yumi's reading: *Gre* says, this house is good to eat.

Word omissions

A word is omitted:

Original sentence: Hansel has no pebbles.

Jamin's reading: Hansel no pebbles.

More than one word is omitted. Sometimes several words are omitted, while, at other times, a whole page is omitted. For example, Darim omitted page 13 in his second reading.

Repetitions

Repetitions include part-word repetitions, word repetitions, and multiple-word repetitions. For marking, I underline the word which is repeated and write all the repeated sounds.

Part-word repetitions

Parts of a word are repeated.

Original text: the stepmother says, yes.

Kilsu's reading: the *step stepmother* says, yes.

It is marked as: the <u>stepmother</u> says, yes.

<center>step − stepmother</center>

There are some cases in which the reader is confused between part-word and word repetitions - this is especially likely when part of one word can be a word in itself:

Original text: the fire has gone out.

Yumi's reading: the fire has *go gone out*.

Here, 'go' is considered as part of the word 'gone', or it can be considered as the word 'go.' Here, I consider the word 'go' as part of the word 'gone', rather than a different word. So, I categorize this example as a part-word repetition, rather than word repetition.

Word repetitions

A word is repeated:

Original text: they have to go.

Boram's reading: they have *to to* go.

Multiple-word repetitions

More than one word is repeated:

Original text: they want to go home.

Wongu's reading: *they want they want* to go home.

Reformulations

Reformulations also include part-word, word, and multiple-word reformulations. Sometimes, reformulations may include a change in intonation. In this case, reformulation may be confused with repetition, since the same words are read more than once. However, I will consider this change in the intonation of a word or multiple to be reformulation if there is a significant change of intonation between two attempts at reading aloud one word. For marking, I have underlined the word, as well as noted all attempts at reformulation:

Part-word reformulations

Part of a word is reformulated. Part-word reformulations seem to be linked to decoding of unknown words. When students encounter unknown words, they will make several attempts to decode them:

Original text: Gretel says, this house is good to eat.

Yumi's reading: *Ket Gretel* says, this house is good to eat.

This, initially, appears to be a part-word repetition, but I will categorise it as a part-word reformulation, since the part of the word /Ket/, in the first attempt, differs from her attempt at the same syllable in her second attempt. Below is another example of part-word reformulation:

Original text: no, says the woodcutter.

Yumi's reading: no, says the *wood woodcru ah cutter.*

It is marked as: no, says the woodcutter.

wood – woodcru- ah, cutter

Boram first repeats the syllable /wʊd/ and, in her second attempt, she tries to decode 'cutter' as /crə/. After that, she makes a sound indicative of awareness /ah/ and then reformulates it as cutter. This type of process occurred frequently among my participants:

Word reformulations

A word is reformulated:

Original text: it is good to have you home.

Gisu's reading: it is *go good* to have you home.

In this example, Gisu made two attempts at the word 'good'; the first attempt was /goʊ/, and the second was /gʊd/.

<u>Multiple-word reformulations</u>

Chunks of words are reformulated. Sometimes, more than one word is reformulated at the same time:

Original text: we are going to get some wood.

Wongu's reading: *he is we are* going to get some wood.

On other occasions, reformulations are done gradually.

Original text: he can't get out.

Wongu's reading: *we can't go out he can't go out* get out.

Sometimes, reformulations occur with word repetition:

Original text: the woodcutter and the stepmother go home.

Namsu's reading: *the another the woodcutter* and the stepmother go home.

In many cases, one miscue belongs to several categories of miscue:

Original text: he drops some breadcrumbs.

Kilsu's reading: he drops some *bread (2.0) crumbs crumb crumbles*.

In this case, the miscue on the word 'breadcrumbs' belongs to three categories of miscue: reformulation (breadcrumbs – crumbles), substitution (crumbs – crumbles), and part-word repetition (breadcrumbs –crumb)

5.3 Reliability

Five co-raters were involved to ensure reliability of data: three co-raters for miscue data (two native speakers of English and one Korean), and two Koreans for translation and interview data. They were given an explanation of the coding system used for the presentation of the data before they carried out their cross-checking. During the explanation process, there was some negotiation between the cross-raters and myself about the meanings of the criteria. I will now explain the issues I encountered in this process:

Reliability with miscue data

Reliability in coding the miscue data was ensured by means of inter-rater reliability, as well as intra-rater reliability. Initially, I approached two English PhD students (rater A and B), to code the miscue data. However, I discovered that native speakers' expectations regarding English pronunciation were quite different from my expectations as a researcher. One of the most notable discrepancies in marking miscues, between native English speaking co-raters and myself, was the pronunciation of the /w/ sound in the word 'woodcutter'. However, this

discrepancy is more likely to have been caused by the different expectations of English pronunciation, between English and Korean speakers. Korean students will usually make a slightly different sound from /w/ to native readers, but Korean researchers would not necessarily mark this /w/ sound as a miscue, because they are familiar with English spoken with a Korean accent. Native speaker raters, however, marked this as a miscue. Another discrepancy was found in the /f/ sound, as in the word 'fire' or 'food'. Rater B marked the pronunciation of the word 'fire' as 'pire' and categorized it as a substitution. However, Kim (2005:129) pointed out that 'they [Korean speakers] produce the bilabial stops /p/ and /b/ in place of the labiodental fricatives /f/ and /v/ which are completely different sounds. Final consonants were a further cause of discrepancy'. Koreans usually insert an extra vowel sound between consonants. I mentioned Lee's study (2004), in Chapter Three, p.51, which shows that Korean primary school students frequently add such an additional vowel sound between consonants. In the case of English words used in Korean as loan words, the Korean method of pronunciation is more obvious; for example, the word 'jump' is used as a cognate in Korean and is pronounced /jɔmpu/. However, rater A, who listened to this word pronounced as /jɔmpu/ by a participant, identified this as a miscue for 'jump'.

The key issue here is that miscue analysis is not a research tool suited to investigate whether participants pronounce particular words in the same way as native readers, or how they develop pronunciation. In this case, co-raters from different language backgrounds may actually invalidate the process of identifying miscues, unless the people involved have a good understanding of the difference in phonology between Korean and English. To avoid distorting the focus of research, I approached a Korean rater (rater C). She was studying for an MA at Leeds University and had taught English for three years in Korea. I asked her to check the miscues of two students, randomly chosen from a group of twelve: we were in agreement on 94% of the responses she identified as miscues and, of this 94%, we categorized 91% of them in the same way. I myself checked the miscues several times, to ensure intra-rater reliability. After a six month interval, I checked all the same data again and ensured 94% reliability in marking and 96% in categorization.

Reliability with translation and interview data

Two Korean raters (rater D and E) were asked to do a cross-check of the translation from Korean into English in both the translation and interview data. They are Korean primary school teachers, who both have MA degrees. Rater D has an MA degree in Korean language education for young learners and rater E has an MA degree in English language education

for young learners. They were asked to back-translate the data and their back-translation was compared with the original manuscript.

5.4 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have presented this set of data (miscues, translation, and interview data), with an explanation of issues that emerged during recursive data analysis. I presented the three types of data so that they were inter-related, creating a data analysis that is inductive as well as deductive. In particular, I have presented a detailed explanation of the complex process of marking and categorising the miscues. To offer a clear picture of how miscue analysis was conducted, I have provided extracts from my miscue data. In the following chapters, I present findings from that set of data.

Chapter 6

Findings from the questionnaire and interview

In this chapter, I present the results of the questionnaire and background interview to provide contextualized information. The questionnaire was distributed to seventy eight students, in two schools. The complete version of the questionnaire is contained in Appendix II. Twelve students were chosen from among the questionnaire participants, for the background interview (the sampling strategy is discussed in 4.4.1). The interviewed students read aloud for the purpose of miscue analysis. In this chapter, I also included the interview with Kim, the member of staff at a children's bookshop, to gain a better understanding of the demand for reading materials for young foreign readers. These results helped in the process of designing this study and also contributed to my understanding of the participants' reading processes. The findings from the questionnaire and interview serve to address one of my research sub-questions:

- RQ1-1: How do Korean sixth grade primary school students perceive reading in English?

In section 6.1, I present findings from the questionnaire data. In section 6.2, I identify five themes from the background interview data.

6.1 Findings from the questionnaire

Table 6-1 summarises the responses from the questionnaire. The first column represents the questionnaire topics and the second represents the various responses. The number of people with a particular response appears in the third column and percentages are shown in the fourth column, to clarify the variation in responses.

Table 6-1 Analysis of responses to questionnaire

Questionnaire topics	Responses	Number of People	Percentage
The experience of private lessons	Yes	64	82.1%
	No	14	17.9%
Period of private lessons	Below 2 yrs	19	24.4%
	2-4	23	29.5%
	4-6	16	20.5%
	Above 6 yrs	6	7.7%
Reasons for reading	Required by private tutor	45	57.7%
	Required by family	11	14.1%
	Personal motivation	23	29.5%
Ways of reading	Read aloud myself	22	28.2%
	Read aloud to someone	11	14.1%
	Read aloud with someone	17	21.8%
	Read aloud with tape	23	29.5%
	Read silently myself	9	11.5%
	Other	2	2.6%

This data is based solely on the moment when I conducted the questionnaire. Some students had taken private English lessons, but stopped just before they filled in the questionnaire, for a range of reasons. 64 out of 78 students (82.1%) were having private English lessons and more than half of the students had been learning English through private lessons for more than two years.

In most cases, students read English because they are required to read in their private lessons. A few students read English because of encouragement from their family. Some students responded that they read English because they think it is important for their future. Most of them had an instrumental motivation for reading English, such as passing a university entrance exam, or becoming a successful adult. This shows that most of the students, even those who read English from personal motivation, are more likely to engage in reading for learning, rather than purely for pleasure. What is interesting here is that most students read orally, whether reading aloud to themselves, reading to someone else, reading with other people, or reading along with a tape. While some students use only one of these techniques,

others use several, or even all, of them. These different activities are likely to be required by their teacher at different times.

The purpose of the questionnaire was to gain quantitative information about reading contexts. The results of the questionnaire raise several important issues regarding English reading, such as the popularity of private English lessons, reasons for reading, and ways of reading. I will explore these issues more deeply through the interview analyses, which will be presented in the next section.

6.2 Findings from the background interviews

Five issues emerged from analysis of the background interview data: this data was based on interviews with twelve students who were chosen from the schools in which the questionnaire was distributed:

- Diversity of private lesson history;
- A range of reading practices;
- Students' understanding of what reading is;
- Appropriateness of reading materials;
- Disconnected vocabulary learning.

6.2.1 Diversity of private lesson history

All twelve participants were having English lessons in the private sector when I met them for the research. These students had diverse experiences of private English lessons: they experienced different starting points, length of lessons, and types of lessons, as well as tutors with different backgrounds in English. I presented the diversity of participants' private lessons in Chapter Four (Table 4-4, p.100).

The participants are 11 or 12 years old, in the sixth grade of primary school. English is taught from the third grade in state schools but the starting points and length of private lessons among the participants vary. Figure 6-1 shows the starting points of private lessons among the participants:

```
Preschool   period          School period

                                      ├─ English is taught ─────────→

3yrs  5yrs  6yrs    1st grade  2nd grade  3rd grade  4th grade  5th grade  6th grade

                                                                              Present

 Y     H     B      G         K         J
             S      M                   D
                                        W        Grade of students
                                        C        at time of this
                                        N        study
```
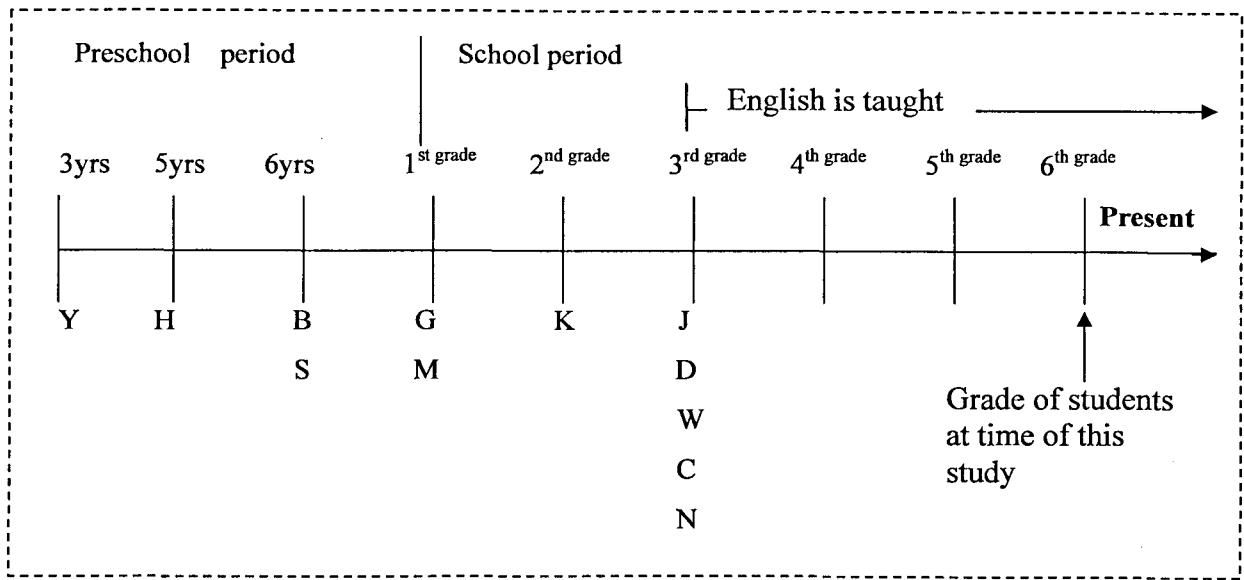
Figure 6-1 Starting points of private lessons

The average age for starting private English lessons is 7.2 years, the earliest being 3 years old and the latest being 9. The length of time the participants had had private lessons varies between 3.5 and 8.5 years. It is noticeable that all the participants had started learning English by the time they reached third grade, when English is first introduced as a subject in state schools. Five students began their private lessons just as they started to learn English in the state school system. The others had started to learn English privately before they started at state school. Two students (Yumi and Hemi) even started learning English before entering the state school. All the participants except Minsa continued with private English lessons without a break.

Three types of private lessons were identified from the interview data: private institute, worksheet company, and phone learning. Different private institutes may structure teaching differently, but all require students to attend classes regularly, whereas learning with a worksheet company differs from attending a private institute, in the sense that they send a teacher to a student's house. Worksheet companies assign one teacher to each student and give out the worksheet materials for students to use. This is an excerpt from the interview with Hemi.

> ...Everyday I get a wake up call from my teacher at the Worksheet company. She asks me some questions to check my study. She also comes to my house to teach English once a week....I used to learn English by reading stories several months ago but now I learn grammar so my teacher checks my answers to the grammar questions and gives some explanations for the questions I don't understand...
>
> (Hemi)

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There are several companies which provide phone-learning in Korea and this method of teaching takes different forms. However, the basic principle of phone learning is that lessons take place by means of phone-conversation. The following interview script explains how Boram learns English through phone-learning:

> Me: How do you learn English on the phone?
> Boram: I get a phone call from my teacher once a week. Then, I have to read aloud and translate the page she assigned me in the previous week.
> Me: How long does it take?
> Boram: Usually it takes thirty minutes.
> Me: Have you met your phone teacher?
> Boram: No. After my mother signed up the phone-learning company for me, I got assigned to this teacher.

Jamin also learns English through phone-learning, but does not interact with a real person. He said that, instead, he dialled a certain number, provided by the phone-company, listened to a recorded voice, and took a listening test, using materials he was given by the company.

Eight students (Jamin, Yumi, Wongu, Sunny, Coda, Gisu, Boram and Namsu) study English in private institutes. Seven students (Kilsu, Jamin, Darim, Sunny, Hemi, and Minsa) study English through worksheet companies.

Four students (Boram, Jamin, Yumi, Sunny) have several types of lessons at the same time. Boram learns English through a private institute and through phone learning. Yumi and Sunny learn English through a private institute and a worksheet company. Jamin has three types of lessons: private institute, phone learning, and worksheet company.

Four students (Kilsu, Darim, Hemi and Minsa) started one kind of lesson and continued to follow lessons structured in the same way. Eight students, however, have changed the kinds of lesson they have. Gisu is one of the students who has changed the type of private lesson quite frequently. Here is a quotation from an interview with her about her private lessons:

> *...I started to learn English at the age of eight. I had learned English from the K English language institute until the fourth grade. When I became a fifth grader, I moved to another language institute and learned English there for one and a half years. I moved to this private institute a month ago since it gave me flexible timing to learn other subjects such as maths. In the previous language institute, it was difficult for me to go to another private lesson for maths because of the different time schedule. In the private lesson I have now, I learn English as well as maths...*
> (Gisu)

This quotation illustrates the pressure on children to achieve in all subjects, not just English. The significant thing here is the pressure on children and the disruption that this can involve. Considering that Korean primary school students often attend private lessons in several subjects, parents may seek the most practical way provide private lessons for their children; students usually travel from schools to private institutes on foot, or by shuttle buses, run by the private institutes. If they have to travel to several different locations for tuition in various subjects, it is considerably more difficult for them to manage their time. Also, parents are likely to feel happier about their children's safety if they have all their classes in one place. Private lessons vary with regard to the background of the teachers students will encounter. Three students (Boram, Jamin, and Yumi) have a native-speaking teacher and a Korean teacher at the same time. Jaimin's quotation illustrates this:

> *...I study English for one session (fifty minutes). With the same book, I study with a native teacher for around 10 or 20 minutes and with a Korean teacher for around 30- 40 minutes...*
>
> (Jamin)

Teachers in private institutes are changed more frequently than teachers in worksheet companies. Except for Darim, Kilsu, Minsa, and Hemi, all the students have had different teachers every six or eight weeks. The turnover is very high, and this must have a negative effect on the quality of the teaching, which makes it difficult for us to predict the effect of private lessons on the students. In this section, I have identified the diversity of private lesson history among the participants. Considering that private lessons are ubiquitous in Korean society (described in Chapter Two), this type of diversity in experience of private lessons is not likely to be limited to the participants in my study.

6.2.2 A range of reading practices

The interview data shows that the most frequent reading practices in English were oral reading, repeated reading, and translation. The following quotations from Minsa about her reading practices in English demonstrate this:

> *...I usually read them several times when I read English stories. The first time I read after the tape, the second time I read with the tape and the third time I read aloud by myself...*
>
> (Minja)

In the interview, Minsa uses the word 'read' five times. Clearly, the meanings of 'read' are different, although she uses the same word. On the first two occasions, she uses 'read' without referring to the way she reads. From her third use of the word onwards, she begins to refer to this. In her third use of 'read', she refers to silent reading. In the fourth use, she

means oral reading with tapes and the final one is used to refer to oral reading on her own. As this example makes clear, the words 'read' or 'reading' can be used to refer to various interactions between reader and text. Here are some more comments from other students I interviewed.

> ...*With the Korean teacher, we repeat after the teacher when he reads the story. After repeating after him once, he asks us to read the story by ourselves. And then we have a chance to read the sentences and translate them into Korean one by one. It's like this. If one person reads the story in English, the next person translates it into Korean. And the next person reads the next sentence and his neighbour translates it into Korean. So most of the students have the chance at least to read English or translate it...*
>
> (Jamin)

> ...*The private teacher gives us an assignment to translate an English story...*
>
> (Gisu)

> ...*When my teacher points to the words in an English sentence, I have to say the Korean word which matches the English words....I don't talk about the story after reading it...When I read English books, I just give the equivalent in Korean of each word in the English sentence...*
>
> (Kilsu)

> ...*I usually read them several times when I read English stories. The first time I read after the tape, the second time I read with the tape and the third time I read aloud by myself...*
>
> (Minsa)

The responses above show that reading practice in a foreign language is very different from reading in a first language. In a first language context, people usually read once and do not need to translate what they read. Oral reading at school is not unusual in a first language context, especially for young learners, but the oral reading practice described above is more likely to happen in the foreign language context, where reading is often done mainly with language learning in mind. Why is the oral aspect of reading emphasized so much? It seems to be related to the language proficiency of students. Here is an interesting interview with Boram, which shows some difficulty in word recognition.

> ...*I read a long sentence aloud. If I read silently, I may read [decode] it wrong. But with oral reading, I can read more carefully. If I read the word 'went' as 'want', I can notice...At first, I believe I know some words by sight but when I read aloud, I do not know them. The same book seems different to me when I read it aloud and when I read it by sight. When I read by sight... Although I do not know the word 'telephone', I think I know it by sight. However when I actually read it aloud, I cannot read [decode] it...*
>
> (Boram)

In this excerpt, she cites another benefit of oral reading in comprehending texts. This is true of other students. Young learners who learn English as a foreign language use more

complicated processes of word identification from native learners since they come to process with different resources. For native learners, word identification includes decoding as well as meaning, whereas, for foreign language learners, being able to decode words does not necessarily guarantee comprehension. This is probably the reason why foreign language learners read texts repeatedly or orally. Several researchers have acknowledged the demands of word identification for L2 readers (e.g., Pino-Silva, 1993; Akamatsu, 1998; Busbee, 2004; Boo, 2006; Park, 2008). Boo (2006) notes that some Korean primary school students transliterate the pronunciation of English words and write their version underneath, in Korean script, in an effort to remember it more effectively. Park (2008), in her recent article based on test results, which included analysis of 566 primary school students, argues that the students' number of words that they recognise at sight depends on their ability to pronounce them. In her experiment, she asked students to listen to a word and then select it correctly from a written list. She reported that many participants had difficulty recognising the word 'like', for example, and sometimes misrecognised it as the word 'write'. She interprets this result as a consequence of Korean students' difficulty in distinguishing between 'l' and 'r' sounds. Park's study was carried out in a decontextulised setting. Consequently, we can expect, with more contextual cues, that students may be able to identify more words correctly, even with relatively low ability in pronunciation. However, Boram's comment shows that she still depends on pronunciation to identify words, even while she is reading texts, in which contextual cues are usually provided.

6.2.3 Students' understanding of what reading is

In Chapter Three, I offered a flexible definition of 'reading', to allow for all the possible approaches to reading taken by the young participants in my study. In this section, I will provide a definition of the term that accords with what I observed of my participants' view of 'reading'. To investigate what people, especially young learners of EFL, normally think when they hear the word 'reading' in English, I asked two questions: what level they think they are and how they would improve their reading in English. Eight out of twelve students said that they did not think their reading was good enough, just because their pronunciation was relatively poor. When I asked how they would improve their reading in English, I got various responses. Here are some of them:

> ...I read story books continually. Story books have stories so they are much easier to understand than other books...
>
> (Yumi)

> ...In my free time, I have to listen to the tape and listen to pop songs...
>
> (Coda)

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...I need to practice to read much faster and read aloud loudly. I have to read continuously by myself...

(Minsa)

...I have to practice to read much faster...

(Wongu)

These various responses demonstrate the participants' different interpretations of the word 'reading'. Yumi seems to view reading as a means of understanding texts, while the other three students appear to consider reading as a way of decoding texts. Minsa and Wongu seem to connect reading directly to reading aloud, although I used the word reading without specifying whether this was silent or aloud. Coda's response seems much closer to ideas about improving speaking or listening, rather than reading. This clearly indicates that the oral aspect of reading takes a dominant role in their English reading. The following quotation from an interview with Kim, who works at a bookstore that specializes in texts for young learners, is consistent with Coda's emphasis on the aural aspect of reading:

> *...We import graded books and adapt them with tapes including chants or songs. Naturally...It is intended to make it [reading], not to memorize the book. When parents buy reading materials, they always check if they are accompanied by listening tapes; they especially check whether tapes have songs. They say that children do not listen to tapes when they just include reading without any songs. I advise parents not to force their children to listen to tapes and not to make their children sit in front of tapes and listen to them. Whatever children are doing, when they hear tapes, they will be naturally exposed to them. Although they do not seem to listen to them, they will sing a song after the tape sometimes...*
>
> (Kim)

From the above quotation, we can see that, for many Koreans, reading is not a silent activity-it is closely connected to the spoken word. This departs from the view of modern applied linguistics, which would stress that writing and speech are very different genres and would not encourage speaking aloud from print. Part of my interpretation of students' differing perceptions of reading is that their view is heavily influenced by the type of participation they usually engage in. As I mentioned in Chapter Three (see section 3.3.1, p.38), there are several researchers who demonstrate connections between perceptions of reading and reading practice (Yang & Wilson, 2006; Kim & Krashen, 1997). Kim and Krashen's five adult participants (1997) view reading in English as something to be dissected for analysis, since they were taught in that way. Considering that my participants usually engage in oral reading practice (I mentioned this in 6.2.2), it is not surprising that they view reading as an oral or aural activity.

6.2.4 Appropriateness of reading materials in English

There are two issues that emerged concerning reading materials in English. First, students read texts in English provided by private tutors and these seem to be largely for learning purposes. Boram said she sometimes buys books to read in English but the others said that they are too busy to read books in English, apart from the books provided by their private tutors. Jamin said that he can't make time to read other books, since he has too many assignments from private lessons. As I mentioned in Chapter Two, Korean students are acknowledged to be under heavy pressure to study and they are busy with private lessons, even after school time. In this educational context, students have less spare time. If they read for pleasure, which they sometimes do, they probably read in their mother tongue, rather than in English. Given this context, students are more likely to associate reading in a foreign language with activities for learning.

Second, the reading materials used in private lessons seem to be beyond the students' level. For example, Boram said that it would take thirty minutes for her to understand one paragraph of the text by herself. Here are two of my participants' reading materials, which they use in their language institute:

Gisu's reading material	Coda's reading material

Figure 6-2 Reading materials given to four students

Two students said that they had already learned these texts. It is difficult to understand what they mean by the term 'learn', without observing their actual class. Although the meaning of the term 'learning' remains vague, it is still surprising that the participants' private lessons used topics which seem to be difficult, even for older learners. Gisu's topic is Socrates'

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philosophy and Coda's topic is euthanasia, both of which are difficult, in terms of the language skills and the background knowledge required.

In this context, I would not necessarily assign a 'level' to a particular text, but, rather, I would assess the nature of the task. The difficulty here is that the task specified is to translate the text from English to Korean, which can be difficult, even for adult learners (students are often asked to give a translated version of their text, either in spoken or written form). Translation is a specialism that even fluent bilinguals have to learn. Below, is Gisu's translation of the reading material:
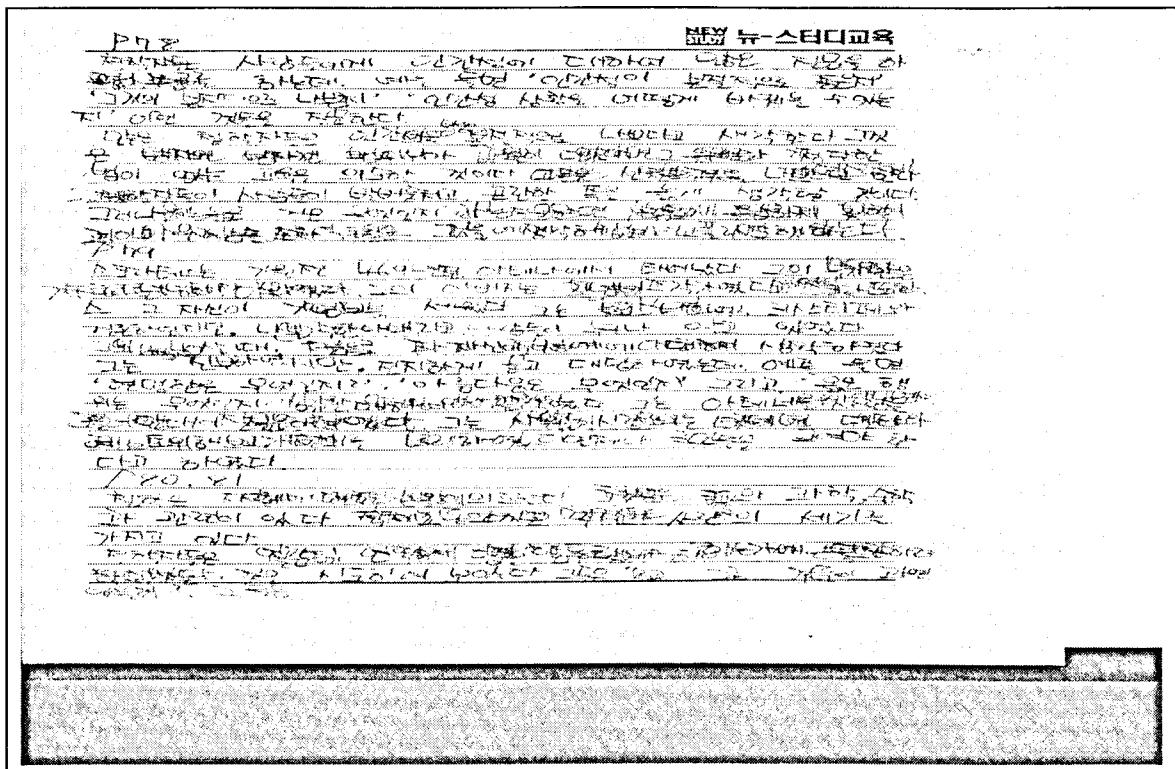
Figure 6-3 Gisu's translation of the reading material

Most of the students found books that they read in private lessons difficult for them. Text clearly has a role in language learning for foreign learners; if they use texts in their class, then they are likely to encounter new vocabulary and grammar. Boram refers to some of these difficulties in the following quotation:

> *We study prices. We do not know about prices in detail yet. We do not know enough about society yet. It would be difficult to understand in Korean. When we have problems in translating English to Korean, my teacher helps me in translation. She translates for us. When we do not know specific terms in Korean, she again explains them in Korean. So it is boring and not interesting...*
>
> (Boram)

In the interview, Boram seems to consider this kind of difficulty to be something she has to tolerate for the sake of studying. In her private institute, she was in the preparation class for a prestigious high school. As I mentioned in Chapter Two, in the private sector, classes are organised to prepare students for the next grade up. Coda remarks on his private lessons that, 'If I am a fourth grade, I am learning for a sixth grade course in private lessons.' Gisu also illustrates this point:

> *...The teacher says that we need to improve our reading for secondary school, so he is teaching us more difficult texts. I find the texts difficult but I enjoy it...*
>
> (Gisu)

The difficult reading materials that are used in the private sector are also commented on by Kilsu's private tutor, Song:

> *...The private institute uses a difficult textbook [for students] because it helps them to attract students. They claim that their students are at the level of the book they use in lessons...*
>
> (Song)

The two issues regarding reading materials that I have discussed here generate several problems. First, the students could become confused about their actual reading ability. Because they usually read difficult texts, provided by private tutors, they might think that their fluent reading ability matches the level of the books they read for detailed language work. However, this is not always true, especially when the students read books far beyond their level of fluent reading, as was the case with my participants. When I asked the participants choose books to read from a series of graded books, not all the students could find books that were appropriate to their level. This demonstrates that they are confused concerning their own reading ability in English. Even when considering native speakers we can't really expect young learners to know their own level: for that, they require metalinguistic or metacognitive knowledge.

Second, if readers are motivated primarily by learning, they will feel pressured to understand all the words completely, which might detract from their pleasure in reading. When I interviewed primary school teachers, none of them said that they currently read English for pleasure in their spare time. As the teachers themselves read English for learning or information purposes, they are more likely to teach English to their students for learning purposes.

Third, reading material also affects students' motivation. In Korean, there is a large variety of reading material, but in English, there is a more limited selection. If readers choose

reading materials according to their language level, they may not find the content challenging or enjoyable. If they focus on the content, they may find the language of the story difficult. In this mismatch between cognitive and linguistic challenges, foreign language students may find it difficult to read for pleasure.

6.2.5 Disconnected vocabulary learning

The background interview shows that my participants have to memorise a long list of words for spelling tests. Some of them memorised new words with the names of the alphabet; for example, with the word 'cat', some students memorised it as 'see-ay-tee', rather than learning its actual pronunciation. Others, like Darim, create their own pronunciation to remember new words. He said that he remembers words in two ways; one way for pronunciation and another for the written form. This shows that he is already aware of the fact that written and spoken forms do not always match. This will obviously cause him some problems in spelling tests: if he relies on the oral form of words, he will make mistakes in spelling. To avoid this, he has to create his own way to memorize the word's written form. He gave the example of the word 'refrigerator'. In interview, he reported that he created a new pronunciation to help him memorise the spelling of the word: 're-fu-ri-que-la-ta-ru'. First language users also may have spelling tests and must memorize spelling in order to read books, but the difference between first and foreign language learners is that foreign language learners are less likely to have chances to use new words orally. If they memorize new words with an incorrect pronunciation, they would have fewer opportunities to correct this.

6.3 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have presented the results of the questionnaire and the background interview. The questionnaire shows that a number of students have private lessons outside the classroom and that their reading in English is often encouraged by others around them, such as teachers or parents. The data from the background interview illustrates five themes: diversity of private lesson history, a range of reading practices, students' understanding of what reading is, appropriateness of reading materials and disconnected vocabulary learning. In the next section I present the miscue analysis of the twelve students who participated in the background interviews.

Chapter 7

Miscue analysis

In Chapter Five, I discussed the categories for coding the data and within those categories and identified five types of miscue. In this chapter, I present an analysis of the miscues of twelve students in reading *Hansel and Gretel*. The participants were asked to read aloud the same storybook twice. The second oral reading was followed by translation of the story. This chapter addresses one research sub-question and the second main research question:

- RQ1-2: What types of miscue can be identified in Korean EFL learners in the two oral readings?
- RQ2: How can miscue analysis usefully be applied to young foreign readers?

I also present data on the five types of miscues in the following order: substitutions, insertions, omissions, repetitions and reformulations. This order, which is not a frequency order, has been chosen for ease of presentation. These types are not placed in an order of frequency because they occurred differently in the two readings. In section 7.1, I clarify the key terms which are used in this chapter. In section 7.2, I analyze the five types of miscues occurring in the two oral readings. In section 7.3, I present the analysis of each type of miscue in more detail together with their subcategories. In section 7.4, I provide a brief presentation of miscue analysis for individual participant. When presenting the numeric data, I also present salient examples and compare the findings with those of previous miscue studies when needed.

7.1 Definitions of terms

In this section, I clarify key terms which are frequently used in this chapter. 'Responses' refers to actual pronunciations of the written texts during oral reading. These can be expected or unexpected responses. 'Miscues' means unexpected responses to written texts. Figure 7-1 describes how I classify miscues in the present study:
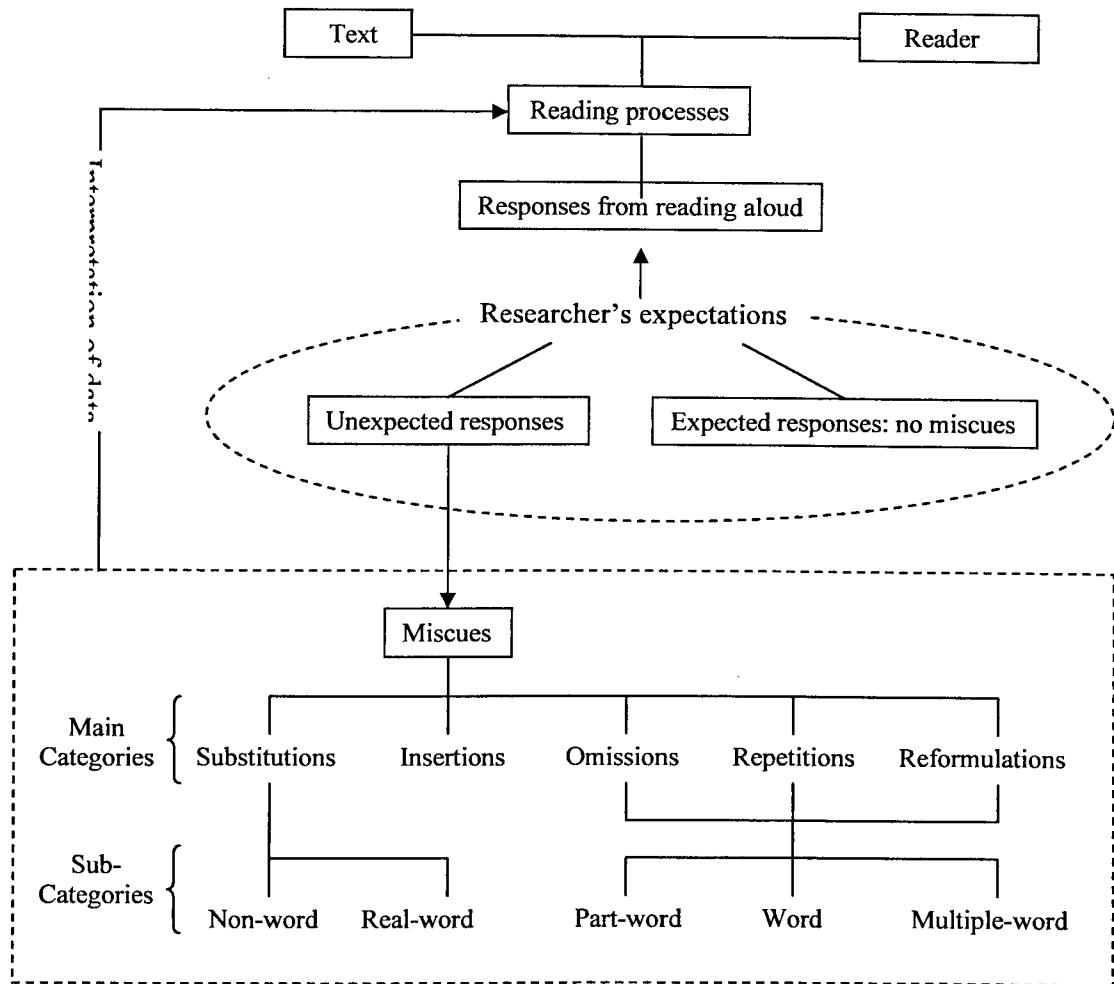
Figure 7-1 Miscue analysis

'Text' and 'reader' are separated at the top of this figure; I have defined interaction between these as 'reading processes'. In order to understand reading processes, I use interpretation of miscue data. Miscues in this study are first categorised into five types – substitutions, insertions, omissions, repetitions, and reformulations – and then subcategorised (these are illustrated in the dotted box in the figure). Identification of miscues is based on my expectations; unexpected responses are identified as miscues and categorised. This miscue analysis is based upon the students' two unassisted oral readings of *Hansel and Gretel*. They read the storybook twice without any significant pauses. 'Two oral readings' or 'both oral readings' include the first oral reading, as well as, the second oral reading in the same story book.

To explore the differences and sameness between the two oral readings, I organise the data in several ways: *'R1, R2, R1 only, R1∩R2, R2 only'* (I use these terms in italics throughout

this paper). *R1* refers to the miscues in the first oral reading and *R2* refers to the miscues in the second oral reading. *R1 only* refers to the miscues in the first oral reading that are not exactly reproduced in the second reading. *R1∩R2* refers to identical types of miscues that occur in the same places in the two oral readings and *R2 only* refers to the miscues of the second oral reading that do not precisely repeat those of the first.

In this study, the term 'repeated miscues' exclusively refers to the miscues in *R1∩R2*. It should be noted, however, that this term does not mean that the student produces identical responses in the two readings, although this can happen. For example, Boram repeatedly miscued the word 'stepmother' on page 10. In her first oral reading, she made the substitution (one type of miscue in this study) /sʊpmʌðər/ for 'stepmother'. In her second oral reading, she substituted /staːrmʌðər/. Although she produced the same type of miscue, that is, substitution, in the two oral readings, her responses of the word in the two oral readings were different. Although these differences are recorded in my data, I do not use separate labels in the data analysis as the differences are not significant, given the purposes of the analysis. The total number is arrived at based upon the types of miscues rather than the number of different responses. For example, the 110 substitutions in *R1∩R2* have double responses. There are 220 responses in total but, as miscues in *R1∩R2* represent repeated miscues of two oral readings, I count them as 110.

The miscues in *R2 only* are of two sorts: first, those types of miscue that did not happen in the student's first oral reading; second, those that occurred in both oral readings but in a different part of the text in the second oral reading. For example, Darim substituted /pebələs/ for 'pebbles' in both oral readings but in the second oral reading the substitution occurred in a different sentence. This is different from the miscues in *R1∩R2* because the miscue in *R2 only* is not produced for the same word in the same sentence. By dividing the two oral readings into three ways (*R1 only, R1∩R2, R2 only*), I hope both to analyse the changes that occur between the two oral readings more clearly and to pay a particular attention to the types of miscues that are exactly reproduced in both oral readings. I call these three ways of organisation 'the three occurrence patterns'. Figure 7-2 'The three occurrence patterns' illustrates these patterns.
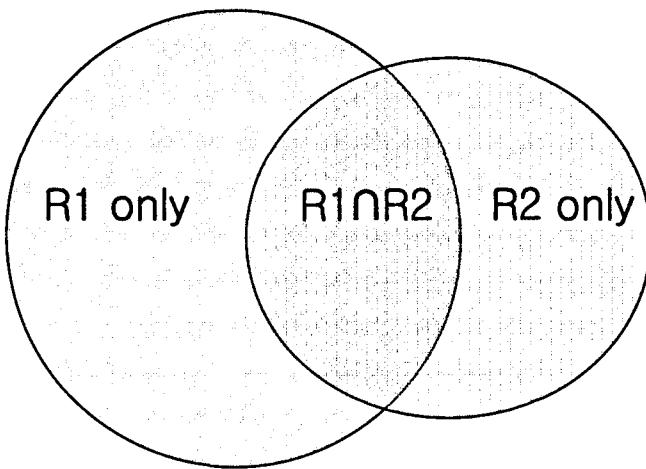
R1: R1 only + (R1∩R2)

R2: R2 only + (R1∩R2)

Figure 7-2 The three occurrence patterns

The Venn diagram above roughly indicates the proportion of miscues in each of the three occurrence patterns. It can be seen that the miscues observed in the two oral readings overlap considerably. If I simply ignore the miscues which are duplicated in the two oral readings, the numerical data will be differently presented. For example, *R2 only* shows a reduction of 119 miscues (30.3 percent) from *R1 only*. However, if I do not divide the two oral readings into the three occurrence patterns, and merely compare the miscues in the first and second oral readings, the percentage of reduction between the two readings is 20.1. This difference in percentages is caused by the duplication of miscues in the two oral readings. Moreover, when I identify the prevalent types of miscues, the result changes depending on how I organise the data. If it is organised merely in terms of two oral readings, then non-word substitutions are more prevalent than real-word substitutions in both oral readings; but if it is organised into the three occurrence patterns, the prevalent substitutions vary according to these three patterns. In *R1 only* or *R2 only*, real-word substitutions are more prevalent than non-word substitutions but in *R1∩R2*, non-word substitutions are more prevalent than real-word substitutions. To identify the sameness and differences of the two oral readings, it is more fruitful to organise the two oral readings into the three occurrence patterns.

7.2 Main categorisation of the miscues

In this section, I present an overview of my findings based on the total data. I categorize the miscue data by two oral readings or occurrence patterns, and by five types of miscues. Table 7-1 and Figure 7-3 illustrate the numbers and percentages of miscue in the two oral readings, using data gathered from all twelve students:

Table 7-1 Miscues in the two oral readings

Two oral readings	Number	Percentage
R1	591	55.6
R2	472	44.4
Total	1063	100

Figure 7-3 Miscues in the two oral readings
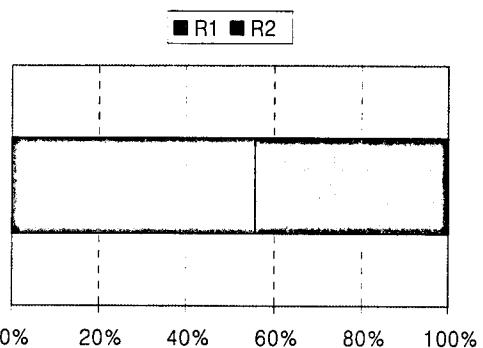
A total of 1063 miscues were produced in the two oral readings. As we can see in Table 7-1 and Figure 7-3, not many miscues were reduced in the second reading. The miscues in *R1* accounted for 591(55.6%) of the total miscues, whereas the miscues in *R2* constituted 472 (44.4%) of the total miscues. The table and figure above shows that the twelve students make more miscues in *R1* than *R2*. But with this presentation of the data, it is not possible to identify how much different or same miscues occurred in the two oral readings. Table 7-2 and Figure 7-4 summarise the numbers and percentages of miscue in the two oral readings according to the three occurrence patterns.

Table 7-2 Miscues in the three occurrence patterns

Occurrence patterns	Number	Percentage
R1 only	393	45.4
R1∩R2	198	22.9
R2 only	274	31.7
Total	865	100

Figure 7-4 Miscues in the three occurrence patterns
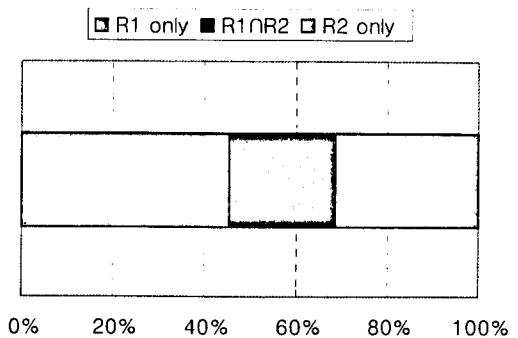
It should be noted that the total number (N=865) in the three occurrence patterns are not the same as the actual total number (N=1063) which occurred in the two readings, since repeated miscues were not double added in the three occurrence patterns. So in Table 7-2, the total number of miscues in the fifth row is the number of miscues in the first oral reading plus the number of miscues in the second oral reading and minus the repeated miscues. In other words, the 'total number of miscues' means the number of miscues which were summed up in the three occurrence patterns.

In Figure 7-3, the violet area represents repeated miscues in the two oral readings. The blue area represents *R2 only*. The number of miscues in the first oral reading (N=591) is the sum of the miscues in *R1 only* (N=393) and *R1∩R2* (N=198). In Figure 7-3, it is represented by the orange area plus the violet one. The number of miscues in the second oral reading (N=472) is the sum of *R1∩R2* (N=198) and *R2 only* (N=274). In Figure 7-3, it is represented by the violet and indigo areas.

The table and figure above suggest that the students made a number of the same miscues in the two oral readings. The miscues in *R1∩R2* take up 33.5 percent of *R1* and 41.9 percent of *R2*. While the first oral reading involves only reading aloud, the second oral reading is followed by translation of the text. This means that participants do not have to show their understanding of the text during the first oral reading. For some students, it then means that their reading process could be mainly a decoding one. But in their second oral reading, they are more likely to read the text for comprehension since they know that they have to translate it after the reading aloud. It is interesting that although the two oral readings are inherently different in this study, a number of repeated miscues are generated. The presence of repeated miscues raises two questions. First, could the students be using the same reading processes (decoding) even in the second oral reading (which is followed by translation)? Or secondly, could it be that the repeated miscues are not salient for understanding students' comprehension? Table 7-3 and Figure 7-5 summarise the distribution of the five types of miscues in each of the two oral readings:

Table 7-3 Five types of miscues in two oral readings

Miscues	Substitutions	Insertions	Omissions	Repetitions	Reformulations	Total
R1	183	11	128	187	82	591
R2	152	9	122	125	64	472
Total	335	20	250	312	146	1063
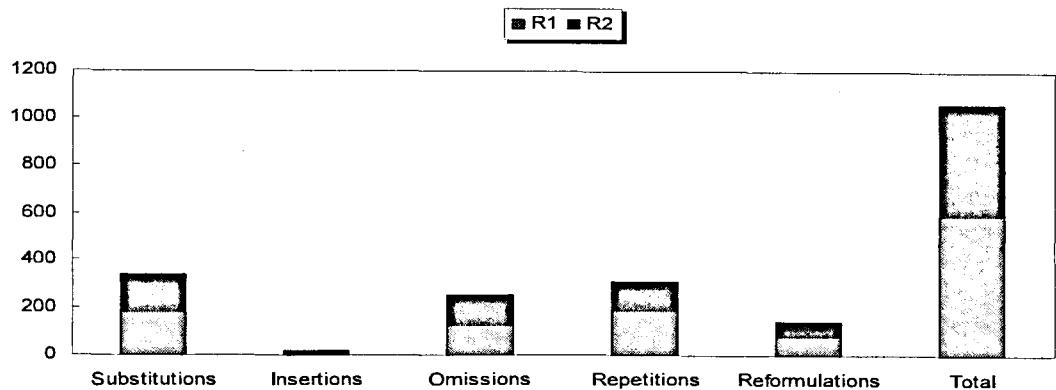
Figure 7-5 Five types of miscues in two oral readings

Each of the five types of miscues decreased between R1 and R2. Of the total of 1063 miscues, substitutions constitute the largest proportion, followed by repetitions. Omissions are the third, reformulations are the fourth and insertions are the last. However this frequency order of miscue types changed when I organised the data according to the three occurrence patterns. Table 7-4 and Figure 7-6 summarise the distribution of the five types of miscues according to the three occurrence patterns:

Table 7-4 Five types of miscues in the three occurrence patterns

Miscues	Substitutions	Insertions	Omissions	Repetitions	Reformulations	Total
R1 only	73	10	66	169	75	393
R1∩R2	110	1	62	18	7	198
R2 only	42	8	60	107	57	274
Total	225	19	188	294	139	865
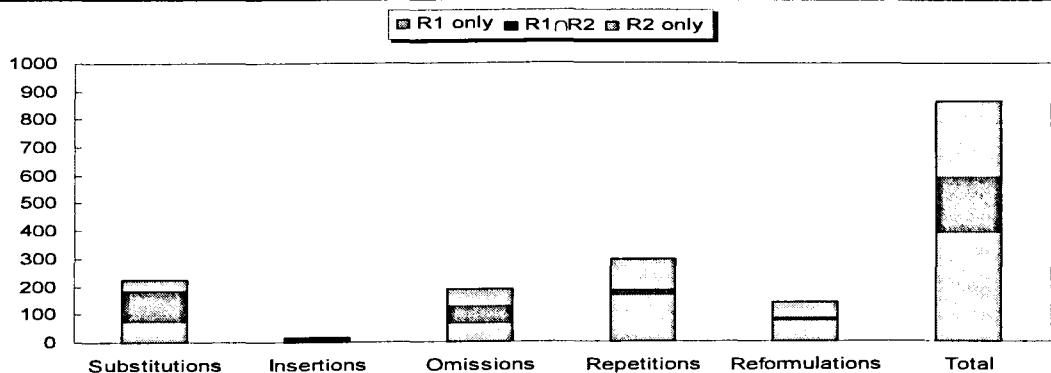
Figure 7-6 Five types of miscues in the three occurrence patterns

Substitutions in *R1∩R2* outnumbered substitutions in *R1* or *R2* whereas the other types of miscues in *R1∩R2* occur less often than miscues in *R1* or *R2*. Of the total of 865 miscues in three occurrence patterns, repetitions constitute the largest proportion, followed by substitutions. This finding is not consistent with previous miscue studies (e.g. Lee, 2001; Harji, 2002; Kim, 2007); in those studies, with non-native speakers, substitutions were the most common miscue. In the present study, approximately similar proportions of omissions were produced in the three occurrence patterns. Omissions and reformulations produced similar numbers and proportions of miscues in *R1 only* and *R2 only* but differed in the total number of miscues because of the different numbers of miscues in *R1∩R2*. Reformulations in *R1∩R2* are not produced as much as omissions in *R1∩R2*.

The frequency order of miscue types changed according to the presentation of data. For example, substitutions were not the most prevalent in either *R1 only* or *R2 only*. This is in contrast to the miscues in *R1, R2, R1∩R2*, where substitutions were the most common category. Repetitions constituted the highest proportion of miscues in both *R1 only* and *R2 only* but were not prevalent in *R1∩R2*. Figure 7-7 illustrates the frequency of types of miscues according to several different presentations of data (*R1, R2, R1 only, R1∩R2, and R2 only*).
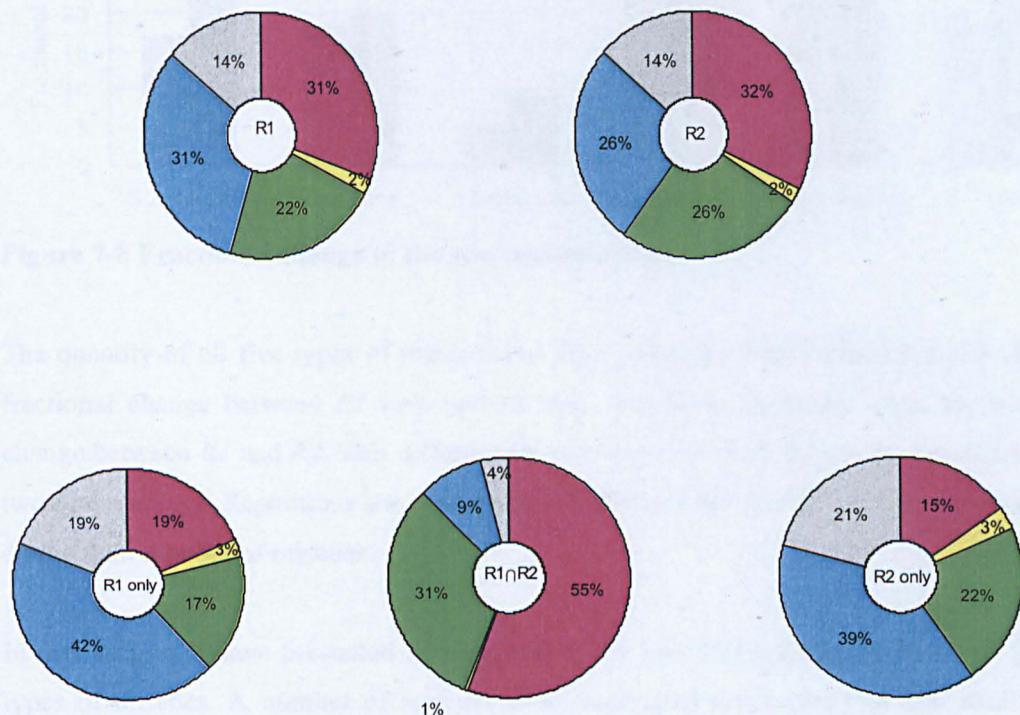
Figure 7-7 Distribution of each type of miscue

Substitutions and repetitions were the most frequent types of miscue in *R1*. Omissions were followed by reformulations and insertions. Substitutions were the most prevalent in *R2*. Repetitions and omissions were produced as the second most frequent miscue types in *R2*. The miscues that occurred in *R1 only*, arranged from the most frequent to the least frequent, are as follows: repetitions, reformulations, substitutions, omissions, and insertions. The most frequently occurring miscues in *R2 only* were also repetitions. Omissions were the next most frequently occurring miscues followed by reformulations. There were slightly fewer substitutions and the least frequently occurring miscues were reformulations. In *R1∩R2*, substitutions constituted the largest proportion of miscue types, followed, in order, by omissions, repetitions, reformulations, and insertions. Since miscue types vary in frequency, according to different methods of presenting the data, the changes of each miscue type between *R1 only* and *R2 only,* or *R1* and *R2* also vary. To compare the changes between the miscue types, I use fractional change, which considers miscues in each type of *R1* or *R1 only* as 1. Figure 7-8 shows the fractional changes in terms of miscue types:
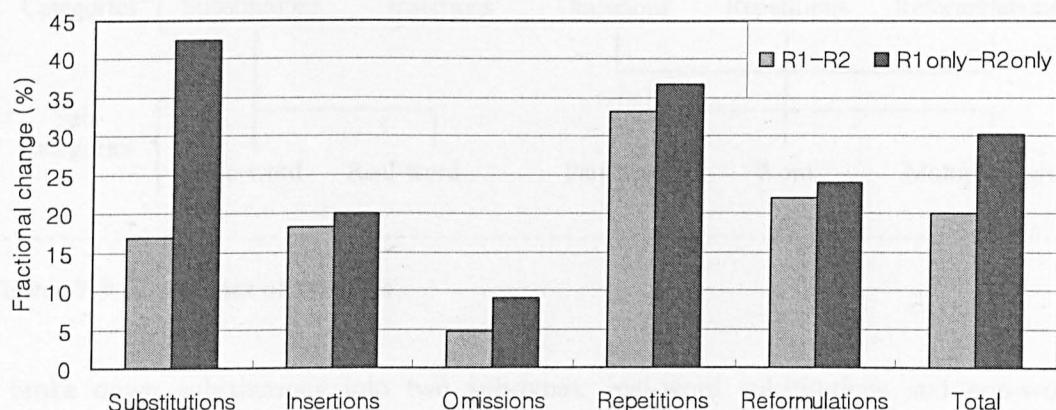
Figure 7-8 Fractional change in the two oral readings

The quantity of all five types of miscues has been reduced. Substitutions show the highest fractional change between *R1 only* and *R2 only,* but differed greatly from the fractional change between *R1* and *R2*. This difference in result is caused by the repeated miscues in the two oral readings. Repetitions show a higher rate of fractional change in both categories than do the total number of miscues.

In this section, I have presented the miscues in the two oral readings in terms of the five types of miscues. A number of miscues were duplicated across the two oral readings. In particular, a great many substitutions were repeated. Substitutions constitute the largest proportion of miscues in *R1, R2, R1∩R2* and show the highest fractional change between *R1*

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only and *R2 only*. Insertions constitute the smallest percentage of miscue types and the numbers of insertions are less than five percent of all miscues in the two oral readings. Omissions constitute approximately similar proportions in the three occurrence patterns. Repetitions constitute the largest proportion of miscues in *R1 only* and *R2 only* and show the highest fractional change between *R1* and *R2* or *R1 only* and *R2 only*. The next section presents a more in-depth examination of the miscue data in order to analyse each type of miscue to generate possible explanations for the differences and sameness of miscues in the two oral readings.

7.3 Sub-categorisation of the five types of miscues

In this section I examine the miscue data in more detail by sub-categorising each type of miscue except insertions. Figure 7-9 is partly reproduced from 7-1:
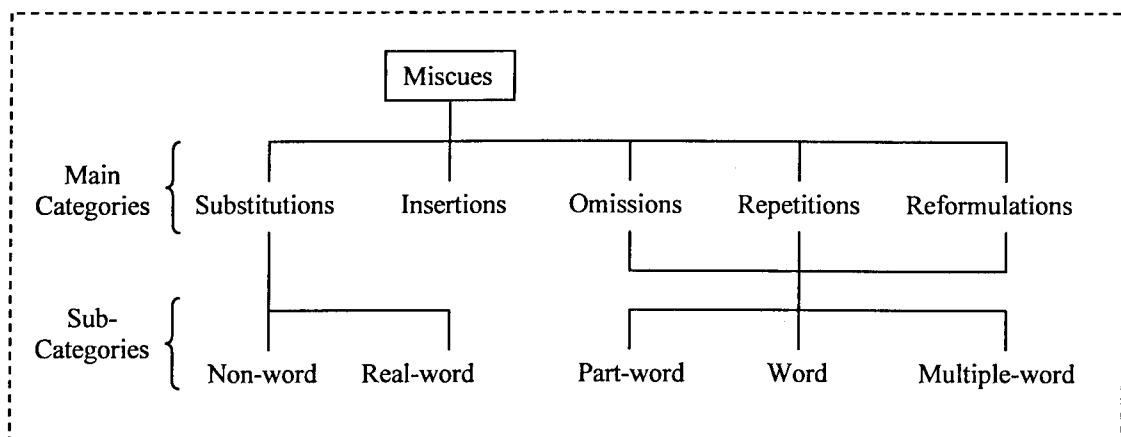
Figure 7-9 Categories of miscues

I broke down substitutions into two sub-types: real-word substitutions and non-word substitutions. Omissions, repetitions, and reformulations were subcategorised into three subtypes: part-word miscues, word miscues, and multiple-word miscues. I did not break down insertions since they constitute only a very small proportion of the miscues. In presenting miscue data based on sub-categories, I organised the data according to responses. I constructed another frame based on responses emerging from the data when required. For example, repetitions were frequently produced, along with other types of miscue. In this case, I created a further category in order to classify the repetitions according to the miscue types with which they were produced (see Table 7-17, p.157).

In constructing sub-types of each miscue type in regard to $R1 \cap R2$, I found that the total number of miscues did not match the total number of subtype miscues; this was because some students did not produce miscues in $R1 \cap R2$ consistently. This occurred in the cases of

substitutions and repetitions. Although the total number of substitutions in $R1 \cap R2$ is 110, the total number of real/non-word substitutions in $R1 \cap R2$ is 107. This is due to the fact that some students, such as Boram, did not show consistency in real/non-word substitutions of the same words. She sometimes produced a real-word substitution in the first reading but made a non-word substitution for the same word in her second reading. For example, she read the word 'pebbles' as '/piːbls/' in the first reading but produced the real-word substitution 'plums' in her second reading. This suggests that she does not understand the word. Other students made substitutions in $R1 \cap R2$ consistently: if they made non-word substitutions, they made them in both readings. In regard to repetitions in $R1 \cap R2$, four students (Gisu, Wongu, Hemi, Minsa) were not consistent. For example, Wongu produced multiple-word repetitions involving the word 'lights' in his first reading, but he produced word repetitions, with the same word, in his second reading. Here is an example of this:

Original text: The woodcutter lights a fire.

First oral reading: The woodcutter lights a lights a fire.

Second oral reading: The woodcutter lights lights a fire.

7.3.1 Substitutions

In the two oral readings, a total of 335 substitutions occurred. I sub-categorised substitutions into two types: real-word substitutions and non-word substitutions. Table 7-5 and Figure 7-10 provide an analysis:

Table 7-5 Real/non-word substitutions

Substitutions	Real-word substitutions	Non-word substitutions	Total
R1	62	121	183
R2	50	102	152
Total	112	223	335
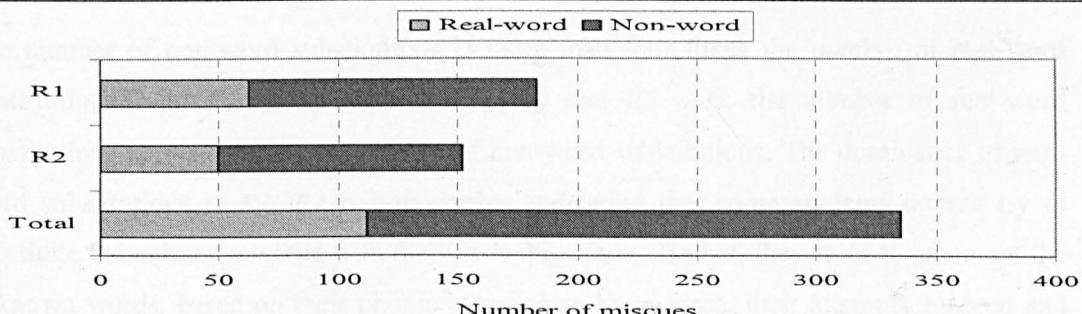
Figure 7-10 Real/non-word substitutions

In total, there were 112 real-word substitutions and 223 non-word substitutions; this is a different result from those produced by previous miscue studies in a first or second language context, where real-word substitutions are usually more numerous than non-word substitutions (Goodman, 1967; Arnold, 1982; Harji, 2002). It would seem logical that L1 or L2 speakers would produce more real-word substitutions than non-word substitutions. They probably know the word and, therefore, might be expected to produce the real-word substitutions eventually. If we examine the real/non-word substitutions according to the three occurrence patterns, however, we find that non-word substitutions do not always outnumber real-word substitutions. Table 7-6 and Figure 7-11 provide an analysis:

Table 7-6 Real/non-word substitutions in the three occurrence patterns

Substitutions	Real-word substitutions	Non-word substitutions	Total
R1 only	42	31	73
R1∩R2	19	88	107
R2 only	29	13	42
Total	90	132	222
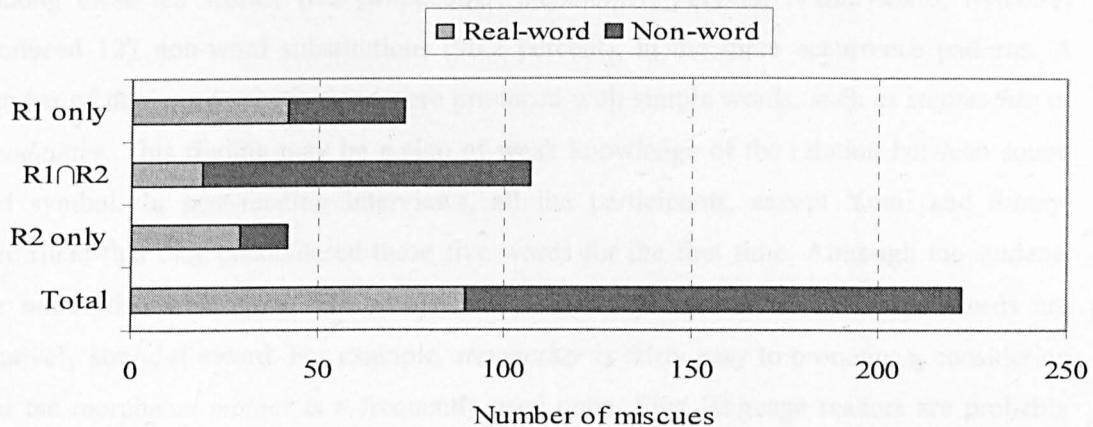
Figure 7-11 Real/non-word substitutions in the three occurrence patterns

The number of non-word substitutions is more than four times the number of real-word substitutions in *R1∩R2*; however, in *R1 only* and *R2 only*, the number of real-word substitutions is greater than the number of non-word substitutions. The dominance of non-word substitutions in *R1∩R2* is noteworthy, indicating that some students do not try to substitute the unknown words with the words they know. Rather, they want to name out the unknown words, based on their phonic knowledge. Sometimes, their attempts succeed and sometimes they make non-words. This indicates that miscues can be made by misarticulation

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in pronunciation. If the same misarticulation in pronunciation occurs repeatedly, it will probably be due to a problem in decoding. This raises the question of what information the substitutions reveal in miscue analysis. It appears to indicate that substitutions may not always be produced from the reader's guesswork, as other miscue researchers have claimed. Table 7-7 shows the details of the non-word substitutions:

Table 7-7 Details of the non-word substitutions in the three occurrence patterns

Non-words	Woodcutter (11)	Stepmother (9)	Pebbles (6)	Breadcrumbs (3)	Treasure (2)	Other words	Total
R1 only	4	6	8	3	2	1(witch) 1(light) 1(out) 1(puts)	31
R1∩R2	32	2	33	8	12	1(find)	88
R2 only	2	3	2	4	2	0	13
Total	38	11	43	15	16	5	132

The number in brackets below the words in each column indicates the number of times the word occurs in the text. Non-word substitutions were produced for ten different words: *woodcutter, stepmother, pebbles, breadcrumbs, treasure, witch, light, out, puts*, and *find*. Among these ten words, five (*woodcutter, stepmother, pebbles, breadcrumbs, treasure*) produced 127 non-word substitutions (96.2 percent), in the three occurrence patterns. A number of non-word substitutions were produced with simple words, such as *stepmother* or *woodcutter*. This finding may be a sign of weak knowledge of the relation between sound and symbol. In post-reading interviews, all the participants, except Yumi and Sunny, confirmed that they encountered these five words for the first time. Although the students are unfamiliar with these five words, some of the pronunciations of those words are relatively straightforward. For example, *stepmother* is fairly easy to pronounce, considering that the morpheme *mother* is a frequently-used noun. First language readers are probably able to sense, consciously or unconsciously, how to pronounce various English words. In this sense, their decoding process is more or less automatic. For foreign language learners, such a process may be a lot less automatic. This means that during the reading process, they are overloaded by the need to pay attention to both decoding and comprehension. Based on the data of non-word substitutions, some of my participants seemed not to know how to name out the words using the English phonics pattern. This again raises a question concerning the role of miscues for foreign language readers. Table 7-8 illustrates the words which produced real-word substitutions in the three occurrence patterns:

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Table 7-8 Words which produced real-word substitutions in the three occurrence patterns

	R1 only	R1∩R2	R2 only	Content/Function words
To	✓	✓	✓	F
It	✓	✓	✓	F
Here	✓	✓		F
No	✓	✓		F
Hansel	✓	✓		C
In		✓	✓	F
Fire	✓		✓	C
Drops	✓		✓	C
Has	✓		✓	C
A	✓		✓	F
They	✓		✓	F
We		✓		F
Pebbles		✓		C
Good		✓		C
Treasure		✓		C
Some	✓			F
As	✓			F
Stay	✓			C
Gone	✓			C
Come	✓			C
He	✓			F
Up	✓			F
Sleep	✓			C
Want	✓			C
Lights	✓			C
Out			✓	F
And			✓	F
Into			✓	F
Hot			✓	C
Get			✓	C
The			✓	F
Jumps			✓	C
Come			✓	C
Look			✓	C
Total	20	10	17	C(18) F (16)

Real-word substitutions were produced for 34 different words. Except for three words, 'pebbles',' treasure' and 'light', the words which produced real-word substitutions were different from the words which produced non-word substitutions. In *R1 only*, 20 different words produced real-word substitutions; in *R1∩R2*, 10 different words produced real-word substitutions; and in *R2 only*, 17 different words produced real-word substitutions. Across the three occurrence patterns, there were some words which repeatedly produced real-word substitutions. Therefore, overall, 34 different words produced real-word substitutions. The fifth column indicates whether the word is a content word or a function word: 'C' indicates content words and 'F' function words. There were 18 different content words and 16 function words which produced real-word substitutions. The real-word substitutions for 13 different function words (to, it, here, no, in, a, they, we, as, he, and, into, the) appear to indicate that some students may have a very weak knowledge of the link between sound and spelling, or read the text carelessly. Alternatively, it could mean that they did not pay attention to function words, unless those words altered the meaning. Vinegrad (1988) claimed that when people are engaged in reading, their attention tends to be centred on content words, such as nouns, adjectives, and verbs. That could be the reason that function words produced several types of miscue, such as omissions, insertions, and substitutions. Mistakes with function words often have grammatical errors as their corollary.

A total of 90 real-word substitutions in three occurrence patterns were produced for 34 different words. This is quite different from 132 non-word substitutions, which were made for only ten different words. In the non-word substitutions, moreover, five content words (*woodcutter, stepmother, pebbles, breadcrumbs* and *treasure*) produced 96.2 percent of the non-word substitutions in the three occurrence patterns. In contrast, in the real-word substitutions, only two function words (to, it) produced 24.4 percent of the real-word substitutions in the three occurrence patterns. It is surprising that these simple function words produced real-word substitutions. Table 7-9 shows the responses of real-word substitutions produced:

Table 7-9 Responses of real-word substitutions

Original words	Real-word substitutions		
	R1 only	R1∩R2	R2 only
To	The (7)/ It	The (4)/ It/ the	The (5)
It	This	Its	It's (2)
Here	Hair (3)	Hair (2)/ Hair/He	
No	On	Now/ Not (2)	
Hansel	Handsome (7)	Handsome/ House	
In		If	Into/ If
Fire	Pie (2)/ Free		Light
Drops	Drip		Drip
Has	Have/And		Have (2)
A	The/An		An
They	Their		The
We		The / He	
Pebbles		Problem	
Good			
Treasure		Future (2)	
Some	The/ Small(2)		
As	And		
Stay	Says/Stray		
Gone	Go	Go	
Come	Go		
He	We		
Up	Out		
Sleep	Sleepy		
Want	Went		
Lights	Want		
Out			Home
And			In
Into			In
Hot			Hat
Get			Go
The			A/ They (2)
Jumps			Jumping
Come			Go
Look			Rock
Total	42	19	29

The students mostly made graphophonically appropriate substitutions, for example, 'want' instead of 'went'. This clearly shows that some students' decoding processes were not automatic. In fact, some of the real-word substitutions were produced by only one student.

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For example, Darim alone produced 18 real-word substitutions for the word 'to', but for the word 'here,' three students (Darim, Gisu, and Coda) confused the word with 'hair.'

7.3.2 Omissions

A total of 250 omissions were made in the two oral readings. Table 7-10 and Figure 7-12 show the three subtypes of omissions.

Table 7-10 Omissions in the three subtypes

Omissions	Part-word	Word omissions	Multiple-word	Total
R1	115	12	1	128
R2	94	24	4	122
Total	209	36	5	250
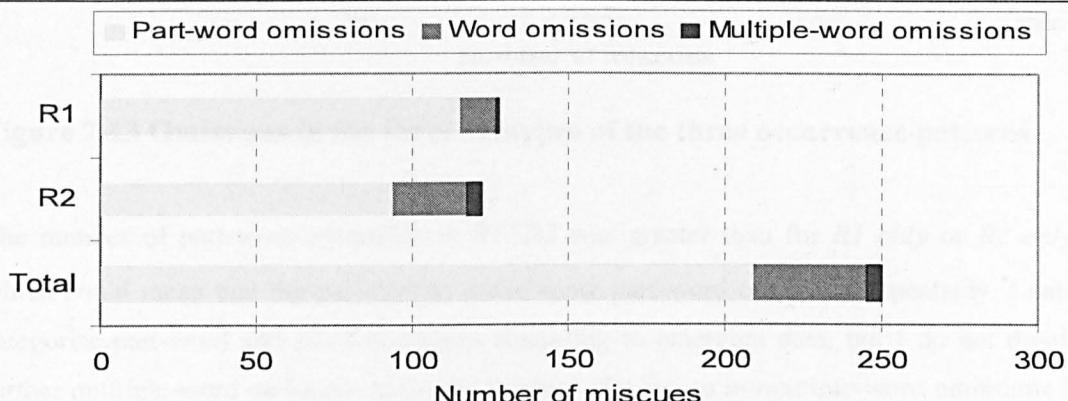
Figure 7-12 Omissions in the three subtypes

As seen in Table 7-10 and Figure 7-12, the total number of omissions is fairly similar in the two oral readings, although the number of sub-categories is different. Part-word omissions were the most common (83.6 percent). The number of part-word omissions reduced between *R1* and *R2,* whereas the number of word or multiple-word omissions increased between *R1 only* and *R2 only*. It is interesting to see that word omissions double in the second oral reading. Since the second reading also requires them to focus on the translation tasks, it can be argued that their attention may be divided between decoding and meaning construction. In the first reading, the students could pay all their attention to naming out the words on the text as correctly as possible but in the second reading, they have two main tasks: reading aloud and translation. These tasks may take up more of the processing capacity of students in the second reading than in the first; because of this limited capacity, some students may omit words during reading. Table 7-11 and Figure 7-13 show the three subtypes of omissions according to the three occurrence patterns.

Table 7-11 Omissions in the three subtypes of the three occurrence patterns

Omissions	Part-word	Word omissions	Multiple-word	Total
R1 only	55	10	1	66
R1∩R2	60	2	0	62
R2 only	34	22	4	60
Total	149	34	5	188
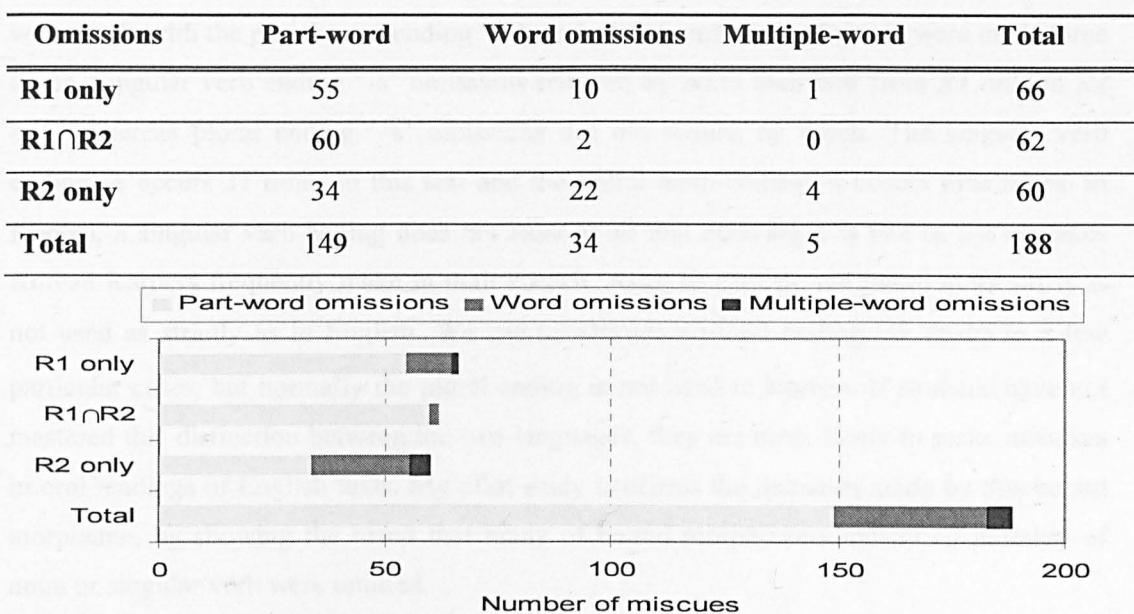
Figure 7-13 Omissions in the three subtypes of the three occurrence patterns

The number of part-word omissions in *R1∩R2* was greater than for *R1 only* or *R2 only*, which could mean that the participants make some part-word omissions repeatedly. I sub-categorise part-word and word omissions according to emergent data, but I do not divide further multiple-word omissions since the number of miscues in multiple-word omissions is not that notable; instead, I describe the five occasions when multiple-word omissions occurred. These omissions were produced by three students (Darim, Gisu, and Namsu). Darim flipped over the first page when he started to read *Hansel and Gretel*, thus omitting page 1 in *R1 only*. He repeated this mistake with page 13 in *R2 only*. Namsu also skipped reading page 11 in *R2 only*. Gisu omitted the whole sentences 'They eat and eat' on page 14 and 'We can have it' on page 19 in *R2 only*. Table 7-12 shows the part-word omissions in more detail:

Table 7-12 Part-word omissions in the three occurrence patterns

Omissions	Singular verb ending –s	Plural ending –s	Other part-word	Total
R1 only	41	11	3	55
R1∩R2	52	8	0	60
R2 only	25	9	0	34
Total	118	28	3	149

Amongst the part-word omissions, 118 were made with the singular verb ending '–s,' 28 were made with the plural noun ending '–s', and partial omissions of words were made three times. Singular verb ending '–s' omissions reduced by more than half from *R1 only* to *R2 only,* whereas plural ending '–s' omissions did not reduce by much. The singular verb ending –s occurs 31 times in this text and the plural noun ending –s occurs nine times. In Korean, a singular verb ending does not exist at all and omitting it is one of the mistakes Korean learners frequently make in their speech. Also, in Korean, the plural noun suffix is not used as strictly as in English. We use sometimes a plural ending (들/deul/) in a few particular cases, but normally the plural ending is not used in Korean. If students have not mastered this distinction between the two languages, they are more likely to make mistakes in oral readings of English texts. My pilot study confirms the demands made by this bound morpheme, by showing the result that many of bound morpheme-s indicating plurality of noun or singular verb were omitted.

The omissions of either the singular verb ending –s or the plural ending –s may be due to the acquisition order in the process of learning to speak. Other part-word omissions were only produced three times:

Boram: /wud/ for woodcutter
Yumi: /gre/ for Gretel
Darim: /gretəl/ for Gretel's

It is not clear whether these omissions were the result of phonological problems or a cross-linguistic effect, or perhaps both. Also, in regard to the plural ending '–s' although there is an equivalent morpheme in Korean, the rule governing its use is not as strict as in English. Such repeated miscues could stem from the students' language development rather than from miscuing the text since they repeated the same miscues consistently. Table 7-13 shows word omissions in more detail:

Table 7-13 Word omissions in the three occurrence patterns

Omissions	Articles	Prepositions	Verbs	other words	Total
R1 only	6(the)	0	1(Get)	(1)here (1)Good (1)treasure	10
R1∩R2	2(the)	0	0	0	2
R2 only	11(the) 3(a)	2(for)	1(Has) 1(Are) 1(Is) 1(Says)	1(Up) 1(and)	22
Total	22	2	5	5	34

The words in brackets next to the numbers in each column indicate the words which were omitted during reading aloud. Amongst the word omissions, 19 (64%) were made with the definite article 'the'. Omissions of articles increased from *R1 only* to *R2 only*. In Korean, an article is not needed in front of nouns. It places demands on readers not to omit articles when they read English aloud as well as to understand subtle differences in connotation relevant with articles.

The table suggests that omissions were produced for function words (N=27) rather than content words (N=7). The omitted words were different amongst the different students. Kilsu, Jamin, and Darim omitted verbs, whereas Wongu's omissions were all prepositions. Minsa, on the other hand, omitted the conjunction 'and' from the chunk 'Hansel and Gretel.'

7.3.3 Repetitions

A total of 312 repetitions were made in the two oral readings. Table 7-14 and Figure 7-14 show the types of repetition in two oral readings:

Table 7-14 Repetitions in three subtypes

Repetitions	Part-word	Word	Multiple-word	Total
R1	63	93	31	187
R2	37	63	25	125
Total	100	156	56	312
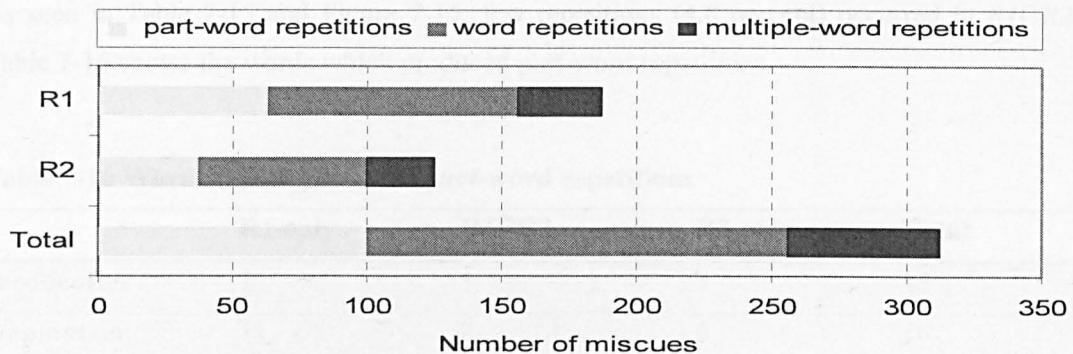
Figure 7-14 Repetitions in the three subtypes

Table 7-14 and Figure 7-14 show that word repetitions were the most common (50 percent). The three subcategories of repetitions were reduced between *R1* and *R2*. Part-word repetition usually occurs when students try to read the unknown words first several times, so it is not surprising that the number of part-word repetition miscues reduced in the second reading. It is interesting that the number of multiple-word repetitions did not reduce in the second reading.

Table 7-15 and Figure 7-15 show the three subtypes of repetitions according to the three occurrence patterns:

Table 7-15 Repetitions in three subtypes in the three occurrence patterns

Repetitions	Part-word	Word	Multiple-word	Total
R1 only	57	85	27	169
R1∩R2	6	6	2	14
R2 only	30	55	22	107
Total	93	146	51	290
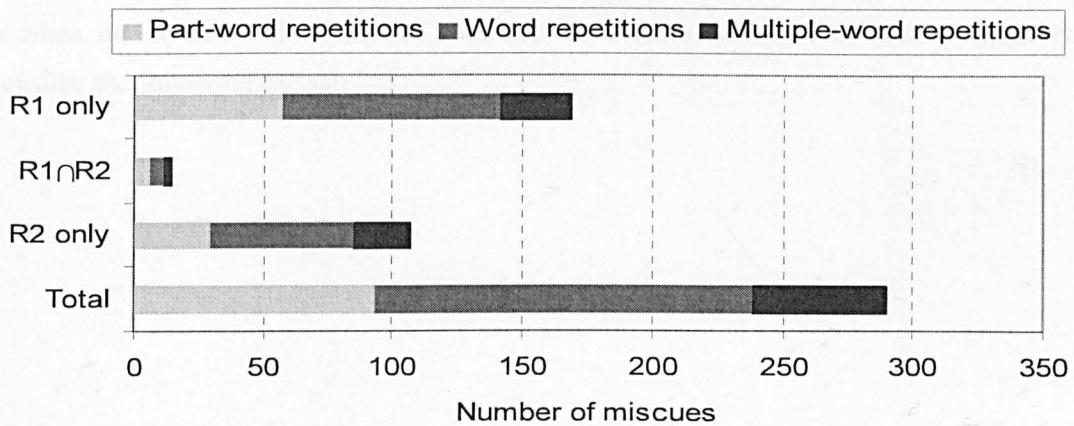
Figure 7-15 Repetitions in the three subtypes in the three occurrence patterns

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As seen in Table 7-15 and Figure 7-15, few repetitions (4.8 percent) occurred in $R1 \cap R2$. Table 7-16 shows the words which produced part-word repetitions.

Table 7-16 Words which produced part-word repetitions

	R1 only	R1∩R2	R2 only	Total
Woodcutter	11	1	3	15
Stepmother	11	2	5	18
Pebbles	13	0	1	14
Breadcrumbs	10	0	5	15
Treasure	2	1	2	5
Gretel	3	0	5	8
Fire	0	0	1	1
Gone	2	0	0	2
Cage	0	0	1	1
Drop	1	0	0	1
Hansel	2	2	7	11
Witch	1	0	0	1
And	1	0	0	1
Total	57	6	30	93

Thirteen different words produced part-word repetitions. Among these, the five which produced non-word substitutions across the three occurrence patterns here produced 67 part-word repetitions (72 percent). This may be a sign that students are using repetition strategies to approach unfamiliar words.

Multiple-word repetitions usually occur when students are trying to reformulate something or when the layout of the sentence interrupts them from reading the sentence properly. Consider the following extract:

Extract 7-1 Page 10 of *Hansel and Gretel*

Page 10 of *Hansel and Gretel*	Wongu's first oral reading
The woodcutter and the stepmother go to sleep. Hansel gets up to look for some pebbles. He can't get out.	The woodcutter **and the and the** stepmother go to sleep. Hansel gets up to **look look** for some pebbles. **He can't go out he can't go out get out.**

When reading this extract, Wongu repeats the words 'and the' in the first sentence; it is probably because the words 'and' and 'the' were split across two lines, and he seems reluctant to pause between these two words. On his first attempt, he paused slightly between these two words, and on the second attempt he read a lot more naturally, without that awkward pause. Repetition ('look look') also occurred in the second sentence, seemingly, for the same reason. The miscues Wongu produced in the third sentence are interesting: he repeated the sentence level 'he can't go out', before finally reformulating his attempt to the correct phrase 'get out'. In this case, he may be using repetition to enable more processing time for his reformulation. I observed similar responses in other participants. This is from Gisu's second oral reading:

Original text: Hansel gets up to look for some pebbles.

Second oral reading: Hansel **get up gets up** to look for some pebbles.

In this example, Gisu reformulates from 'get' to 'gets', at the same time as she repeats the word 'up'. Table 7-17 shows the miscues which occurred with word repetitions:

Table 7-17 Miscues occurring with word repetitions

	Substitutions	Part-word omissions	Part-word repetitions	Multiple-word repetitions	Reformulations	Total
R1 only	1	4	5	2	21	33
R1∩R2	0	1	0	0	1	2
R2 only	2	0	4	1	12	19
Total	3	5	9	3	34	54

More than one third of word repetitions (54 out of 146) occurred with other types of miscues, of which reformulations were the most prevalent. This was also the case with multiple-word repetitions. Table 7-18 shows the miscues which occurred with multiple-word repetitions:

Table 7-18 Miscues occurring with multiple-word repetitions

	Part-word omissions	Part-word repetitions	Word repetitions	Reformulations	Total
R1 only	0	1	2	9	12
R1∩R2	0	0	0	1	1
R2 only	1	0	1	2	4
Total	1	1	3	12	17

As seen in Table 7-18, multiple-word repetitions also co-occurred most often with reformulations. It indicates that they may use repetition as a strategy, which enables them to gain a 'fresh start'.

7.3.4 Reformulations

Reformulation miscue data is of significance when trying to understand reading, because the specific attempts at reformulation indicate that the students are aware that they have made an error in their reading and that they should try to correct it and revise their strategies. A total of 146 reformulations were made in the three occurrence patterns. Table 7-19 and Figure 7-16 show the types of reformulations:

Table 7-19 Reformulations in the three subtypes

Reformulations	Part-word reformulations	Word reformulations	Multiple-word reformulations	Total
R1	26	54	2	82
R2	21	39	4	64
Total	47	93	6	146
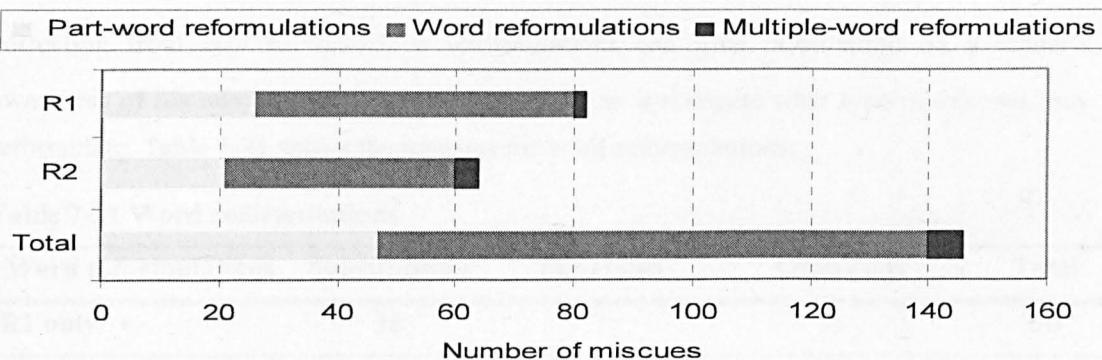
Figure 7-16 Reformulations in the three subtypes

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Table 7-19 and Figure 7-16 show that word reformulations were the most common (63.7 percent). The number of part-word or word reformulations reduced between *R1* and *R2,* whereas the number of multiple-word reformulations increased between *R1 only* and *R2 only.* Table 7-20 and Figure 7-17 show the three subtypes of reformulation according to the three occurrence patterns:

Table 7-20 Reformulations in the three subtypes in the three occurrence patterns

Reformulations	Part-word	Word	Multiple-word	Total
R1 only	24	50	1	75
R1∩R2	2	4	1	7
R2 only	19	35	3	57
Total	45	89	5	139
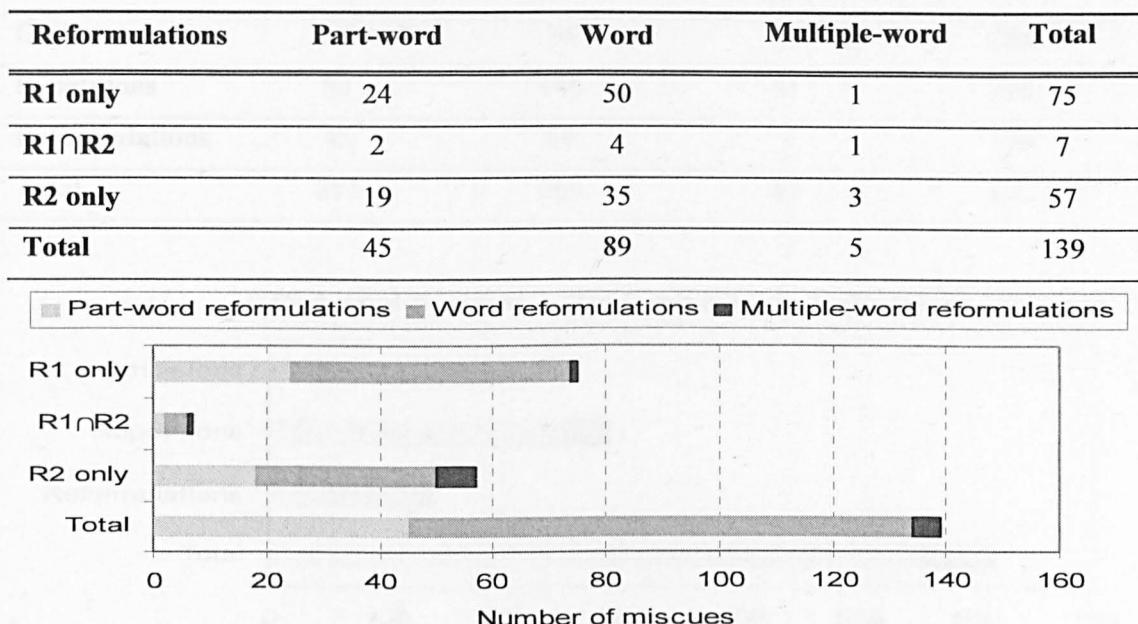
Figure 7-17 Reformulations in the three subtypes in the three occurrence patterns

As seen in Table 7-20 and Figure 7-17, part-word reformulations constituted more than 40 percent of the reformulations, and most seemed to be due to the decoding process. For example, Darim named out the word 'woodcutter' as /wudkɒ ...kʌtər/. In this example, he first tried to name out the word /wudkɒ/ and then corrected the part to the whole by correcting from /kɒ/ to /kʌtər/. If reformulations can give information on a reader's awareness of his miscues, then it would be useful to investigate what type of miscues they reformulate. Table 7-21 shows the miscues for word reformulations:

Table 7-21 Word reformulations

Word reformulations	Substitutions	Insertions	Omissions	Total
R1 only	38	7	5	50
R1∩R2	4	0	0	4
R2 only	29	5	1	35
Total	71	12	6	89

Table 7-21 indicates that substitutions were reformulated the most, which suggests that students were particularly aware of their tendency to substitute words in their oral reading. Table 7-22 and Figure 7-18 show the three levels of three types of miscue. The total is taken from the three occurrence patterns (R1 only, R1∩R2, R2 only):

Table 7-22 Three levels of miscues

Miscues	Part-word	Word	Multiple-word	Total
Omissions	149	34	5	188
Repetitions	93	146	51	290
Reformulations	45	89	5	139
Total	287	269	61	617
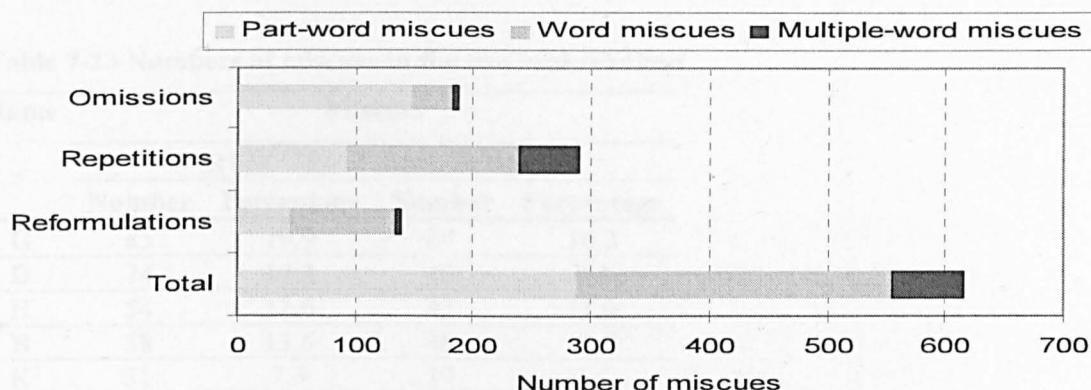
Figure 7-18 Three levels of miscues

Out of 617 miscues, 287 of them occurred as part-word miscues (46.5%) and 269 were word miscues (43.6%). Of the part-word miscues, more than half were made as part-word omissions (51.9%), while, among the word miscues, more than half were repetitions (54.3%).

7.3.5 Summary

In this section, I have presented the sub-types of miscues across two oral readings and the three occurrence patterns. Substitutions were subcategorised into real/non-word substitutions. Omissions, repetitions and reformulations were subcategorised into three levels of miscues; part-word/word/multiple-word miscues. It was found that repeated miscues occurred a lot across the two readings and non-word substitutions constituted the highest proportion of the repeated miscues. Also, a number of part-word miscues were produced. In the next section, I present a miscue analysis of twelve students. Since some students may contribute disproportionately to the overall analysis of miscues, I realized that it might prove useful to

perform a miscue analysis of each student. In the next section, I discuss these individual analyses.

7.4 Miscue analysis of the twelve students

I have remarked on the fact that a number of repeated miscues were produced in the two oral readings. Most of the repeated substitutions occur as non-words and most of the repeated omissions occur with the singular verb ending -s or plural noun ending -s. Will this tendency be apparent when we examine this group as individual students? In this section, I present the miscues made by the individual students. I perform cross analysis and in depth analysis of each student. Table 7-23 shows the total number of miscues that occurred during both oral readings:

Table 7-23 Numbers of miscues in the two oral readings

Name	Miscues			
	R1		R2	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
G	85	19.9	69	16.2
D	74	17.3	40	9.4
H	54	12.6	47	11.0
B	58	13.6	46	10.8
K	31	7.3	19	4.4
M	30	7.0	11	2.6
N	64	15.0	68	16.0
C	44	10.3	48	11.2
Y	39	9.1	27	6.3
J	12	2.8	13	3.0
S	17	4.0	16	3.7
W	40	9.4	46	10.8

The second column shows the number of miscues that occur in the first reading and the fourth column shows the number that occurs in the second. The percentage of miscues in each reading is presented in the third and fifth columns. Only two students (Jamin and Sunny) produced below five percent of miscues in both readings. At first, Kilsu and Minsa produced more than five percent miscues, but reduced this figure to below five in their second readings. The other eight students made more than five percent of miscues in both readings. The post reading interview with them reveals that the percentage of miscues does not necessarily reflect students' perceived difficulties. For example, Minsa produced less than three percent of miscues in her second reading, but said that she found *Hansel and Gretel* difficult. On the other hand, Gisu made almost twenty percent of miscues in her first

reading, but, after reading the story, she said that she enjoyed the reading and did not regard it as difficult.

An examination of the table above shows that eight out of the twelve students showed an improvement in their second reading, as indicated by a reduction in the number of miscues. The other four students, however, show an increase in the number of miscues in their second reading. Table 7-24 shows the difference in the number of miscues in the second reading. A 'minus' (-) in front of the number indicates a reduction in the number of miscues and a 'plus' (+) indicates an increase:

Table 7-24 Changes in number of miscues in the two readings

Name	G	D	H	B	K	M	N	C	Y	J	S	W
Change	- 16	- 40	-7	-12	-12	-19	+4	+4	+4	+1	-1	+6

Table 7-24 suggests that Darim has shown the greatest reduction in number of miscues, while Wongu has shown the highest increase. With reference to the post-reading interview, there seems to be little relation between the reduction in miscues across the two readings and the students' perception of their relative difficulty. For example, Darim reported that the first reading was fine and the second reading was difficult for him, although he reduced his miscues by forty in the second reading. What is interesting here is that a reduction in the number of miscues does not necessarily reflect how difficult the students found the task; for example, Minsa reduced her miscues by nineteen in the second oral reading, whereas Wongu produced six more miscues the second time. In an interview, Minsa said that the book *Hansel and Gretel* was difficult for her, whereas Wongu claimed that it was quite easy for him. Table 7-25 and Figure 7-19 show the number of miscues in the three occurrence patterns for each student:

Table 7-25 Number of miscues in the three occurrence patterns for each student

Name	R1 only	R1∩R2	R2 only
G	63	31	44
D	70	22	39
H	50	14	39
B	28	40	18
K	21	13	6
M	9	4	8
N	36	27	29
C	23	16	21
Y	24	16	15
J	8	7	8
S	9	0	6
W	52	8	41
Total	**393**	**198**	**274**
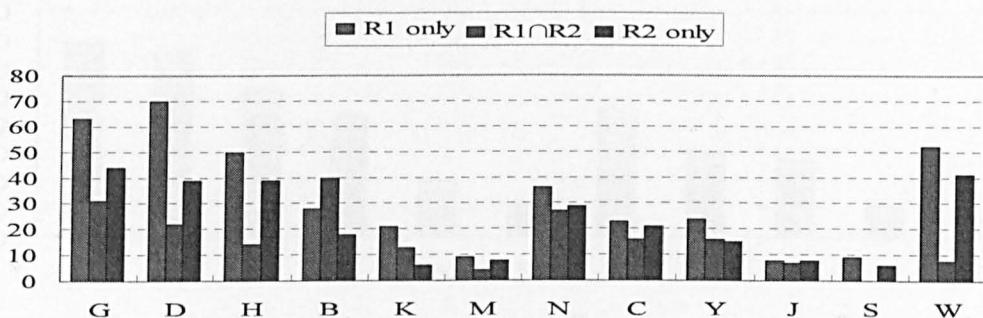
Figure 7-19 Number of miscues in the three occurrence patterns for each student

An examination of Table 7-25 and Figure 7-19 suggests that the majority of the students produced more miscues in *R1 only* than miscues in *R1∩R2* or *R2 only*. I highlight the case of Sunny, who did not produce any repeated miscues in the three occurrence patterns. Based on my data, this is quite unusual, given that repeated miscues constitute 22.8 percent in the three occurrence patterns. Boram, on the other hand, produced more repeated miscues than miscues in *R1 only* or *R2 only*. This is partly because Boram produced consistent non-word substitutions for the most frequently used word in *Hansel and Gretel,* 'woodcutter (which is used eleven times in the storybook)' by saying it as /wudkrʌtər/. Jamin shows the same number of miscues in *R1 only* or *R2 only*. Table 7-26 and Figure 7-20 demonstrate the number of miscues by the twelve students, according to five types of miscue. Here, the total is worked out from the three occurrence patterns, rather than the two oral readings:

Table 7-26 Number of miscues in five types of miscue for each student

Total	Substitutions	Insertions	Omissions	Repetitions	Reformulations	Total
G	32	2	23	61	20	138
D	58	3	32	18	20	131
H	22	0	24	40	17	103
B	38	1	24	16	7	86
K	13	0	7	12	8	40
M	3	0	3	11	4	21
N	21	1	23	39	8	92
C	7	0	25	15	13	60
Y	17	4	14	9	11	55
J	7	1	4	9	2	23
S	0	1	0	7	7	15
W	7	6	9	57	22	101
Total	225	19	188	294	139	865
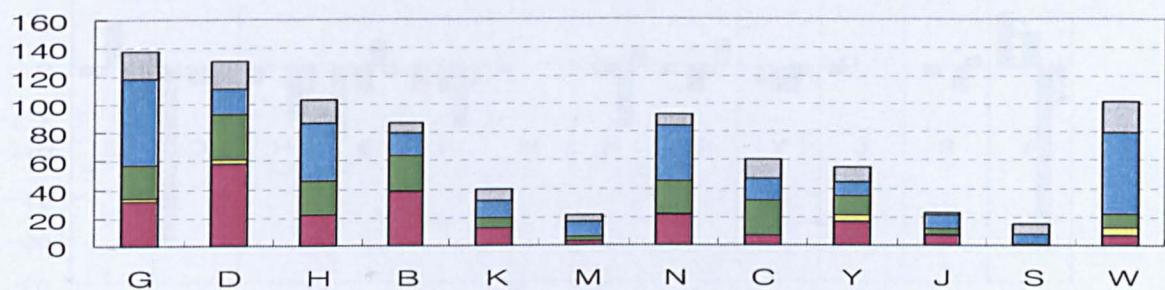
Figure 7-20 Number of miscues in five types of miscues for each student

All except five students (Hemi, Kilsu, Minsa, Coda, and Sunny) produced all five types of miscue. Hemi, Kilsu, Minsa, and Coda did not produce any insertions in their reading. Sunny produced only three different types of miscue (insertions, repetitions, and reformulations). Considering that substitutions constitute the largest proportion in the total of 1063 miscues by the twelve students in the two oral readings, the complete absence of substitutions in her reading is quite unusual.

In the previous section, the miscues that occur in both readings, arranged from the most to the least frequent, were as follows: substitutions, omissions, repetitions, reformulations, and insertions. Only four students (Gisu, Hemi, Namsu, and Jamin) follow this order; the other eight students' performance differs from this pattern in various ways. For example, Darim's most frequent miscue was repetition, while Coda's was omission. Table 7-27 and Figure 7-21 display changes according to five types of miscue in individual students:

Table 7-27 Changes between R1 only and R2 only

Name	Substitutions	Insertions	Omissions	Repetitions	Reformulations	Total
G	−1	−1	5	−15	−7	−19
D	−20	−1	−2	−2	−6	−31
H	−2	0	0	−6	−3	−11
B	−8	−1	−3	3	−1	−10
K	−3	0	−3	−7	−2	−15
M	−1	0	0	0	0	−1
N	0	−1	−1	−7	2	−7
C	−1	0	−3	−1	3	−2
Y	0	−2	−3	−3	−1	−9
J	−1	1	0	0	0	0
S	0	−1	0	−3	1	−3
W	6	4	4	−21	−4	−11
Total	−31	−2	−6	−62	−18	−119
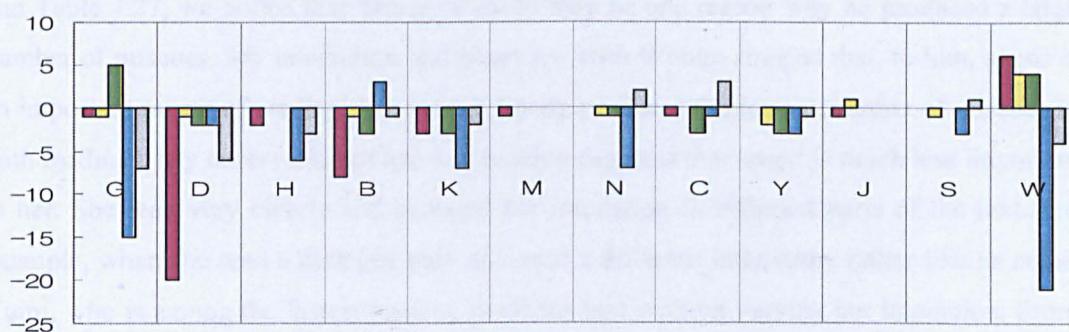
Figure 7-21 Changes between R1 only and R2 only

Table 7-27 and Figure 7-21 show that seven students increased some types of miscue in their second reading. Aside from Wongu, the other six students increased only one type of miscue in their second reading. For example, Gisu increased omissions in her second reading, while Boram increased repetitions. However, Wongu increased substitutions, insertions, and omissions and reduced repetitions and reformulations in his second reading. It is particularly notable that he increased substitutions in his second reading from one to seven. None of the students except Wongu increased substitutions at all in their second reading.

Another aspect of understanding reading involves observing the speed at which text is read. The next table, Table 7-28, shows the reading speed of the twelve students when they first attempted to read the text. I will just consider the speed of the first reading, since the second reading involves translation tasks as well as reading aloud:

Table 7-28 Speed of the first reading

Name	Time of the first reading	Time of the first reading in seconds
G	6 min 10 seconds	370
D	6 min 3 seconds	363
H	5 min 16 seconds	316
B	5 min 12 seconds	312
K	5 min	300
M	4 min 8 seconds	248
N	4 min 42 seconds	282
C	3 min 24 seconds	264
Y	3 min 40 seconds	220
J	4 min 14 seconds	254
S	4 min 1 second	241
W	3 min 9 seconds	189

Wongu is the fastest reader and Gisu is the slowest. If we consider the data from Table 7.25 and Table 7.27, we notice that Wongu's speed may be one reason why he produced a large number of miscues. My interaction and interview with Wongu suggest that, to him, speed is an important aspect of reading. In contrast, Sunny produces the lowest number of miscues in both readings. My observation of her oral reading suggests that speed is much less important to her. She read very clearly and changed her intonation in different parts of the text. For example, when she read a dialogue part, she used a different intonation, rather like an actor. Yumi, who is among the fastest readers, reads the text without varying her intonation. From this, it appears that reading speed depends, in part, on students' attitude to reading aloud. If students think, like Wongu, that fast reading is good reading, they will read texts as fast as they can and will be more likely to make miscues as a result.

Table 7-29 displays the total number of real or non-word substitutions produced by each student:

Table 7-29 Total number of real or non-word substitutions

Name	Substitutions		
	Real-word	Non-word	Total
G	11	21	32
D	42	16	58
H	7	15	22
B	10	25	35
K	1	12	13
M	0	3	3
N	3	27	30
C	4	3	7
Y	4	13	17
J	1	6	7
S	0	0	0
W	7	0	7
Total	90	141	231
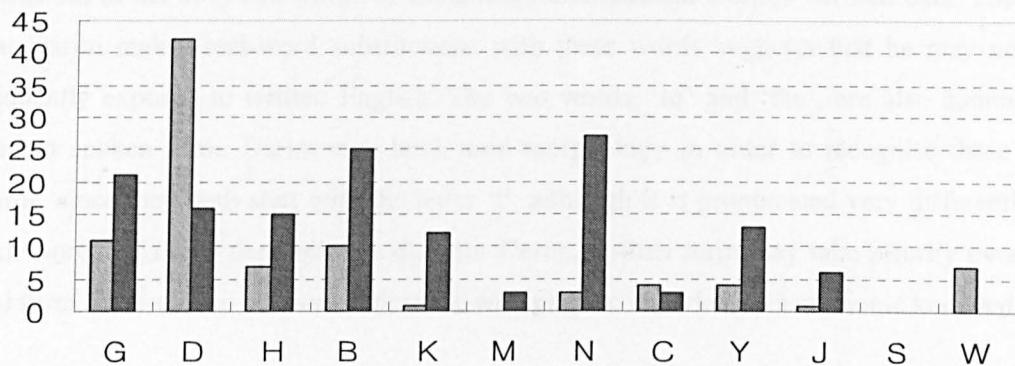
Figure 7-22 Total number of real or non-word substitutions

Eight students produced more non-word substitutions than real-word substitutions and Minsa did not make any real-word substitutions in either of her two readings. Two students (Darim and Coda) made more real-word substitutions and Wongu produced only real-word substitutions. Notably, Darim produced twice as many real-word substitutions (N=42) as non-word substitutions. The following table represents the real word substitutions that Darim, Coda, and Wongu produced:

Table 7-30 Real-word substitutions made by three students

Darim		Coda		Wongu	
Substitutions	Original words	Substitutions	Original words	Substitutions	Original words
On	No	An	A	Gets	Get
The	To (12)	Hair	Here	Go	Get
Hansome	Hansel (7)	Out	Up	Light	E
Drip	Drops	A	The	An	A
Pie	fire			Have	Has
It	It for to			It's	It
Have	has				
Hair	here				
Go	come				
The	A				
In	Into				
In	In				
If					

Most of Darim's real-word substitutions are more likely to be based on graphic similarity, with little consideration for semantic and syntactic acceptability, whereas Wongu's real-word substitutions are more syntactically and semantically acceptable. Darim reads 'the' for 'to. According to Schmitt and McCarty (1997), 'the' and 'to' are the most commonly used words out of the 330, 000 words of Cambridge International Corpus' written data. The fact that Darim makes real-word substitutions with these words suggests that he may not be frequently exposed to written English. The two words, 'to' and 'the', are also commonly used in spoken form. Darim may have used morphology in order to recognise these two words, since they both start with the letter 't', although it is pronounced very differently in each word. This case demonstrates that, for Darim, written form may take priority over the oral form. He seems to be more concerned with graphic knowledge than phonic knowledge.

Table 7-31 and Figure 7-23 display the distribution of reformulations for each student:

Table 7-31 Distribution of reformulations for each student

Name	Reformulations			
	Part-word	**Word**	**Multiple-word**	**Total**
G	9	10	1	20
D	8	12	0	20
H	6	11	0	17
B	2	4	1	7
K	2	5	1	8
M	3	1	0	4
N	3	5	0	8
C	5	8	0	13
Y	3	8	0	11
J	1	1	0	2
S	1	6	0	7
W	2	18	2	22
Total	45	89	5	139
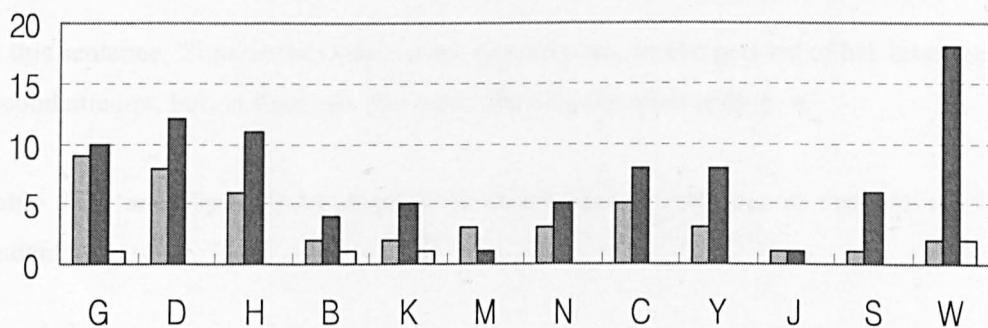
Figure 7-23 Distribution of reformulations for each student

Wongu made the most reformulations among the twelve students and all his reformulations were correct. There are four students who made correct reformulations in both readings: Jamin, Wongu, Sunny, and Minsa. Three students, Kilsu, Boram, and Minsa, made incorrect reformulations in the first reading and Kilsu, Boram, and Yumi produced incorrect reformulations in the second reading. Kilsu's incorrect reformulations in both readings occur with the word 'breadcrumbs', which crops up three times in the text (so he encountered it six times). I will use dashes to indicate the points at which the students attempt to reformulate the sentence. The following are examples of Kilsu's incorrect reformulations:

Original text: He drops some breadcrumbs.

First reformulation: He drops some *bread(2.0)crumbs- crumb- crumbles*.

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When he encountered this word for a second time in the first reading, he reduced the pause between syllables.

Second reformulation: He drops some *breadcrumbs- crum -crumbles*.

In his third reformulation, he did not repeat any syllables.

Third reformulation: He drops some *breadcrumbs- crumbles*.

Although Kilsu could not make successful reformulations for the word 'breadcrumbs', he made an improvement in his attempts. Minsa makes erroneous reformulations with the word 'breadcrumbs'. This is because the word is new to Kilsu and Minsa. Boram produced incorrect reformulations with the words 'pebbles', 'treasure', and 'drops'. Yumi's incorrect reformulation is different from that of the other three students, in that her incorrect reformulation does not seem to be caused by decoding unknown words. This is Yumi's incorrect reformulation:

Original text: It looks hot, says Gretel.
Yumi's reformulation: It looks hot, *says the- say* Gretel.

In this sentence, Yumi inserts 'the' in her first attempt, so she gets rid of her insertions in her second attempt, but, in doing so, she omits the singular verb ending –s.

Table 7-32 and Figure 7-24 display the distribution of miscues at three levels for each student:

Table 7-32 Miscues at three levels for each student

Name	Miscues			
	Part-word	Word	Multiple-word	Total
G	40	54	9	103
D	41	26	3	70
H	46	29	5	80
B	31	13	3	47
K	17	9	1	27
M	8	6	3	17
N	35	31	4	70
C	34	17	2	53
Y	15	17	2	34
J	5	5	5	15
S	2	11	1	14
W	13	51	23	87
Total	287	269	61	617
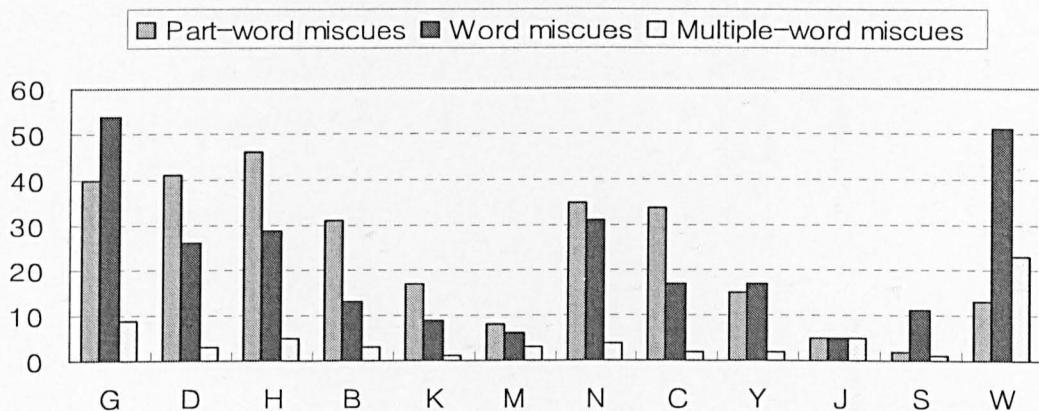
Figure 7-24 Miscues at three levels for each student

This graph shows that lower ability students produce more part-word level miscues, while higher ability students make more word level miscues.

7.5 Chapter summary

In my macro analysis, I found that Korean EFL readers frequently duplicated miscues in the two oral readings, especially substitutions and omissions. In my micro analysis of miscues, I identified a diversity of patterns in the production of miscues; fast inaccurate readers produced more miscues than slow accurate readers. They may both be good readers but in different ways; also, the same miscue can be interpreted differently. For example, morpheme 's' omissions can be associated with effective reading, if they occur as a consequence of

heavy engagement in meaning construction. However, omission of a whole page can indicate that the reader does not actively construct meaning. Because of these diverse causes of miscues, more attention should be given to why these miscues are produced rather than simply focusing on what miscues are made. There are a number of causes of miscues, such as different perceptions and ways of approaching in reading. For example, the miscue analysis of my participants demonstrates recurring patterns, which seem to have been caused by the characteristics of the text *Hansel and Gretel*; for example, a number of students produced repetitions when one sentence was spread across several lines. This suggests that, in seeking to understand different types of miscues, we need to consider the impact of text.

Although miscue analysis sheds some light on the reading processes, it also has limitations as an aid to understanding the reading processes of my participants, since we do not know whether students understand the meaning of the words with which they made miscues. In the next chapter, I provide an analysis of the translation and interview data, to help us better understand the participants' reading processes.

Chapter 8

The translation task and post-reading interview

In the previous chapter, I offered an analysis of miscue data from twelve students. This analysis revealed that many non-word substitutions were produced repeatedly. A question remains over whether the participants did not understand the words for which they made non-word substitutions and, also, how they regard their own miscues. To obtain more information on their reading processes, I am going to provide two more sources of data: results of a translation task and a post-reading interview. The translation was carried out after the participants had read aloud for the second time and the interview was carried out after the reading. These activities serve to address two of my research sub-questions:

- RQ1-3: What is the relationship between decoding and comprehension in the reading of young foreign learners?
- RQ1-4: What characteristics can be identified in Korean EFL learners' reading?

In section 8.1, I identify three themes from the translation data. In section 8.2, I identify three themes from the post-reading interview data.

8.1 Three themes from the translation data

The themes that emerged from the translation data are:

- Students' engagement in meaning construction;
- Variation in use of cues;
- Disjunction between comprehension and decoding.

The first three categories emerged from the examinations of the translation data and the last one is from comparison between miscue and translation data. I use the term 'translation' to refer to the actual oral translations which the participants made while reading. These translations are categorised as 'expected' and 'unexpected' translations. This dichotomy was based on my expectation of the translation of *Hansel and Gretel*. The term 'expectation' can imply a variety of things. Here, I am using it to mean 'acceptable translation of English words into Korean'. In translation, expectation is more likely to be restricted to the lexical level, because, when it comes to sentence level, there are usually a variety of possible translations. However, even at a lexical level, I do not assume that there is one single translation from English to Korean. I use the term 'unexpected translations', when students

understand meaning with less consideration of semantic and syntactic cues. For example, if my participants read the word 'pebbles' in English and then translated the word as 'problems', I would categorise this as an unexpected translation.

In analysing the miscue data, I only focused on the unexpected responses which were deviant from the text. However in the analysis of translation data, I will also investigate the expected translations, to identify whether there is a disjunction between translation data and miscue data. Translation data is also categorised by the types of cues that participants use to reach comprehension.

8.1.1 Students' engagement in meaning construction

The first point to be considered with regard to the translation data concerns students' engagement in meaning construction, which is supported by evidence of changes of verb tense among students. In the text, the present tense is used no matter where it is in the dialogue or narrative. What is interesting in the translation data is that most of the students used the past tense in the narrative and the present tense in the dialogue sections. Boram and Minsa used the past tense from the start of the story. The other students used the present tense on the first page but changed to the past tense from page 2. This could mean that they were using contextual cues in constructing meaning. Also it shows that they may have founded it more natural to use the past tense and the present tense differently in their meaning construction. Applebee (1978) notes that young readers use the past tense consistently in retelling a story. This raises the question of the complexities of the past tense and present tense in the story and the students' construction of meaning. Cameron (2001) points out that it is unnatural to use the present tense where the past tense is more naturally used in narrative.

8.1.2 Variation in use of cues

In translation, students showed their use of cues in understanding the story. Some students use cues positively, whereas others hamper their understanding by using them inappropriately. In this section, I will discuss the use of three types of cues, which were observed in translation data: picture, syntactic, and contextual.

Use of picture cues

There are 20 pictures in the storybook '*Hansel and Gretel*'. Most of the students seemed to use the pictures a great deal in their construction of meaning, sometimes deriving positive support from the pictures. For example, most of the students in their post-reading interview admitted that there were several words that they had never encountered in other texts, such

as 'breadcrumbs', 'pebbles', 'witch', 'treasure', and 'cage'. However, they said that they could guess the meaning of such words from the pictures. At other times, picture cues led to unexpected translations. Boram translated the sentence 'Hansel and Gretel's father is a woodcutter' as 'Hansel and Gretel listened to dad's talking'. In her interview, Boram said that she translated the word 'woodcutter' as 'peeping'. At first, she thought the word 'woodcutter' meant 'peeping' or 'bedroom', basing her guess on the picture on the page where the word 'woodcutter' first appears. Extract 8-1 is the page where the term 'woodcutter' was introduced:

Extract 8-1 Page 2 of *Hansel and Gretel*

Hansel and Gretel's father is a woodcutter.
The stepmother says, We have no food.
Hansel and Gretel have to go.
No, says the woodcutter.
The stepmother says, Yes. They have to go.
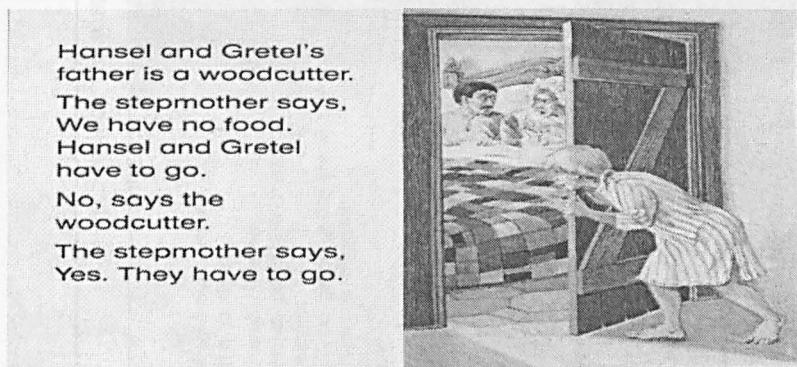
Between these two possible meanings, she says that she chose 'peeping' since this made it much easier for her to construct a meaning. Although she misinterpreted the word 'woodcutter' as 'peeping', she translated it as 'listen to dad's talking'. This example shows that she gave little attention to the syntactic cues in the sentence; rather, she relied more on the picture cue to aid her construction of meaning.

However, her misunderstanding of the word 'woodcutter' was corrected when she read the next page. She unconsciously used the word 'father' in Korean when translating the sentence 'the woodcutter and the stepmother go to sleep'. Here it seems that she relied on her previous knowledge of the story *Hansel and Gretel* to help her in her understanding. Also, she may have used information from the co-text. When the word 'stepmother' was near the word 'woodcutter', she was able to guess the meaning much more easily, perhaps because 'mother and father' is a phrase that is often familiar to students. This did not only happen with Boram. Many students seemed to be confused by picture cues in their meaning construction during reading. Another example of this phenomenon arose with the students' understanding of the word 'wood'. Examples of the use of this word in the text are shown below:

Extract 8-2 Pages where 'wood' appears
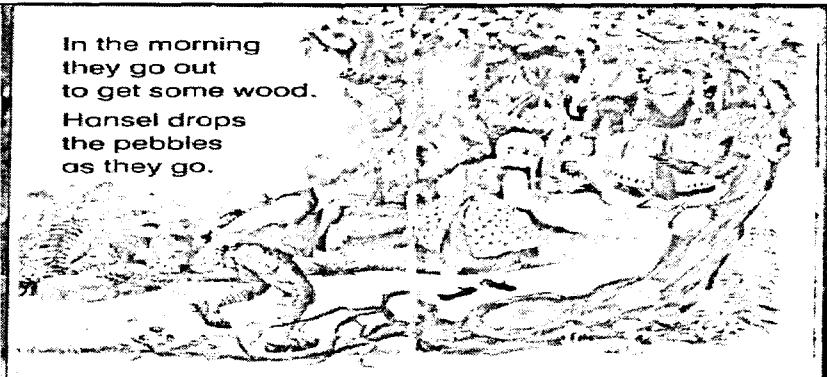
p.4 to get some wood.	p.5 to look for some wood.
In the morning they go out to get some wood. Hansel drops the pebbles as they go.	The woodcutter lights a fire. You stay here, Hansel and Gretel, he says. We are going to look for some wood.
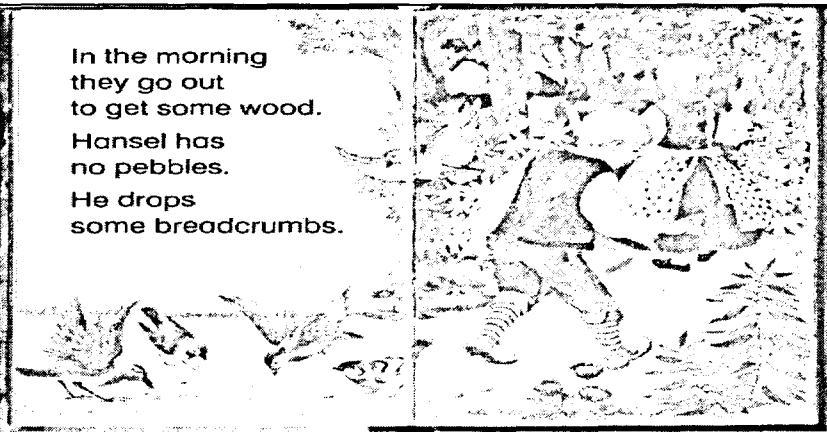
p.11 to get some wood.	p.12 to get some wood.
In the morning they go out to get some wood. Hansel has no pebbles. He drops some breadcrumbs.	The woodcutter lights a fire. Stay here, Hansel and Gretel, he says. We are going to get some wood. Hansel and Gretel go to sleep. The woodcutter and the stepmother go home.

The word 'wood' is used three times in the context of the phrase 'to get some wood', and once in the phrase 'to look for some wood'. The first picture shows four people (Hansel, Gretel, woodcutter, and stepmother) going into the forest. It does not offer any cues for students to guess the meaning of the word 'wood' if they do not already know it. It is only the last picture (p.12) that gives a clue as to the meaning of the word 'wood'. Five students (Jamin, Yumi, Wongu, Sunny, and Coda) correctly interpreted the word 'wood' on all four pages. Three students (Kilsu, Boram, and Darim) translated the word 'wood' as 'forests'. The word 'wood' may be easily misinterpreted as 'forest' if the context is ignored, and although these four students should have known it does not make sense to say 'to get forests', they did not change their initial interpretation and conveniently disregarded syntactic cues and overall sense. What is interesting here is that these four students thought they knew the meaning of the word 'wood', although their understanding was inaccurate. Once they were certain that they knew the meaning, they did not seem to take account of syntactic or semantic appropriateness.

The other four students (Gisu, Hemi, Namsu, and Minsa) changed their initial understanding of the word 'wood'. Minsa managed to understand this word from page 5 onward although she appeared not to on page 4. Hemi also grasped the correct meaning after page 5 but she used both 'forests' and 'wood' together in her translation. Gisu translated 'wood' accurately in the sentence 'We are going out to get some wood'(p.12) but translated it as 'forest' in the sentence 'In the morning they go out to get some wood'(p.4). Gisu initially offered 'wood' in her translation of page 11 but quickly reformulated it with 'forests'. Namsu translated 'wood' as 'forest' on pages 4 and 11 and as 'food' on page 5. Only when he encountered 'wood' on page 12 was he able to grasp the correct meaning.

The word 'wood' is quite a close synonym for 'forest' and so, although the students understood the word 'wood' as 'forest', it did not affect their general understanding of the story. This suggests to me that to arrive at a global understanding of a story, it is not always necessary to be able to translate every word correctly. However, I would like to consider this matter in terms of strategies. The students tended to resort to visual cues when attempting a construction of the meaning of new words.

Although most of the students generally used visual cues, the difference among them lies in the degree of their reliance on such picture cues. Some readers seemed to rely too heavily on visual cues, to the point where they disregarded syntactic cues. Others also used visual cues, but did not seem to rely solely on them; rather, they seemed to use them to confirm their initial thoughts.

Use of contextual cues

In this miscue analysis, none of the substitutions demonstrate that students make use of contextual cues; however, the translation data did provide evidence that students were using contextual cues in their reading and there were differences between students in their use of contextual cues. Some students appeared to try to translate the literal meaning of the words and did not reconsider the meaning of the sentences in light of the contexts in which they appeared. *Hansel and Gretel* is constructed paratactically, without much elaboration of the story, and, consequently, reads rather awkwardly. In such a case, translation demands active consideration of the context of any particular sentence. In particular, the following two sentences from *Hansel and Gretel* elicited very different translations from the participants, resulting from differing use of contextual cues.

Table 8-1 Two sentences from *Hansel and Gretel*

S1401	Hansel and Gretel come to a house.
S2001	The stepmother has gone.

The sentence 'S1401' describes Hansel and Gretel coming upon the house where the witch lives. This sentence seemed to confuse the students. The previous page ends with the sentence 'Hansel and Gretel can't go home' and so they became confused by the sentence 'Hansel and Gretel come to a house' on the next page. Two cues might have helped them avoid confusion. First, the words 'home' and 'house' have different connotations. According to the Oxford Dictionary of English (Soanes & Stevenson, 2005), home is 'the house or flat/apartment that you live in, especially with your family', whereas a house is 'a building for people to live in, usually for one family'. Thus 'home' is more likely to refer to your own place and 'house' to refer to the place in which people live in general. However, this kind of subtle difference in connotation between 'home' and 'house' can be difficult for young foreign readers to spot. The second cue in the sentence 'Hansel and Gretel come to a house' lies in the indefinite article 'a', which indicates that this house is different from Hansel and Gretel's house. In addition to these two cues, the students might have used contextual cues to help them construct meaning.

Seven students (Boram, Jamin, Wongu, Coda, Hemi, Namsu, Minsa) made several attempts or paused in their translation which could be evidence of their confusion and inability to make sense of this sentence. The other five students (Kilsu, Yumi, Darim, Gisu, Sunny), however, translated sentence without any alternative attempts or pauses. Among these five, Yumi, Gisu, and Sunny translated the sentence as 'Hansel and Gretel come to a certain house', showing their awareness that this house is different from Hansel and Gretel's by

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adding 'certain'. However, Kilsu and Darim did not discriminate in this way in their translation. Among the seven students, three (Jamin, Wongu and Coda) made several attempts to translate correctly. Jamin reformulated: at first he translated 'house' as 'home' and then added 'certain'. The other four students did not make a distinction whether the house Hansel and Gretel see is their own house or another person's. Minsa paused three times in her translation but failed to show that the witch's house is different from Hansel and Gretel's.

Students may need to consider contextual cues to understand the sentence 'S2001' since without such cues the sentence is rather unclear. Jamin translated this sentence as 'The stepmother died'. He paused for two minutes after translating the word 'stepmother'. During the pause, he appeared to be thinking how best to translate this sentence according to the story context. After reading, he stated that he knew the literal meaning of the phrase 'has gone' but said that in the story this phrase would be better translated as 'has gone to heaven' so he decided to translate it as 'died'. This example shows that Jamin tried to translate the text based on his understanding of the 'big picture' of the story. He was the only one to translate the sentence like this; the other participants just followed the literal meaning of the word 'go'.

Lack of use of syntactic cues

My third point concerns the use of syntactic cues. Several researchers have demonstrated the relationship between poor reading ability and limited syntactic ability (e.g., Tunmer et al, 1987; Nation and Snowling, 2000). My translation data show results consistent these studies, indicating that when they face difficulties with translation, they use the meaning of the English words and order them in any way that might produce a plausible meaning. They do not pay close attention to the English grammar they read and are therefore more likely to construct meaning from their knowledge of each word, irrespective of the sentence in which it is used. For example, with the sentence 'It is good to have you home', five students (Kilsu, Boram, Darim, Coda, Hemi) only used the meaning of the words 'good', 'you', and 'home' to comprehend the sentence, without considering its syntactic structure and translated the sentence as 'It was good for you to come back home.' Darim admitted that he did not understand this sentence and he made a guess that it meant 'it was good to come back home'. Hemi hesitated a lot when attempting to translate the sentence and, in the end, she translated it as 'we like house'.

Table 8-2 Kilsu and Boram's translation of the sentence 'we are going to get some wood.'

Sentence / Name	We are going to get some wood.	
	p.5	p.12
Kilsu	우리는, 음, 숲을 돌아보고 오겠다. We will look around the forests and come back.	그리고 그들은 숲으로 갔습니다. And they went to the forests.
Boram	우리는 산, 숲을 둘러보고 올게. We will look around the mountain, forests and come back.	우리는 숲을, 숲을, 숲을 돌아다녀보고 올게. We will look around the forest, forests, forests, and come back.

In the sentence 'We are going to get some wood', Kilsu and Boram do not show a full use of syntactic cues. The word 'wood' may be easily misinterpreted as 'forest', although, even if they initially misinterpret it in this way, they ought to know it does not make sense to say 'to get forests'. Kilsu and Boram do not change their initial attempt to recognize the word 'wood' and they disregard syntactic cues and the overall sense of the sentence. However, this data does not seem to suggest that students do not learn English grammar. For example, Boram had learned grammar in private lessons and, in an interview, she stated that grammar was her favourite aspect of learning English. However, analysis of her translation suggests that she hardly used syntactic cues in understanding the story, which suggests that she experiences grammar in a very decontextualised way.

8.1.3 Disjunction between comprehension and decoding

Disjunction between comprehension and decoding has emerged from the examination of the translation and miscue data as the most robust finding in my study, since it occurs across the whole sample of students, as well as consistently in the performance of each individual student. In the miscue analysis, there were 132 non-word substitutions and 90 real-word substitutions. Although many non-word substitutions occurred in the oral readings, most students were able to understand the meaning of those words. Sometimes, students produced unexpected translations, where they did not make any miscues. Here, I divide the various combinations in the relationship between decoding and comprehension into four categories, drawn from miscue and translation data.

Table 8-3 The relationship between comprehension and decoding

Type of data / Types	Comprehension	Decoding
Type 1	✓	✗
Type 2	✗	✓
Type 3	✗	✗
Type 4	✓	✓

✓: Expected responses or translations
✗: Unexpected responses or translations

Here, comprehension is deduced from translation data and decoding from miscue data. Type 1 denotes the combination of expected translation and miscues; type 2 refers to the combination of unexpected translations without miscues; type 3 means unexpected translation with miscues; and type 4 refers to expected translation and no miscues. The results of types 3 and 4 are unsurprising, since there was congruence between comprehension and decoding, but type 1 and 2 show disjunctions between them. Type 2 usually occurs for young readers, even for native speakers (e.g., Connor, 1981; Wallace, 1998; Anderson, 1999). However, type 1 is not generally expected from readers. In the following section, I elaborated on types 1 and 2, using examples.

Type 1: Disjunction between substitutions and translations

In this section, I investigate whether there were significant changes in the students' translations when they made substitution miscues. First, I examined the translation data in the case of non-word substitutions. Secondly, I checked whether my participants use the meaning of the substituted words in their translation, when my participants produce real-word substitutions. The 132 non-word substitutions were made with ten words: 'woodcutter', 'stepmother', 'pebbles', 'breadcrumbs', 'treasure', 'witch', 'light', 'out', 'put', and 'find'. I will investigate the disjunction between non-word substitutions and translations.

Woodcutter

Non-word substitutions for the word 'woodcutter' occurred 38 times, and were made by five students (Boram, Yumi, Gisu, Darim, and Namsu). Translation data indicated that all the students except Boram and Darim were able to understand 'woodcutter'. Darim did not apprehend the meaning of 'woodcutter', believing it to be the name of a person. Boram also did not understand the meaning of 'woodcutter' when she first encountered the word but grasped the correct meaning when she encountered it the second time. But although she understood the meaning, her decoding of 'woodcutter' remained as non-word substitutions.

Stepmother

Non-word substitutions for the word 'stepmother' occurred eleven times and were made by four students (Boram, Yumi, Gisu, Darim), all of whom understood the meaning of the word. Minsa named out 'stepmother' correctly, but translated the word as 'mother'. I will look at this (unexpected translations and absence of substitutions) in more detail later in this section.

Pebbles

Non-word substitutions for the word 'pebbles' occurred 39 times and were made by seven students (Kilsu, Boram, Jamin, Yumi, Gisu, Darim, Namsu). Most students attributed a few

closely related meanings to the word, so as not to hamper their construction of meaning in the sentence as a whole. For example, Kilsu translated it as 'stone' when he first encountered it on page 3, but the second time he reformulated from 'stone' to 'gravel'. The third time he reformulated from 'gravel' to 'gravels' and continued to translate as 'gravels' until page 10. However, on the last page on which it occurs, page 11, he reverted to translating it as 'gravel', omitting the plural suffix '-s'. Boram also used reformulation in her attempts to comprehend. On page 7, on encountering the word for the fourth time, she changed the meaning from 'stone' to 'gravel'. Jamin began his translation using the plural suffix '-s', but, starting from the second time onwards, he translated it as the singular 'stone'. What is interesting here is that in the post-reading interview, he said that while he understood the meaning of the word 'pebble', he considered that in this text it was being used to mean 'stone' (Further to my arguments about the use of picture cues in constructing meaning, it is interesting to note that Jamin arrived at this conclusion after having consulted the illustrations). Although he hesitated briefly between 'pebble' and 'stone' before deciding that the latter was the better translation, I did not categorize this as a reformulation since he reformulated in his mind before offering his translation. The interesting point is that, while there are clear Korean equivalents for the words 'stepmother' and 'woodcutter', the matter is less clear in the case of the word 'pebble', and four translations were offered by my participants:

조약돌/joyagdol/: pebble

자갈/jagal/: gravel

돌/dol/: stone

돌멩이/dolmangi/: a piece of stone

Although there were a variety of actual translations of the term 'pebble', these translations fall into the same category, sharing the common factor of being related to stone. 'Stone' and 'pebbles' are near synonyms, also related by hyponymy: a pebble is a kind of stone. 'Stone' for 'pebble' does not seem a serious mis-translation. Another example of this occurred with the term 'cage'. The translation of the term 'cage' will be discussed later (p.185).

Breadcrumbs

Non-word substitutions for the word 'breadcrumbs' occurred 13 times and were made by six students (Kilsu, Boram, Yumi, Darim, Hemi, Namsu), all of whom, however, comprehended the meaning of the word.

Treasure

Non-word substitutions for the word 'treasure' occurred 14 times and were made by seven students (Kilsu, Yumi, Darim, Gisu, Coda, Hemi, and Namsu), all of whom understood the meaning of the word.

Light, out, put

Only Darim was unable to name out the word 'light' and he did not understand the meaning of the word. The interesting thing is that, in the post-reading interview, he recognized this word when I named it out for him and said to me 'Ah, that is 'light'? I know this word!' This case clearly shows that, in the case of the word 'light', he had separate knowledge of meaning, spelling, and pronunciation. Although he realised he knew the meaning of the word when he heard it, he was unable to decode it from the text and so could not recall the meaning unaided. He also made non-word substitutions for the words 'out' and 'put'.

Find, witch

Only Boram made non-word substitutions for the words 'find' and 'witch', but she comprehended the meaning of these words.

The fact that students produced more non-word substitutions for these words may indicate that they were unfamiliar to them. Most of the substitution miscues occurred when they encountered unknown words. Most unknown words were substituted by non-words. It is probably due to the fact that they do not know how to name out the words using the English phonics pattern. However, students' understanding of these might be assisted by the intrinsic structure of the story. Such words would include 'stepmother,' 'woodcutter', 'witch,' and 'treasure.' For example, a stepmother is a frequently used character. There are several fairy tales that have a stepmother as their main character: these include *Snow White, Cinderella, Rapunzel,* and *Rumpelstiltskin.* Young English learners would certainly be familiar with this type of story structure, including the wicked stepmother. In Korean fairy tales, we have also these sort of characters, such as 장화와 홍련전/Janghwawa Honglyeonjeon/, 콩쥐팥쥐/Kongjwi Patji/, and 심청전/Simcheong Jeon/, which are about children who have hard times because of a stepmother.

Disjunctions are also found between real-word substitutions and translations of those words. In the second oral reading including translation, 90 real-word substitutions were made for 18 words ('pebbles', 'it', 'has', 'out', 'in', 'to', 'and', 'into', 'they', 'hot', 'get', 'a', 'the',

'drops', 'jumps', 'come', 'look', 'light'). Table 8-4 shows the real-word substitutions given in the second reading.

Table 8-4 Real-word substitutions made by each student in second oral reading

	Substitutions	Original words
K	·	·
B	It's Pebbles Pebbles	It Problem Plums
J	·	
Y	Have Home Into	Has Out In
D	The In In If	To (5) And Into In
	The Hat	They Hot
W	Go Light An Have It's	Get Fire A Has It
S	·	
C	A	The
H	Drip Jumping They Go	Drops Jumps The (2) Come
N	Rock	Look
M	·	
Total	28	

To my surprise, none of the real-word substitutions led to mistranslations. One of the possible reasons for this is that a number of real-word substitutions were made in function words such as article or preposition, which are less likely to deliver meaning on their own. Although several substitutions were made with nouns or verbs, students did not apply the meaning of substituted words in their translations. For example, Boram named out the word 'pebbles' as 'problem' but translation data showed that she comprehended the meaning of 'pebbles', so that it did not alter the way in which she constructed the meaning of the sentence. Darim substituted 'hat' for 'hot', but he did not include the meaning of 'hat' in his translation.

Type 2: Disjunctions between no substitutions and translations

Some students successfully decoded 'witch', but mistranslated the word. For example, Kilsu translated it as 'old lady'. When translating it this way, he paused for 17 seconds to think about the meaning. Although the picture shows a wicked-looking lady, and although the story itself gave him basic information about the witch, he did not seem to grasp the word's exact meaning. He simply said the English word 'witch', even in his Korean translation. Coda said he did not understand the meaning of 'witch', but, soon after going back to the sentence, he offered the correct meaning.

Disjunction between no substitutions and translation occur when students read words which are easy to pronounce. For example, the word 'cage' is one of the words which produce a variety of translation equivalents, with no miscues. Boram retains the English word 'cage' in her translation, which is quite frequently shown as one of the strategies inefficient readers use when they face some difficulties in their translation. With this word, Darim also gives up on the construction of meaning. The actual translations offered by other participants are below:

새장/ saejang/: bird cage
감옥/ gamog/: prison
우리/ uli/: pen
철장 / cheoljang/: cage
오두막 /odumag/: hut

As in the example 'pebbles'(p.182), students produced a variety of translations of the word 'cage'. Translations of the word 'pebbles' were often synonyms or hyponyms, but the examples of the translations offered for 'cage' show some looser translations. My interpretation of this is that the students may have a less clear idea of the word 'cage' and often make guesses at it, using contextual cues.

8.1.4 Summary

In this section, I have presented translation data according to three salient themes: students' engagement in meaning construction; variation in use of cues; disjunction between comprehension and decoding. This kind of translation data is interpreted by researchers like me as miscue data. In addition to using observed data to understand reading processes, it would be fruitful to include the voice of the participants. In the next section, I present interview data.

8.2 Three themes of interview data

In Section 8.1, I presented my analysis of the translation data, comparing it with the miscue data. In this section, I add the results of the post-reading interview to supplement the data from miscue analysis and translation, in order to better understand the reading processes of my participants. The data from miscue analysis and translation show the difficulties in oral reading and translation that I observed in the participants' performance and their strategies to cope with these. However, it is still questionable whether they are aware of their difficulties in miscue and translation or of the strategies they employ to cope with these. The key finding from my comparison of the miscue analysis and the translation was the disjunction between comprehension and decoding. It is uncertain whether the participants are fully aware of this disjunction.

Because this post-reading interview was conducted after reading, they were asked to reflect on the difficulties they encountered during the reading and their strategies to tackle these, so, the data from the post-reading interview is based on their own understanding of their reading difficulties and the strategies they might employ. Sometimes, they did not recognise that they had actually encountered problems and made use of certain strategies to tackle unknown words. From the post-reading interview, three themes were identified:

- The mismatch between observed and perceived difficulties;
- The influence of graphic design;
- Variation in use of cues.

8.2.1 The mismatch between observed and perceived difficulties

All except Darim considered *Hansel and Gretel* to be appropriate or easy, after they read it in the first time. Darim said that he could understand only half of the story. But, after the second reading, four students (Kilsu, Boram, Hemi, Gisu) changed their perception of the difficulties in reading *Hansel and Gretel*. They initially evaluated the book as straightforward to read but considered it problematic the second time. Darim's perception remained the same after the second time. All five of these students said that *Hansel and Gretel* is difficult to read because it contains several unknown words. The other seven students (Jamin, Yumi, Wongu, Sunny, Coda, Namsu, Minsa) did not consider it difficult. Jamin said that there were several unknown words but he did not find it difficult to read *Hansel and Gretel*, since he knows the story.

Based on my observation of their miscues and translation, it did not seem to be only words that caused problems in reading, but, for those five students, words were perceived to be the greatest difficulty in reading *Hansel and Gretel*. Sometimes, students struggled to understand English phrases such as 'have to' or 'look for', but they were not aware that they did not know those phrases. For example, Gisu interpreted the sentence 'they have to go' as 'I will go', but she was not aware of that she did not know the phrase 'have to'. Also, some students seem to experience difficulty in understanding inverted or imperative sentences, such as 'in you go' or 'come and have a look', but did not appear to know what caused these difficulties.

Perceived difficulties with words may be connected with students' own understanding of 'knowing a word'. The term 'knowing a word' may be defined in a number of different ways. Nation (2001) described different aspects of what it means to 'know' words:

Table 8-5 What is involved in knowing a word (Nation 2001)

Form	Spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognisable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	Form and meaning	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express the meaning?
	Concept and referents	R	What is included in the concept?
		P	What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R	What other words does this make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical functions	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
		P	In what patterns must we use this word?
	Collocations	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use (register, frequency...)	R	Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		P	Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

Note: In column 3, R = receptive knowledge, P = productive knowledge

(Reproduced from Nation 2001:27)

My participants seem to associate their difficulties with one aspect of word knowledge: meaning. In the post-reading interview, Yumi told me that there was no word in the text she does not know. But, in her oral reading, there are several words, such as 'stepmother' 'pebbles', and 'breadcrumbs', which she hardly ever pronounces correctly, but which she comprehends well. She may regard 'knowing words' as knowing the meaning of words, or she may have known those words but learned them with the wrong pronunciation, which is

very rare for first or second language learners. This was not only so in Yumi's case. Most students reported that they knew the word for which they produced non-word substitutions. Even when students could not get the right meaning of words, they sometimes believe that they know the meaning. The excerpt below provides an example of this:

> Me: what word means 'forest' on this page?
> Kilsu: wood
> Me: Do you know this word?
> Kilsu: I think I know.

Six students did not understand the meaning of the word 'wood' although they thought that they knew its meaning. Namsu said that he knew the word 'pebbles', but, throughout the story, he named out it as /pi ː bls/.

The mismatch between perceived and observed difficulties appears to be related to the participant's general level of exposure to words. The following figure illustrates in more detail the context in which learners encounter words:
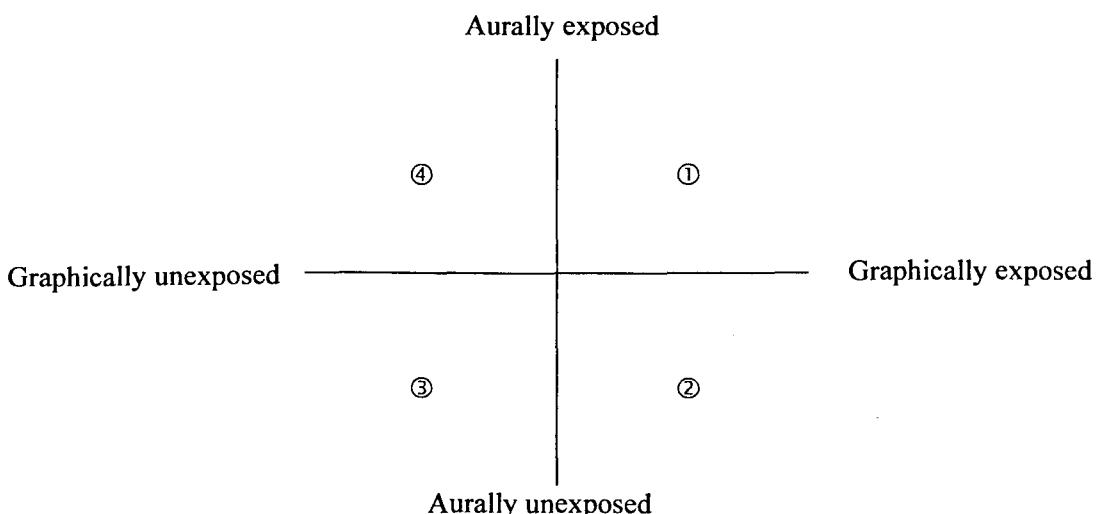
Figure 8-1 Four dimensions of exposure to words

The first dimension ① indicates the words that students have heard and read before; the second ② denotes the words that they have never heard before, but have read; the third ③ refers to words that they have never heard or read before; and the fourth ④ denotes the words that they have heard before but never read. ① refers to a situation in which people learn their native language. ② is more likely to be applicable to a foreign language context and would be relatively rare in a first language contexts, since first language users are more likely to be exposed aurally before being exposed to the written language; although it may sometimes happen to both child and adult first language, foreign language learners are more

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likely to encounter dimension ②. In this situation, students may create their own pronunciations, to better memorise written forms of words, which will lead to disconnected vocabulary learning; I mention this in relation to my participants in Chapter Six (section 6.2.5, p.134). This disconnected strategy also seems to be used by medical school students in Korea; one day I met a doctor who told me that medical school students create new pronunciations to memorise difficult medical terms. For example, with the word 'osteoporosis' they would name out the word as 'oh-su-teh-oh-po-ro-si-su'. He said that this strategy was very common among medical students in Korea. This would be unlikely to cause a serious problem, as doctors in Korea would rarely see patients who speak English. Apart from pressure to remember the spellings of English words, students may simply learn words with the wrong pronunciation. In the case of foreign language students who have limited exposure to oral input, wrong pronunciations may remain uncorrected; for example, Yumi made a non-word substitution of the word 'breadcrumbs', but in the interview she said that she knew this word from private lessons. Thus, she was exposed to this word graphically, but not orally. This example belongs to ②.

First language users also may have spelling tests and must memorize spelling in order to read books. However, the difference between first and foreign language learners is that foreign language learners are less likely to have chances to use new words orally. If they memorize new words with an incorrect pronunciation, they would have fewer opportunities to correct this. Given this context, it is not surprising that there were disjunctions between decoding and comprehension.

③ refers to words in the foreign language to which people have never been exposed, either aurally or in written form. The words which caused most participants in my study to produce non-word substitutions (e.g., 'woodcutter', 'stepmother',' pebbles', 'breadcrumbs' and 'treasure') belong to this dimension. ④ is more likely to occur for young learners in first or second language contexts, in which the oral usually outweighs the written input. Yuri's example belongs to this category; with the word 'building', she could not recognise the written form of the word, although she knew the meaning and pronunciation through oral input. When she tried to decode the word, she finally recognised it. However, the participants of my main study, who are different to Yuri, in the sense that they are situated in a foreign language learning environment, did not show any examples of this. My interpretation of this is that the participants in my main study may not develop the necessary phonic skills to read words to which they are aurally, but not graphically, exposed; for example, in my study, one of my participants, Darim, could not identify the word 'fire', but, after I pronounced it, he asked 'is this fire?' This shows that he knows the meaning of the

word 'fire', as well as its pronunciation, but he cannot name it out and does not know how to spell it. When students thought that they knew words, they could refer to one of those four dimensions.

8.2.2 The influence of graphic design

Some participants' understanding is affected by typeface. In fact, Boram and Hemi mention this explicitly.

> *...I become more scrambled the smaller the font is. The sentences [in the graded book] are longer [than the ones in Hansel and Gretel]. One time I tried to translate them, they were not divided clearly [into units of sense]. They seemed to continue on and on. If fonts are small, you can end up translating the same sentence again. This book [the graded book] has five or six lines [of sentences] and the fonts are small. So it looks like a lot. All at once, my head become scrambled...*
>
> <div align="right">(Boram)</div>

> *...It is confusing because the words (In her saying, she uses the word 'letter' but I suppose that she meant words.) are too far apart. And the book I use has spacing between sentences but the space between sentences in this book is so narrow that it is confusing...*
>
> <div align="right">(Hemi)</div>

These comments from Boram and Hemi seem to be valid, since typeface does affect readability, presumably more so for beginners. Hughes and Wilkins (2002) maintain that spacing between letters affects children's reading. Post (2004:103) notes that 'perceived letter clarity may interact with the size of space between letters within a word'. Although they do not mention these kinds of difficulties explicitly, like Boram and Hemi, the other participants seem to experience difficulty in making sense of the text, with its confusing layout and typefaces. Several students showed confusion.

8.2.3 Variation in use of cues

There were differences between the various participants in the ways that they used cues in approaching unknown words. Goodman did not differentiate between random and informed guessing. We can imagine various types of 'guessing game', on the spectrum between informed guessing and that which is completely random. In the post-reading interview, I found that students use picture, morphological, and contextual cues to approach unknown words. Also, they use known words to work out the meaning of the unknown. In the following section, I illustrate variation in use of cues with salient examples.

Extensive use of picture cues

Among the cues that were identified as having been used by the participants, it was clear that the picture cues were the most extensively used. The following extract provides an instance of this:

> *...Originally it is a white stone. But there is no word 'white' in this sentence. So I translate it just as 'stone'...*

(Jamin)

Jamin wanted to translate 'pebbles' as 'white stone', which makes it appear as though his guess was heavily influenced by visual cues. Examination of the illustration on the page where the word 'pebbles' was introduced makes this clear:

Extract 8-3 Page 3 of *Hansel and Gretel*
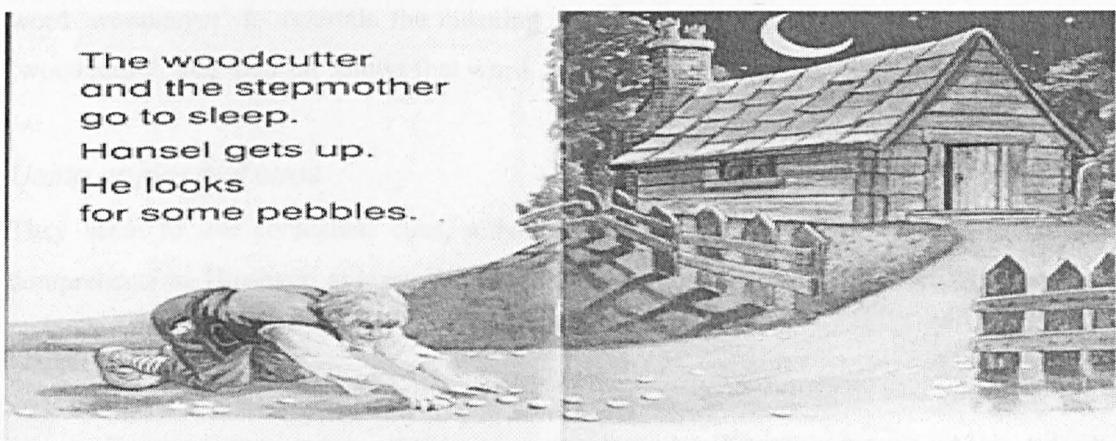
When there is more than one unknown word at the same time, some students were confused about which one was which. The following comments by Darim provide an example of this:

> Me: Is there any word you do not know here?
> Darim: Drop
> Me: What do you think it means?
> Darim: something like crumbs
> Me: What does this mean? (pointing to the word 'breadcrumbs')
> Darim: bread, this is breadcrumbs.
> Me: If then, what does this mean? (pointing to the word 'drop')
> Darim: I don't know.

Darim's comments indicate that he relies solely on visual cues, without using syntactic cues in the sentence 'He drops some breadcrumbs'. If he used syntactic cues, he would be able to distinguish between the verb in the sentence ('drops') and the object ('breadcrumbs'), and would not recognise 'drops' as 'breadcrumbs' because of its position in the sentence.

Using morphological cues

Some students use morphological cues to make a guess about unknown words. The following extract illustrates Boram's use of such cues:

> Me: Are there any words you don't know here?
> Boram: (pointing to the word 'breadcrumbs') This one.
> Me: What do you think it means?
> Boram: I think it means 'breadcrumbs'. 'Bread' is 빵/bang/ (meaning 'bread' in Korean) and 'crumbs' looks like 조각/tchokak/ (meaning 'pieces'in Korean).

Yumi shows the use of morphology in her translation. Yumi translated the word 'woodcutter' as 'someone who cuts wood'. She knew that 'woodcutter' referred to Hansel and Gretel's father, but in her translation she consistently translated the word 'woodcutter' as 'someone who cuts wood'. Her translation shows that she analysed the morphemes of the word 'woodcutter' to ascertain the meaning, but she did not use the Korean equivalent of 'woodcutter', although she knows that word.

Using contextual cues

They seem to use contextual cues, although, sometimes, this does not lead to correct comprehension. However, at least, they seem to know that contextual cues are to be used in understanding the story. There is another example:

> Me: Are there any words that you don't know here?
> Boram: 'Jump' means 'ttwida' [meaning 'jump' in Korean], doesn't it? But, I don't think it means that here.
> Me: What do you think it means?
> Boram: 'Jumping for joy'.

Sometimes the participants become very involved with the context of the story while reading and, perhaps unconsciously, use contextual cues to find the correct meaning. But, if I ask them the meaning of individual words after reading, they sometimes offer a different meaning to the one given during their reading. The following example illustrates this:

Me: (pointing to the word 'jump') What does it mean?
Gisu: 뛰다/ttwida / (meaning 'Jump' in Korean).

In her translation, Gisu interpreted the word 'jump' as 'be excited', but when I asked her the meaning of the word 'jump', after she had read the story, she gave the literal meaning of the word. I found another example of this with Coda. Consider the following example:

S0303	He looks for some pebbles.
T0303C	He looked for several stones, looked for, saw. (Do I have to translate it as 'saw' or 'looked for'?)

This example shows that Coda uses semantic cues unconsciously; this is how he managed to interpret the phrase 'look for' correctly, in the first instance. He then reformulated his translation from 'look for' to 'look'. His inner dialogue shows that he was confused by the discrepancy between his initial interpretation and his reformulation. He first approached the sentence using a 'top-down' process, but then his initial understanding was challenged, when he paid attention to the meaning of individual words. If he had known the phrase 'look for', he would not have been confused. There is another example of this, involving Hemi. She originally interpreted the word 'wood' as 'forest', but when the word appeared again, later in the story, she translated it correctly. However, in a post-reading interview, she still thought that the word 'wood' meant 'forest'. In her translation, Minsa reveals some interesting processes in using contextual cues. Minsa interpreted the word 'woodcutter' as 'woodcutter', then 'woodfather', and finally 'father'.

Orchestrating or dissecting cues

Some students use all the possible cues to comprehend the unknown words, whereas others do not synthesise all the cues and only rely on one or two types of cue. Jamin provides an example of this kind of process:

> ...I do not know what 'step' means. But I can guess the meaning since I know the story...
>
> (Jamin)

Jamin shows evidence of interactive process in his attempts to comprehend the word 'stepmother'. He tries to use morphological information in approaching the word 'stepmother', but turns to his schema of the story, since he can't obtain valid information about the word 'step'. This example, in which Jamin uses morphology and real-word knowledge, shows that he uses information from opposite ends of Cameron's diagram (2001), which is fully presented in Figure 3-1 (p.34). In this diagram, morphology is placed on one tier and world knowledge on the other. Boram uses her 'known' word to work out the meaning of 'unknown' words. Consider Boram's explanation of how she guessed the meaning of 'stepmother':

> ...Mother is 엄마(eomma: meaning 'mother' in Korean). If something is added to the word 'mother', it would be a 할머니(halmeoni: meaning 'grandmother' in Korean) or 새엄마(saeeomma: meaning 'stepmother' in Korean)...
>
> (Boram)

Based on her comments, her cognitive process would be as follows:

```
┌─────────────────┐  + mother
│                 │
└─────────────────┘
        /    \
       /      \
    Step      Grand
```
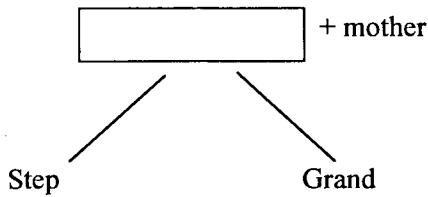
Figure 8-2 Boram's cognitive process in understanding the word 'stepmother'

Her explanation shows that she actively uses her known word 'mother' to approach the unknown word 'stepmother'. Browne (1998) notes that this strategy can be useful to readers when attempting to understand unknown words:

> Recognising known words within unknown words may also help readers to read unfamiliar words. This applies particularly to root words or singular versions of words.
>
> (Browne, 1998: 27)

Minsa could not work out the meaning of 'stepmother' during reading, so she just translated it as 'mother'. Below is my interview with her about this word:

> Minsa: 'Stepmother' looks like 'mum' but I do not know what 'step' means.
> Me: Do you know this story?
> Minsa: Yes.
> Me: What kind of mother do you think she is?
> Minsa: A bad mother. One who thinks only of herself.

Although she reached her understanding of the word 'stepmother' as 'bad mother', she could not find the correct meaning. Five minutes later, after we had this conversation, she suddenly said to me, 'Ah, it is saeeomma (meaning stepmother in Korean), right?' Based on Minsa's comments, her cognitive process would be as follows:

```
            Mother ①
               │
               │
               │
               │
        Mother who is bad ②
               ┊
               ┊
               ┊
               ┊
               ┊
          Stepmother ③
```
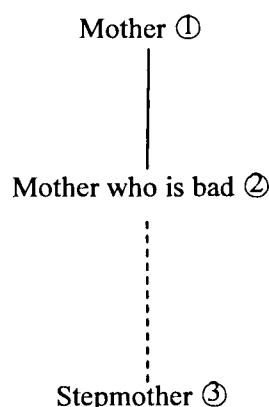
Figure 8-3 Minsa's steps in understanding the word 'stepmother'

In translating the word 'stepmother', Minsa used the word 'mother' ①, although she confirmed in her interview that she understood it to mean 'mother who is bad'②. The translation does not represent her full understanding of the word; she could not instantly connect her understanding of it with the actual word 'stepmother', although she knows the equivalent Korean word. Only Minsa could not recall the correct meaning of the word 'stepmother'. The others could guess the meaning from the story, although they reported that they had never seen the word before.

Relying on known words

When the participants tried to guess the meaning of multiple word phrases, they often relied heavily on one word they recognized and ignored contextual cues.

> Me: Are there any words that you don't know here?
> Gisu: 'They have to go'.
> Me: What do you think it means?
> Gisu: 'I will go'.

If she used the contextual cues, she would know that it does not make sense to interpret the phrase 'they have to go' as 'I will go'.

When students encounter unknown compound words, their reliance on known words becomes more obvious. Seven students (Kilsu, Boram, Jamin, Gisu, Sunny, Hemi, Minsa) used the meaning of the word 'look' in the prepositional verb phrase 'look for' in their translations, even when they did not omit the preposition 'for' in their oral reading. Fortunately, the meaning of the word 'look' and the meaning of the phrase 'look for' are not that different. However, if the meaning of the prepositional verb phrase is quite different from meaning of the verb in the phrase, confusion could be caused during their meaning construction. For example, the phrase 'look over', which did not occur in the text, cannot be constructed only from the meaning of the word 'look'.

8.3 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have presented three themes from the translation data (students' engagement in meaning construction, variation in use of cues, and disjunction between comprehension and decoding) and three themes drawn from the post-reading interview (the mismatch between observed and perceived difficulties, the influence of graphic design, and variation in use of cues). All the readers were similar, in that they constructed meaning during reading and demonstrated disjunction between comprehension and decoding, but also showed variability in using cues to understand what they read. Variation in use of cues

emerged in two different kinds of data (translation and interview), which reinforces my sense of its importance. This variability between individual readers is connected with the theme 'influence of graphic design'. Students commented that they are influenced by graphic design, but the extent to which they are influenced seems to depend on what strategies they employ in making use of various cues. Jamin's example clearly illustrates this point. The mismatch between observed and perceived difficulties raise the issue of metacognitive ability. In the next chapter, I will present a case study of one of my participants, to obtain in-depth understanding of reading processes.

Chapter 9

Case study

My analysis of twelve students offers information concerning patterns shared by this group, but also demonstrates that there exists a diversity of reading processes among these twelve students. In this chapter, I present a case analysis of one student, Kilsu, in order to explore his reading processes in depth. For this case study, I connected the data from Kilsu with data from people around him, such as his private tutor, his mother, and his state school teacher, so as to better understand his reading processes. I also approached two experienced state school teachers to obtain further comments on Kilsu's reading processes. This chapter addresses the fourth research sub-question:

- RQ1-4: What characteristics can be identified in Korean EFL learners' reading?

Firstly, I start with some brief background information about the participants in the case study. This was gathered from the interview data. Later, I discuss Kilsu's reading processes in more detail and extend my discussion, in order to better understand the reading processes of Korean students in general. While doing this, I refer to some relevant literature and link it with my interpretation.

9.1 Profile of the case study

In this section, I provide background information about the participants in the case study: two state school teachers, Kilsu, Kilsu's mother, his state school tutor, and private tutor. Kilsu, who is Korean, lived in Seoul when I first met him. During the data collection period, he was eleven years old. Kilsu is the elder of two children. He is described by his class teacher as a 'smart' student in the classroom, who is good at major subjects such as Maths, Korean, Social Studies, and Science. In the interview Kilsu told me that his favourite subjects are P.E. and Maths. He is not particularly interested in reading and does not often read Korean stories.

At the time of the study, he had been taking private English lessons for five years. His private lessons are not complicated. He learns English through a 'worksheet company'. Kilsu started receiving English lessons from the second grade. He changed the worksheet company once from "Noen" to "Choon" (pseudonym). He has never studied in any other type of private education.

Kilsu's private tutor, Song, has worked for the Choon worksheet company for three years and was 30 years old at the time of the study. As well as Kilsu, he had several other private students, but he did not want to reveal the actual number, since it is connected with his financial status as a private tutor and may be seen as an indicator of his success in that role.

Kilsu had been learning English from Song for almost one year. Song explains the focus of the Choon worksheet company as follows:

> ...There are two focuses: academic and commercial. I can't reveal anything about the commercial focus. Teachers in the Choon worksheet company receive training on the academic side of things in the main branch. I am allowed to talk about the academic focus since it is mentioned on the advertisements for the Choon worksheet company. The Choon aims to teach phonics, that is, to teach language bit by bit. I think it suits EFL learners to progress gradually by phonics, rather than to teach English as whole language. This style of teaching [whole language] only has short term effects on students and they end up back where they started. There is no point in teaching them English as whole language, since we don't use it [on a daily basis]...

(Song)

Song seems to believe that phonics is suitable for EFL learners, although it is not clear what he means by 'phonics'. Examination of the learning materials for Kilsu's private lessons illustrates that Song seems to focus on translation of individual English words into Korean. It is possible that he understands phonics as a way of teaching words in decontextualized ways, rather than a method of explaining the relationship between sounds and letters. Below is an extract from the textbook that Kilsu uses in private lessons:

Extract 9-1 Kilsu's textbook used in private lessons
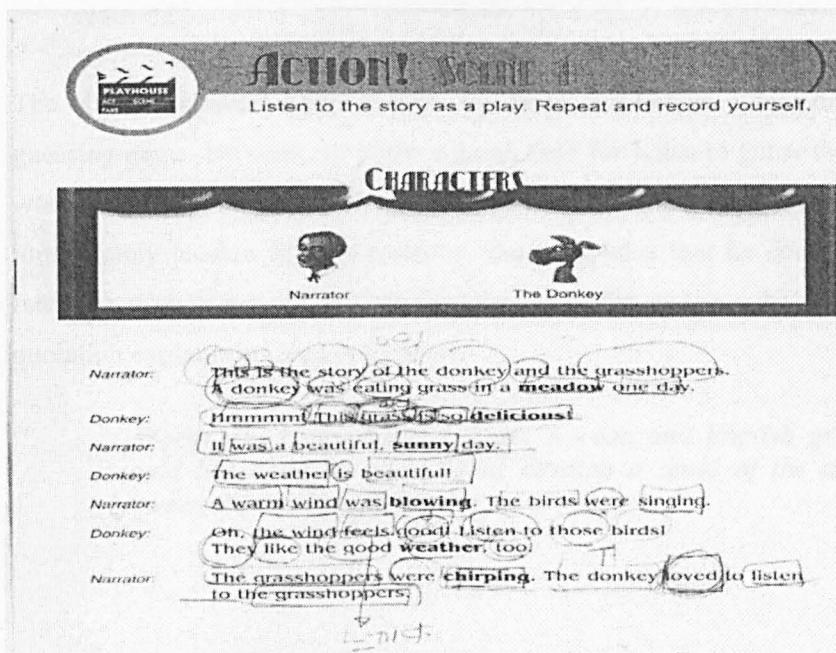
In this text, there are many circles around each word, which have been made by Kilsu's private tutor, Song. He teaches Kilsu English in the following way: when Song names the word out by circling it, Kilsu says the translation equivalent. For example, the following extract has Kilsu reading the sentence 'This grass is so delicious':

Extract 9-2 Kilsu's lesson with Song

This grass is so delicious.

Song: (circling the word 'this') this
Kilsu: 이것 [eecodt] (meaning 'this' in Korean)
Song: (circling the word 'grass') grass
Kilsu: 풀 [pooll] (meaning 'grass' in Korean)

In the interview, Song explains how he teaches reading in English to Kilsu:

> *...When I teach reading to Kilsu, I make a circle around every word. When I do that, I read each word aloud in English, and Kilsu gives the equivalent word in Korean. When he fails to think of any words, I write the meaning in Korean under the unknown word. After that, I read the text sentence by sentence and Kilsu reads those after me...*
>
> (Song)

In this way, Song says that students can maintain a good speed in reading, which seems to be an important criterion for Song to evaluate students' reading in English. Song does not consider Kilsu to be at an advanced level in reading English, relative to his other students. He gives the following reason:

> *...Kilsu is not among the most advanced of my students. I consider reading speed when I evaluate their ability in reading. Some students can read texts in no time...*
>
> (Song)

The above quotation suggests that, for Song, reading is a memory game, rather than a guessing game. He does not allow enough time for Kilsu to guess the meaning of unknown words, during reading in English. When Kilsu encounters an unknown word, Song immediately teaches him its meaning. Song explains that he does not encourage Kilsu to retell the story or ask him to state the meaning of the sentence that Kilsu read. The following quotation explains his reason for that:

> *...Words can be memorized. Since Korean and English grammar are different, I would like to make him [Kilsu] develop a sense of the differences in grammar between the two languages...*
>
> (Song)

Song explains that the way he teaches Kilsu English is designed to make Kilsu more familiar with the different word order of English. By just following English word order, by naming out equivalent words in Korean in English word order, Song seems to believe that he can help Kilsu to develop a sense of the different word order of English. My interpretation of this is that Song thinks that if he asks Kilsu to retell the story in Korean or ask him to talk about what he reads at the sentence level in Korean, he might inadvertently hamper Kilsu's sense of English grammar, since in summarizing or retelling what he reads in Korean he would have to relocate the word order and it would prevent him from following English word order in his mind. Song's approach seems to be influenced strongly by contrastive analysis, which attributes learning difficulties to differences between learners' L1 and the target language. However, as Ellis (2006:89) puts it, this approach is not a tenable or sound basis for the teaching of grammar. He criticizes contrastive analysis, arguing that:

> We simply do not yet know enough about when difference does and does not translate into learning difficulty, and in some cases, learning difficulty arises even where there is no difference
>
> (Ellis, 2006: 89).

Although researchers in applied linguistics do not consider contrastive analysis useful, some teachers, like Song, may be influenced by it. Song's focus on word translation does not seem atypical in Korea. According to Lee H. J. (2006:73), 'a mechanized 'word-for-word' translation, based on the dictionary denotation' is a widely-used classroom practice in Korea. He points out that this practice can be misinterpreted, giving the impression that each word has a single, fixed meaning. He argues that this practice can obstruct the use of contextual cues, suggesting that:

> ...the English word 'book' would be instantly translated by students into the Korean equivalent, 'chaek', and, in most cases no alternative translation would be considered. However, this mechanized and decontextualized practice of translation fails to help students develop an understanding of the broader possibilities of the contextual meaning of the word in order to choose the right one
>
> (Lee H. J., 2006:72).

Kilsu's assignment is to complete the worksheet that his teacher gives him every week. The worksheet includes a tape for him to listen to, so he listens to the tape when he studies stories and completes the worksheet. Sometimes he has assignments to record his oral reading of a storybook on the tape.

Kilsu's mother, Sunja, was not able to give educational factors priority in choosing the private lessons. She told me that she chose the Choon worksheet company, because it is not that expensive compared with the price of private institutes. She also said that she had hoped

to send Kilsu to private institutes, but could not, because of financial difficulties. She had no opportunity to discuss Kilsu's ability in English with his private tutor. She believes that Kilsu is not good at English in general; in particular, she thinks that Kilsu does not have sufficient English vocabulary. She said that she is hardly involved in the process of choosing the reading materials in English, because she does not know what to choose. The following quotation demonstrates her lack of confidence in English:

> *...I have never chosen English books for Kilsu. How can I choose books if they are written in English? To be honest with you, I don't know what to choose [when it comes to books in English]. One day, I got an English book from someone, but it was no use, since it did not have accompanying tapes with it...*
>
> (Sunja)

Sunja's comment about the need for an accompanying tapes for reading materials is in line with the students' emphasis on the oral aspect of reading, which I noted in Chapter Six (section 6.2.3, p.129). The fact that Sunja provides private lessons for Kilsu, in spite of their lack of financial resources, is typical of the expectation placed on parents, in Korea, to provide extra, private, tuition for their children. Sunja even admitted that she is considering getting a part-time job as a cleaner or maid to earn the money for Kilsu's private lessons; this level of interest in Kilsu's education is not unusual in Korea, where parents place a heavy emphasis on their children's education. In Chapter Two, I provided a more detailed explanation of the socio-cultural context of Korea, where private lessons are commonly seen as a necessity.

Hey is Kilsu's state school teacher and was twenty-two when I met her. She was not Kilsu's class teacher, but a subject teacher, who taught only English. She was the fourth state English teacher Kilsu had had that year. Generally in primary schools, the class teachers teach most of the subjects. Some identified subjects may, however, be taught by subject teachers. The headteacher decides annually which subjects are to be taught by the subject teacher instead of the classroom teacher, after taking into consideration the needs of the individual school. Sometimes, when teachers plan to have maternity leave in the middle of a semester, they are often encouraged to become a subject teacher, since head teachers generally do not want to change teachers in the middle of a semester. This was the reason that Kilsu had had four English subject teachers at school that year.

When I met Hey, she had just started school teaching and was not very confident of her ability to teach students. Also, she was not confident in her reading of English and felt she was not good at English in general. She hardly reads in English in her daily life. She said that, for a mid-term test, she designed a translation exercise to test her students' reading

ability. For example, she gave students one English sentence and asked them to write the equivalent sentence in Korean, or gave them a Korean sentence and asked them to translate it into English. It may be that Hey adopts these teaching strategies because she was taught in that way herself. It seems to be a technique for reducing unpredictable responses from students to the questions she asks, since she feels insecure about her command of English. The two other state school teachers are Hana and Jihi, who work in different schools from the one Kilsu attended. I approached them because, at university and graduate school, they specialized in English education. Both of them took a major in Teaching English for young learners (TEYL) and had several in-service programs of TEYL. Hana was thirty years old and Hey was twenty-nine when I met them. Hana and Jihi were experienced teachers, having taught in state primary schools for seven years. Jihi was the most experienced English teacher: she had taught English throughout her career, whereas Hana had only taught English to students for three years of her seven-year teaching experience. When I asked them about their reading in English, Jihi said that her reading in English is directed towards preparation for a TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) test and Hana said that she sometimes reads stories in English, such as 'Harry Potter'.

Three state school teachers were asked to listen to the recordings of Kilsu's readings and were interviewed on Kilsu's reading processes as a reader. (The details of these interviews appear in Appendix III, p.255). It was not possible to get Kilsu's private tutor, Song, to listen to Kilsu's reading and comment on it, since Song was very sensitive about his reputation as a private tutor. In the next section, I discuss Kilsu's reading processes in more depth.

9.2 Findings from the case study

In this section, I provide a more detailed explanation of Kilsu's reading processes, using a variety of data: Kilsu's miscues and translations, interviews with Kilsu, his private tutor (Song), and three state school teachers (Hana, Jihi and Hey). The interviews with the three state school teachers are used to examine whether Kilsu's reading processes are typical of the way other Korean students approach reading in English.

The following are the miscues that Kilsu made during two oral readings, with the original manuscript version in the second column and the transcript of Kilsu's reading in the third and fourth columns. Code numbers presented in the first column refer to the page numbers as well as particular sentences on that page. For example, S0202 denotes the second sentence of page 2. All unexpected responses from Kilsu are marked in bold type.

Table 9-1 Kilsu's responses to *Hansel and Gretel*

Code number	Original manuscript	First oral reading	Second oral reading
S0202	The stepmother says, we have no food.	The stepmother **de** says, we have no food.	
S0204	No, says the woodcutter.	No, **says** says the woodcutter.	
S0205	The stepmother says, Yes.	The **step** stepmother says, Yes.	
S0302	Hansel gets up.	Hansel **get** up.	Hansel **get** gets up.
S0303	He looks for some pebbles.	He looks for some **peebles**.	He looks for some **peebles**.
S0401	In the morning they go out to get some wood.	In the morning they go out to get **the** wood.	
S0402	Hansel drops the pebbles as they go.	Hansel drops the **peebles** as **they** they go.	Hansel drops the **peebles** as they go.
S0501	The woodcutter lights a fire.	The woodcutter **light** a fire.	
S0602	The woodcutter and the stepmother go home.		**Stare** the woodcutter and the stepmother go home.
S0701	The fire has gone out.	The fire has **gone** gone out.	
S0703	They look for the pebbles.	They look for the **peebles.**	They look for the **peebles.**
S0705	Here are the pebbles.	Here are the **peebles.**	Here are the **peebles.**
S0901	The woodcutter says to the stepmother.	**The wood** the woodcutter says to the stepmother.	
S0902	I want Hansel and Gretel to stay here.	I want Hansel and Gretel **to stay here** to stay here.	
S0904	We have no food.	We have **on on** no food.	**He** we have no food.
S1002	Hansel gets up to look for some pebbles.	Hansel get up get up to look for some **peebles**.	Hansel gets up to look for some **peebles**.
S1003	He can't go out.	**We can** he can't go out.	**We can** he can't go out.
S1102	Hansel has no pebbles.	Hansel has no **peebles**.	Hansel has no **pi peebles**.
S1103	He drops some breadcrumbs.	He drops some **breadcrumbs crum crumbles** breadcrumbs.	He drops some **breadcrumbs bredcrumbles**.
S1202	Stay here, Hansel and Gretel, he says.		Stay here, Hansel and **Gre** Gretel, he says.
S1304	They look for the breadcrumbs.	They look for the **breadcrumbs crum crumbles.**	They look for the **breadcrumbles.**
S1501	A witch comes out.	**Ua** witch comes out.	
S1503	They witch wants to eat Hansel and Gretel.	They witch **want** to eat Hansel and Gretel.	
S1504	The witch puts Hansel into a cage.	The witch **put Han** Hansel into a cage.	The witch puts **Han** Hansel into a cage.
S1601	The witch lights a fire.	The witch **light** a fire.	
S1602	Is the fire hot? Says the witch to Gretel.	Is the fire hot? says the witch to **Gre** Gretel.	Is the fire **not** hot? says the witch to Gretel.
S1603	It looks hot, says Gretel.	It looks **not**, says Gretel.	
S1802	The witch is in the fire.		The witch in the fire
S1902	Here is some treasure.	Here is some **tre treashure**.	Here is some **treshure.**
S1904	They get the treasure, and find the way home.	They get the **treashure**, and find the way home.	They get the **treashure**, and find the way home.
S2002	The woodcutter says, Hansel and Gretel, it is good to have you home.	The woodcutter says, Hansel and **Gre** Gretel, it is good to have you home.	

Kilsu produced thirty-one miscues (7.2 percent) in the first oral reading, but nineteen miscues (4.4 percent) in the second, so he reduced his miscues by twelve in the second oral reading. His two readings show a fairly similar distribution of miscues. The similarity between the two readings may be due to him approaching both tasks in the same way, regardless of whether it is the first or second reading.

The main finding from the results of this research was a series of disjunctions between decoding and comprehension and they are clearly shown in Kilsu's reading. Kilsu produced the same type of miscue thirteen times (for the same word in the same sentence). Ten out of these thirteen were non-word substitutions, for the words 'pebbles', 'breadcrumbs', and 'treasure'. He may have encountered these words for the first time, but his translation shows that he did understand their meanings, although he made non-word substitutions. By contrast, he sometimes cannot fully understand words that he names out successfully. For example, he cannot make a good guess at the word 'witch' and translates it as 'old lady'. Although the page where the word 'witch' appears shows a picture of an old wicked looking lady, he was unable to infer the correct meaning, and made a long pause before translating the word 'witch'. At first, he took five seconds and then said that he did not know the meaning of the word 'witch', before taking another thirty three seconds to interpret it as 'old lady'. What is interesting here is that he did not pause in the same way in his oral readings. It implies that he does not think very intently about the meaning of words when he reads aloud.

This disjunction between decoding and comprehension was also observed by all three state school teachers; they expressed their surprise at finding out that Kilsu does not know the meaning of the word *witch*, although he did not make any miscues with it:

> *...That's what I wondered. I think for Kilsu, it is one thing to read aloud words and another thing to know the meaning of the words. For example, he read the word 'witch' aloud in his first reading, so I thought he knew the word, but after I listened to his second reading, I was surprised to find out that he did not know the meaning...*
>
> (Jihi)

The word *witch* may be fairly easy to pronounce, simply from the spelling. What might surprise the three teachers was that Kilsu did not show any significant hesitation, when naming out the word, causing his listeners to assume that he knew the word. Jihi notes that disjunction between decoding and comprehension also occurred with her students.

> *...They are good at reading words. But there are often cases where they do not understand the meaning of what they read. They can read (aloud) words based on their knowledge of pronunciation, but do not know the meaning of them...*
>
> (Jihi)

Sometimes, Kilsu produced the expected pronunciation with the expected comprehension, by means of a good guess. For example, he did not know the word 'woodcutter', but managed to decode this word successfully, as well as understand the meaning. He explains how he reaches the meaning of the word 'woodcutter'; 'wood is 나무 (Namu: meaning 'wood' in Korean) and cut is 자르다 (jaleuda: meaning 'cut' in Korean) so that is why 'woodcutter' is 나무꾼 (namukkun: meaning 'woodcutter' in Korean).

Jihi and Hana assumed that the vocabulary in *Hansel and Gretel* would not be very difficult for students. Although they predicted that some words might be new to students, they also thought that those unknown words would be understood with the aid of picture or contextual cues. Conversely, Hey predicted that some students would have difficulties with certain words because they were too easy:

> ...*Because their vocabulary is limited, they will have difficulties with some. Words such as 'stepmother', 'woodcutter', and 'pebbles' are small and are used in daily life. Students usually learn conceptual words, so the words for daily life are more difficult for them...*

> (Hey)

In this quotation, it is not clear what 'small' means to Hey, but her point here is that, because students are more often exposed to conceptually difficult words (such as 'euthanasia', 'wisdom', 'virtue', 'justice') than to words for everyday objects or activities they tend to find the latter more difficult (although 'woodcutter' is not an everyday occupation these days, it is a frequently used term in fairy tales). This is also pointed out by three students (Boram, Yumi, Gisu) in their reading. These three students said that the words in *Hansel and Gretel* are much easier than the words they normally encounter in their reading and, because of that, they had forgotten their meaning. This point is related to the appropriateness of reading materials in English, discussed in Chapter Six (section 6.2.4, p.131).

Several characteristics were identified in Kilsu's translation. The first characteristic of his translation is that his ability to recognize sentences is easily influenced by the layout of the storybook. His translation of the extract below demonstrates this:

Extract 9-3 Page 8 of *Hansel and Gretel*
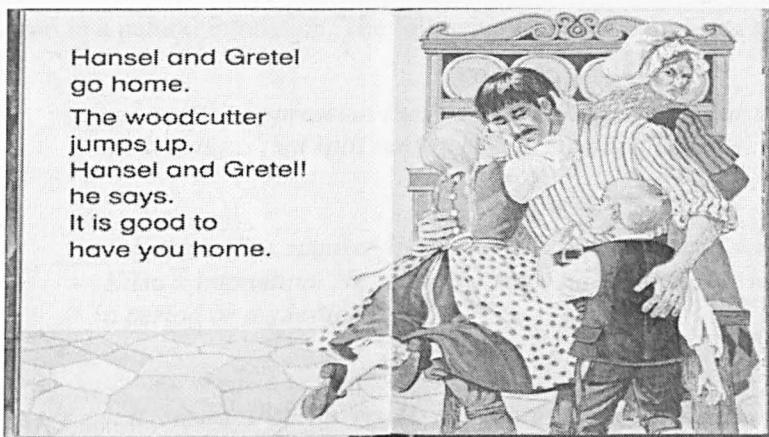
S0802	The woodcutter jumps up.
S0803	Hansel and Gretel! he says.
T0802K	그리고 헨젤과 그레텔은 나무꾼에게 뛰었죠.
	And Hansel and Gretel jumped to the woodcutter.
T0803K	그는 말했습니다.
	He said.

Kilsu translates the sentences 'The woodcutter jumps up' and 'Hansel and Gretel! he says' as 'Hansel and Gretel jumped to the woodcutter. He said'. In this translation, he combines one sentence with part of the other and translates this combination as a single sentence. This illustrates several interesting things; first, it shows that he pays no attention to the full stop. His division of sentences seems to be caused by exclamation marks, rather than full stops. Considering his age and grade in school, he should already know that a sentence finishes with a full stop (he was in the last grade in a primary school in Korea and was able to read more than four or five pages, filled with text, in Korean). The reason he does not notice, or neglects, the full stop suggests that he does not make the most use of his knowledge in his construction of meaning. This may be partly because the demanding nature of foreign language reading makes him too nervous to use his knowledge fully. Kilsu may feel overloaded with different types of information. The translation may also suggest that Kilsu has sufficient orthographic knowledge to know that a sentence starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, but he may not realise that sentences are units of meaning and that full stops, therefore, function to divide different units of meaning. Considering his English reading practice, in private lessons with Song, in which Kilsu learned reading in English by offering an equivalent word for each circled word, it is not surprising that he does not see a sentence as one meaningful unit.

The three state school teachers said that Kilsu read aloud the story word by word rather than read in a natural intonation. The following are three comments on it:

...I get the impression that he reads the text without much attention. I hope he can make pauses that split sentences into meaningful units...

(Jihi)

...If the native speaker listens to this, he/she would have difficulty in understanding Kilsu's intonation. He reads the story in a monotone, whether the sentence ends with a period or a question mark...

(Hana)

...It seems that he reads the story as an unrelated series of words. Unless he encounters a familiar phrase or expression, in long sentences, he seems to engage mainly in word by word reading. I got the impression that he is eager to read words, rather than to think of their meaning...

(Hey)

However, Hey said that in his second reading Kilsu appeared to insert pauses between each individual word. She notes that, like Kilsu, many of her students read word by word, as if one line is one sentence.

...There are a lot of students who read word by word, rather than sentence by sentence. They do not read text in terms of meaningful units. Rather, they read one line without stopping...

(Hey)

Secondly, Kilsu's translation (above, extract 9-2) suggests that he relies more on the picture than the sentences themselves in the construction of meaning. In the picture, Hansel and Gretel jump up to the woodcutter. By using this example, I am not implying that it is very important to identify who jumped to whom. Whoever jumped to whom, Kilsu got the gist of the story. The important point about the example above is that his translation suggests that he has not recognised the subject of the sentence.

Kilsu's confusion about pronouns is pointed out by Hana; she noted that Kilsu may not understand which pronouns refer to which person:

...He doesn't know the word 'we' refers to whom. He can translate as he reads, but when he encounters the pronouns 'he' or 'we', he doesn't know who is talking to whom. On the page on which the pronoun 'he' was used to refer to the woodcutter, Kilsu appeared to be confused as to whether 'he' referred to Hansel or the woodcutter...

(Hana)

In this example (extract 9-2), the sentence structure was broken up too much on the page. For example, the noun phrase 'Hansel and Gretel' just takes up one line. This layout, in which

lines are not divided according to the sentence breaks, might mislead students into thinking that the end of a line indicates the end of a sentence. This presentation might confuse young learners if they are still developing a sense of English grammar. Because word order in a Korean sentence is different from that in an English sentence, it may be easier for young learners to comprehend an English sentence when it is presented as a single unit. In Korean, the object is located after the subject, but in English the object follows the verb. If Kilsu relocates word order according to Korean grammar, in his head, this presentation of sentences over several lines could cause a great deal of confusion in comprehension. Kilsu's oral reading also confirms that he is affected by layout:

Extract 9-4 Page 9 from *Hansel and Gretel*
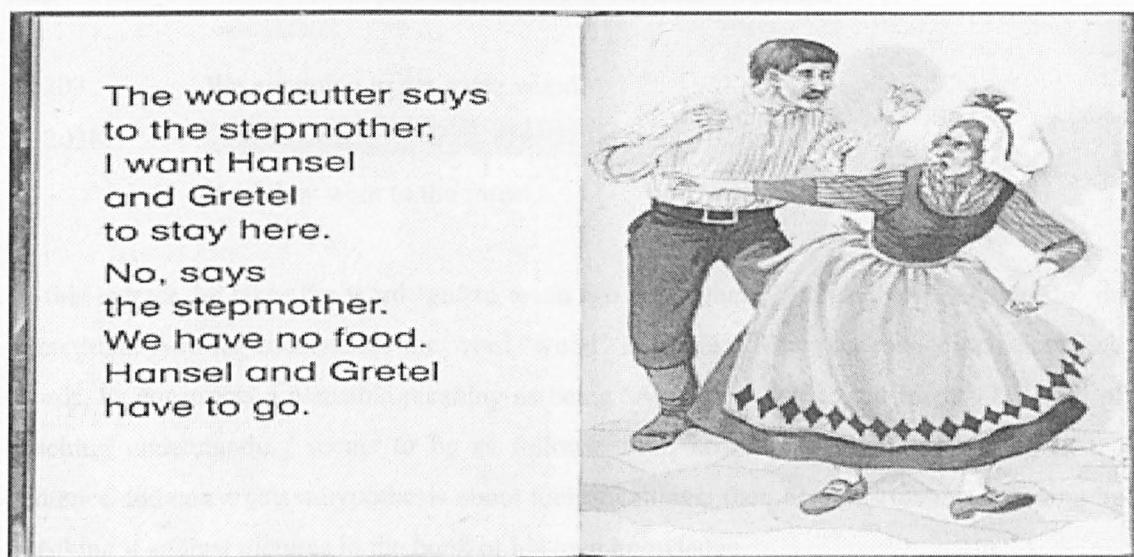
On this page of his first oral reading, Kilsu read the sentence 'I want Hansel and Gretel to stay here.' with several falls in pitch in the middle of the sentence. He produced this falling of pitch at the end of each line. For example, his pitch fell at the end of the line 'I want Hansel', as if it were one sentence and fell again, when he reached the end of the line 'and Gretel'. At the end of the third line of the sentence, he made a reformulation at the end of the line 'to stay here' from rising pitch to falling pitch. In his second oral reading, Kilsu read this page with the expected intonation. This example suggested that the layout of the story may influence Kilsu's sentence recognition.

The second characteristic of Kilsu's translation is that, in translation, he tries to construct meaning with the words he believes he knows and disregards unknown or confusing parts:

Extract 9-5 Page 12 from *Hansel and Gretel*

The woodcutter
lights a fire.
Stay here,
Hansel and Gretel,
he says.
We are going to
get some wood.

Hansel and Gretel
go to sleep.
The woodcutter
and the stepmother
go home.
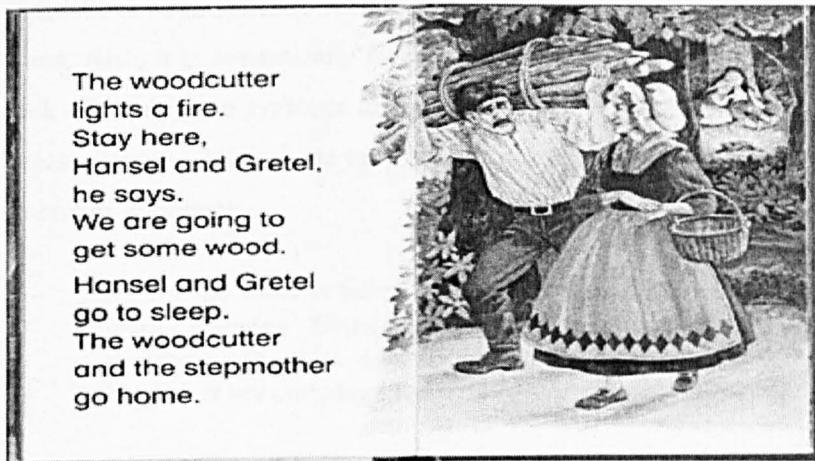
S1203   We are going to get some wood.

T1203K   그리고 그들은 숲으로 갔습니다.

                  And they went to the forest.

In this extract, he takes the word 'go' to mean 'go somewhere', rather than 'be going to' do something. And he understands the word 'wood' as 'forest'. Once he recognises these two words, he constructs a plausible meaning as being 'And they went to the forest'. His way of reaching understanding seems to be as follows: first, he takes the familiar words in the sentence and constructs a hypothesis about their meanings: then he confirms this meaning by checking it against pictures in the book or his own knowledge.

Kilsu's selectiveness in translation was identified by Jihi and Hana. Here, selectiveness means his strategy of constructing meaning using the words he knows and ignoring the unknown parts:

> *...He seems to know a lot of words, also their pronunciation, but he seems to avoid translation where it is not straightforward or there is difficult grammar, although he knows the meaning of words in the sentence. He seems to ignore or omit the difficult parts...He can reach the comprehension with one word he knows...*
>
> (Jihi)

> *...At first, he connects the words he knows. He ignores the unknown words and disassembles a sentence and then assembles it as he likes it. He ignores the unknown parts. He does not worry that much about unknown words. He used the words he knows, until he assembles a meaning. I think this is connected with Korean ability, since it is about assembling words. If you know the words 'eat' and 'good', you can construct the meaning 'good to eat'...*
>
> (Hana)

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He pays little attention to syntactic or semantic cues. If he used them more, he would realise that it is not syntactically correct to say 'to get some forest', because 'forest' is a countable noun. Also, it is semantically inaccurate to say this: the statement does not make sense. This lack of attention to syntactic and semantic cues may be caused by the approach taken in his private lessons. His private tutor, Song, revealed in the interview that he does not consider grammar important:

> *...I do not think reading has a close association with grammar. It is important to grasp meaning. Grammar prevents misunderstanding. We do not know Korean grammar. There is a possibility that we will misunderstand something because English is not our language. To prevent misunderstanding, we need grammar...*
>
> (Song)

In this quotation, Song demonstrates a contradictory belief about grammar: at first, he insists that grammar is not closely related to reading, but an examination of what he said indicates that he thinks grammar is actually an important aid to understanding, when reading.

Kilsu's lack of attention paid to syntactic cues appears to be a general characteristic of young Korean learners when they read in English. Hey and Hana stress the syntactic difficulties of reading English:

> *...In school, we don't teach them that this is subject or verb. There are still students who have difficulties in understanding the construction of a sentence...for example, whether a word is a verb or a noun...*
>
> (Hey)

> *Students do not know prepositions, grammar, or the difference in word-order between Korean and English. For example, if they have to say the sentence 'I play baseball with friends', they often say it as 'I play baseball friends.' They cannot recognize the differences right away. A few days ago, I gave my students a test. They didn't know the phrase 'Is this~?', although they have listened to the phrase 'This is~.' many times...*
>
> (Hana)

Hana assumed that students would reach understanding eventually, with several cues available, but would have difficulty in understanding in detail. The following interview data illustrates this point:

> *Hana: Once they know the story and a certain amount of vocabulary, they will understand the text... even if they don't know grammar. However, they may not know the detailed meaning [of the text]. They will make a guess using words they know; there are pictures [in the storybook], and if they know the story they will try to understand it from the pictures. Although they know the story, they will find it difficult to understand the details.*

> *Me: Why do you think it is difficult to understand the meaning in detail?*

Hana: Because they don't know about prepositions and grammar, and also the word order is different [between English and Korean]. Young students cannot instantly re-organise the word order [in their mind]. This book [Hansel and Gretel] is short, but if they try to understand it in detail, they will probably get frustrated, unless they are very good readers.

Hana's prediction was verified by my participants. In certain places, where detailed understanding was required, some students did not demonstrate correct comprehension. My analysis of the translation of phrases, such as 'They come to a house' (p.178), 'It is good to have you home' (p.179), 'look for' (p.193) and 'come and have a look' (p.187) are in this category.

The third characteristic of Kilsu's translation is that he hardly checks his initial attempts to construct meaning. Also, he does not make significant changes to his initial attempts to understand the meaning of words. His mistaken insistence on using the words 'forest' and 'old lady' are examples of this. This is relevant to his metacognitive ability: even when he makes a guess at unknown words, he thinks that he knows their meaning. Because he thinks he understands what he first encounters in the text, he does not check the meaning when necessary. Extract 9-6 shows this point clearly:

Extract 9-6 Interview with Kilsu

Me: Is there any word you do not know?
Kilsu: No.
Me: Is there any word whose meaning you guessed at?
Kilsu: No.
Me: Is there any word you encountered for the first time?
Kilsu: Yes.

Kilsu seems to think that he knows a word if he manages to guess the meaning, although he is encountering the word for the first time. He is not even aware that he is guessing the meaning. If he succeeds in constructing a plausible meaning for the word, he assumes that he knows its meaning, whether or not his guess is correct. The fact that he is not aware of his guessing strategy can lead him to pay little attention to checking his word. Kilsu's lack of awareness of unknown words may be linked to his private lessons. Here is Kilsu's private tutor, Song's quotation on how he teaches Kilsu in lesson:

...I write the meaning of words which seem to be unknown to Kilsu. With my support, Kilsu can read texts without stopping, although he encounters unknown words. I can predict what Kilsu may know or may not since I have taught him for a long time. Therefore, I write the meaning of unknown words, when Kilsu pauses in oral reading. In that way, Kilsu's reading speed is not diminished. If I give this kind of support, he seems to get a sense [of English word order]. Kilsu thinks he knows the unknown words because I write their meaning... (Song)

9.3 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I presented a case study of one student, Kilsu, to obtain further information from people around him and to better understand his reading processes in the context of the general characteristics of Korean primary school students, as perceived by three state school teachers. Three characteristics of Kilsu's reading were presented: word-by-word reading, disjunction between decoding and comprehension, and selectiveness in constructing meaning. These three characteristics are consistent with the results I provided in previous chapters. In the next chapter, I provide a discussion of my research questions, based on the findings I provided in the previous four chapters.

Chapter 10

Discussion and conclusion

In this chapter, I bring together the key findings from the previous chapters and discuss how, and to what extent, they have answered the research questions. The first section of this chapter will offer a brief overview of the key findings that emerged from my data analysis. I will then interpret these findings in light of the main research questions.

10.1 Overview of the findings

My study was designed to answer my main research questions: theoretical and methodological. The theoretical research question concerned understanding the way Korean primary school students approach reading in English, and the methodological question was framed in order to discover what information miscue analysis could provide to augment our understanding of the reading processes of foreign language readers.

To answer these two research questions, I designed a preliminary study, two pilot studies, and a main study, which made use of observations I made as a primary school teacher, as well as analysis of the Korean national curriculum and media reports. In this section, I will provide an overview of my findings from the main data, as well as findings from preliminary and pilot studies. As this suggests, my study was a recursive process: even before I collected data for the main study, preliminary findings assisted me in developing the research questions.

The investigation of the socio-cultural context in Korea was conducted to increase my understanding of the research context and to find contextually practicable methods for the main study. This research into the cultural context included study of media reports, analysis of the Korean national curriculum, my observations as a teacher, and the preliminary questionnaire. The preliminary questionnaire was conducted with 112 grade 6 students from a Korean primary school. This investigation found that English is perceived as very important in Korean society and, because of this, many students (96 percent of my sample) have had private lessons after school. The national curriculum focuses on the oral aspect of English but students are exposed to reading in English through their private lessons. Perhaps as a consequence, more than half the students (62 percent) considered reading the national English textbook to be either 'easy' or 'very easy'. My investigation of the socio-cultural context made me aware of the need for more research on reading and persuaded me to choose miscue analysis as a research tool.

The two pilot studies were conducted to refine my research tools. The first pilot study was conducted with two year 2 Korean students, studying in England. The first pilot study showed that these students were not comfortable with summarizing material after reading it aloud and, also, that some students were unwilling to participate, in spite of having their parents' consent. The first pilot study highlighted the need to adapt miscue analysis and reconsider my method of approaching participants. The second pilot study was conducted with five grade 6 students from a Korean primary school. It showed that graded books do not provide a reliable picture of students' reading ability and that grade 6 video recording did not prove to be useful for this study. The findings from this second pilot study led me to set up the main study with only one piece of reading material (*Hansel and Gretel*) and an audio-recording.

The questionnaire and background interview were conducted in order to help produce a design for the main study that took into account the research context. The questionnaire was conducted with 78 students, in two schools, from which the 12 students for the main study were then chosen. It revealed that the majority of students (82.1 percent of this sample) had private lessons after school and they read English because their private tutors asked it of them. The findings of the main study were gathered from three types of data: miscue analysis, translation, and interviews with the twelve students. They were also based on a case study, which focused on one participant, Kilsu, who was chosen from among the twelve students, and includes interviews with his mother, private tutor, state school teacher, and two experienced state school teachers.

The background interview was conducted with the twelve students who participated in the main study. It reveals five salient themes: diversity of private lesson history, a range of reading practices, students' understanding of what reading is, appropriateness of reading materials and disconnected vocabulary learning. First, the participants varied in their experience of private English lessons, in the sense that they experienced different starting points, length of lessons, types of lessons, and types of tutors. Second, translation, oral reading, and repeated reading were popular reading practices amongst the participants. Third, it was found that many students assume that reading equates to oral reading and associate reading difficulties mainly with pronunciation and vocabulary. Fourth, students read given texts in English for academic purposes and the texts prescribed for them were often far beyond their fluent reading ability. Finally, the demands placed on students to memorize long lists of English words for testing resulted in disconnected vocabulary learning.

The miscue analysis was presented in two main parts (see Chapter Seven). The first focused on the miscue analysis in its entirety -the five types of miscues in the two oral readings- and the second part was concerned with miscue analysis for individual participants. The first part showed that a number of miscues were repeated in the two oral readings and that non-word substitutions constituted the highest proportion of substitution miscues. Most real-word substitutions were based on graphophonic, rather than syntactic or semantic cues. Omissions, repetitions, and reformulations were subcategorised into three levels of miscues, called part-word/ word/ and multiple-word miscues and many part-word miscues were produced in all three main categories. All five types of miscues diminished in the second reading. Omissions were the least frequent. Most omissions occurred with the singular verb ending –s, which the students frequently left out. The miscue analysis of the twelve students demonstrates that there is a diversity of reading processes among them and some students contributed many different types of miscues.

Three themes emerged from the translation data. The first of these concerned students' engagement in meaning construction; they used the past tense for the narrative part of their translation, although all the verbs in the story are in the present tense. This suggests that students were constructing meaning while reading rather than literally translating what they are reading. The second theme concerns variation in the use of cues. All the students made a great deal of use of the pictures in their meaning construction; they seem to derive support from the pictures in the story book. Students also used contextual cues; they seem to get support from their previous knowledge of the story. In contrast to this, they do not use syntactic cues actively. The third theme is disjunction between comprehension and decoding, which I have divided into three categories: disjunction between non-word substitutions and translations, real-word substitutions and translations, and no substitutions and translations. This theme suggests that comprehension and decoding may sometimes be disconnected for foreign language readers.

Three themes emerged from the post-reading interview: first, mismatches were identified between observed and perceived difficulties. Some students showed observable difficulties in their oral reading and translation, but did not perceive their difficulties. Second, some students reported that they were influenced by graphic design while reading. Thirdly, the interview data shares a theme with the translation data: variation in use of cues. There were a number of differences between the students in the ways that they used cues in approaching unknown words. Some students use all the possible cues to understand the unknown words, whereas others resort to one or two types of cue without synthesizing them.

The triangulation of three types of data (miscue analysis, translation, and interview) suggests some connections between the themes that emerged from each set of data. For example, variable use of cues among the participants was found in both translation and interview data; skilled readers of English show a full range of cues, selecting strategically and synthesizing as necessary, whereas struggling readers show that they don't have access to the full range of cues. Also, the triangulation of three types of data shows disjunctions and mismatches. I discovered disjunctions in investigating the miscue and translation data; the interview data revealed a mismatch, in that students were unaware of the disjunctions. I used the term 'disjunctions' when referring to the gap between the findings from miscues and from translation data, whereas I used 'mismatch' when comparing the data. I used these two terms to refer to things which are not in agreement; I used different terms because a 'disjunction' implies an unexpected disagreement, whereas a 'mismatch' simply denotes disagreement.

Kilsu's case provides evidence for the themes mentioned above, especially variation in use of cues. He displays a low level of awareness of his difficulties, which is probably caused partly by his limited use of cues. The interview with three state school teachers verified that Kilsu's selective reading processes, in which he constructs the meaning of sentences with selective attention to familiar words, disregarding syntactic cues, are a common strategy commonly used by Korean primary school students while reading English.

10.2 Discussion of the findings

10.2.1 Research Question One: How do Korean sixth grade primary school students approach reading in English?

The first theoretical question was followed by four sub-categories of research questions. After I answer each sub-question, I will return to this research question.

RQ1-1: How do Korean sixth grade primary school students perceive reading in English?

This study has produced two main findings regarding perceptions of reading. The first is that in many cases, for young foreign readers, the term 'reading' is associated with oral aspects of reading, such as storytelling, reading aloud, listening to tapes, or reading along with tapes. This suggests that my participants may be more concerned with decoding, rather than constructing meaning, while reading. Here, decoding refers to the process of matching written and oral forms of words. Indeed, the interview data confirms this. Eight out of twelve students said that they did not think their reading was good enough, just because their

pronunciation was relatively poor. Moreover, they said they think they can improve reading by listening to tapes or reading aloud. Coda even said that he has to listen to pop songs to improve his reading in English. This clearly indicates that the oral aspect of reading takes a dominant role in their English reading. However, this raises the issue of why they focus on the oral aspect of reading? There are two possible reasons for this, which may be interconnected. First, educational reading practices emphasise oral reading, and so students may view reading as primarily an oral activity. The influence of reading practices on perceptions of reading was demonstrated in Krashen and Kim's study (1997). In Chapter Three, I mentioned their study in which their five Korean participants considered reading in English as a decoding task because of their experience of reading in English at school (section 3.1, p.24). The second possible reason may be related to the role of reading in a foreign language context. Young foreign readers generally lack sufficient input. In this situation, reading is used to provide written, as well as oral, input. In Chapter Three, I noted the role of reading as an important source of input for foreign language students (section 3.3.1, p.38).

RQ1-2: What types of miscue can be identified in Korean EFL learners in the two oral readings?

Five types of miscue were identified: substitutions, insertions, omissions, repetitions, and reformulations. Substitutions and repetitions were the most dominant miscues whereas insertions were the least. Substitutions were sub-categorised into two types: non-word substitutions and real-word substitutions. Omissions, repetitions, and reformulations were sub-categorised into three levels of miscues: part-word, word, and multiple-word miscues. Many non-word substitutions were identified repeatedly in the two oral readings, which either indicates that students are not good at decoding words or that they have a very weak knowledge of the relationship between spelling and sound. Most real-word substitutions were more likely to be based on graphophonically appropriate miscues, rather than semantically or syntactically acceptable miscues. Browne (1998) pointed out the use of graphic knowledge in young readers:

> Young readers often recognise the first letter of words and use this information to produce words that begin in visually similar ways when they encounter unfamiliar words. When they do this they are using graphic knowledge to inform their guesses.
> (Browne, 1998:26)

However, this probably does not mean that they do not use syntactic or semantic cues, while they read. For example, Gisu and Boram's attempt to understand the word 'woodcutter' results in translating it as '숨어서 보다'(sumeoseo boda: meaning 'peeping' in Korean).

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Although they thought of the word as 'peeping', they did not substitute the word 'peeping' for 'woodcutter'. This may be because they do not know the equivalent word 'peeping' in English. This case shows that although these two students use semantic cues, because of their lack of English vocabulary, this was not reflected in their actual miscue. A further example of this occurred with the word 'cage'. All the students named out this word correctly, but their actual translations were not always accurate (see section 8.2.1, p.186). The unobservable use of semantic cue presented in 'cage' would be more likely to occur with foreign young readers who have more limited linguistic knowledge on target language than their cognitive ability.

RQ1-3: What is the relationship between decoding and comprehension in the reading of young foreign learners?

The disjunction between miscue and translation data shows that successful decoding does not necessarily guarantee successful comprehension, and vice versa. For example, many students made non-word substitutions with the word 'pebbles', but most of them showed their understanding of the word's meaning in their translation. This tells us that the participants did not make full use of the graphophonic cues in their oral reading, although most of the real-word substitutions were based on graphophonic cues. For example, the participant in the pilot study, Yuri, was able to understand the meaning of the word 'building', by reading it aloud; in other words, by collecting graphophonic cues. But, the participants in my main study were unable to make full use of graphophonic cues to comprehend the meaning of unknown words.

The disjunction between decoding and comprehension appears to be caused by several factors. One of these may be that students memorize the words with incorrect pronunciation, but their comprehension of the words is correct. It is not unusual for foreign language learners who are not frequently exposed to the target language. In Chapter Three, I mentioned Busbee's (2004) note on the strong tendency among Korean students to employ different pronunciations for reading; this is likely to be because their exposure to English is mainly through written input (section 3.4.2, p.49). This is connected with the point I mentioned in Chapter Six concerning student's transliteration of English words (section 6.2.2, p.127).

The second possible explanation for the disjunction between decoding and comprehension is that they may have very limited phonic skills and, therefore, do not know how to pronounce unfamiliar words. There have been several studies by Korean researchers that point out the

importance of phonics in reading in English (e.g., No, 1991; Lee Y., 2004, 2005). I have mentioned these studies in Chapter Three (section 3.4.2, p.49). What is interesting here is that although my participants could not decode unfamiliar words properly, they could sometimes understand their meaning. The fact that comprehension is not seriously hampered by difficulties in decoding words indicates that students do not make full use of graphophonic information when attempting to comprehend the meaning of a text. This suggests that readers are so engaged in reading that they often follow the meaning, without paying attention to the details of words. However, the issue is whether their meaning construction is based on a wild, or more informed, guess. By neglecting the use of graphophonic information, readers may lose an important source of knowledge, which can contribute to the informed construction of meaning, and reading becomes a more demanding task. Although they may have encountered some words orally, when confronted by their written versions, they are usually unable to make use of this knowledge. Darim's inability to recognize the word 'fire', which I mention in Chapter Eight (section 8.2.1, p.186), provides a good illustration of this. The disjunction clearly shows how complex word recognition itself can be. The relationship between decoding and comprehension is represented in Figure 10-1:
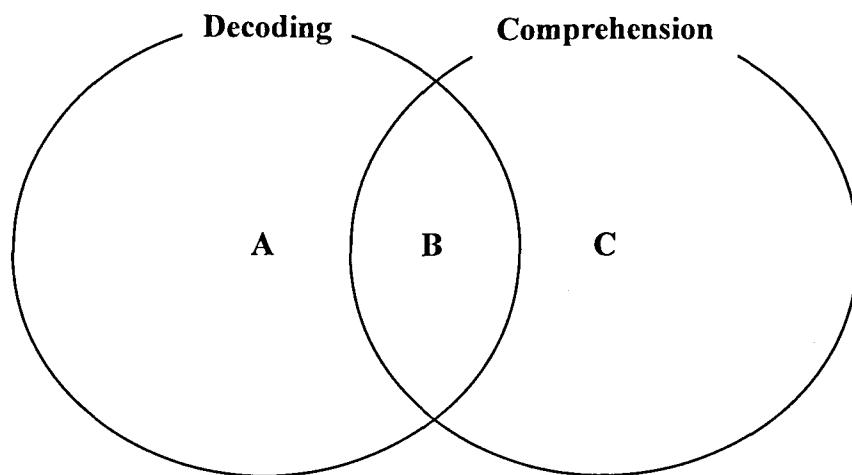

Figure 10-1 The relationship between decoding and comprehension

Area 'A' represents successful decoding but poor comprehension, while 'B' refers to successful decoding and comprehension. Area 'C' denotes poor decoding but successful comprehension. The smaller the intersection, 'B', the larger is the disjunction between decoding and comprehension.

RQ1-4: What characteristics can be identified in Korean EFL learners' reading?

In analysing the findings, I identified two main characteristics: selective attention to cues and lack of awareness of difficulties.

<u>Selective attention to cues</u>

During my research, I found that I found that readers who demonstrate less flexibility in their use of cues rely more on picture cues and less on syntactic cues. Darim is a good example of this. When students encounter unfamiliar words, they have to make a guess based on all the available information and one of their favourite sources of information was picture cues. For example, when the participants read the word 'wood', six of the twelve interpret it as 'forest' rather than 'wood'.

The participants do not make effective use of syntactic cues in constructing meaning within a sentence. My translation data indicate that when they face difficulties in their translation, they use the meaning of the English words and order them in any way that might produce a plausible meaning. They do not pay close attention to the English grammar they read and are therefore more likely to construct meaning from their knowledge of each word, irrespective of the sentence in which it is used. For example, with the sentence 'It is good to have you home', some students only used the meaning of the words 'good', 'you', and 'home' to comprehend the sentence, without considering the syntactical structure of the sentence, and translate the sentence as 'It was good for you to come back home.' With this example, we can see that the guesses they make are not random; it is the strategy that they use to construct meaning. The question here is how different strategies are used according to different readers.

My participants also tended to resort heavily to contextual resources to make sense of texts. For example, some of them have difficulty in understanding the phrase 'have to go', which is frequently used in spoken English. When they translate this phrase, they simply use the contextual cues without considering lexical or syntactical cues. Gisu, one of my participants, translates this phrase as '놓고 와야 해요/nohgo waya haeyo/' (In English, it means 'have to leave them behind'). The phrase is presented in the sentences *'Hansel and Gretel's father is a woodcutter. The stepmother says, we have no food. Hansel and Gretel have to go.'* Gisu's translation makes sense within the context in which sentences are presented, although she does not seem to know the phrase 'have to go.' This reliance on context suggests that, in word recognition, their automaticity is quite limited.

<u>Lack of awareness of difficulties</u>

Secondly, students do not seem to check their initial attempts to understand meaning. Goodman (1967) says that reading is a process of attempting to reduce uncertainty. But, the question is how readers become aware of uncertainty. Sometimes, they think they know words even when they do not. If I follow Goodman's assumption that reading is a process of attempting to reduce uncertainty, this kind of lack of awareness permits students to miss the chance of correcting their uncertainty. If students believe they are certain when they are actually not, the chance of them reducing their uncertainty is limited. 'Recognising unknown words' may be particularly demanding for those students who demonstrate a disjunction between decoding and comprehension, since they convince themselves that they know a word, by focusing on only one dimension of 'knowing a word'.

Students are less likely to recognise their own uncertainty when using multiple words. In the study, students had particular difficulty in understanding prepositional verb phrases. In the story *Hansel and Gretel*, the prepositional verb phrase 'look for' is frequently used. Most of the students interpreted this phrase as 'look'. Some students left a long pause before using this phrase, but finally decided to stick with the word 'look', which they already knew. Fortunately, there is not a stark difference of meaning between 'look' and 'look for', but if the sum of the meaning of each word in a prepositional verb phrase does not represent the meaning as a whole (such as 'give back') this is likely to cause difficulties in understanding. Some of the participants do not seem to be aware that 'look for' is an prepositional verb phrase, and just focus on the individual words that make up the phrase. This is not just limited to prepositional verb phrases; it is representative of the way they generally construct meaning while reading. They pay attention to familiar words and construct meaning without checking their initial understanding, which sometimes leads to incomplete or distorted comprehension. Laufer (1997) describes the impact of lack of awareness of uncertainty on comprehension:

> Learners think they know them and assign the wrong meaning to them, distorting the immediate context in this way. But this may not be the end of the distortion process. The misinterpreted words will sometimes serve as clues for guessing words that the learner recognises as unknown, which may lead to larger distortions.
>
> (Laufer, 1997:27)

These two characteristics are very closely related to each other. For example, selective attention to cues will improve a student's reading, if he or she pays attention to the more important information, but if the student's selective attention is focused on unimportant information and he or she does not check their initial understanding, then his or her comprehension of the text will be hampered.

Based on the discussions about the sub-research questions, the main research question (How do Korean sixth grade primary school students approach reading in English?) can be tackled. Here, I have not identified a single approach among the participants: their approach varied according to their expectation of reading, their language proficiency, cognitive ability, meta-cognitive ability, and so on. In particular, their expectation of reading seems to be closely related to their reading practices in their private lessons. One of the themes that emerged from the interview data was that they considered reading as an oral activity. The findings of the questionnaire and interview suggest that this is probably due to their reading practice, in which they are asked to read texts aloud. Individual differences in expectation were also observed. For example, Wongu made a number of miscues, due to his expectation that effective reading is fast reading, whereas Sunny made very few miscues by taking more time with her reading. However, I observed one common pattern in their approach to reading: that they approach reading in English in a disconnected way. The disjunction between decoding and comprehension in their word identification during reading demonstrates how disconnected their reading process is. Also, some of the students' use of cues during reading is not orchestrated in an organic way. This is partly because those students are exposed to English in a disconnected way: they memorize spellings of words for vocabulary tests, but do not necessarily have phonic knowledge of the words. We need to provide students with a reading environment in which they can synthesise their use of different types of cues, to facilitate their meaning construction.

It is not a new idea that young learners are engaged in disconnected stages of reading processes, even for native young readers; all children will go through these disconnected stages at some point. Adams (1994) shed light on connection issues in young learners' reading from a cognitive perspective; in my study, a different type of disconnection was shown due to the particular Korean EFL context. Some participants showed more evidence of disconnection than others; this is probably caused by their different cognitive, metacognitive, linguistic and socio-linguistic histories and characteristics.

10.2.2 Research Question Two: How can miscue analysis usefully be applied to young foreign readers?

Miscue analysis is based on the psycholinguistic perspective, which views reading as a process of constructing meaning. However, in some cases, reading did not always engage the participants in the construction of meaning; sometimes, they seemed more concerned with pronunciation, rather than meaning construction. They tried to name out as correctly as they could and did not pay particular attention to the meaning of the story. The second point is

that they may actively construct meaning during reading, but miscues do not reveal clues to their active engagement with meaning construction. This view is supported by two pieces of evidence. More non-word substitutions were produced than real-word substitutions; first language readers normally do the opposite. Also, a number of repeated miscues occurred in the two oral readings and more than sixty percent of repeated miscues were non-word substitutions. For example, with the word 'stepmother', eleven non-word substitutions were produced, but, in their translations, most students could understand what the word meant.

In this case, miscue analysis does not perform the function of a transparent 'window' on reading processes; rather, it serves as an opaque window, which demands careful interpretation by researchers in order to understand reading processes. Interpretation will start with genuine curiosity as to why miscues occur in oral reading. Here, I discuss the possible reasons why miscues occur in reading aloud to my participants. Davenport (2002) provides us with a detailed explanation of the possible reasons that may cause miscues. Goodman confines his discussions mainly to substitutions, but the other miscues are also worth attention. So, what do miscues reveal? They may reveal clues that readers use in constructing meaning, but they can also reveal their own strategies for addressing unknown words, as well as their phonological problems. In this section, I give possible reasons as to why each type of miscue occurred

Substitutions

Goodman paid greatest attention to substitutions because he believed that they come from readers' hypotheses. Arnold (1982) also maintains that 'substitutions yield more information than any other type of miscue'. However, this view can be challenged in relation to the data in this study. In this situation, where the participants produce non-words more often than real-words, the substitutions themselves may not offer as much meaningful information as are found in the readings of first or second language students. First or second language students would have a much better understanding of sound and letter relationship. However, foreign language learners may have a weaker understanding of the relationship. This weaker understanding may stem from a lack of exposure to English in a foreign language situation. In this situation, a number of substitutions can occur purely due to mispronunciation, which does not necessarily provide information about the student's meaning construction. Therefore, it is necessary to screen their repeated miscues from their oral reading, so as to obtain valid information that will help us understand students' meaning construction.

Omissions

Omissions may be connected with acquisition order or selective attention. Part/ word omissions can be mainly due to acquisition order. In my study, there are three types of part-

word omissions and they are singular verb ending –s, plural noun ending –s, and partial omissions. In the literature review (see p.56), singular verb ending –s and plural noun ending –s are among the last morphemes to be acquired among Korean ESL students of English, so the omission of these morphemes is better interpreted as being due to acquisition order.

Word omissions may have two explanations. First, some word omissions may be due to the different grammatical systems of English and Korean. For example, the Korean grammatical system usually does not use articles in front of nouns. This is markedly different from the English system. In my study, participants frequently omitted 'a' and 'the' inappropriately in their oral reading. Secondly, some word omissions may stem from the participants' lack of attention. It is my hypothesis that in their construction of meaning, the students focused on content words that helped them in their understanding of the text and gave little attention to delexical verbs and function words. Multiple-word omissions arise mainly from students' lack of attention. Sometimes, they accidentally flipped over two pages, which may suggest that they were not very focused on meaning. On other occasions, they thought they had already read a particular sentence, perhaps because they were concentrating intently on meaning construction. Another reason could be that they were too focused on the translation task in the second oral reading. In providing the translation of the sentences, they sometimes neglected to read the English sentence, before providing the Korean version of it.

Repetitions

Many repetitions occurred in combination with other types of miscues, especially with reformulations clearly demonstrates that students may want a fresh start: after a miscue, they often repeat words in their effort to correct themselves. Also, as Davenport (2002) writes, students may want to make more time for themselves to think. This notion is supported by the fact that students tend to make more repetitions, when one sentence is divided into several lines on a page, rendering meaning construction more difficult and time-consuming.

Repetitions may also indicate that the students' word recognition is not automatic. Students produced a number of part-word miscues, in all three types of miscue; for example, when they had to name out the word *'breadcrumbs'*, they produced the part-word repetition *'bread breadcrumbs'*. These part-word miscues have not been recognised by recent miscue researchers. This is probably due to the fact that researchers such as Goodman (1967), Campbell (1993) and Davenport (2002) are more concerned with first-or second-language readers who have relatively strong knowledge of the relationship between spelling and sound.

In the literature review, I assumed that the new role of miscue analysis is to reveal participants' expectations of reading. In the present study, this assumption was confirmed; the participants showed different ways of approaching reading *Hansel and Gretel*. For example, Yumi translated English sentences according to English word order, whereas most of the other participants used Korean word order in their translations. Yumi's approach reveals the way in which she has learned reading in English. Although miscue analysis was originally based on the psycholinguistic perspective, which focuses on the cognitive dimension of reading processes, my study proves that it can focus on more than the cognitive side of reading. It would be more fruitful to use miscue analysis in a way that synthesises the social and cognitive dimensions in order to further our understanding of reading processes.

10.3 Limitations

This study has a number of limitations. A significant limiting factor is that its results may be specific to the social and cultural context of Korea. In other research contexts, the miscue results might be different; for example, in the present study, non-word substitutions occurred much more frequently than real-word substitutions. Although this is the main finding of this study, the result would not necessarily be replicated in different research contexts because reading is made up of situated processes. The role of English in Korean society may be different from the one it plays in other societies, and reading practices in English may also differ from other research contexts. However, this limitation may be considered to be part of the nature of reading, if we assume that reading is a situated practice and is likely to differ significantly in different research contexts. Given that I am taking a socio-cognitive perspective, my aim is not to seek a unitary reading process that can be generalised to any reading context, but rather to offer one way of understanding reading processes, by considering a number of factors that can affect them. A further limiting factor is that all twelve participants, in my study read the same story, *Hansel and Gretel*, regardless of their reading proficiency. Hood (1978) stated that the difficulty of reading materials can affect the quality of miscues. If a variety of reading materials were used for miscue analysis, they would produce several different types of miscue and these miscues would reflect the readers' varying levels of reading proficiency.

One notable methodological limitation is concerned with sampling. There are twelve participants in my study. Although some of my findings show a consistent pattern across all participants (such as dominance of non-word substitutions, disjunctions between decoding

and comprehension, reliance on visual cues etc.), the consistency of these patterns needs to be verified by a larger number of participants, something which may be pursued by a future study. Finally, in selecting a participant for a case study, I chose Kilsu, who had been learning English with one private tutor. However, Kilsu is not typical of the participants, since most of them have several different English private tutors simultaneously and these tutors change frequently (approximately every six weeks). Although Kilsu was atypical in his contact with private tutors, I chose him for the case study, since it seemed more practical to investigate the influence of private lessons with a student who had consistent lessons with one private teacher.

10.4 Implications

In discussing implications, I examine three types of argument: theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical. While assessing theoretical arguments, I discuss the importance of the socio-cognitive perspective, in understanding reading processes and emphasize the need to redefine technical terms and reading models so that they are more applicable to reading for young EFL readers, from the socio-cognitive perspective. In the methodological section, I discuss issues surrounding the application of miscue analysis to young EFL readers in terms of designing as well as interpreting miscues. The pedagogical section then discusses various perceptions of the term 'reading', among the participants, which may create possible confusion around the term 'reading', between teachers and students, and then discuss the actual demands and support my participants received in using storybooks with young foreign readers.

10.4.1 Theoretical implications

As I mentioned in section 3.3.1 (p.38), most theories of reading are based on first-language or proficient second-language readers. Given that reading is cognitive as well social, we need different reading models to explain young foreign readers that are situated in different socio-cultural contexts from proficient second-language readers. In this sense, pre-existing reading models and theories lack a full understanding of young foreign readers. For example, my study shows a great deal of disjunction between decoding and comprehension, among the participants. Goodman and Goodman (2004) considered decoding secondary to comprehension. Cognitive psychologists, such as Samuels and Farstrup (1992), paid particular attention to word identification skills in reading and illustrated the demanding task of simultaneous decoding and comprehension. Their explanation only works at a cognitive level; it does not explain why, for young foreign readers, the relationship between decoding and comprehension is so varied and complex. To examine this question, I need to consider

certain factors that take my analysis beyond the cognitive level.

Since socio-cultural approaches have been introduced to reading research, much attention has been paid to the redefinition of the word 'reading'. One of the most notable contributions by socio-cultural theorists is that they consider reading as a situated practice, acknowledging that reading can be differently interpreted, in different reading contexts. In the same way that the term 'reading' was redefined according to the socio-cultural perspective, we need more work on redefining technical terms in reading research. For example, terms such as 'decoding', 'comprehension', and 'word identification' need to be differently interpreted.

10.4.2 Methodological implications

Methodological implications can be divided into two categories: the design of the study and interpretation of the data. Although miscue analysis can provide useful information on reading processes, the metaphor 'window' for miscue analysis is not appropriate, since it involves a great deal of work from the researcher's point of view to understand reading by identifying, categorizing, and interpreting miscues. The 'window' metaphor gives the impression that actual reading can be observed by means of miscues, but, in fact, 'miscues' only provide a useful clue that helps us to understand reading, rather than offering a transparent picture of the reading process. Being aware of this, I blended several research methods: rather than relying solely on miscue analysis, I also used interviews and questionnaires. Questionnaire and background interview data were collected, in order to become familiar with contextual information about the participants, such as their usual reading practices and materials. The miscue analysis data were used to identify the areas where students experienced difficulties in their reading. Retrospective interview data were analyzed in order to understand the students' own awareness of their difficulties and metacognitive strategies.

In Chapter Three, I mentioned issues associated with miscue analysis. One of these theoretical issues concerned a tendency to infer a wider applicability for miscue analysis. To address this issue, I need supplementary data: translation and post-reading interviews. In order to tackle this theoretical issue and to reflect my research context, I made certain adaptations of miscue analysis. Students were asked to read the same text twice, without any significant pause between the two oral readings, and they were asked to translate what they read during the second oral reading. Using two oral readings, I was able to distinguish repetitive miscues from unexpected responses caused by tiredness or mistakes. By

investigating translation data, I identified the points at which students experienced difficulties with meaning construction and their strategies for solving these difficulties. If I had relied solely on miscue analysis, I could have ignored the cases in which students make no miscues, although they have difficulties in understanding. By means of this adaptation, I was able to discover a stark disjunction between decoding and comprehension, which, together with the repeated miscues in the two oral readings, suggested a new interpretation of the role of miscues.

Here, an important methodological implication emerged. When we consider levels of reading, we may consider a number of different aspects of reading. There were some cases where students were not particularly good at decoding, although their comprehension was good. So, in choosing the materials, one should consider more factors than simply counting the number of miscues. The priority, when choosing materials, is to become familiar with the participants; the perceptions they have of reading and their proficiency in the relevant language. Also, researchers should be familiar with various types of books that can be useful: fairy tales, essays, books of information, and so on. Each type has its own demands and the researcher should decide to use the type that best fits the research aims.

In interpreting miscues, I did not confine myself to the psycholinguistic perspective, although miscue analysis originally came from psycholinguistic theory. I adopt the socio-cognitive perspective when discussing results; for example, the participants produced a lot of non-word substitutions, a result that conflicted with previous miscue studies (e.g., Lee, 2001; Harji, 2002; Kim, 2007). All previous miscue studies reported that real-word substitutions occurred much more often than non-word substitutions; as a result, they focussed on the examination of real-word substitutions and whether they are graphophonically appropriate, or syntactically or semantically acceptable. In my study, there were relatively few real-word substitutions, so my main focus was the examination of why there were many non-word substitutions, together with correct comprehension of the substituted words. This suggests that young foreign readers have weak knowledge of the relationship between decoding and comprehension. In analysing the reasons for this, I investigated the socio-cultural context of my participants. A possible reason for this combination of incorrect decoding and correct comprehension was found only after I investigated the socio-cultural factors that underlie the reading processes. All of the participants in my study were encouraged to memorise many English words per day, a vocabulary list, separate from class reading, for a written spelling test. This kind of educational practice surely has an impact on their reading processes and leads to a disjunction between knowledge of spelling and pronunciation of words.

Choosing reading materials is also very challenging for foreign language learners and would be a fruitful area for further research. The process of choosing appropriate reading materials in a foreign language is not a simple task. For example, some materials could be linguistically, but not cognitively challenging. My participants are sixth grade primary school students, who are 12 years old. For them, the story *Hansel and Gretel* is not cognitively challenging, but not many of the students said it was easy for them to read, by which they probably meant it posed linguistic difficulties. Miscues are not a reliable way to predict reading ability in English. Minsa produced very few miscues but said that *Hansel and Gretel* is difficult for her to read, whereas Wongu produced many more miscues than Minsa, but reported that it was easy to read. Another difficulty with choosing reading materials arises from the student's lack of awareness of their own difficulties. Difficult reading materials chosen by their private teachers can also add to their confusion about their level of reading in English. In the foreign language context, students usually approach their reading with a view to learning English. Consequently, even if they think a text is too challenging for them, they may regard it as part of the learning process and pay little attention to whether the reading materials matches their level of proficiency.

10.4.3 Pedagogical implications

There are several pedagogical issues raised by the present study. For instance, in my study, students considered reading as an oral activity and showed a high level of concern with pronunciation in reading English. If they regard reading as an oral task, the role of meaning construction will be significantly diminished. A possible method of countering this would be for teachers in the classroom to set up a task in which students read in English, so that they can be engaged in meaning construction in English, while allowing the students to regard the task as an oral activity. Before embarking on certain reading activities in English, it is important to check students' understanding of reading in English and bridge any possible gaps.

In addition, it became apparent that some students are heavily influenced by visual cues, such as line spacing, word spacing, font size, and division of words in each sentence. We have to be very careful when choosing reading materials for young foreign readers, in order to reduce the possibility of confusion caused by disorganised layouts. For instance, in the story I used for my study, *Hansel and Gretel*, sometimes a single sentence was divided into several lines; indeed, on occasion, a sentence is spread over five separate lines. Layout restrictions sometimes make it impossible to present a sentence on a single line, but, considering that young foreign readers may not have solid syntactic knowledge, this kind of layout can make it difficult for them to identify a sentence as a meaningful unit. Also, if the

separation is inevitable, it may be better to divide the sentence into meaningful semantic units; for example, the phrase 'look for' is a meaningful propositional verb phrase, but in *Hansel and Gretel* its constituent words were sometimes on separate lines. This hinders readers' ability to identify it as a meaningful unit and limits them to word-by-word reading.

My participants showed heavy reliance on picture cues, which can inhibit or facilitate the understanding of a story. Some successful readers use picture cues to confirm their initial understanding, whereas unsuccessful readers can be overly dependent on them in their meaning construction. The problem here is that pictures in storybooks are usually drawn by people who already know the story. The process in which such illustrators are engaged is often diametrically opposed to the way in which readers construct meaning. Illustrators understand the story of the text and want to represent this knowledge visually, but readers may use pictures differently: if they have a rough idea of what is going on in the story, they will use pictures to confirm this understanding. But, a problem arises from the fact that when readers have little idea of the meaning, they will rely on the pictures more heavily and the way students use such picture cues may not occur to the illustrators. Consequently, extra care is required when using pictures in books with young foreign readers; it would be useful if illustrators match their pictures more precisely with the accompanying text. They may also wish to test their products with sample groups of young learners in order to observe the reactions that the pictures provoke. By doing so, they may avoid the illustrations giving rise to varying interpretations and causing readers confusion.

Another pedagogical implication concerns the awareness of uncertainty when reading in a foreign language. Many participants in the present study showed no awareness of their own uncertainty during the reading process; for example, Kilsu claimed to know words whose meaning he did not comprehend. This lack of awareness of uncertainty is closely related to the lack of a checking strategy: the students think they know the words, so they fail to check their initial understanding and continue to construct meaning, but incorrectly. In order to make students aware of their own uncertainty, it would be useful to help them come to understand exactly what it means to 'know' a word and all the different aspects of word knowledge that contribute to this. Nation (2001) illustrated more than twenty aspects of knowing a word, and it is important to know which particular aspects a student focuses on; for example, if they focus on pronunciation, they may think that the ability to pronounce a word equates to knowing the word. Similarly, if they can construct meaning in any plausible way, they may think they understand all the words in the sentence; in the present study, Kilsu thought he knew unknown words if he could make a plausible guess at them (in fact, he did not seem to be aware that he was guessing).

The last pedagogical implication concerns the importance of phonics for young foreign readers. The miscues in the current study revealed poor decoding skills in the participants. By teaching phonics, we can help students to understand the relationship between spelling and sound. However, issues still remain with regard to when or how much we teach phonics to students in order to assist them in connecting phonics with reading for meaning. It may be possible to address these issues by the examination of recent developments in synthetic phonics, which help students to develop phonemic awareness and the ability to blend sounds within words.

10.4.4 Implications for further research

It would be useful to investigate in more depth how young foreign readers learn and store new vocabulary in English, since it would be likely to add to our understanding of the disjunction between decoding and comprehension that I have outlined in this study. Also, it would be interesting to carry out a further interview with the participants, and another miscue analysis, using different reading materials, to see whether their perceptions of reading and the way they approach reading in English have changed. Regarding ethical issues, we may consider obtaining consent forms from children as well as their guardians when researching young learners, since their guardians do not necessarily represent their views accurately.

10.5 Concluding remarks

This study was designed to explore the reading processes in English of some primary school students in Korea from a socio-cognitive perspective and to investigate the role of miscue analysis in helping us to understand reading processes. Reading is considered as a complex process, which demands the use of many kinds of knowledge interactively and simultaneously. If these different kinds of knowledge are disconnected, the process will be more complex: it will require several different research tools to study these separate sources of information. Otherwise, research will only produce disconnected data that will not fully reflect the complexity of reading processes. My study has adopted a synthetic approach, blending several research tools together, with miscue analysis serving as the main research tool. By means of this synthesis, this study reveals how complex word identification itself can be for foreign young readers when reading in English. The disjunctions between miscue and translation data show that the students' decoding difficulties do not necessarily reflect their reading comprehension, and vice versa. This complex relationship between decoding and comprehension may be due to the socio-cultural context in which Korean primary

school students are situated. There should be more studies conducted, from a socio-cognitive perspective, on reading in English for young foreign readers, so that we can create more applicable reading models to illustrate their reading processes. For this, we need to carefully evaluate research tools, in order to match them with different research contexts as effectively as possible.

One day my brother came to me and asked about my research. I explained that it was about the reading processes of some Korean primary school students. After he listened to me, he asked me why I studied reading. He went on to say that as a foreign language learner, he found listening in English as being the most difficult to do because he had to make the effort of processing the information so that he could understand what was going on. For him, reading was simple and easy as long as he knew the words on the text. Processing reading was just a matter of knowing the words of that foreign language. However, as my research shows, reading is too complex to rely on simply knowing words. First of all, 'knowing a word' itself is complex process, especially for foreign readers who may encounter words more in written form than in spoken form. The disjunction between decoding and comprehension in my data clearly shows how complex word identification would be during reading in a foreign language. Further research into vocabulary and grammar learning and its role in reading processes is needed to better understand how young foreign readers approach reading in a foreign language.

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*In this thesis, Korean authors' names are reproduced in different formats (e.g., Kim, J.-S., Kim, S., Lee, H.-j.); most Korean names consist of three syllables and there is little agreement on how they should be represented in English. As a result, I have decided to reproduce the authors' names in the same way that they chose to do in their own publications.

Appendix I: Questionnaire for the preliminary study (translated into English)

Hi!

This is to investigate reading in English. Please give a candid response to questions. Please answer freely and fearlessly. This questionnaire is not designed to test your ability to read in English.

___primary school in Seoul 6-__class number:__ name:

1. Have you had private lessons (hawgwon, worksheet company, tutoring...etc) to learn English?

① Yes   ② No

If so, please specify the private lessons, by completing the blanks below.

Length of private lessons:_____   Name of private lessons: _____

2. How many hours do you study English, besides your English classes at school?

_____

3. What do you think of the level of reading demanded by the national English textbook?

① very easy   ② easy   ③ appropriate

④ difficult   ⑤ very difficult

4. How often do you usually read in English?

① everyday ( )   ② once or twice per week ( )

③ three or four times per week ( )   ④ other (please specify)

5. What sort of things do you usually read in English?

① English textbook from schools or private lessons

② English storybooks

③ English newspapers

④ The Internet

⑤ other (please specify)

6. What level do you think you have attained in reading in English?

① advanced (good)　　　　　② intermediate　　　　　③ poor

7. What level do you think you have attained in reading in Korean?

① advanced (good)　　　　　② intermediate　　　　　③ poor

8. When do you find reading in English difficult?

① when I encounter unknown words

② when I encounter difficult grammar

③ when I encounter difficult contents

④ other (please specify)

9. What do you think is the most important factor in reading English?

① vocabulary

② grammar

③ pronunciation

④ background knowledge about contents

⑤ other (please specify)

10. How many English words do you memorize?

① fewer than 5 words　　② 6 – 10 words　　③ 11 - 15 words　　④ other (please specify)

Appendix II: Questionnaire for the main study (translated into English)

Hi!

This is to investigate reading in English. Please give a candid response to questions. Please answer freely and fearlessly. This questionnaire is not designed to test your ability to read in English.

_____primary school in Seoul 6-__class number:__ name:

1. Do you learn English outside the classroom at the moment?

① Yes   ② No

If so, please specify the private lessons by completing blanks below.

The first time you learned English in private lessons: _____
Name of private tutor: _____

2. How many hours per week do you study English, excluding your school English classes?

① less than 1 hour
② 1 ~ 2 hours
③ 2 ~ 3 hours
④ 3 ~ 4 hours
⑤ 4 ~ 5 hours
⑥ 5 ~ 6 hours
⑦ other (please specify)

* Questions 3 to 8 were designed for students who normally read in English.

3. Why do you need to read in English?
① asked to read in English by a state school teacher
② asked to read in English by a private lesson teacher
③ asked to read in English by parents
④ I want to read in English
⑤ other (please specify)

4. How often do you read in English?
① everyday ( )
② every other day ( )
③ once every three days ( )
④ once every four days ( )
⑤ other (please specify)

5. What sort of things do you usually read in English?

① English textbooks (　　　　　　　　　　　)

② English storybooks

③ English novels

④ English cartoons

⑤ other (please specify)

6. How do you usually read in English?

① read aloud on my own

② read aloud to others

③ read aloud with others

④ read along to an accompanying tape

⑤ read silently

⑥ other (please specify)

7. Do you like reading in English?

① Yes　　　　　　　　　　　② No

8. How do you solve the problem when you encounter something difficult while reading an English textbook?

_____

9. How do you find reading the national English textbook?

① I can read it on my own without difficulty.

② I can read it without difficulty, when I have support from others.

③ I find it difficult even with support from others.

Appendix III: Interview questions (translated into English)

Background Interview Questions for the Students

How long have you been having private lessons?

Have you ever changed private tutors? If so, how many times?

Do you have homework from private lessons?

If yes, what kind of homework do you get from private lessons?

What kind of materials do you currently use for private English lessons?

Do you think it is appropriate for you to read?

Why do you need to read in English?

What level do you think you are at in terms of English reading? Why do you think so?

How many English words do you memorize per week?

How do you memorize English words?

When do you find reading in English difficult?

How do you solve the problem when you encounter something difficult while reading an English textbook?

Post-reading Interview Questions for the Students

Was it difficult to read *Hansel and Gretel*? If so, what made this book difficult?

Is it more difficult than what you are currently reading with your teacher?

Show me the unfamiliar words in this story. How did you understand these words?

Show me the most difficult parts to translate. What makes it so difficult?

Interview Questions for the State School Teachers

What comes to your mind when you think of students who read in English?

<u>Before listening to Kilsu reading *Hansel and Gretel*</u>

What kinds of demands do you think students would face reading *Hansel and Gretel*?

What kinds of support do you think students would need reading *Hansel and Gretel*?

<u>After listening to the first oral reading</u>

What impression did you get?

What level do you think he is at in terms of reading in English?

What are Kilsu's weak points and his strong points?

What support do you think he needs in his reading?

<u>After listening to the second oral reading and translation</u>

What impression did you get? Was it different from the first time you listened?

What level do you think he is at in terms of reading in English?

What are his weak points and his strong points?

What support do you think he needs in his reading?

Interview Questions for the Private Tutor

Do you have a particular focus in teaching English to your students?

How do you teach reading in English to your students? Do they like your approach?

What level do you think your student is at in terms of reading in English?

When do students seem to experience difficulty while reading in English?

Interview Questions for the Parent

How do you choose private lessons?

Do you have a particular focus in English education for your children?

Do you know your child's weak points and strong points in terms of reading in English?

Do you buy books in English for your children? If so, how do you choose them?

Interview Questions for the staff at Children's bookstore

Which books are the most popular with your customers?

Which books for 6th grade primary school students are the best selling?

Appendix IV

Hansel and Gretel

p. 1

Here are
Hansel and Gretel.

p. 2

Hansel and Gretel's
father is a woodcutter.

The stepmother says,
We have no food.
Hansel and Gretel
have to go.

No, says the
woodcutter.

The stepmother says,
Yes. They have to go.

p. 3

The woodcutter
and the stepmother
go to sleep.

Hansel gets up.

He looks
for some pebbles.

p. 4

In the morning
they go out
to get some wood.

Hansel drops
the pebbles
as they go.

p.5

The woodcutter
lights a fire.

You stay here,
Hansel and Gretel,
he says.
We are going to look
for some wood.

p.6

Hansel and Gretel
go to sleep.

The woodcutter
and the stepmother
go home.
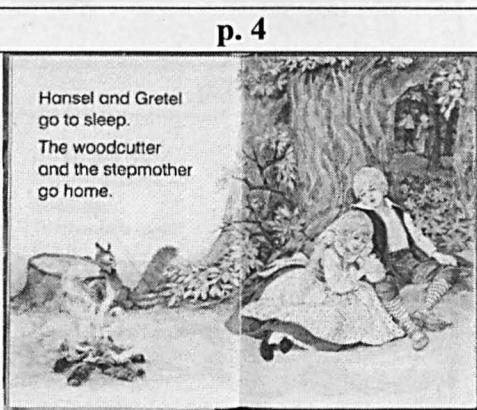
The fire
has gone out.
Hansel and Gretel
get up.
They look
for the pebbles.
Look, says Hansel.
Here are the
pebbles.
We can go home.

p. 7

Hansel and Gretel
go home.
The woodcutter
jumps up.
Hansel and Gretel!
he says.
It is good to
have you home.

p. 8

The woodcutter says
to the stepmother,
I want Hansel
and Gretel
to stay here.
No, says
the stepmother.
We have no food.
Hansel and Gretel
have to go.

p. 9

The woodcutter and
the stepmother
go to sleep.
Hansel gets up
to look
for some pebbles.
He can't get out.

p. 10

In the morning
they go out
to get some wood.
Hansel has
no pebbles.
He drops
some breadcrumbs.

p.11
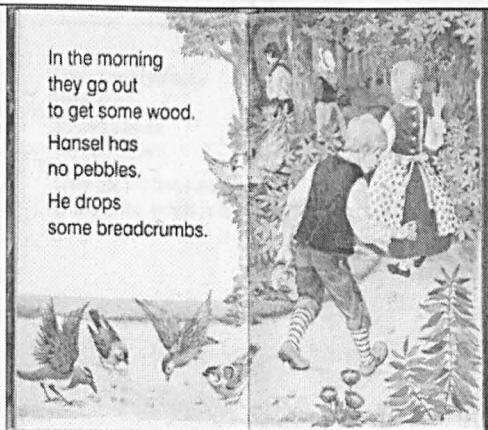
The woodcutter
lights a fire.
Stay here,
Hansel and Gretel,
he says.
We are going to
get some wood.
Hansel and Gretel
go to sleep.
The woodcutter
and the stepmother
go home.

p.12

The fire is out.
Hansel and Gretel
get up.
They want to go home.
They look
for the breadcrumbs.
The breadcrumbs
have gone.
Hansel and Gretel
can't go home.

p.13

Hansel and Gretel
come to a house.
Gretel says,
This house is good
to eat.
They eat and eat.

p.14

258

p. 15
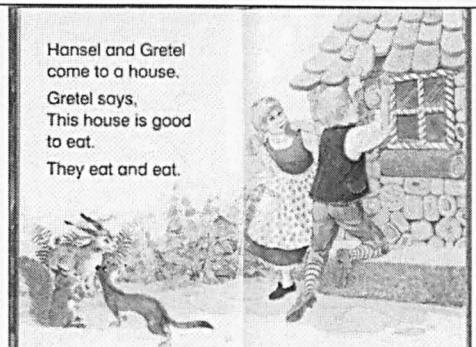
A witch comes out.
You can come in,
says the witch.

The witch wants to eat
Hansel and Gretel.

The witch puts Hansel
into a cage.

p. 16

The witch lights
a fire.

Is the fire hot?
says the witch
to Gretel.

It looks hot,
says Gretel.
Come and have a look.

p.17
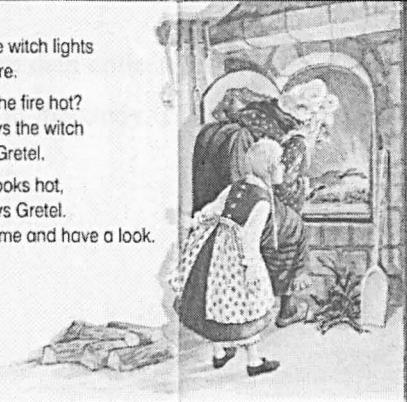
The witch looks
into the fire.

In you go,
says Gretel.

p.18
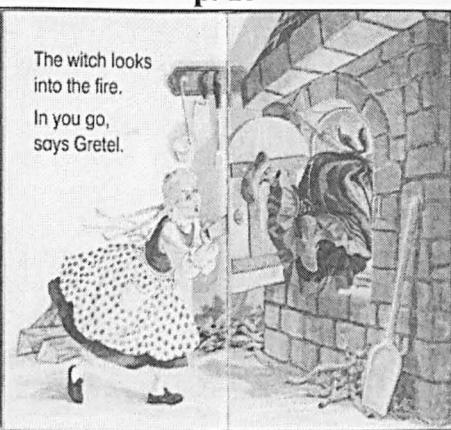
Gretel says, Hansel!
The witch is in the fire!
We can go home.

p.19
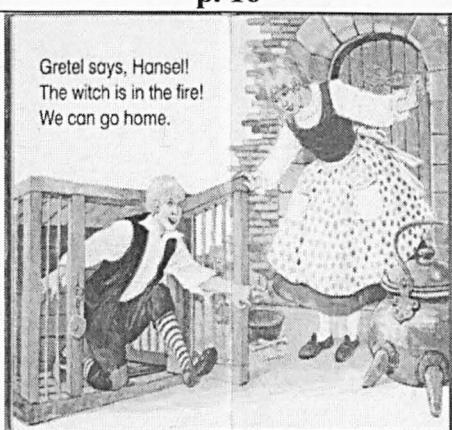
Look, says Hansel.
Here is
some treasure.
We can have it.

They get the treasure,
and find the way home.

p.20
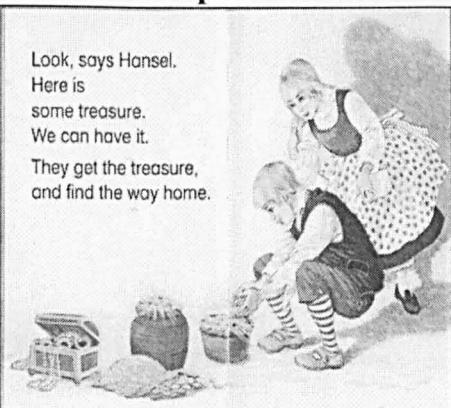
The stepmother
has gone.

The woodcutter says,
Hansel and Gretel,
it is good
to have you home.

259
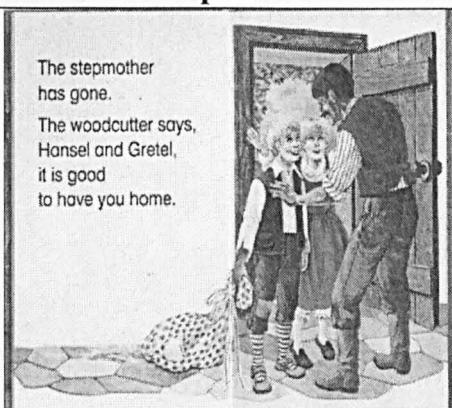
Appendix V: Consent letter for the parent of the participant

This is to confirm that I am giving permission for the data collected from my child during the reading aloud session and interview can be used in the study. I understand that the data will be anonymised and treated confidentially.

Date:

Child's Name:

Parent's Name:_____ Signature:

Appendix VI: Consent letter for the non-student participant

This is to confirm that I am giving permission for the data collected from me during interview can be used in the study. I understand that the data will be anonymised and treated confidentially.

Date:

Child's Name:

Parent's Name:_____ Signature: