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EFFECTIVENESS OF THE READING ENGLISH ADAPTED DIGESTS (READ) PROGRAM IN THE ACQUISITION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE STUDENTS OF THE LINGUISTICS AND ENGLISH CAREER AND THE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE OF THE UNIVERSIDAD PERUANA UNIÓN

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**Effectiveness of the Reading English Adapted Digests (READ)
program in the acquisition of the English language in the students of
the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the
Universidad Peruana Unión**



**UNIVERSIDAD DE PIURA
FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN
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APPROVAL PAGE

The thesis titled **EFFECTIVENESS OF THE R.E.A.D. PROGRAM IN THE ACQUISITION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE STUDENTS OF THE LINGUISTICS AND ENGLISH CAREER AND THE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE OF THE UNIVERSIDAD PERUANA UNIÓN** presented by Mr. Abel Apaza Romero, in accordance with the requirements of being awarded the Degree of Master in Education in **Teaching English as a Foreign Language**, was approved by the thesis director: María Esther Linares and defended on _____, 2012 before a Jury with the following members:

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INTRODUCTION

Historically, talking a second language or a highly valued language was a symbol of a social and economical status. English language extended its influence under the British Empire and then through The United States in its economical expansion. In many countries, English language replaced French as the high society language. However, globalization, industrialization and internet have changed in a very dramatic way the role of English in the last 20 years. Nowadays, a good level of English is not considered as an advantage of wealthy people anymore, but a basic aptitude necessary for any job. According to Education First (2011) in 2007, a study with 10000 non-native English speaking employees from multinational companies showed that 49% used English every day at work. Only 9% did not use English at work. English has become the language of communication, not only at the international business level but also in any situation where two people do not speak the same language. This situation brings us the question: what is the best way (and the fastest one) to master English in an outstanding way?

Languages are like gaps that become in barriers for communication. There is an estimate of 6912 languages spoken around the world, having the following percentages divided in continents: Asia 33.6%, Africa 30.5%, Pacific 18.1%, Americas 14.4 and Europe with only 3.4% (Ethnologue, 2010). Even though, Europe has a very little percentage of all the languages of the world, there is a key factor: geography. Going

from one country to another in Europe and in some countries too, there is a change of language; the distance is very short in comparison with Latin America. This change of language at a very short distance forces people learn a second or a third language in order to communicate or in some cases, to survive. People affected by the globalization need to learn or much better acquire English as a lingua franca for moving from country to country or for many other reasons. We can conclude that the smaller the country or the fewer the speakers of a certain language, the bigger the necessity of learning a second language. People in Europe are conscious of mastering a foreign language.

In Latin America, people can move from country to country and even in Brazil, Spanish is enough for communication everywhere, the Spanish area is huge, so there is not a surviving necessity of learning a second or a third language. Here we conclude that the bigger the country or countries or the more Spanish speakers, the less necessity of learning a second language. People feel comfortable with Spanish; the principal ones that feel the emergency of learning English are college students (and teachers) who need English for academic purposes.

In Peru, this situation is overwhelming for schools and teachers in order to make students be part of the community who use English at work, at school or in any other situation. Acquisition plays a very important role on this huge task; and there are many ways of how acquisition is accomplished, having extensive reading as one of the most important ones. On this research, we want to focus on graded readers as an important tool for making acquisition develop enhancing grammar and vocabulary in the students. This can be possible through the application of the R.E.A.D. (Reading English Adapted Digests) program.

On chapter one, there is the statement of the problem, focusing on why acquisition has a very important role in making students master English. After the problem statement, the objectives are established having a general objective and specific ones. Rationale is set in order to see the importance of acquisition and how graded readers can help acquisition work in students' minds. Limitations of the study are shown with the background of the research.

On chapter two, we have the theoretical background, finding correlational studies and some case histories. We also find important definitions related to this research. Finally the R.E.A.D. program is set up in detail.

On chapter three, the research methodology is shown; having the type of research, the assumptions, questions and hypothesis. We also find the sample, description of instruments used on this research with the reliability and validity of them. Finally we can see the procedure and the data analysis done on this research.

On chapter four, we have the research findings according to all the information obtained. This is followed by the discussion, implications and recommendations for further studies. Finally, there are some conclusions based on this research, making this one as a big window open for future researches and actions that can be done in order to make acquisition more accessible to our students from any level.

CHAPTER I

1.1. Problem statement

Every day, more and more people learn English. Public schools began to teach English since elementary and in some cases, before that. English has been compulsory in the secondary level and a higher number of universities establish English as a requirement of graduation. Many of them offer academic programs exclusive in English in order to compete with American or British universities. English is very important not only for the public area, but also for the private one. It is estimated that in the next decade there will be at least two thousand million people studying English (Education First 2011)

However and despite the thousands of millions of hours and dollars invested on teaching English, it seems there is little success. There is no consensus among English teachers about the best way to teach English. But what is worse, is that teachers do not think about methods when planning their lessons (Long 1991).

At this point, acquisition plays a very important role for teachers: make students master English language. Krashen (2003), claims that language acquisition is effortless. It involves no energy, no work. All an acquirer has to do is understand messages.

A very complicated situation to accomplish in Peru, which is situated in very big Spanish area where people do not feel the “pressure” to learn another language as it is in Europe

The big challenge for English teachers is how to make our classrooms the ideal environment in order to make acquisition work. Reading can help accomplish acquisition of grammar and vocabulary in the students. Studies in both second-and foreign-language acquisition confirm that those who read more do better on a wide variety of tests (Krashen 1993).

Unfortunately, in Peru, reading situation is very critical: according to PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment 2007) which measures the master level of mathematics, sciences and reading in representative samples in 15 year-old young people in 65 countries in the world, in 2001 Peru reported to be in the last position of 43 countries, either in mathematics, sciences and reading. Eight years later, Peru continues to be in the last positions, this time among 65 countries, reaching the position 62 in reading, 60 in mathematics and 63 in sciences, just above Azerbaijan and Kyrgyzstan, countries with a very low development. According to Trahtemberg (www.trahtemberg.com), the government policies so far applied in our country in order to improve the education, have failed and if we cannot make big changes in the next decade, Peru will have the status of a world illiterate. This situation is overwhelming not only to the government but also to the teacher.

1.2.Statement of the objectives

1.2.1. General objective

To determine the effectiveness of the R.E.A.D. (Reading English Adapted Digests) program in the acquisition of English language in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

1.2.2. Specific objectives

1. To identify the actual state of the lexical competence of the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.
2. To identify the actual state of the grammatical competence of the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.
3. To elaborate the structure to follow of the R.E.A.D. program in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.
4. To execute the R.E.A.D. program in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.
5. To evaluate the post test results and to compare them with the pre test results about the lexical and grammatical competence after the application of the R.E.A.D. program in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

1.3.Rationale

In Peru, more than anywhere else perhaps, sending children to school has been the great lever of social transformation which is not a collective movement only, but passes through the efforts and sacrifices of individual parents who trust that the school will give their children opportunities for life that they could not have.

This "myth of education" seems to have reached its limits highlighted by the low quality of the school that often belies the hopes placed in it.

Therefore, there is a need to transform the "myth" in the educational project as part of a broad social pact that makes education a real pillar of development: the quality of education. When most parents register their children in a school, they seek for a transformation in their children, a change of attitude towards life.

Ansi3n (1998) points out that experience shows how difficult the pedagogical change can be from families where there is a misunderstanding toward the new methods. Therefore, the understanding of the rationality of parents is a must for any proposed change in school. A change must be done not only in families, but first at school, and even more urgently in the administration.

From a qualitative point of view, Coombs, cited by Reyes (1997), notes that the global education crisis is essentially a crisis of a growing mismatch between the education systems inherited and rapidly changing world around us.

Reyes (1997) points out that the real problem is usually masked in the fallacy of the "lack of resources." The resources are usually scarce and do not mean that they are unnecessary. While resources are necessary for effective education, usually they do not explain things better. More resources do not become "automatically" in improvement. The fallacy is that for decades, models of educational improvement were associated only with resources.

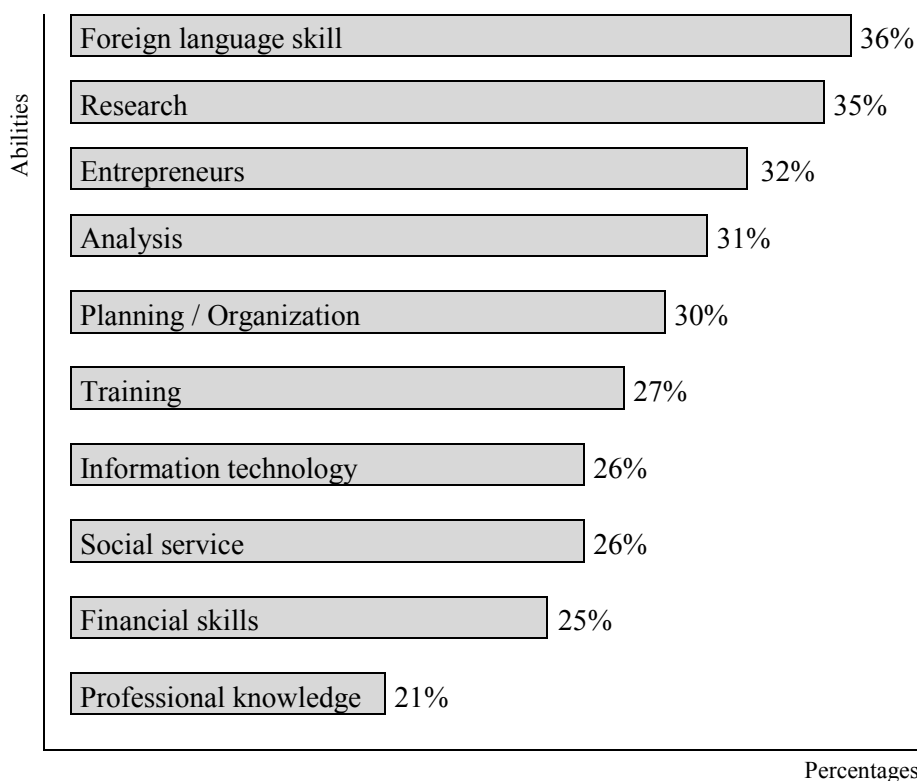
The jump that needs to be clarified is how the duality between the teacher and the educational system can implement the education strategy. This is the situation of the school that gives the basic subjects for the students including English.

Mastering English has evolved from a hobby to be a very essential need, both in the academic and professional area. However, we can see the reality of most schools, national and private ones which usually have from 2 to 4 hours of instruction a week, that after studying English for five or more years, students do not get a good ability on this language, resulting in the urgent need to learn a language at some point of life either in the academic or professional area.

According to Manpower (www.manpower.com) among the abilities that Latin American employers consider very difficult to find (Figure 1), we find that many of the attributes that the international

or global organizations express as the most necessary: language skills – speaking/writing English mainly.

Figure 1 Difficult abilities to find for the employers in Latin America



Source: Manpower survey to employers and candidates, 2008.

The most required language after the mother tongue is fundamentally, English. In Mexico and Central America, the demand is 75% and in South America (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Peru and Uruguay), the necessity is 68%.

When we see this situation, we can confirm the importance of mastering English language, and in order to accomplish this goal, many strategies have emerged. These strategies are part of the work that every day teachers do in order to make their students strengthen this ability.

Every day, teachers confront the challenge of how to make their work competent.

Larsen-Freeman and Marti Anderson (2011) claim that the work of teaching is simultaneously mental and social. It is also physical, emotional, practical, behavioral, political, experiential, historical, cultural, spiritual, and personal. In short, teaching is very complex, influenced not only by these 12 dimensions and perhaps others, but also requiring their contingent orchestration in support of students' learning. When language teaching in particular is in focus, the complexity is even greater, shaped by teachers' views of the nature of language, of language teaching and learning in general, and by their knowledge of the particular sociocultural setting in which the teaching and learning take place. Indeed, research has shown that there is a degree of shared pedagogical knowledge among language teachers that is different from that of teachers of other subjects (Gatbonton 2000; Mullock 2006, cited by Larsen-Freeman). Nonetheless, each teacher's own language learning history is also unique. The way that teachers have been taught during their own 'apprenticeship of observation' is bound to be formative. There is also the level of complexity at the immediate local level, due to the specific and unique needs of the students themselves in a particular class at a particular time, and the fact that these needs change from moment to moment. Finally, the reality of educational contexts being what they are, teachers must not only attempt to meet their students' learning needs, but they must also juggle other competing demands on their time and attention.

Brumfit, cited by Larsen-Freeman (2011) observes:

A claim that we can predict closely what will happen in a situation as complex as (the classroom) can only be based on either the view that human beings are more mechanical in their

learning responses than any recent discussion would allow, or the notion that we can measure and predict the quantities and qualities of all...factors. Neither of these seems to be a sensible point of view to take. (Brumfit 1984: 18-19)

After all, 'if it could be assumed that learners were 'simply' learners, that teachers were 'simply' teachers, and that one classroom was essentially the same as another, there would probably be little need for other than a technological approach to language teaching' (Tudor 2003: 3), with adjustments being made for the age of the learners, specific goals, or class numbers, etc. However, the truth is that

Learners are not 'simply' learners any more than teachers are 'simply' teachers; teaching contexts, too, differ from one another in a significant number of ways. (Brumfit 2003: 3)

Tudor goes on to observe that this is true even within a given culture. It cannot be assumed that all teachers will share the same conceptions of language of learning, and of teaching.

Rather than the elegant realization of one rationality, then, language teaching is likely to involve the meeting and interaction of different rationalities. Murray (1996) is therefore right in drawing attention to the 'tapestry of diversity' which makes our classrooms what they are. (ibid. 2003:7)

According to Education First (2011), Peru is in position 35 from 44 countries having a very low level of English (Table 1)

Table 1 - English level index

Clasification	Country	EF EPI Results	Level	Clasification	Country	EF EPI Results	Level
1	Norway	69.09	Very High	19	Czech Republic	51.31	Intermediate
2	Netherlands	67.93	Very High	20	Hungary	50.8	Intermediate
3	Denmark	66.58	Very High	21	Slovakia	50.64	Intermediate
4	Sweden	66.26	Very High	22	Costa Rica	49.15	Low
5	Finland	61.25	Very High	23	Italy	49.05	Low
6	Austria	58.58	High	24	Spain	49.01	Low
7	Belgium	57.23	High	25	Taiwan	48.93	Low
8	Germany	56.64	High	26	Saudi Arabia	48.05	Low
9	Malaysia	55.54	High	27	Guatemala	47.8	Low
10	Poland	54.62	Intermediate	28	El Salvador	47.65	Low
11	Swiss	54.6	Intermediate	29	China	47.62	Low
12	Hong Kong	54.44	Intermediate	30	India	47.35	Low
13	South Korea	54.19	Intermediate	31	Brazil	47.27	Low
14	Japan	54.17	Intermediate	32	Russia	45.79	Low
15	Portugal	53.62	Intermediate	33	Dominican Republic	44.91	Very Low
16	Argentina	53.49	Intermediate	34	Indonesia	44.78	Very Low
17	France	53.16	Intermediate	35	Peru	44.71	Very Low
18	Mexico	51.48	Intermediate	36	Chile	44.63	Very Low

Renate Nummela Caine and Geoffrey Caine (1994) claim that we all have access to an extensive societal repertoire of strategies and methods. We need a way of selecting the methodology that will maximize learning and make teaching more effective and fulfilling. The first task is to reconceptualize learning outcomes to deal with the primary importance of meaningfulness.

Graded readers are carefully adapted from the original text to match students' developing linguistic ability; such readers have been used to teach EFL since the beginning of the last century, until the surge of the communicative approach made it heresy to use them because they were considered inauthentic (Bamford and Day 1997). However, in the last ten years there has been a reappraisal of graded readers' potential to promote language learning (Day and Bamford 1998). Recent research supports the linguistic and psychological benefits of using EFL graded readers, including increased motivation, reading speed, vocabulary development, discourse awareness, and meaning-focused input and output (Waring 1997; Nation 2004). Because there is a link between extensive reading and success in language learning, an important objective is to promote enthusiastic and independent reading among students (Krashen 2004). Simplified texts can help fulfill this need by making content comprehensible and getting students excited about reading a large amount of interesting material.

The benefits of extensive reading are often undermined by the lack of appropriate material in textbooks, so teachers must be willing to find alternative sources and create their own texts and lessons. Fortunately, the publishing houses of graded readers offer longer, interesting reading selections in different genres and at different levels along with a multitude of support materials such as lesson plans, activities, background information on the author, and complete pedagogical guides for using simplified readers. Moreover, it is easy to supplement graded reader activities with a wide variety of online resources by searching newspapers, magazines film reviews that deal with the unit's particular theme.

The Comprehension Hypothesis by Krashen (2004) asserts that we acquire a language best when we receive lots of meaningful comprehensible input. The use of graded readers fits in nicely with this hypothesis. However, one problem is that “there has been little attempt to maximize the amount of comprehensible input, little attempt to combine interesting discussions, read aloud, recreational listening, listening to tapes, watching films, all in one educational program” (Krashen 2004).

Prowse (2002) and Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, and Gorsuch (2004) emphasize the advantages of using audio recordings of the simplified novel to strengthen linguistic skills – such as better pronunciation, faster reading speed, and improved retention of vocabulary and grammatical structures – that enhance future readings. Therefore, we made it our goal to design our modules with a multimedia approach, and to complement the printed literary text with pertinent supplemental readings, as well as audio and film recordings.

In any learning context, an important concept is scaffolding, Vygotsky’s educational metaphor that comes from a social constructivist conception of learning in which the teacher creates affective and pedagogical support, including materials, experiences, peer interaction, and teacher-student interaction, through activities of increasing difficulty that systematically challenge a learner but are still achievable given his or her level of experience, which is called the “zone of proximal development” (McMahon 1996, 60). Scaffolding is essential for teaching simplified readers and that it results in solid language gains and increased grammar and vocabulary in the learning of EFL.

In my opinion, teachers of English should include graded readers as an excellent source for promoting second language acquisition increasing in their students the mastery of grammar and vocabulary.

1.4.Limitations of the study

- a. The fact that reading is not a popular skill cultivated in Peru, makes student feel not very well motivated to read. Students complained that they did not have enough time for reading the English texts even though they were small graded readings.
- b. As the R.E.A.D program was developed as part of the classes of the Linguistics and English career and in the Language Institute intensive classes. There was not enough time to read the texts and to answer the after-you-read questions. In the case of the Linguistics and English career, the reading was done once a week. And in the Language Institute intensive classes the reading was left as homework every day.
- c. There was also the limitation of accessibility to previous research conducted in English. One reason for this could be the fact that, apparently, most Peruvian universities offering the major of Education in ELT do not ask their undergraduate students any research in L2 for graduation purposes.

1.5.Background of the research

1.5.1. The Subjects

On this research there were two groups of students: the first group was from the Linguistics and English career, there were 33 students on this group, and the second group was from the Language Institute intensive course, there were 36 students. Both groups were from the first to the fifth year of the university and the average age was 22.

1.5.2. The Learning Scenario

This was a university scenario with two groups. The first group, the Linguistics and English career had 5 groups with 8 to 10 hours a week each one, here we had the following groups:

Table 2 - Linguistics and English Students

Group	Subject	Hours Per Week	Number Of Students
1	Basic II	10	5
2	Intermediate I	10	10
3	Phonetics	8	7
4	Advanced II	10	5
5	Translation	8	6

Source: Practicum Checklist

The second group, the Language Institute had 3 groups with the following characteristics:

Table 3 - Language Institute Students

Group	Subject	Hours Per Week	Number Of Students
1	Basic I	10	10
2	Basic II	10	10
3	Intermediate I	10	16

Source: Practicum Checklist

1.5.3. The Institution

The Linguistics and English career which belongs to the Education and Human Sciences Department and the Language Institute belong to the Peruvian Union University from Lima, Peru.

CHAPTER II

2.1. Theoretical Background

Below, I will include some previous research about how acquisition through reading lead to a higher mastery of grammar and vocabulary.

2.2. Correlational Studies

Extensive reading has been, and still is, one of the most powerful tools in order to make acquisition work in a language classroom.

To begin with, Hammond (1988) cited by Krashen, compared the attainment of eight randomly selected classes of university-level Spanish who experienced a comprehensible input-based method, the Natural Approach (Krashen and Terrell 1983), with fifty-two classes that experienced “modified grammar-translation.” On a grammar test given at the end of the semester, Natural approach students were slightly better ($d=0.15$; $p < 0.07$).

Studies in both second-and foreign-language acquisition confirm that those who read more do better on a wide variety of tests. I include here some recent studies in foreign-and second-language acquisition. In Stokes, Krashen and Kartchner (1998), students of Spanish as a foreign language in the United States were tested on their knowledge of the subjunctive on a

test that attempted to probe acquired competence. Formal study was not a predictor of subjunctive competence, nor was length of residence in a Spanish-speaking country. Stokes, Krashen and Kartchner also asked subjects about the quality of instruction they had had specifically in the subjunctive. This variable also failed to predict performance on the subjunctive test. The amount of free reading in Spanish, however was a clear predictor.

Lee, Krashen, and Gribbons (1996) reported that for international students in the United States, the amount of free reading reported (number of years subjects read newspapers, news magazines, popular magazines, fiction, and nonfiction) was a significant predictor of the ability to translate and judge the grammaticality of complex grammatical constructions in English (restrictive relative clauses). The amount of formal study and length of residence in the United States were not significant predictors.

Constantino, Lee, Cho, and Krashen (1997) reported that the amount of free reading international students living in the United States said they did before taking the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was an excellent predictor of their score on this examination. In this study, formal study and length of residence were also significant (and independent) predictors.

2.3. Case Histories

Through the years, many applied linguists have argued for other ways to make students acquire English rather than sitting on a chair and study the language spending a long time on this process. On these cases, we will see that reading is effective in increasing vocabulary.

Cho and Krashen (1994) demonstrated substantial and obvious growth in vocabulary in English as a second language in adult English acquirers who were encouraged to read novels in the Sweet Valley High series. Subjects had had some instruction in English as a second or foreign language (heavily grammar based), and began with the Sweet Valley Kids (second grade level) series, moving eventually to Sweet Twins (fourth-grade level) and to Sweet Valley High (fifth-and sixth-grade level).

They showed clear gains in vocabulary, and vastly increased confidence in speaking English.

Segal (1997) cited by Krashen, describes the case of L., a seventeen-year-old eleventh-grade student in Israel. L., speaks English at home with her parents, who are from South Africa, but had serious problems in English writing, especially in spelling, vocabulary, and writing style. Segal, L.'s teacher in grade 10, tried a variety of approaches:

Error correction proved a total failure. L., tried correcting her own mistakes, tried process writing, and tried just copying words correctly in her notebook. Nothing worked. L.'s compositions were poorly expressed and her vocabulary was weak. We conference together over format and discussed ideas before writing. We made little progress. I gave L., a list of five useful words to spell each week for six weeks and tested her in an unthreatening way during recess. L., performed well in the tests in the beginning, but by the end of six weeks she reverted to misspelling the words she had previously spelt correctly.

In addition, L.'s mother got her a private tutor, but there was little improvement.

Segal also taught L., in grade 11. At the beginning of the year, she assigned an essay: "When I came to L.'s composition I stopped still. Before me was an almost perfect essay. There were no spelling mistakes. The paragraphs were clearly marked. Her ideas were well put and she made good sense. Her vocabulary had improved. I was amazed but at the same time uneasy..." Segal discovered the reason for L.'s improvement: She had become a reader over the summer. L., told her, "I never read much before but this summer I went to the library and I started reading and I just couldn't stop." L.'s performance in grade 11 in English was consistently excellent and her reading habit has continued.

Another case is given by Cohen (1997) cited by Krashen, who attended an English-language medium school in her native Turkey, beginning at age twelve. The first two years were devoted to intensive English study, and Cohen reports that after only two months, she started to read in English, "as many books in English as I could get hold of. I had a rich, ready-made library of English books at home...I became a member of the local British Council's library and occasionally purchased English books in bookstores...By the first year of middle school I had become an avid reader of English." Her reading, however, led to an "unpleasant incident" in middle school: "I had a new English teacher who assigned us two compositions for homework. She returned them to me ungraded, furious. She wanted to know who had helped me write them. They were my

personal work. I had not even used the dictionary. She would not believe me. She pointed at a few underlined sentences and some vocabulary and asked me how I knew them; they were well beyond the level of the class. I had not even participated much in class. I was devastated. There and then and many years later I could not explain how I knew them. I just did.”

As we can see on these cases, reading is a key factor for making acquisition real for any teacher. Taking this into account, Krashen proposes us the idea of in-school-free reading.

2.4. In-School Free Reading

In school free reading studies include evaluations of several kinds of programs: In sustained silent reading, students read whatever they please (within reason) for a short time each day and there is no accountability required. In extensive reading programs, a small amount of accountability is included; for example, a short description of what was read. In self-selected reading programs, the entire class period is devoted to reading, and occasional teacher-student conferences are scheduled.

Krashen (2001) found that students in traditional language arts or second-language programs on tests of reading comprehension in fifty-one out of fifty-four comparisons. The results were even more impressive when one considers only studies lasting one academic year or longer; in eight out of ten cases, participants in in-school reading programs outperformed comparisons and in two cases there was no difference.

In Elley and Mangubhai (1983) cited by Krashen, fourth-and fifth-grade students of English as a foreign language were divided into three groups for their thirty-minute daily English class. One group had traditional audio-lingual method instruction, a second did only free reading, while a third did “shared reading.” Share reading “...is a method of sharing a good book with a class, several times, in such a way that the students are read to by the teacher, as in a bedtime story. They then talk about the book, they read it together, they act out the story, they draw parts of it and write their own caption, they rewrite the story with different characters or events...” (Elley 1998). After two years, the free-reading group and the shared-reading group were far superior to the traditional group in tests of reading comprehension, writing, and grammar. Similar results were obtained by

Elley (1991) in a large-scale study of second-language acquirers, ages six through nine in Singapore.

Elley's recent data (Elley 1998) comes from South Africa and Sri Lanka. In all cases, children who were encouraged to read for pleasure outperformed traditionally taught students on standardized tests of reading comprehension and on other measures of literacy. In this study, EFL students who lived in print-poor environments were given access to sets of sixty high-interest books, which were placed in classrooms, with another sixty made available in sets of six identical titles. The books were used for read-aloud by the teacher, for shared reading, and for silent reading. In every case the readers outperformed those in comparison classes, and the gap widened with each year of reading.

Mason (Mason and Krashen 1997) developed a version of extensive reading for university EFL students in Japan in which students do self-selected reading of pedagogical readers as well as easy authentic reading. Accountability was present but minimal; students only had to write a short "appreciation" of what they had read. In three separate studies, Mason found that extensive readers made greater gains than comparison students who participated in traditional form-based EFL classes.

Lao and Krashen (2000) compared progress in reading over one semester between university-level EFL students in Hong Kong who participated in a popular-literature class that emphasized reading for content and enjoyment, including some self-selected reading, and students in a traditional academic skills class. Application of statistical tests, including those that accounted for pretest differences, confirmed that the superiority of the popular literature group was statistically significant. The popular-literature students made better gains in vocabulary and reading rate and, at the end of the semester, clearly felt that what they had learned in the course would help them in their other university courses.

2.5. The Author Recognition Test: A Methodological Breakthrough

Stanovich, in a series of studies, has verified the value of a simple procedure for studying the impact of reading. In the author recognition test, subjects simply indicate whether they recognize the names of authors on a list. For speakers of English as a first language, scores on the author recognition test have been shown to correlate substantially with measures

of vocabulary (West and Stanovich 1991), reading comprehension (Cipielewski and Stanovich 1990). These results have been confirmed using other first languages as well: Significant correlations have been reported between performance on an author recognition test and writing performance in Chinese (Lee and Krashen 1996), and Korean (Kim and Krashen 1998a), and between author recognition test performance and vocabulary development in Spanish (Rodrigo, McQuillan, and Krashen 1996).

Those who report reading more also do better on the author recognition test. This is true for English speakers, Korean speakers, Chinese speakers, and Spanish speakers. One study also reported a positive correlation between performance on the author recognition test and the amount of reading subjects were observed doing. West, Stanovich, and Mitchell (1993) observed airport passengers waiting for flights and classified them as either readers (those who were observed to be reading for at least ten continuous minutes) or nonreaders. Readers did significantly better on an author recognition test as well as on a vocabulary recognition test.

Kim and Krashen (1986b) reported that for high school students of English as a foreign language, performance on an English author recognition test was a good predictor of performance on an English author recognition test was a good predictor of performance on an English vocabulary test. In addition, those who reported more free reading in English also tended to do better on the author recognition test. In addition to providing confirmation of the relation between recreational reading and language development, the author recognition test and similar measures (magazine recognition test, title recognition test) promise to simplify work in this area.

Table 4- Common and Uncommon Words in Speech and Writing

	FREQUENT WORDS	RARE WORDS
Adults talking to children	95.6	9.9
Adults talking to adults (college grads)	93.9	17.3
Prime-time TV: adult	94.0	22.7
Children's books	92.3	30.9
Comic books	88.6	53.5
Books	88.4	52.7
Popular magazines	85.0	65.7
Newspapers	84.3	68.3
Abstracts of scientific papers	70.3	128.2

Frequent words= percentage of text from most frequent 1000 words

Rare words= number of rare words (not in most common 10000) per 1000 tokens.

(Source: Hayes and Ahrens 1988)

2.6. Important Definitions

Below, I will provide information about the terms used in this research.

2.6.1. Second Language Acquisition

Krashen (1981) uses the term acquisition to refer to the spontaneous and incidental process of rule internalization that results from natural language use, where the learner's attention is focused on meaning rather than form. It contrasts with learning.

According to Ellis (2008), sometimes a distinction is made between a 'second' and a 'third' or even a 'fourth' language. However, the term 'second' is generally used to refer to any language other than the first language. Another distinction that is often made is that between SECOND and FOREIGN LANGUAGE acquisition. In the case of second language acquisition, the language plays an institutional and social role in the community (i.e. it functions as a recognized means of communication among members who speak

some other language as their mother tongue). For example, English as a second language is learnt in the United States, the United Kingdom, and countries in Africa such as Nigeria and Zambia. In contrast, foreign language learning takes place in settings where the language plays no major role in the community and is primarily learnt only in the classroom. Examples of foreign language learning are English learnt in France or Peru. The distinction between second and foreign language learning is best treated as a sociolinguistic one rather than a psycholinguistic one. That is, for the time being at least, we need to keep an open mind as to whether the learning processes found in each are the same or different. Somewhat confusingly, the term 'second language acquisition' is used as a superordinate term to cover both types of learning.

A related distinction is that between Naturalistic and instructed second language Acquisition, according to whether the language is learnt through communication that takes place in naturally occurring social situations or through study with the help of 'guidance' from reference books or classroom instruction. These terms clearly imply psycholinguistic differences. Klein (1986) argued that the learner focuses on communication in naturalistic second language acquisition and thus learns incidentally, whereas in instructed second language acquisition the learner typically focuses on some aspect of the language system. There is a need to keep an open mind as to whether the processes of acquisition are the same or different in naturalistic and classroom settings.

In order to study how learners acquire a second language, a clear, operational definition of what is meant by the term 'acquisition' is needed. Unfortunately, researchers have been unable to agree on such a definition. 'Acquisition' can mean several things.

A distinction is sometimes made between 'ACQUISITION' and 'LEARNING'. According to Stephen Krashen (1995), we have two independent ways of developing language ability: **Acquisition** and **Learning**.

Krashen (1995), presents five hypothesis which are the core of current theory on language acquisition:

2.6.2. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

Language Acquisition is a subconscious process. While it is happening, we are not aware that it is happening. Once we have acquired something, we are not aware that we possess any new knowledge.

The knowledge is stored in our brains subconsciously. Both, children and adults can subconsciously acquire language.

Oral and written language can be acquired.

Acquisition is like “picking up” a language. When someone says “I was in Brazil for some time and I picked up some Portuguese,” it means he or she acquired some Portuguese.

On the other side, Language Learning is what we did in school. It is a conscious process. When we are learning, we know we are learning. Learned knowledge is represented consciously in the brain. When we talk about “rules” and “grammar” we are usually talking about learning.

2.6.3. The Natural Order Hypothesis

The natural order hypothesis claims that we acquire the parts of a language in a predictable order. Some grammatical items, for example, tend to be acquired early, while others come later.

The order of acquisition for first and second languages is similar, but not identical.

2.6.4. The Monitor Hypothesis

Language is normally produced using our acquired linguistic competence. Conscious learning has only one function: as a “Monitor” or editor.

We are about to say something in another language. The form of our sentence pops into our mind, thanks to our **SUBCONSCIOUSLY ACQUIRED COMPETENCE**. Then, just before we produce the sentence, just before we say it, we scan it

internally, inspect it, and use our consciously learned system to correct errors.

We can also use our conscious Monitor to correct sentences after we have produced them; this is called “self-correction”. The Monitor hypothesis has ONLY this function; it does not contribute to our fluency. The Monitor can make a small contribution to accuracy, acquisition makes the major contribution. Acquisition is responsible for both fluency and most of our accuracy.

Acquisition provides us with 100 percent of a language. When we focus on form when speaking, we produce less information, and we slow down. Some people “over-Monitor” and are so concerned with grammar and accuracy that speech becomes slow and painful.

So far we can ask ourselves the following question: “How does language acquisition occur?”

We acquire language in only one way: when we understand messages; that is when we obtain **“COMPREHENSIBLE INPUT.”**

Comprehensible input has been our last resort in language teaching. Comprehending messages is the only way language is acquired. There is no individual variation in the fundamental process of language acquisition.

And now another question emerges: How can we advance acquiring language ?

Krashen gives us the following “formula”:

i = last information acquired.

$i+1$ = the next structure we are ready to acquire.

We move from i to $i+1$ by understanding input containing $i+1$. We can do this with the help of our previously acquired linguistic competence, as well as our extra-linguistic knowledge, which

includes our knowledge of the world and our knowledge of the situation (context).

Krashen also gives us some mystical, amazing facts about language acquisition:

1. Language acquisition is effortless. It involves no energy, no work. All an acquirer has to do is understand messages.
2. Language acquisition is involuntary. Given comprehensible input and a lack of affective barriers, language acquisition will take place. The acquirer has no choice.

In a theoretical sense, language teaching is easy:

All we have to do is give Ss comprehensible messages that they will pay attention to, and they will pay attention if the messages are interesting.

We also can find some interesting characteristics about language acquisition:

Speaking does not directly result in language acquisition. If you practice your English out loud every morning in front of the mirror, your English will not improve. Speaking can help language acquisition indirectly. Language acquisition can result in conversation. What counts in conversation is what the other person says to you, not what you say to them.

IF WE PROVIDE STUDENTS WITH ENOUGH COMPREHENSIBLE INPUT, THE STRUCTURES THEY ARE READY TO ACQUIRE WILL BE PRESENT IN THE INPUT. We don't have to focus on certain points of grammar.

2.6.5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

It claims that affective variables prevent input from the acquisition the part of the brain responsible for language acquisition. If the person is anxious, has low self-esteem, etc. he or she may understand the input, but it will not reach the language acquisition device.

So far we can ask ourselves: Do we need Language Classes?

Many people don't think that language classes are necessary. Many people think that the best way to acquire another language is to go to the country where it is spoken. If a beginner goes to the country, he or she will only encounter a great deal of incomprehensible input.

Good language classes will give the beginner comprehensible input. A beginner can get more comprehensible input in one session of a well-taught language class than from several days of being in the country.

The goal of the language classes is to bring the beginner to the point where he or she can go to the country and obtain comprehensible input. The goal of the language classes is to bring the students to the intermediate level. The students will not be perfect.

True mastery comes only after years of experience. Education prepares us to begin our profession and we expect to grow and improve as we practice our profession.

As a summary, according to Krashen (1995), acquisition has the following characteristics:

- It is a subconscious process.
- While it is happening, we are not aware that it is happening.
- Once we have acquired something, we are not aware that we possess any new knowledge.
- The knowledge is stored in our brains subconsciously.
- Both, children and adults can subconsciously acquire language.
- Oral and written language can be acquired.
- Acquisition is like "picking up" a language.
- When someone says "I was in Brazil for some time and I picked up some Portuguese," it means he or she acquired some Portuguese.

Learning has the following characteristics:

- It is what we did in school.
- It is a conscious process.
- When we are learning, we know we are learning.
- Learned knowledge is represented consciously in the brain.
- When we talk about “rules” and “grammar,” we are usually talking about learning.

According to this view, Ellis (2008) claims that, it is possible for learners to ‘acquire’ or to ‘learn’ L2 features independently and at separate times. Although such a distinction can have strong face validity –particularly for teachers- it is problematic, not least because of the difficulty of demonstrating whether the processes involved are or are not conscious (McLaughlin 1987).

However, it is useful to make a distinction between IMPLICIT LEARNING and EXPLICIT LEARNING, terms that are widely accepted in cognitive psychology and which have become increasingly common in current accounts of L2 acquisition. Implicit learning is typically defined as learning that takes place without either intentionality or awareness. It can be investigated by exposing learners to input data, which they are asked to process for meaning, and then investigating (without warning) whether they have acquired any L2 linguistic properties as a result of the exposure. For example, learners could be asked to read a book and then tested to see if they had acquired any new vocabulary in the process.

However, while such an approach can guard against intentional learning it cannot guarantee that the learning took place without awareness. In fact, researchers disagree as to whether any learning is possible without some degree of awareness. Explicit learning, however, is necessarily a conscious process and is likely to be intentional. It can be investigated by giving learners an explicit rule and asking them to apply it to data or by inviting them to try to discover and explicit rule from an array of data provided. These two types of learning clearly involve very different processes and are

likely to result in different types of knowledge (i.e. implicit knowledge or explicit knowledge of the L2)

We need to see that there are important methodological issues to consider. First, what and how learners learn an L2 is not open to direct inspection; it can only be inferred by examining samples of their performance. SLA researchers have used different kinds of performance to try to investigate L2 acquisition. Many analyse the actual utterances that learners produce in speech or writing. Some try to tap learners' intuitions about what is correct or appropriate by means of grammatically judgement tasks, while others rely on the introspective and retrospective reports that learners provide about their own learning. The question about what kind of data affords the most reliable and valid account of L2 acquisition is a matter of controversy. It should be noted that different kinds of data will be needed to investigate whether what learners know about the L2 is implicit or explicit. Second, there is the question of how we can determine whether a particular feature has been acquired. Some researchers (for example, Bickerton 1981) consider a feature has been acquired when it appears for the first time, while others (for example, Dulay and Burt 1980) require the learner to use it to some predetermined criterion level of accuracy, usually 90 per cent. Thus a distinction can be made between acquisition as 'emergence' or 'onset' and acquisition as 'accurate use'.

Clearly, second language acquisition is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon and it is not surprising that it has come to mean different things to different people. It does, however, make it very difficult to compare the results of one study with those of another. Conflicting results can be obtained depending on whether the data used consist of learners' productions, introspections, or intuitions, or whether emergence or accuracy serves as the criterion of acquisition. It is for this reason that it is important to examine carefully the nature of the data used and the way in which acquisition has been measured, when reading reports of actual studies.

2.7. The role of age in L2 acquisition

The role that age plays in L2 acquisition has attracted the attention of researchers since the inception of SLA as a field of study. Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1979:161) reviewed a number of the earlier studies, reaching three conclusions:

1. Adults proceed through the early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children (where time and exposure are held constant).
2. Older children acquire faster than younger children (again, in the early stages of syntactic and morphological development where time and exposure are held constant).
3. Acquirers who begin natural exposure to a second language during childhood achieve higher second-language proficiency than those beginning as adults.

It should be noted that these conclusions do not entirely accord with the lay belief that 'younger is better' where L2 learning is concerned. While it is true that learners who start learning in childhood often achieve higher levels of ultimate proficiency than learners who start later (i.e. in adolescence or as adults), the research indicates that in the earlier stages of L2 acquisition, older learners outperform younger learners, especially where knowledge of grammar is concerned. In discussing the role of age, then, it is important to distinguish the effects that the 'age of onset' has on the rate of acquisition and on ultimate achievement. Accordingly, I will first consider age in relation to rate of learning and then address ultimate achievement and the related issue of whether there is a critical period for acquiring language.

2.8. The effects of age on the rate of second language learning

The study most often cited in support of Krashen's conclusions regarding the effect of age on the rate of L2 acquisition is Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978). This study investigated the naturalistic acquisition of Dutch by 8 to 10 year-old English-speaking children, 12 to 15 year-old adolescents, and adults over a 10-month period. The learners' proficiency was measured on three separate occasions

(after three months, after six months, and at the end of the study). With regard to morphology and syntax the adolescents did best, followed by the adults, with the children last. However, there were only small differences in pronunciation, and the grammar differences diminished over time as the children began to catch up.

The Barcelona Age Factor Project (Muñoz 2006 cited by Ellis) investigated the effects of age on onset in an instructed setting. This project examined the acquisition of English by classroom learners of English in Catalonia (Spain), comparing students who began their study at the age of 8, 11, and 14 and controlling for exposure to English outside the classroom. Data from a battery of tests providing measures of both implicit and explicit types of knowledge were collected on three occasions - after 200 hundred hours of instruction, 416 hours and 726 hours. The main finding was that the older learners progressed faster than the younger learners. In contrast to Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle's study, there was evidence that age had a differential effect on the acquisition of different aspects of the L2. Thus, the advantage for the older learners was strong and durable on measures of grammar and least evident in the case of measures of speech perception, listening comprehension, and oral fluency. In the latter measures, no statistically significant differences between the young and older starters were evident on the final occasion. Similar results for instructed learners had been obtained by Burstall (1975) in a study that compared students who started learning L2 French at either the primary-or secondary-school level in England.

Experimental studies have also shown that adults outperform children in the short term. For example, Olsen and Samuels (1973) found that American English-speaking adolescents and adults performed significantly better than children after ten 15-25 minute German pronunciation sessions. Cochrane (1980) investigated the ability of 54 Japanese children and 24 adults to discriminate English /r/ and /l/. The average length of naturalistic exposure was calculated as 245 hours for the adults and 193 for the children (i.e. relatively little). Nevertheless, the children outperformed the adults. However, in a follow-up experiment in which the two groups were taught the phonemic distinction, the adults benefited while the

children did not. Overall, the experimental research indicates that in formal learning situations adults seem to do better than children, even in this area of learning (pronunciation) that most favors children.

Overall, then, the research supports the earlier conclusion of Krashen et al. – learners who start in childhood. However, to fully understand the results of the research it is useful to distinguish the effects of age on the rate of acquisition in terms of the distinction between implicit and explicit learning. The greater cognitive development of older learners is advantageous where explicit learning is concerned, as the results of the experimental studies show. Late-starting learners do better in tests that tap into explicit knowledge of the L2 language (for example, traditional grammar tests). In contrast, they do not necessarily outperform early-starters in the long-term where implicit learning is involved. Implicit learning is a slow and gradual process and thus the advantage that younger learners may have where this kind of learning is involved will not show up until after many hours of exposure to the L2—that is, typically only in a naturalistic setting.

2.9. The effects of age on ultimate achievement

It would follow that if learners who start learning as children have an advantage in the long term, especially where the acquisition of implicit knowledge is concerned, then ultimately they can be expected to achieve higher levels of proficiency. A number of studies have investigated whether this is the case—allowing for a minimum of five years of exposure in the case of naturalistic learners.

As Singleton (1989) cited by Ellis, noted, school-based studies cannot address this issue, as formal learning environments typically do not provide learners with the amount of exposure needed for the age advantage of young learners to emerge. An exception can be found in the school-based studies involving immersion education. In immersion programs students are taught a range of school subjects through the medium of the L2 and thus receive far greater exposure than is the case in traditional foreign language programs. Harley

(1986), for example, investigated the levels of attainment of children in French bilingual programs in Canada. She focused on the learners' acquisition of the French verb system, obtaining data from interviews, a story-repetition task, and a translation task. She compared early and late immersion students after both had received 1000 hours of instruction. Neither group had acquired full control of the verb system. The older students demonstrated greater overall control when hours of exposure were controlled for, but the early immersion group showed higher levels of attainment at the end of their schooling. However this result may reflect the additional number of years' instruction they had received rather than starting age.

Naturalistic learners who start as children achieve a more native-like accent than those who start as adolescents or adults. Oyama (1976) investigated 60 male immigrants who had entered the United States at ages ranging from 6-20 years and had been resident there for between 5 and 18 years. She asked two adult native speakers to judge the nativeness of the learners' accents in two 45-second extracts taken from performance on a reading-aloud task and a free-speech task. Oyama reported a very strong effect for 'age of arrival' but almost no effect for 'number of years' in the United States. She found that the youngest arrivals performed in the same range as native-speaker controls. Other studies which have investigated the effects of age on pronunciation support the younger-is-better position. There is substantial evidence to suggest that ultimate attainment in pronunciation declines linearly as a product of learners' starting age. However, there is also some evidence that learners who begin as adults are capable of achieving native-like accents. Bongaerts (1999), for example, reported three studies that showed that a number of advanced late learners of L2 English were judged as native-like by native speakers on a variety of measures of pronunciation.

Similar results have been obtained for the acquisition of grammar. Patkowski's (1980) study of 67 educated immigrants to the United States found that learners who had entered the United States before

the age of 15 were rated as more syntactically proficient than learners who had entered after 15.

In his summary of a wide range of research investigating the effects of age on L2 acquisition, Singleton (1989) cited by Ellis, wrote:

Concerning the hypothesis that those who begin learning a second language in childhood in the long run generally achieve higher levels of proficiency than those who begin in later life, one can say that there is some good supportive evidence and that there is no actual counter evidence (1989:137)

This is one of the few definite conclusions that Singleton felt able to reach in his comprehensive survey of age-related research and it has withstood the test of time. It is worthwhile noting, however, that this conclusion may not hold true for the acquisition of L2 literacy skills. Cummins and Nakajima (1987) examined the acquisition of reading and writing skills by 273 Japanese children in Grades 2-8 Toronto. They found that the older the students were on arrival in Canada, the more likely they were to have strong L2 reading skills and, to a lesser extent, better L2 writing skills. The explanation Cummins and Nakajima offer is that the older learners benefited from prior literacy experience in Japanese.

2.10. The Critical Period Hypothesis

The Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) claims that there is a fixed span of years during which language learning can take place naturally and effortlessly, and after which it is not possible to be completely successful. Penfield and Roberts (1959), for example, argued that the optimum period for language acquisition falls within the first ten years of life, when the brain retains its plasticity. Initially, this period was equated with the period taken for lateralization of the language function to the left side of the brain to be completed. Work on children and adults who had experienced brain injuries or operations indicated that damage to the left hemisphere was rapidly repaired in the case of children but not adults (Lenneberg 1967). There is, however, no clear consensus on when the 'window of opportunity' for language learning ends.

Singleton (2005), in a survey of the literature that has addressed this issue, reported claims ranging from near birth to late adolescence. Also, it has become clear that, if there is a critical period, this varies depending on the aspect of language under examination with the end point coming earlier for pronunciation than for grammar.

There are different conceptualizations of the critical period. One is that the end of the critical period signals the point, age has no or very little effect on L2 acquisition. Birdsong (2006a) refers to this as the 'unconventional notion of the critical period'. The conventional view is that the end of the critical period constitutes the point at which the decline in performance as a result of age ceases. According to this version of the hypothesis, maturation signals the end rather than the beginning of age effects as, once past the critical age, acquisition is blocked for all learners irrespective of whether they are just past it or many years past it.

What both conceptualizations have in common is the notion of a discontinuity in learning; that is, after a certain age, the pattern of learning changes, as Patkowski found for grammar in the studies referred to above. Johnson and Newport (1989) interpreted the results of their study as evidence for the CPH (conventional version). They endeavoured to show that there was a sharp break in the effects evident for age at the critical period. In the case of the early starters (prior to age 15), there was a gradual decline in performance according to age. However, in the case of the late starters (after age 17), the relationship between age and performance was essentially random. However, as Bialystok and Hakuta (1994) showed, if the cut-off for the end of the critical period was moved to 20 years, then the age of the older group in Johnson and Newport's study was found to be related to performance. In other words, when the data were analyzed in this way, there was no evidence of a clear discontinuity. Birdsong (2006a), in a review of a number of studies, including Johnson and Newport, concluded that there is no consistent evidence of a discontinuity effect. Bialystok and Hakuta's (1999) investigation of the English-language proficiency of 24,903 speakers of Chinese and 38,787 speakers of Spanish, all of whom had been resident in the US for a minimum of ten years, found a

clear linear effect for age of arrival for both sets of speakers and 'nothing special about the age range before puberty'.

A second way of assessing whether learners can achieve native-speaker levels in an L2 is to see whether they are able to recognize spoken or written 'accents' in the same way as native speakers. Scovel (1981) asked four groups of judges (adult native speakers, child native speakers, adult non-native speakers, and adult aphasics) to rate speech samples and written pieces produced by a mixture of native and non-native speakers. He found that even the most advanced non-native speakers achieved an accuracy rate of only 77 percent, which was about the same as the child native speakers (73 per cent) but less than the adult native speakers (95 per cent) and even the aphasic native speakers (85 per cent). This study suggests that even very advanced learners lack some of the linguistic abilities of native speakers.

Another approach to investigating the CPH involves investigating learners who began learning as adults and are now very advanced to see if they can perform similarly to native speakers. Two frequently cited studies exemplify this approach. Coppetiers (1987) tested 21 highly proficient speakers of French, all of whom had begun learning as adults, and compared their performance on a grammaticality judgement task with that of 20 native speakers. Coppetiers noted that it was not possible to distinguish the two groups by the mistakes they made, their choice of lexis, or grammatical constructions, and six of the subjects were also described as having no traces of a foreign accent. The results of the grammaticality judgment test, however, showed clear differences between the two groups, suggesting that despite the native-like performance of the learners in language production, their grammatical competence differed from that of native speakers. However, Birdson (1992) identified 'numerous procedural and methodological features of the Coppetiers study that compromise its conclusions' (1992:711). His replication of Coppetiers' study produced very different results. Birdsong administered a grammaticality judgment test to 20 English-speaking learners of L2 French, who were near-native in their oral ability, and to 20 native speakers of French. The study was motivated by Long's

challenge to researchers to investigate whether the very best learners actually have native-like competence' (1990a:281). Contrary to Coppetiers, Birdsong found no evidence of any dramatic differences in the judgments of the non-native speakers and native speakers. A number of the non-native speakers performed in the same range as the native speakers on the grammaticality judgment test. Furthermore, Birdsong could find no evidence of marked differences between the two groups in the think-aloud data that he collected from the subjects as they performed their judgments. This study, then, suggests that at least some learners who start learning an L2 after puberty achieve a level of competence indistinguishable from that of native speakers.

2.11. Fossilization

Irrespective of their age (but especially if they start in adolescence or later), many learners do not achieve full native-speaker competence—they stop short, continuing to manifest grammatical and lexical errors in their L2 production and, even if overcoming these, failing to achieve a native-like pronunciation or to behave in accordance with the pragmatic norms of the target language (TL). Selinker and Lamendella (1978) cited by Ellis defined fossilization as:

... a permanent cessation in learning before the learner has attained target language norms at all levels of linguistic structure and in all discourse domains in spite of the learner's positive ability, opportunity, and motivation to learn and acculturate into target society.

Selinker (1972) suggested that only 5 per cent of learners succeed in achieving full competence. Other researchers have suggested that this figure may be too generous and it is more like 1 per cent or 2 per cent. None of the learners in the five case studies was successful in achieving target-language competence despite favourable learning conditions.

2.12. Acquisition of Languages Later in Life

Linguists are not sure how to explain what happens in the human brain that makes learning a language later in life so difficult. Curzan and Adams (2006) establish that findings in neuroscience suggest that experience changes our brains, as certain pathways or synapses are formed to facilitate processing and others die off (or never formed). Children's brains seem to be more plastic than adults' brains-more able to adapt to new experiences and lay down new circuitry.

2.13. Age-related effects: some general conclusions

Ellis (2008) gives a summary of the main findings of research into age-related effects and fossilization in L2 acquisition:

1. Adult learners have an initial advantage where rate of learning is concerned, particularly in grammar. They will eventually be overtaken by child learners who receive enough exposure to the L2. This is less likely to happen in instructional than in naturalistic settings because the critical amount of exposure is usually not available in the former.
2. Child learners are more likely to acquire a native accent and grammar than adult learners but there is now sufficient evidence to suggest that a native accent and grammar than adult learners.
3. Children are more likely to reach higher levels of attainment in both pronunciation and grammar than adults but only providing there is sufficient exposure to the L2. Where there is not sufficient exposure (as is the case in many instructed learning contexts) late-starting learners may continue to outperform child learners, especially in grammar.
4. There is no agreement as to whether there is a critical period for learning an L2. Researchers who argue for a critical period acknowledge that it may vary depending on the aspect of language involved (for example, the critical period may differ for pronunciation and for grammar).
5. Overall, however, the research indicates no clear discontinuity in learning as a result of age. Rather, the ability to learn and L2 declines gradually with increasing age. Also, there is growing

evidence that some learners who start learning as adults can achieve a native-like competence (i.e. fossilization is not inevitable).

6. As evidenced by measures of brain activity, there is no clear evidence that language processing in the L2 is substantially different from that in the L1 in balanced bilinguals. Neural activity is more influenced by the learner's general level of proficiency in the L2.
7. Many learners fail to achieve full native-speaker ability in an L2, which has led some researchers to posit that 'fossilization' is a characteristic of L2 acquisition. However, methodological problems exist in both defining fossilization and also determining whether it exists. While in many cases L2 learning may be slower than L1 acquisition, it has not yet been clearly established that L2 learners necessarily fail to reach the same end state as L1 learners, especially if they have access to instruction.

As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) point out, the age issue is an important one for theory-building in SLA research, for educational policy-making, and for language pedagogy. A key theoretical issue is whether there is an innate, biologically endowed capacity for language learning and whether this is available in L2 as well as L1 acquisition. Language educators are concerned with whether foreign-language learning is likely to be more successful if started in childhood (i.e. at primary school) than in adolescence (i.e. at secondary school). Language teachers want to know whether children learn in different ways from adults and thus whether they need different approaches and techniques to teaching and L2, depending on the age of the learner.

There are, however, no easy answers to these questions. Initially, it was believed that child language acquisition relies on an innate capacity for language learning (what Chomsky has termed 'Universal Grammar' (UG) and that this was no longer available after a certain age. This is now in some doubt. But even if child and adult language acquisition are seen as drawing on the same learning mechanisms, this would not constitute evidence against UG, as it is possible that

this is available in both. In other words, arguments about UG cannot be resolved with reference to the role of age in L2 acquisition.

It would appear that the research on the age factor does not support an early start for L2 learning in school settings, given that late starters appear to do as well and sometimes better than early starters. But it remains a possibility that those instructed learners who start early may outperform those who start late if they subsequently have opportunities to learn in a naturalistic setting which affords them the quantity of exposure they need to benefit from an early start. Also, there are strong educational reasons for an early start; there are intellectual and cultural benefits in studying a foreign language. Finally, the fact that there is no obvious discontinuity in the achievement of early and late starters does not obviate the need to take account of general cognitive differences between young and older learners in deciding what constitutes the most appropriate instructional approach. It is not clear, therefore, that the research on age in L2 acquisition affords clear guidance to SLA theory builders, educational language planners, or teachers.

What the research on both fossilization and age demonstrates is the enormous complexity of the issues involved in L2 acquisition and the methodological problems that exist in SLA. The controversies and mixed findings that characterize research in both areas are, in fact, evident in SLA as a whole.

2.14. A framework for exploring SLA

Ellis (2008) shows a framework for exploring SLA in table 5. A distinction is made between 'General SLA' AND 'Instructed SLA'. The former investigates issues relative to all L2 learners, irrespective of whether they are in a naturalistic or an instructed setting. The latter is concerned with how learners acquire an L2 in a classroom setting. This framework affords seven distinct areas of enquiry, which are outlined below.

Area I addresses the characteristics of learner language. The study of these provides the researcher with the main source of information about how acquisition takes place – the 'facts' that need to be

explained. One of the major goals of SLA research is to describe learner language and to show how it works as a system. Four aspects of learner language will receive attention: (1) Errors, (2) Order of acquisition and sequence of development, (3) Variability, and (4) Pragmatic Features relating to the way language is used in context for communicative purposes.

Area 2 examines learner-external factors that can account for how an L2 is acquired.

Area 3 addresses the psycholinguistic processes involved in both L2 acquisition and L2 use. Three views of these processes are considered. In one view, these are seen as mental and largely hidden from view, although not necessarily completely unconscious. They involve (1) the transfer of knowledge from the learner's L1 (2) the universal processes involved in converting input into INTAKE and RESTRUCTURING existing L2 knowledge systems, and (3) the processes for using L2 knowledge in L2 production. All of these draw on cognitive theories of language, language use, and language acquisition. The second perspective can be found in (4) Sociocultural SLA. This explains L2 acquisition in terms of the interplay between learner-external and learner-internal factors, treating acquisition as something that happens both outside and inside the learner's head. The third perspective, seen in (5), is linguistic in orientation; that is, an explanation of how learners learn language is based on the claim that learners have innate knowledge of Linguistic Universals.

Area 4 addresses individual learner differences and what causes them. Learners set about the task of acquiring an L2 in different ways. They differ with regard to such general factors as Motivation and Language Aptitude, and also in the use of various strategies such as inferencing and self-monitoring for obtaining input and for learning from it. The study of these general factors and Learning Strategies helps to explain why some learners learn more rapidly than others and why they reach higher levels of proficiency.

An alternative approach to explaining L2 learning is offered in Area 5. This looks at attempts to understand how learners learn an L2 by

examining what parts of the brain are involved in storing and accessing L2 knowledge. Key topics in this area are whether different parts of the brain are implicated in the storage of implicit and explicit L2 knowledge and whether L1 and L2 processing involve different neural activity.

Area 6 is the first of two areas to examine instructed SLA. This area attempts to go inside the 'black box' of the classroom to examine the ways in which language is used there and how this may influence the course and success of acquisition. It views instruction broadly as 'interaction' affording (or sometimes limiting) opportunities for language learning.

Area 7 investigates whether direct attempts to intervene in the course of interlanguage development through Form-Focused Instruction are effective and, given that there is growing evidence that they are, which types are more effective than others.

Table 5- A framework for investigating L2 acquisition

General SLA					Instructed SLA	
Description of learner language	Explanation of learning				Area 6 Inside the 'black box'	Area 7 Intervening directly in interlanguage
Area 1 Characteristics of learner language	Area 2 Learner external factors	Area 3 Psycholinguistic processes	Area 4 Inter-learner variability	Area 5 The brain and L2 acquisition		
Errors	Input and interaction	L1 transfer	Individual differences in L2 learners	Neurolinguistic accounts of L2 acquisition	Classroom interaction and L2 acquisition	Form-focused instruction and L2 acquisition
Acquisition order and developmental sequences	Social accounts of L2 learning	Cognitive accounts of L2 acquisition				
Variability		Cognitive accounts of L2 use				
Pragmatic features of interlanguage		Sociocultural accounts of L2 acquisition				
		Linguistic accounts of L2 acquisition				

Ellis (2008)

2.15. Reading

Nunan (1999) asserts that unlike speaking, reading is not something that every individual learns to do. An enormous amount of time, money, and effort is spent teaching reading in elementary and secondary schools around the world. In fact, it is probably true to say that more time is spent teaching reading than any other skill. For hundreds of years, being literate has been the mark of the educated person. One of the greatest indictments of many education systems is that some children spend up to twelve years in school and do not become literate.

According to Harmer (2007), there are many reasons why getting students to read English texts is an important part of the teacher's job. In the first place, many students want to be able to read texts in English either for their careers, for study purposes or simply for pleasure. Anything we can do to make it easier for them to do these things must be a good idea.

Harmer continues asserting that reading is useful for language acquisition. Provided that students more or less understand what they read, the more they read, the better they get at it. Reading also has a positive effect on students' vocabulary knowledge, on their spelling and on their writing. Reading texts also provide good models for English writing. At different times we can encourage students to focus on vocabulary, grammar or punctuation. We can also use reading material to demonstrate the way we construct sentences, paragraphs and whole texts. Students then have good models for their own writing.

Brown and Abeywickrama (2010) establish that in foreign language learning, reading is likewise a skill that teachers simply expect learners to acquire. Basic, beginning level textbooks in a foreign language presuppose a student's reading ability if only because it's a book that is the medium. Is reading so natural and normal that learners should simply be exposed to written texts with no particular instruction? Will they just absorb the skills necessary to convert their perception of a handful of letters into meaningful

chunks of information? Not necessarily. For learners of English, two primary hurdles must be cleared to become efficient readers. First, they need to be able to master fundamental bottom-up strategies for processing separate letters, words, and phrases as well as top-down, conceptually driven strategies for comprehension. Second, as part of that top-down approach, second language readers must develop appropriate content and formal schemata-background information and cultural experience- to carry out those interpretations effectively. The assessment of reading ability does not end with the measurement of comprehension. It is also important, especially in formative classroom assessment, to assess the strategies that readers use-or fail to use-to achieve ultimate comprehension of a text. For example, an academic technical report may be comprehensible to a student at the sentence level, but if the learner has not utilized certain strategies for noting the discourse conventions of that genre, misunderstanding may occur.

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), a number of metacognitive, cognitive, and social and affective strategies are taught to develop reading comprehension in social studies. These include advance organization to skim a passage, selective attention to scan for specific information, evaluation of one's own comprehension, elaboration of prior knowledge, making inferences about meanings of new words, taking notes, producing oral and written summaries, and questioning for clarification and verification of meaning.

Harmer (2007), asserts that good reading texts can introduce interesting topics, stimulate discussion, excite imaginative responses and provide the springboard for well-rounded fascinating lessons.

2.16. Grammar

Brown (2007) defines grammar as the system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence.

Grammar gives us the form or the structures of language and no one can say that grammar is irrelevant, or that grammar is no longer needed in a communicative framework.

Brown also affirms that appropriate grammar-focusing techniques

- Are embedded in meaningful, communicative contexts,
- Contribute positively to communicative goals,
- Promote accuracy within fluent, communicative language,
- Do not overwhelm students with linguistic terminology,
- Are as lively and intrinsically motivating as possible.

Celce-Murcia (1991a, cited by Brown) proposes variables to be taken into account for teaching grammar.

1. **Age.** It is clear that due to normal intellectual developmental variables, young children can profit from a focus on form if attention to form is offered through structured input and incidental, indirect error treatment.
2. **Proficiency level.** If we force too much grammar focus on beginning level learners, we run the risk of blocking their acquisition of fluency skills. At this level, grammatical focus is helpful as an occasional “zoom lens” with which we zero in on some aspect of language but not helpful if it becomes the major focus of class work.
3. **Educational background.** Students who are nonliterate or who have no formal educational background may find it difficult to grasp the complexity of grammatical terms and explanations. Highly educated students, on the other hand, are cognitively more receptive to grammar focus and may insist on error correction to help refine their already fluent skills.
4. **Language skills.** Because of the permanence of writing and the demand for perfection in grammatical form in written English, grammar focus is absolutely necessary in improving written English, grammar focus is absolutely necessary in improving written English
5. **Style (register).** Informal contexts often make fewer demands on a learner’s grammatical accuracy. In casual conversation

among peers ,for example, minor errors are acceptable, while more formal contexts usually require greater grammatical accuracy.

6. **Needs and goals.** If learners are headed toward professional goals, they may need to stress formal accuracy more than learners at the survival level. In either case, message clarity is a prime criterion.

These six categories should be looked on as general guidelines for judging the need for conscious grammatical focus in the classroom, but none of these suggestions is absolute!

Thornbury (1999) asserts that language is context-sensitive; which is to say that an utterance becomes fully intelligible only when it is placed in its context; and there are at least three levels or layer of context: the co-text (that is, the surrounding text); the context of situation (that is, the situation in which the text is used); and the context of culture (that is, the culturally significant features of the situation). Each of these types of context can contribute to the meaning of the text. The implications of this context-sensitive view of language on grammar teaching are that:

- Grammar is best taught and practiced in context.
- This means using whole texts as contexts for grammar teaching.

2.17. Vocabulary

One the basic elements of language is vocabulary, according to Thornbury (2002), all languages have words. Language emerges first as words, both historically, and in terms of the way each of us learned our first and any subsequent languages. The coining of new words never stops. Nor does the acquisition of words. Even in our first language we are continually learning new words, and learning new meanings for old words.

Harmer (2007) affirms what a word means is also defined by its relationship to other words and a speaker's knowledge of a word also includes an understanding of how the shape of that word can

be altered so that its grammatical meaning can be changed. Using words appropriately means knowing these things and, crucially, knowing which grammatical slots they can go into. In order to do this, we need to know what part of speech a word is.

How important is vocabulary? Thornbury (2002) cites linguist David Wilkins summing up the importance of vocabulary learning as ‘without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.’ Teachers have not fully recognized the tremendous communicative advantage in developing an extensive vocabulary. For a long time, teaching approaches such as the Direct Method and audiolingualism gave greater priority to the teaching of grammatical structures. In order not to distract from the learning of these structures, the number of words introduced in such courses was kept fairly low. Those words which were taught were often chosen either because they were easily demonstrated, or because they fitted neatly into the ‘structure of the day’.

The advent of the communicative approach in the 1970s set the stage for a major re-think of the role of vocabulary. The communicative value of a core vocabulary has always been recognized, particularly by tourists. A phrase book or dictionary provides more communicative mileage than a grammar – in the short term at least. Recognition of the meaning-making potential of words meant that vocabulary became a learning objective in its own right.

Nevertheless, most language courses were (and still are) organized around grammar syllabuses. There are good grounds for retaining a grammatical organization. While vocabulary is largely a collection of items, grammar is a system of rules. Since one rule can generate a great many sentences, the teaching of grammar is considered to be more productive. Grammar multiplies, while vocabulary merely adds. However two key developments were to challenge the hegemony of grammar. One was the lexical syllabus, that is, a syllabus based on those words that appear with a high degree of frequency in spoken and written English. The other was

recognition of the role of lexical chunks in the acquisition of language and in achieving fluency. Both these developments were fuelled by discoveries arising from the new science of corpus linguistics.

The effect of these developments has been to raise awareness as to the key role vocabulary development plays in language learning.

And how is vocabulary learned? Thornbury (2002) affirms that in learning their first language the first words that children learn are typically those used for labeling – that is, mapping words on to concepts – so that the concept, for example, of dog has a name, dog. Or doggie. But not all four-legged animals are dogs: some may be cats, so the child then has to learn how far to extend the concept of dog, so as not to include cats, but to include other people's dogs, toy dogs and even pictures of dogs. In other words, acquiring a vocabulary requires not only labeling but categorizing skills. Finally, the child needs to realize that common words like apple and dog can be replaced by superordinate terms like fruit and animal. And that animal can accommodate other lower order words such as cat, horse and elephant. This involves a process of network building – constructing a complex web of words, so that items like black and white, or fingers and toes or family and brother are interconnected.

How many words does a learner need to know? Before this question Thornbury establishes that a further major difference between first and second language vocabulary learning is in the potential size of the lexicon in each case. An educated native speaker will probably have a vocabulary of around 20,000 words. This is the result of adding about a thousand words a year to the 5,000 he or she had acquired by the age of five. An English dictionary includes many more: the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, for example, boasts over 80,000 words and phrases, while the Oxford English Dictionary contains half a million entries. Most adult second language learners, however will be lucky to have acquired 5,000 word families even after several years of study.

This relatively slow progress has less to do with aptitude than with exposure. The average classroom L2 learner will experience nothing like the quantity nor the quality of exposure that the L1 infant receives. It has been calculated that a classroom learner would need more than eighteen years of classroom exposure to supply the same amount of vocabulary input that occurs in just one year in natural setting. Moreover, the input that infants receive is tailored to their immediate needs – it is interactive, and it is often highly repetitive and patterned – all qualities that provide optimal conditions for learning. By comparison, the average L2 learner's input is, to say the least, impoverished. Given these constraints, how many words does the learner need to know?

The answer must depend to a large extent on the learner's needs. A holiday trip to an English-speaking country would obviously make different vocabulary demands than a year's study in a British university. But is there such a thing as a threshold level - a core vocabulary that will serve in most situations? One figure that is often quoted is 2,000. This is around the number of words that most native speakers use in their daily conversation. About 2,000 words, too, is the size of the defining vocabulary used in dictionaries for language learners. These are the words and suffixes that are used in the dictionary's definitions. Moreover, a passive knowledge of the 2,000 most frequent words in English would provide a reader with familiarity with nearly nine out of every ten words in most written texts. In other words, fourteen out of 140 running words, or exactly ten per cent of the text, would be unfamiliar to the learner who had learned the top 2,000.

There is a strong argument for equipping learners with a core vocabulary of 2,000 high frequency words as soon as possible. Most researchers recommend a basic vocabulary of at least 3,000 word families, while for more specialized needs, a working vocabulary of over 5,000 word families is probably desirable.

Before this situation, teachers have a huge work to do with their students providing them with strategies for vocabulary acquisition

According to Curzan and Adams (2006), how do children learn to associate particular sequences of sounds with specific things and ideas? It is a very complicated process. Let us imagine that you are playing with a small baby when your pet cat enters the room. You point and say, “Look! Cat.” The child looks at the cat, but how does the child know what the word cat actually refers to? It could, of course, refer to the whole cat, but it could refer only to this specific cat. It could refer to the cat’s ear or tail or fur. It could refer to all furry things or all four-legged things or all breathing things or all moving things. It could also refer to the act of walking on four legs, given that this is what the cat is doing. English-speaking children, at least, learn more nouns than verbs, adjectives, or adverbs at the early stages of language acquisition.

How are words remembered? Thornbury asserts that the learner needs not only to learn a lot of words, but to remember them. In fact, learning is remembering. Unlike the learning of grammar, which is essentially a rule-based system, vocabulary knowledge is largely a question of accumulating individual items. There are few short cuts in the form of generative rules: it is essentially a question of memory. How, then, does memory work? And what are the implications for teaching vocabulary? Researchers into the workings of memory customarily distinguish between the following systems: the short-term store, working memory, and long-term memory.

The short-term store (STS) is the brain’s capacity to hold a limited number of items of information for periods of time up to a few seconds. It is the kind of memory that is involved in holding in your head a telephone number for as long as it takes to be able to dial it.

Focusing on words long enough to perform operations on them is the function of working memory. Many cognitive tasks such as reasoning, learning and understanding depend on working memory. It can be thought of as a kind of work bench, where information is first placed, studied and moved about before being filed away for later retrieval. The information that is being manipulated can come from external sources via the senses, or it can be ‘downloaded’

from the long-term memory. Or both. This capacity is made possible by the existence of the articulatory loop, a process of subvocal repetition, a bit like a loop of audio tape going round and round. It enables the short-term store to be kept refreshed. Having just heard a new word, for example, we can run it by as many times as we need in order to examine it, assuming that not too many other new words are competing for space on the loop. The holding capacity of the articulatory loop seems to be a determining factor in the ability to learn languages: the longer the loop, the better the learner. Or, to put it another way, the ability to hold a phonological representation of a word in working memory is a good predictor of language learning aptitude.

Long-term memory can be thought of as a kind of filing system. Unlike working memory, which has a limited capacity and no permanent content, long-term memory has an enormous capacity, and its contents are durable over time. However, the fact that learners can retain new vocabulary items the length of a lesson but have forgotten them by the next lesson suggests that long-term memory is not always as long-term as we would wish. Rather, it occupies a continuum from the quickly forgotten. Research into memory suggests that, in order to ensure that material moves into permanent long-term memory, a number of principles need to be observed. Here is a brief summary of some of the research findings that are relevant to the subject of word learning:

- **Repetition:** The time-honored way of memorizing new material is through repeated rehearsal of the material while it is still in working memory. It has been estimated that, when reading, words stand a good chance of being remembered if they have been met at least seven times over spaced intervals.
- **Retrieval:** Another kind of repetition that is crucial is what is called the retrieval practice effect. This means, simply, that the act of retrieving a word from memory makes it more likely that the learner will be able to recall it again later.
- **Spacing:** It is better to distribute memory work across a period of time than to mass it together in a single block. This is

known as the principle of distributed practice. This applies in both the short term and the long term. When teaching students a new set of words, for example, it is best to present some more, then backtrack again, and so on. As each word becomes better learned, the testing interval can gradually be extended. The aim is to test each item at the longest interval at which it can reliably be recalled.

- **Pacing:** Learners have different learning styles, and process data at different rates, so ideally they should be given the opportunity to pace their own rehearsal activities. This may mean the teacher allowing time during vocabulary learning for learners to do ‘memory work’ – such as organizing or reviewing their vocabulary – silently and individually.
- **Use:** Putting words to use, preferably in some interesting way, is the best way of ensuring they are added to long-term memory. It is the principle popularly known as *Use it or lose it*.
- **Cognitive depth:** The more decisions the learner makes about a word, and the more cognitively demanding these decisions, the better the word is remembered.
- **Personal organizing:** The judgments that learners make about a word are most effective if they are personalized.
- **Imaging:** Best of all were subjects who were given the task of silently visualizing a mental picture to go with a new word. Other tests have shown that easily visualized words are more memorable than words that don’t immediately evoke a picture. This suggests that – even for abstract words – it might help if learners associate them with some mental image.
- **Mnemonics:** These are ‘tricks’ to help retrieve items or rules that are stored in memory and that are not yet automatically retrievable. Even native speakers rely on mnemonics to help with some spelling rules.
- **Motivation:** Simply wanting to learn new words is no guarantee that words will be remembered. The only difference a strong motivation makes is that the learner is likely to spend more time on rehearsal and practice, which in the end will pay off in terms of memory. But even unmotivated learners

remember words if they have been set tasks that require them to make decisions about them.

- **Attention/arousal:** Contrary to popular belief, you cannot improve your vocabulary in your sleep, simply by listening to a tape. Some degree of conscious attention is required. A very high degree of attention (called arousal) seems to correlate with improved recall.
- **Affective depth:** Related to the preceding point, affective information is stored along with cognitive data, and may play an equally important role on how words are stored and recalled. Just as it is important for learners to make cognitive judgments about words, it may also be important to make affective judgments.

Unfortunately students forget words. Thornbury affirms that as a rule, forgetting is rapid at first, but gradually slows down. It has been estimated that up to 80 percent of material is lost within 24 hours of initial learning, but that then the rate of forgetting levels out. Two factors seemed to determine retention. First, those words that were easy to learn were better retained. Secondly, those words that were learned over spaced learning sessions were retained better than words that were learned in concentrated bursts

Thornbury suggest the following implications for the teaching of vocabulary:

- Learners need tasks and strategies to help them organize their mental lexicon by building networks of associations – the more the better.
- Teachers need to accept that the learning of new words involves a period of ‘initial fuzziness’
- Learners need to wean themselves off a reliance on direct translation from their mother tongue.
- Words need to be presented in their typical contexts, so that learners can get a feel for their meaning, their register, their collocations, and their syntactic environments.

- Teaching should direct attention to the sound of new words, particularly the way they are stressed.
- Learners should aim to build a threshold vocabulary as quickly as possible.
- Learners need to be actively involved in the learning of words.
- Learners need multiple exposures to words and they need to retrieve words from memory repeatedly.
- Learners need to make multiple decisions about words.
- Memory of new words can be reinforced if they are used to express personally relevant meanings.
- Not all the vocabulary that the learners need can be ‘taught’: learners will need plentiful exposure to talk and text as well as training for self directed learning.

2.18. R.E.A.D. Program

2.18.1. Denomination

The R.E.A.D. program (Reading English Adapted Digests) is based on the practice of graded readers in order to increase the acquisition of the English language.

2.18.2. Information Data

- a. Institution: Linguistics and English department / Language Institute
- b. Students from the Linguistics and English department (1st to 5th year) Students from the Language Institute - Intensive course (Basic I, Basic II and Intermediate I)
- c. Number of students:
Linguistics and English: 33 students
Language Institute: 36 students
- d. Length:
Linguistics and English: 17 weeks
Language Institute: 5 weeks
- e. Start Date:
Linguistics and English: August 8th, 2011.
Language Institute: December 5th, 2011.
- f. Deadline:
Linguistics and English: December 2nd, 2011.
Language Institute: January 6th, 2012.

2.18.3 Rationale Of The Program

We believe that reading can be a very excellent way of improving English acquisition in order to increase its mastery, and this is a good opportunity to develop the R.E.A.D. (Reading English Adapted Digests) program as a good alternative to increase reading and acquisition. R.E.A.D. program consists of applying graded readers as a supportive tool for English students.

Graded readers help learners in three ways – firstly by providing language practice, secondly by giving language extension and thirdly (and perhaps most importantly) by giving learners psychological encouragement. Language practice takes the form of reading and understanding known or partially-known language. Each time the learner reads and understands a word, the learner's knowledge and understanding of that word is reinforced and extended. Each time the learner reads and understands a structure, the learner's knowledge and understanding of that structure is reinforced and extended. A learner who is reading a graded reader is not just enjoying a story but also practicing both vocabulary and structure. Graded readers also provide a limited amount of language extension. Because of the grading process, learners should not encounter too many new words or new structures when reading. However, in every graded reader, the learner is likely to meet some unknown words. The meaning of these words is normally made clear through the use of illustrations of language within the text. Many foreign language learners lack confidence. They have a very negative self-image of themselves as successful foreign language learners. They fail to learn because they do not believe that they are capable of learning. Successful understanding of graded readers at a suitable level can give these learners enormous psychological encouragement – a sense of achievement which will be of more value than all the new words or structures which they may learn.

At this point, it is necessary to see the definition of *extensive reading*. Extensive reading is the term used in English language teaching for the reading of a wide range of books primarily for pleasure. The idea is that learners are motivated to read because they are reading for the same reasons as they would in their own language: to learn more about something they are interested in, to enjoy a good story, to think about the ideas and issues the book raises, to increase their general knowledge and awareness. Learners are reading in a completely different way from the intensive reading of the language classroom, when they are

looking at detail of language points and focusing on specific reading skills.

When learners are reading for pleasure they should be as unaware as possible that they are reading in a foreign language. The enormous benefit of extensive reading to learners is that they are learning language as they read, through the high level of exposure to the foreign language which reading brings. The foreign language becomes increasingly familiar to them – so that they acquire language almost without knowing it. It is easy to dismiss readers as being of low priority in a language teaching program. However, if we think about language learning, we can see the tremendous value of extensive graded reading. When its full potential is exploited it is seen to improve not only reading skills but all the other language skills as well.

Graded readers have all sorts of practical benefits: they are simple to carry around – learners can read them in class, at home, in a bus or anywhere else they happen to be; reading need not take place in limited and precious class time; and for many people graded readers are relatively inexpensive. Teachers have found that once extensive reading has been introduced to a class or school it is straightforward to administer. They have also found that learners enjoy the reading and make fast progress. To summarize, the overriding aim of extensive reading is to develop learners' language competence and self confidence. The difficulty for teachers is often that they want to make sure that their learners are really reading. This means that they want to test their learners on their reading, which makes learners anxious and spoils their enjoyment of the stories. This can mean that learners either stop wanting to read or that they only read in order to complete the test about the text. They might indeed pass the test, but they will not have experienced the thrill of reading for pleasure or obtained the maximum value out of the text.

So far we can ask the following question: why graded readers? The idea behind extensive reading is that learners should be reading with relative ease. They clearly cannot enjoy what they

are reading if the language is too difficult and if they are anxious about not understanding it. If learners do not enjoy reading, the chances are that they will not want to continue – so the whole point is immediately lost. Graded readers are therefore a good starting point. It is important to stress, however, that through the use of graded readers we are training and preparing our students for the extensive reading of ungraded and unsimplified texts.

According to Nick Dawson (2000) graded readers are books, both fiction and non-fiction where the language is controlled so that it matches the language competence of the learners reading the books. This is achieved in various ways. Most obviously, the vocabulary load can be restricted. Learners must learn to guess the meaning of new words, but they can only do this if the density of new words, but they can only do this if the density of new words is kept low. Language structures can similarly be controlled so that learners are exposed only to those structures with which they are likely to be familiar at their stage of language learning. There are less obvious but equally important factors. The amount of information in graded readers is controlled, as this compensates for the difficulty learners have in absorbing information in a foreign language. This means, for example, that the narrative technique of the text is kept simple, references to cultural background explained, complex sub-plots avoided. Another factor is the use of photos and illustrations, perhaps with captions, to support the text. The position of these illustrations in relation to the text as well as the clarity of design of the book can do much to aid comprehension. In these ways, learners have an experience of reading which is close to their experience of extensive reading in their mother tongue – without constant reference to a dictionary or the frequent need to re-read certain passages in order to understand them.

According to Thornbury (2002), while coursebooks, vocabulary books and short texts are useful for focusing on specific words for active study, the point has been made that the learner needs plentiful opportunities for incidental learning to occur as well. The best way of providing the necessary exposure is through

extensive reading – that is, the reading of long texts, and for pleasure rather than for information. Extensive reading provides the opportunity to meet words in their context of use, and also supplies repeated encounters with many of these words. Research suggests that it takes six or more encounters with a word before learning is likely to take place. While coursebooks take the need to recycle vocabulary seriously, words are seldom repeated up to six times. This is partly due to the fact that, in the interests of variety and coverage, there is a high turnover of topics in a coursebook. This means that an area of vocabulary, such as food and drink, or clothing, or family relationships, or geographical terms, tends to be introduced just once, and then dropped. Simplified readers and ‘real’ books tend to follow a topic over a length of text, ensuring at least some repetition of key vocabulary. Simplified readers are widely available, and at a variety of levels. They are graded both in terms of their grammar complexity and their vocabulary load.

Thornbury (2002) asserts that even if learners do not know all the words in a reader, the fact that the vocabulary range is restricted means that there should be enough familiar words to enable them to guess the meaning of the unfamiliar words from context. Researchers estimate that if 90 to 95 per cent of words in a text are familiar, then reading will not seem too much of a chore. Incidentally, this suggests a very simple test when recommending extensive reading to learners. If students are asked to select any passage from the book and count out an extract with 100 words. If, in those 100 words, fewer than five are learner’s comfortable reading range. If more than ten words are unfamiliar, the learner is recommended to choose a reader from a lower level, or to look for authentic texts that do fall within the 95 per cent limit.

Thornbury concludes that authentic texts (including literary texts), in particular, are rich in vocabulary learning potential, since a large part of their coherence is due to their lexical patterning. Extensive reading of simplified readers, is a good source of incidental vocabulary learning, particularly because of the repeated encounters readers have with words.

2.18.4. Characteristics Of The Program

- It was applied in two groups: the first one was the Linguistics and English department and the second one was the Language Institute department. Both departments belong to the Universidad Peruana Unión.
- In the Linguistics and English department the whole program took 17 weeks and every reading session was done every week for 11 weeks.
- In order to contrast the time of application of the program, in the Language Institute the whole program took 5 weeks and the readings were applied in eleven days during 3 weeks.
- Every student was given a graded reader and a CD with the recordings of the National Geographic series.
- The material used on this research was the National Geographic series which has the following scale:

Basic 800 headwords

Pre-intermediate 1000 headwords

Intermediate 1300 headwords

- After reading a book, students had to complete the after-reading questions
- Every session, students read a different graded reader.

2.18.5. Evaluation

- a. A pre test was taken in both groups in order to see the level of the students
- b. A post test was taken at the end of the program in order to see the effectiveness of the program.

2.18.6. Development of Activities

The schedule for the Linguistics and English career students was the following:

Table 6 - Phases of the Practicum – Linguistics and English career

Dates	Weeks	Phase	Activity
August 8 th to 26 th	Weeks 1 to 3	Planning	Material preparation, answer sheet, copies, CD copies.
August 29 th to September 2 nd	Week 4	Data collection	Application of the pre-tests and checklist.
September 5 th to November 18 th	Weeks 5 to 15	R.E.A.D. program	Application of the program.
November 21 st to November 25 th	Week 16	Data collection	Application of the post-test.
November 28 th to December 2 nd	Week 17	Closing data	Assessment of the R.E.A.D. program

Resource: Practicum Checklist

The schedule for the Language Institute students was the following:

Table 7 - Phases of the Practicum – Language Institute

Dates	Weeks	Phase	Activity
December 5 th to 9 th	Week 1	Planning	Material preparation, answer sheet, copies, CD copies.
December 12 th	Week 2	Data collection	Application of the pre-tests and checklist.
December 13 th to 30 th	Week 2 to 4	R.E.A.D. program	Application of the program: 11 readings in eleven sessions.
January 3 rd	Week 5	Data collection	Application of the post-test.
January 4 th to 6 th	Week 5	Closing data	Assessment of the R.E.A.D. program

Resource: Practicum Checklist

CHAPTER III

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Type of research

The research is a quantitative type because it let us see the effect of the R.E.A.D. program's effectiveness in the acquisition of English language, allowing the use of the instrument (questionnaire) for collecting and analyzing statistical data, showing the hypotheses of the variables as independent (R.E.A.D. program) and the dependent one (Second Language Acquisition) in its dimensions of the dependent variable (grammar and vocabulary), showing the effectiveness of the method in the research.

3.1.1. The nature of data

The nature of the research data is qualitative of ordinal type in all its dimensions.

3.1.2. Interpretive analysis

The interpretive analysis of the data was performed in a descriptive comparative way through simple frequency tables

as well as the bidimensional tables and finally the Student T test analysis was used for related and independent samples with a 95% of trust and 5% of error.

3.2. Assumptions

- a. The R.E.A.D. (Reading English Adapted Digests) program is effective in the English language acquisition in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.
- b. The R.E.A.D. program is effective in the acquisition of the lexical competence in the English language in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.
- c. The R.E.A.D. program is effective in the acquisition of the grammatical competence in the English language in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

3.3. Questions

To what extent is the program R.E.A.D. effective in the increase of the acquisition of the English language in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Peruvian Union University.

3.4. Hypothesis

3.4.1 Principal Hypothesis

The program R.E.A.D. is effective in the acquisition of English language in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

3.4.2. Derived Hypotheses

The program R.E.A.D. is effective in the acquisition of the lexical competence in the English language in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

The program R.E.A.D. is effective in the acquisition of the grammatical competence in the English language in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

3.4.3. Independent Variable

The R.E.A.D program (Reading English Adapted Digests)

3.4.4. Dependent Variables

Acquisition of the English language

Dimensions:

Lexical competence and grammatical competence.

Table 8 - Variables Operationalization

VARIABLE (Independent)	OBJETIVE	CONTENT	METHODOLOGY	EVALUATION	INSTRUMENT
Effectiveness of the R.E.A.D. program in the acquisition of the English language.	To improve the acquisition of the English language of the students from the Linguistics and English career.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Basic vocabulary about the nature and important places. ➤ Pre intermediate vocabulary about the nature, important places and fascinating people. ➤ Intermediate vocabulary about the nature, important places and fascinating people. ➤ Basic grammar. ➤ Pre intermediate grammar ➤ Intermediate grammar. 	Extensive reading method using graded readers from the National Geographic series.	<p>For the first evaluation, a pre test will be used in order to evaluate the dependent variable (acquisition of the English language)</p> <p>For the last evaluation the same test will be used (post test) in order to contrast the objectives of the R.E.A.D. program.</p>	<p>Checklist</p> <p>Pre test and post-test.</p>

VARIABLE (Dependent)	DIMENSIONS	VARIABLE CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION	DEFINICION INSTRUMENTAL	OPERATIONAL DEFINITION	INSTRUMENT
Dependent variable: (x) Language acquisition	Grammatical competence	Grammatical competence: Knowledge of, and ability to use, the gramatical resources of a language. Common European Framework (2008)	In order to measure the grammatical competence, a pre test was taken. This pre test will show the real level of the students. Then this same test will be taken after the R.E.A.D. program will be applied. After having the results in the pre test and the post test, they were graded according to the complexity listed in the items in the checklist which are based on the Common European Framework having 7 items going from the basic level to the upper intermediate level.	In order to determine the level of the grammatical competence of the students a pre test was taken. This pre test has the following characteristics: 1. The test has 35 questions divided in 5 sections with 7 questions each one. 2. Every level is graded from the basic to the upper intermediate level. 3. Every section has the following value: Section A: 1point each question. Section C: 2 points each question. Section E: 3 points each question. Section G: 4 points each question. Section I: 5 points each question. 4. According to the score got by the students they were leveled according to the Common European Framework level: From 0 – 7 points – A1 From 8 – 21 points – A2 From 22 – 42 points – B1 From 43 – 70 points – B2 From 71 – 105 points – C1 5. Every Common European Framework level is described in the items placed in the checklist: A1 – Item 1 A2 – Item 2 B1 – Item 3 and 4 B2 – Item 5 and 6 C1 – Item 7 In order to determine the level of the lexical competence of the students a pre test was	Pre test Post test Checklist
	Lexical competence	Lexical competence: Knowledge of, and ability to use, the vocabulary of a language, consists of lexical elements and gramatical elements. Common European Framework (2008)	In order to measure the lexical competence, a pre test was taken. This pre test will show the real level of the students. Then this same test will be taken after the R.E.A.D. program will be applied. After having the results in the pre test and the post test, they were graded according to the complexity listed in the		

			<p>items in the checklist which are based on the Common European Framework having 6 items going from the basic level to the upper intermediate level.</p>	<p>taken. This pre test has the following characteristics:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The test has 35 questions divided in 5 sections with 7 questions each one. 2. Every level is graded from the basic to the upper intermediate level. 3. Every section has the following value: Section B: 1 point each question. Section D: 2 points each question. Section F: 3 points each question. Section H: 4 points each question. Section J: 5 points each question. 4. According to the score got by the students they were leveled according to the Common European Framework level: From 0 – 5 points – A1 From 6 – 15 points – A2 From 16 – 30 points – B1 From 31 – 50 points – B2 From 51 – 75 points – C1 5. Every Common European Framework level is described in the items placed in the checklist: A1 – Item 1 A2 – Item 2 and 3 B1 – Item 4 B2 – Item 5 C1 – Item 6 	
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3.5. Sample

For the present research we worked with 33 students from the Linguistics and English career and in order to contrast the time factor in the application of the R.E.A.D. program it was also applied to 36 students from the Language Institute, both departments from the Universidad Peruana Unión.

3.5.1. Identifying characteristics of the sample group

The students from the Linguistics and English career had the following characteristics:

Table 9 - Linguistics and English students' characteristics

Semesters	II, IV, VI, VIII, X
Age	Range from 18 - 38
Gender	Masculine: 6 Feminine 27
Economical Status	Middle
Elementary School Background	Private: 13 Public: 20
Hours Of English Classes During Elementary School	Private: 3-4 hours a week Public: 1-2 hours a week
Secondary School Background	Private: 14 Public: 19
Hours Of English Classes During Secondary School	Private: 3-4 hours a week Public: 1-2 hours a week

Source: Practicum Checklist

They were divided in the following groups:

Table 10 - Linguistics and English groups' characteristics

Group	Subject	Hours Per Week	Number Of Students
1	Basic II	10	5
2	Intermediate I	10	10
3	Phonetics	8	7
4	Advanced II	10	5
5	Translation	8	6

Source: Practicum Checklist

Classes on this group were held for 17 weeks during the afternoons from 1:10 to 7:35 and the reading sessions were held once a week for 40 minutes

The students from the Language Institute had the following characteristics:

Table 11 - Language Institute students' characteristics

Semesters	I to X cycle
Age	Range from 18 - 42
Gender	Masculine: 13 Feminine 23
Economical Status	Middle
Elementary School Background	Private: 13 Public: 23
Hours Of English Classes During Elementary School	Private: 1-2 hours a week Public: 0 hours a week
Secondary School Background	Private: 18 Public: 18
Hours Of English Classes During Secondary School	Private: 3-4 hours a week Public: 1-2 hours a week

Source: Practicum Checklist

They were divided in the following groups:

Table 12 - Language Institute groups' characteristics

Group	Subject	Hours Per Week	Number Of Students
1	Basic I	10	10
2	Basic II	10	10
3	Intermediate I	10	16

Source: Practicum Checklist

Classes on this group were held for 5 weeks during the afternoons from 8:00 to 1:00 and the reading sessions were held once a week for 40 minutes

3.6. Description of instruments

The following instruments were used:

Pre Test and Post Test: A sufficiency test based on the Common European Framework which measures Grammar and Vocabulary. The test had 35 questions about grammar and 25 questions about vocabulary.

Checklist: It was made up of 2 sections: the first section has general information (name, age, academic semester, elementary school where he or she studied and others) and a second part with the items of the grammar and vocabulary dimension based on the Common European Framework.

3.7. Reliability and Validity

3.7.1. Reliability

In order to check the reliability and validity of the instrument used previous to the data collection, the instrument was subjected to a field test to a pilot sample constituted by 9 students from the Universidad Peruana Unión. Then the data obtained was subjected to the Cronbach Alpha test, which gave as a result 0,826

Table 13 - Cronbach Alpha Reliability Analysis

Cronbach Alpha	N° of Elements
0,826	60

Table 14 - Reliability analysis for dimensions: grammatical and lexical competence of the students of the Linguistics and English career and Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión

Dimension	Scale mean if the element is eliminated	Scale variance if the element is eliminated	Correlation of element - total corrected
Grammar Competence	41,09	202,434	0,755
Lexical Competence	48,52	433,841	0,755

3.7.2. Validity

3.7.2.1. Validity of the instrument

For the validity of the instrument, an expert opinion was asked. Six teachers reviewed the checklist, suggesting corrections in the content and structure. They meticulously evaluated the clarity, congruence and relevance of the items. They also evaluated the logic coherence with the objectives and the variables. Then, according to the observations, the instrument was restructured. Later, it was applied in order to obtain the information for continuing the research. The judges who validated the instrument were:

1. Mg. Liliana Castillo Vento
2. Mg. Grelte Del Pozo Gamarra
3. Mg. Angela Rosales
4. Lic. Sandra Mabel Gutierrez Salvatierra
5. Mg. Marianella Mescua,
6. Mg. Mercedes Ramirez

Table 15. Characteristics of the Judges for the instrument

Judges	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	F	F	F	F	F	F
Degree	Mg.	Mg.	Lic.	Lic.	Mg.	Mg.
Years of experience	20	25	15	9	17	10
Work center	Universidad Nacional de Educación	Universidad Peruana Unión	Universidad Peruana Unión	Miguel Grau Seminario Public High School	Santa Rosa de Quives Public High School	Benito Juarez 0073 Public High School

3.7.2.2. Validity of the program

For the validity of the program “Reading English Adapted Digests”, an expert opinion was asked. Five teachers checked the program, suggesting corrections in the content and structure. They meticulously evaluated the denomination, the information data, the rationale of the program, the characteristics of the program, the evaluation and the development of activities. Then, according to the observations, the program was restructured. Later, it was applied during the scheduled program. The judges who validated the instrument were:

1. Mg. Grelte Del Pozo Gamarra
2. Mg. Angela Rosales
3. Lic. Sandra Mabel Gutierrez Salvatierra
4. Mg. Marianella Mescua,
5. Mg. Mercedes Ramirez

Table 16 - Characteristics of the Judges for the program

Judges	1	2	3	4	5
Gender	F	F	F	F	F
Degree	Mg.	Lic.	Lic.	Mg.	Mg.
Years of experience	25	15	9	17	10
Work center	Universidad Peruana Unión	Universidad Peruana Unión	Miguel Grau Seminario Public High School	Santa Rosa de Quives Public High School	Benito Juarez 0073 Public High School

3.8. Procedure

This research was done in compliance with the ethics of research and in agreement with the participants. Below, I will show the R.E.A.D. activities done with the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute students:

- a. In the material preparation, every student received a copy of a graded reader and a copy of a CD which included every reading recorded in mp3.
- b. The pre-test was taken in thirty minutes.
- c. The graded readers that were used in the R.E.A.D. program were the National Geographic graded readers. Students read one graded reading listening to the recorded in mp3 at the same time, every week for 15 minutes and then they answered the after-you-read section, this took approximately 45 minutes.
- d. After applying the R.E.A.D. program, a post test was applied having the same time as the pre test: 30 minutes

3.8.1. Research Design

The research design is a experimental of a pre experimental type where a test was applied (pre-test) in order to stimulate the dependent variable (Second Language Acquisition) with the independent variable (R.E.A.D. program) and then manipulated the study group in its dimensions: lexical

competence and grammatical competence and finally a post test was applied in order to get a result. According to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), in a true experiment, researchers attempt to establish a causal relationship between some treatment and some consequence.

3.9. Data Analysis

In order to determine the level of acquisition of the English level in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión, the data was collected through a checklist and a pre test.

This pre test will show the real level of the students. Then this same test will be taken after the R.E.A.D. program was applied. After having the results in the pre test and the post test, they were graded according to the complexity listed in the items in the checklist which are based on the Common European Framework having 7 items going from the basic level to the upper intermediate level.

In order to determine the level of the **grammatical competence** of the students a pre test was taken. This pre test has the following characteristics:

The test has 35 questions divided in 5 sections with 7 questions each one.

Every level is graded from the basic to the upper intermediate level.

Every section has the following value:

Section A: 1point each question.

Section C: 2 points each question.

Section E: 3 points each question.

Section G: 4 points each question.

Section I: 5 points each question.

According to the score got by the students they were leveled according to the Common European Framework level:

From 0 – 7 points – A1

From 8 – 21 points – A2

From 22 – 42 points – B1

From 43 – 70 points – B2

From 71 – 105 points – C1

1. Every Common European Framework level is described in the items placed in the checklist:

A1 – Item 1

A2 – Item 2

B1 – Item 3 and 4

B2 – Item 5 and 6

C1 – Item 7

In order to measure the lexical competence, a pre test was taken. This pre test will show the real level of the students. Then this same test will be taken after the R.E.A.D. program will be applied

After having the results in the pre test and the post test, they were graded according to the complexity listed in the items in the checklist which are based on the Common European Framework having 6 items going from the basic level to the upper intermediate level.

In order to determine the level of the lexical competence of the students a pre test was taken. This pre test has the following characteristics:

1. The test has 35 questions divided in 5 sections with 7 questions each one.
2. Every level is graded from the basic to the upper intermediate level.
3. Every section has the following value:

Section B: 1 point each question.

Section D: 2 points each question.

Section F: 3 points each question.

Section H: 4 points each question.

Section J: 5 points each question.

4. According to the score got by the students they were leveled according to the Common European Framework level:

From 0 – 5 points – A1

From 6 – 15 points – A2

From 16 – 30 points – B1

From 31 – 50 points – B2

From 51 – 75 points – C1

5. Every Common European Framework level is described in the items placed in the checklist:

A1 – Item 1

A2 – Item 2 and 3

B1 – Item 4

B2 – Item 5

C1 – Item 6

CHAPTER IV

4. The Findings

The statistical analysis to be used in the current research is the Student T analysis for related and independent samples as the research is a quantitative type and of a pre experimental design, this represents the process of the execution of the R.E.A.D. program. The pre test was evaluated with a 95% of trust and with a 5% of mistake.

4.1. Research Findings

4.1.1 Descriptive Analysis of the Research

Concerning to the age of the students from both groups (Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute), table 17 shows that 18.8% of the students are 19 years old.

Table 17 - Age of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute.

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
18	4	5,8%
19	13	18,8%
20	12	17,4%
21	11	15,9%
22	5	7,2%
23	8	11,6%
24	5	7,2%
25	3	4,3%
26	1	1,4%
27	2	2,9%
28	1	1,4%
31	1	1,4%
32	1	1,4%
38	1	1,4%
42	1	1,4%
Total	69	100,0%

Table 18 shows that 72,5% of the students are feminine and the 27,5% masculine.

Table 18 - Gender of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión.

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Masculine	19	27,5%
Feminine	50	72,5%
Total	69	100,0%

On table 19, it is observed that 81,2% belong to the average economical status and 15,9% is in the low level.

Table 19 - Economical status of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
High	2	2,9%
Average	56	81,2%
Low	11	15,9%
Total	69	100,0%

Table 20 shows that 62,3% of the students studied their elementary level in a public school while the 37,7% studied in a private institution.

Table 20 - Elementary school of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Private	26	37,7%
Public	43	62,3%
Total	69	100,0%

On table 21, it is shown that 47,8% of the students studied English from 1 to 2 hours a week while only the 4,3% studied 5 or more hours a week in the Elementary level.

Table 21 - Hours of English classes a week in the elementary school of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión.

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
5 or more hours	3	4,3%
3 - 4 hours	9	13,0%
1 - 2 hours	33	47,8%
0 hours	24	34,8%
Total	69	100,0%

Table 22 shows that 53,6% of the students studied the secondary level in a public school and the 46,4% did it in a private one.

Table 22 - Secondary school of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión.

	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Private	32	46,4%
Public	37	53,6%
Total	69	100,0%

Table 23 shows that 73,9% of the students studied English from 1 to 2 hours a week while the 5,8% studied 5 or more hours a week in the secondary level.

Table 23 - Hours of English classes a week in the secondary school of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión.

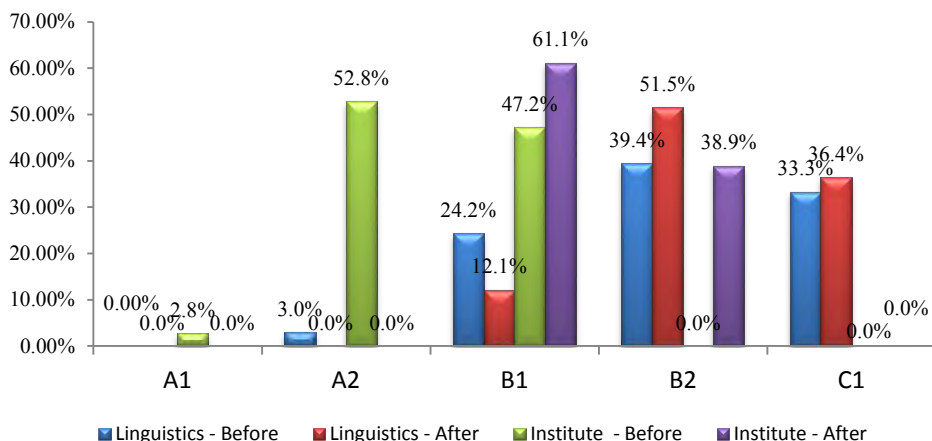
	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
5 or more hours	4	5,8%
3 - 4 hours	13	18,8%
1 - 2 hours	51	73,9%
0 hours	1	1,4%
Total	69	100,0%

4.1.2. Comparative Analysis of the Research

Figure 2 shows that before applying the R.E.A.D. program with the Linguistics and English students the level of the acquisition of the English language 39,4% of the students resulted in the B2 level according to the Common European Framework, however after applying the program the level was increased to a 51,5%.

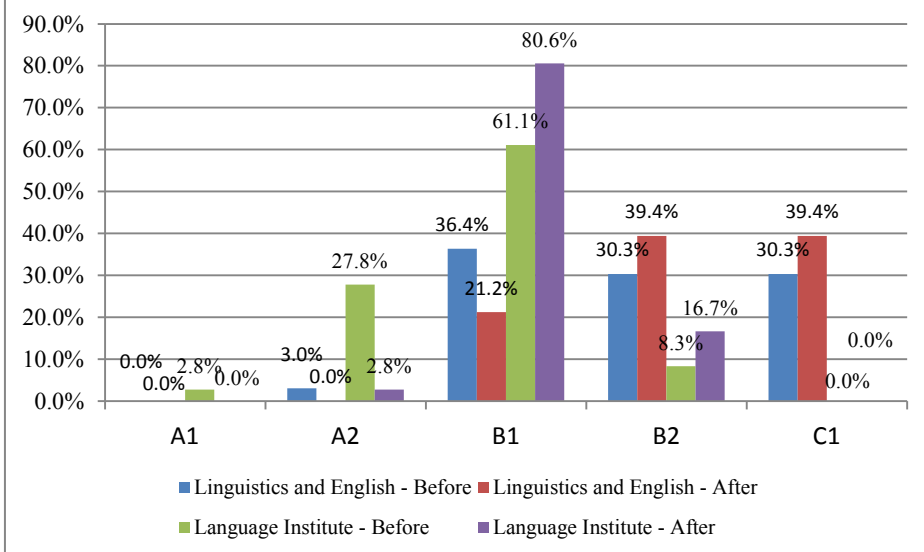
The level of the Language Institute students before the application of the program shows that 52,8% reached the A2 level, 47,2% reached the B1 level and 0% was the result in the B2 level. After applying the R.E.A.D. the level that reached the B1 level was the 61,1%, the 38,9% reached the B2 level and 38,9% reached the B2 level.

Figure 2 - Level of the Acquisition of English of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión; before and after the application of the R.E.A.D. program.



On figure 3, it is observed the comparison of the level of grammatical competence between the students from the Linguistics and English career and the students from the Language Institute. One of the principal characteristics from the results of Linguistics and English students is that they reached the C1 level of the Common European Framework while the students from the Language Institute only got to the B2 level. This result is due to the level of the Linguistics and English career students who have a more advanced level of English. On the other hand, we can observe the increase that the students of the Linguistics and English career show from the B2 level with a 30.3% to 39.4%. The increase is low due to the frequency of the reading tasks done every week. The result is much better with the Language Institute showing an increase of 61.1% on the B1 level to 80.6%.

Figure 3 - Level of the grammatical competence before and after the application of the program comparing the level of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión.



On figure 4, it is observed the comparison of the level of Lexical Competence between the students from the Linguistics and English career and the students from the Language Institute. One of the principal characteristics from the results of Linguistics and English students is that they reached the C1 level of the Common European Framework while the students from the Language Institute only got to the B2 level. This result is due to the level of the Linguistics and English career students who have a more advanced level of English. On the other hand, we can observe the increase that the students of the Linguistics and English career show from the B2 level with a 30.3% to 39.4%. The increase is low due to the frequency of the reading tasks done every week. The result is much better with the Language Institute showing an increase of 88.9% on the A2 level to 69.4% on the B2.

Figure 4 - Level of the lexical competence before and after the application of the program comparing the level of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión.

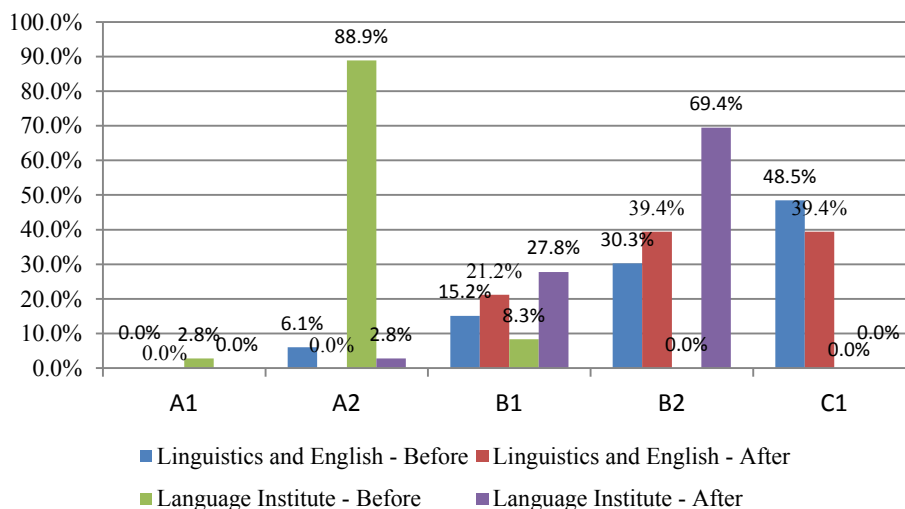


Table 24 shows the level of the grammatical competence comparing genders. Here we can observe that in the pre test there is a 50% of feminine students and a 47.4% of masculine students in the same level B1. After the application of the R.E.A.D. program we can observe that the masculine students got 63.2% in the B1 level. In the A2 level there before the application of the program and after the application there is a 0% in the same level but a 48%, 30% and 22% in the B1, B2 and C1 level respectively.

Table 24 - Level of the grammatical competence according to the gender, before and after the application of the program comparing the level of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión.

Level	Linguistics and English and Language Institute			
	Grammar Level - Before		Grammar Level – After	
	Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
A1	5,3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
A2	21,1%	14.0%	5,3%	0.0%
B1	47,4%	50.0%	63,2%	48,0%
B2	15,8%	20.0%	21,1%	30,0%
C1	10,5%	16.0%	10,5%	22,0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 25 shows the level of the lexical competence comparing genders. Here we can observe that in the pre test there is a 15.8% of masculine students in the level B2 but after the application of the program they got 42.1% in the same level. In the feminine students there is a 14.0% in the B2 level and a 58.0% in the same level.

Table 25 - Level of the lexical competence according to the gender, before and after the application of the program comparing the level of the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute from the Universidad Peruana Unión.

Level	Linguistics and English and Language Institute			
	Vocabulary Level – Before		Vocabulary Level After	
	Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
A1	0.0%	2,0%	0.0%	0.0%
A2	68,4%	42,0%	5,3%	2,0%
B1	5,3%	14,0%	26,3%	16,0%
B2	15,8%	14,0%	42,1%	58,0%
C1	10,5%	28,0%	26,3%	24,0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

4.1.3. Student T Test Analysis for Related Samples

4.1.3.1. Analysis of results of the pre and post test of the experimental group.

Hypothesis test for the difference of two related means: Grammatical Competence and Lexical Competence.

The differences observed are a random sample with a population with a normal distribution of differences that could be generated under the same circumstances.

The observed differences

Hypothesis:

Ho1: The program “Reading English Adapted Digests” is not effective in the acquisition of the grammatical and lexical competence in the English language in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Peruvian Union University.

Ha1: The program “Reading English Adapted Digests” is effective in the acquisition of the grammatical and lexical competence in the English language in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Peruvian Union University.

$$H_0: \mu^1 = \mu^2$$

$$H_a: \mu^1 < \mu^2$$

Test statistic:

At the light of the assumptions the statistic of the adopted test is:

$$t = \frac{\overline{X_d}}{S_d / \sqrt{n}}$$
$$\overline{X_d} = \sum_1^n \frac{x_{i1} - x_{i2}}{n}$$
$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_1^n (d_i - \overline{X_d})^2}{n-1}}$$

\bar{X}_d = Arithmetic mean of the differences

S_d = Standard deviation of the differences

n = Number of subjects in the sample

Distribution of the test statistic:

If the alternate hypothesis is true, the test statistic is distributed as the student T with $n-1$ degrees of freedom and with $1 - \alpha$.

Decision rule

Reject H_0 if $\text{sig} < \alpha$

Accept H_0 if $\text{sig} > \alpha$

Statistics using SPSS 19.0

Table 26 shows that in order to determine the effectiveness of the program “Reading English Adapted Digests” on the criterion of grammatical competence, statistical analysis was used to compare means for related samples; having as an answer a mean of 40,32 points before implementing the program; however after the application of the program it was obtained a mean of 48,52 points, concluding that the R.E.A.D. program is effective in the acquisition of English language; this means that the students who participated after the execution of the program had better scores in relation to the language acquisition.

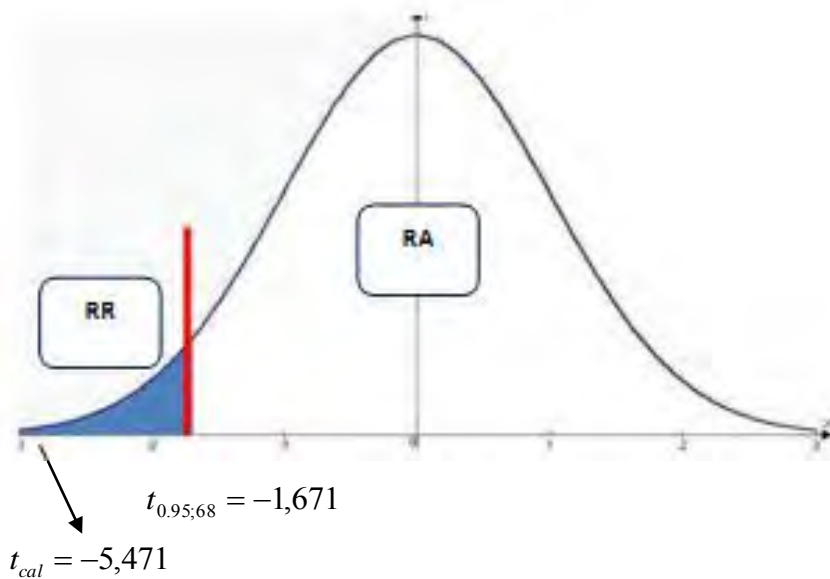
Table 26 - Analysis of mean comparisons for related samples of grammatical competence before and after the application of the program “Reading English Adapted Digests”

Criteria	Mean	N	Standard Deviation	Error
Grammatical competence - Before	40,32	69	22,886	2,755
Grammatical competence - After	48,52	69	20,829	2,508

On table 27, in order to determine the effectiveness of the program “Reading English Adapted Digests” in the acquisition of the grammatical competence in the students, the test T statistical analysis was used for related samples; having as an answer an average difference of 8,203 points before and after the application of the program. Besides, the effectiveness of the program can be determined by the analysis of sig.= 0,000 which is lower than the test value ($p=0,05$), getting to the conclusion of the acceptance of the alternate hypothesis favoring the effectiveness of the R.E.A.D. program in the criterion of evaluation of the grammatical competence of the dependant variable.

Table 27 - Test T of related samples of grammatical competence in the students before and after the application of the program “Reading English Adapted Digests”

Score	Related differences					t	gl	Sig.(bilateral)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Media standard error	95%interval of trust for the difference				
				Inferior	Superior			
Total score of grammatical competence before – after	8,203	12,455	1,499	11,195	5,211	5,471	68	0,000



Decision rule

As $t\text{-cal} = -5,471 < t\text{-tab} = -1,671$ ($\text{sig} = 0,000 < \alpha = 0,05$), then the decision is to reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative, this means that the average of the students in the grammatical competence, it is superior after in 8,203 points of the application of the R.E.A.D. program.

Conclusion

The program “Reading English Adapted Digests” was effective in the acquisition of the grammatical competence in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute students of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

4.1.4. Hypothesis test for the difference of two related means: lexical competence

Table 28 shows that in order to determine the effectiveness of the program “Reading English Adapted Digests” on the criterion of lexical competence, statistical analysis was used to compare means for related samples; having as an answer a mean of 27,12 points before implementing the program; however after the application of the program it was obtained a mean of 41,09 points, concluding that the R.E.A.D. program is effective in the acquisition of English language; this means that the students who participated after the execution of the program had better scores in relation to the language acquisition.

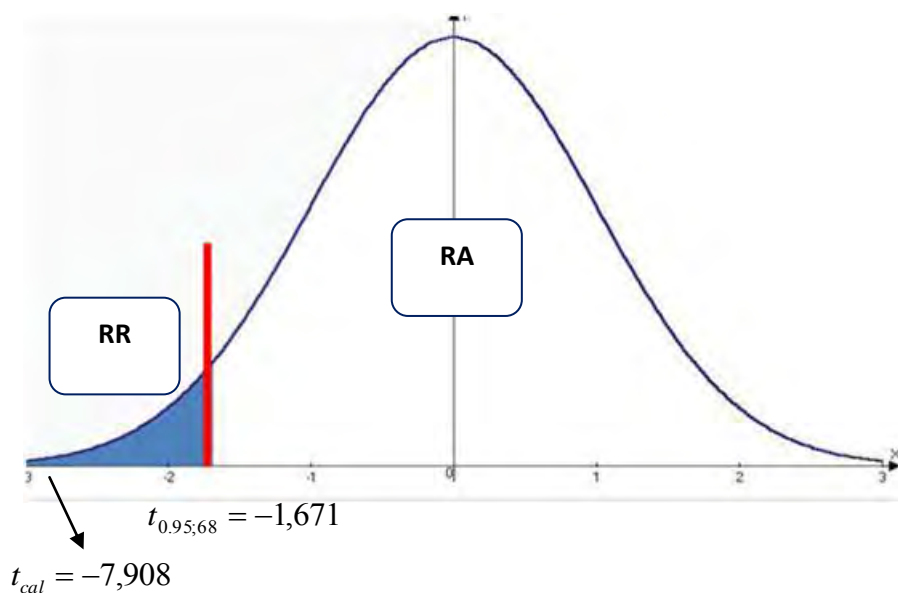
Table 28 - Analysis of mean comparisons for related samples of grammatical competence before and after the application of the program “Reading English Adapted Digests”

Criteria	Mean	N	Standard Deviation	Error
Lexical competence - Before	27,12	69	20,765	2,500
Lexical competence – After	41,09	69	14,228	1,713

On table 29, in order to determine the effectiveness of the program “Reading English Adapted Digests” in the acquisition of the lexical competence in the students, the test T statistical analysis was used for related samples; having as an answer an average difference of 13,971 points before and after the application of the program. Besides, the effectiveness of the program can be determined by the analysis of sig.= 0,000 which is lower than the test value ($p=0,05$), getting to the conclusion of the acceptance of the alternate hypothesis favoring the effectiveness of the R.E.A.D. program in the criterion of evaluation of the lexical competence of the dependant variable.

Table 29 - Test T of related samples of lexical competence in the students before and after the application of the program “Reading English Adapted Digests”

Score	Related differences					t	gl	Sig.(bilateral)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Media standard error	95%interval of trust for the difference				
				Inferior	Superior			
Total score of lexical competence before – after	13,971	14,675	1,767	17,496	10,446	7,908	68	0,000



Decision rule

As $t_{cal} = -7,908 < t_{tab} = -1,671$ ($sig = 0,000 < \alpha = 0,05$), then the decision is to reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative, this means that the average of the students in the lexical competence, it is superior after in 13,971 points of the application of the R.E.A.D. program.

Conclusion

The program “Reading English Adapted Digests” was effective in the acquisition of the lexical competence in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute students of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

4.1.5. Hypothesis test for the difference of two related means: Language Acquisition

Table 30 shows that in order to determine the effectiveness of the program “Reading English Adapted Digests” on the acquisition of the English language, statistical analysis was used to compare means for related samples; having as an answer a mean of 67,435 points before implementing the program; however after the application of the program it was obtained a mean of 89,609 points, concluding that the R.E.A.D. program is effective in the acquisition of English language; this means that the students who participated after the execution of the program had better scores in relation to the language acquisition.

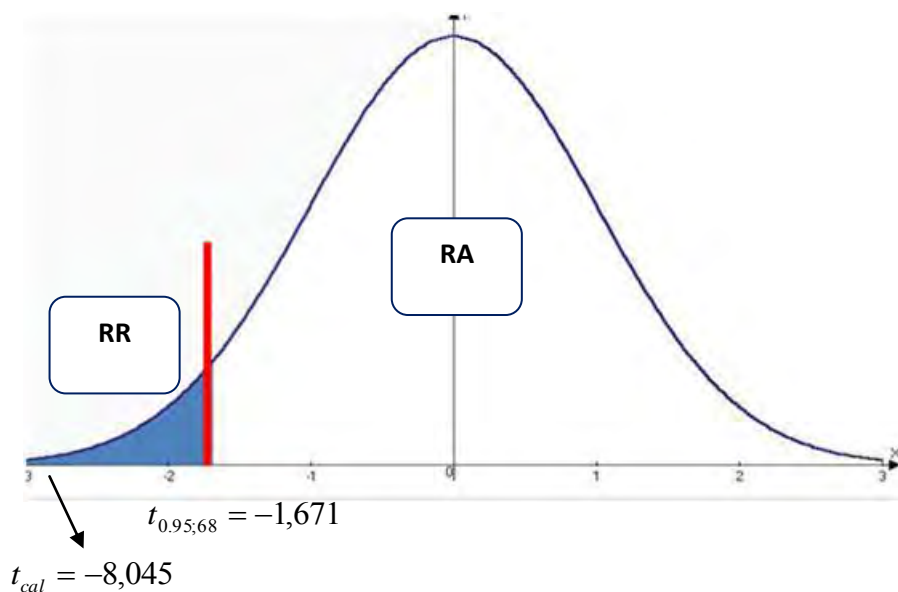
Table 30 - Analysis of mean comparisons for related samples of language acquisition before and after the application of the “Reading English Adapted Digests” program.

Criteria	Mean	N	Standard Deviation	Error
Language acquisition – Before	67,435	69	41,914	5,046
Language acquisition – After	89,609	69	32,919	3,963

On table 31, in order to determine the effectiveness of the “Reading English Adapted Digests” program in the acquisition of the English language, the test T statistical analysis was used for related samples; having as an answer an average difference of 22,174 points before and after the application of the program. Besides, the effectiveness of the program can be determined by the analysis of sig.= 0,000 which is lower than the test value ($p=0,05$), getting to the conclusion of the acceptance of the alternate hypothesis favoring the effectiveness of the R.E.A.D. program in the language acquisition of the English language.

Table 31 - Test T of related samples of the language acquisition in the students before and after the application of the “Reading English Adapted Digests” program.

Score	Related differences					t	gl	Sig.(bilateral)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Media standard error	95%interval of trust for the difference				
				Inferior	Superior			
Total score of language acquisition before – after	22,174	22,896	2,756	27,674	16,674	8,045	68	0,000



Decision rule

As $t\text{-cal} = -8,045 < t\text{-tab} = -1,671$ ($\text{sig} = 0,000 < \alpha = 0,05$), then the decision is to reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative, this means that the average of the students in the language acquisition is superior after in 22,174 points of the application of the R.E.A.D. program.

Conclusion

The program “Reading English Adapted Digests” was effective in the acquisition of the English language in the students of the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute students of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

4.1.4. Student T Test Analysis for Independent Samples

4.14.1. Hypothesis test for the difference of two independent means: Grammatical Competence

The differences observed are a random sample with a normal distribution of differences that could be generated under the same circumstances.

Test statistic:

In light to the assumptions, the approved test statistic is:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{(n_1 - 1) + (n_2 - 1)} \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}}$$

Test statistic distribution:

If the alternative hypothesis is true the test statistic is distributed as

$t_{tab}(1-\alpha; n_1 + n_2 - 2)$ degrees of freedom.

Decision rule:

Reject the H_0 if $\text{sig} < \alpha$

Accept the H_0 if $\text{sig} > \alpha$

Statistic using SPSS 19.0

On table 32, the statistic analysis of means comparison for independent samples was used; having as a result a mean for the Linguistics and English group 62,79 and 35,44 for the Language Institute group.

Table 32 - Analysis of means comparison for independent samples in the grammatical competence of the English language.

Groups	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean standard error
Linguistics and English	33	62,79	20,612	3,588
Language Institute	36	35,44	9,309	1,551

Table 33 - T test for independent samples for the grammatical competence.

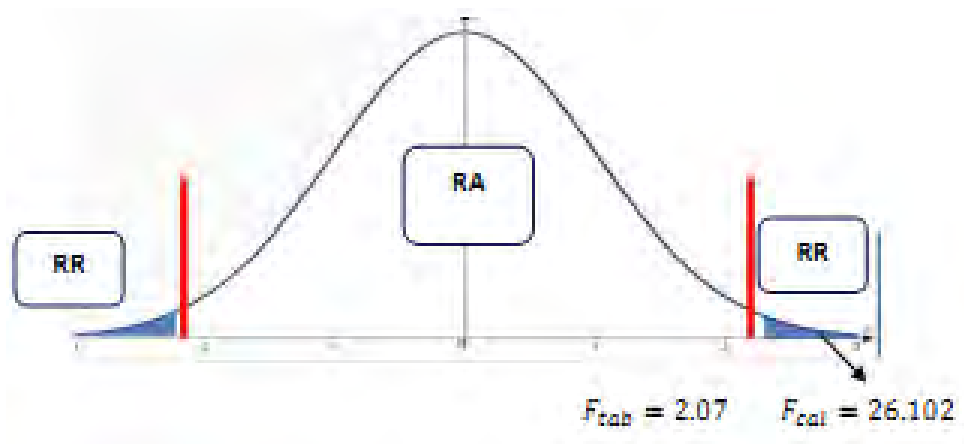
Variance Analysis	Levene Test for the variances equality		T test for means equality						
	F	Sig.	t	gl	Sig. (bilateral)	Means differences	Standard Error of the difference	95% trust interval for the difference	
								Inferior	Superior
Equal variances have been assumed	26,102	0,000	7,202	67	0,000	27,343	3,797	19,765	34,922
No equal variances have been assumed			6,995	43,688	0,000	27,343	3,909	19,463	35,223

Variance Equality Test

Through the analysis of the t test for independent samples it is necessary to evidence if the variances are equal or different, these results are approved through the distribution $F_{tab}(n_1 - 1; n_2 - 1; 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2})$ and sets the hypothesis in the following way:

$$H_0: \sigma_C^2 = \sigma_E^2$$

$$H_a: \sigma_C^2 \neq \sigma_E^2$$



Decision

As $F_{cal} = 2.07 < F_{tab} = 2.947$ ($\text{sig.} = 0.607 > \frac{\alpha}{2} = 0.025$, so the decision is not to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the variances are equal (homogeneous).

Test of Means difference

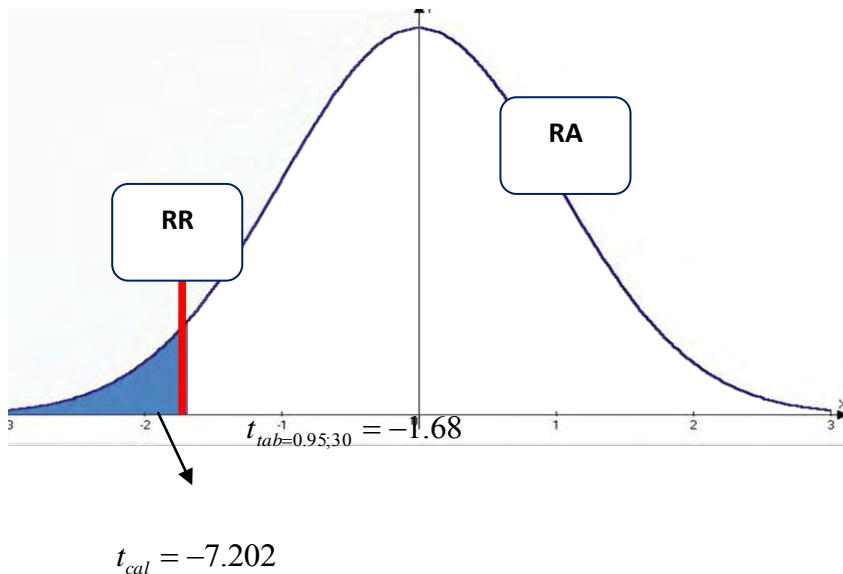
Hypothesis

Ho1: There is no difference among the averages of the dimension of grammatical competence of the students of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

Ha1: There is a difference among the averages of the dimension of grammatical competence of the students of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

$$\mathbf{Ho:} \mu^C = \mu^E$$

$$\mathbf{Ha:} \mu^C < \mu^E$$



Decision

As $t_{cal} = -5.143 < t_{tab} = -1.68$ ($\text{sig.} = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$), then the null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is enough evidence to say that the groups produce average grades different, to a significance level of 0.05.

Conclusion

The “Reading English Adapted Digests” program was effective in the acquisition of the grammatical competence in the students of the experimental group above the control group with a 95% of trust.

4.1.7. Hypothesis test for the difference of two independent means: Lexical Competence

The differences observed are a random sample with a normal distribution of differences that could be generated under the same circumstances.

Test statistic:

In light to the assumptions, the approved test statistic is:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{(n_1 - 1) + (n_2 - 1)} \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}}$$

Test statistic distribution:

If the alternative hypothesis is true the test statistic is distributed as

$t_{tab}(1-\alpha; n_1 + n_2 - 2)$ degrees of freedom.

Decision rule

Reject the H_0 if $\text{sig} < \alpha$

Accept the H_0 if $\text{sig} > \alpha$

Statistic using SPSS 19.0

On table 34, the statistic analysis of means comparison for independent samples was used; having as a result a mean for the Linguistics and English group 49,27 and 33,58 for the Language Institute group.

Table 34 - Analysis of means comparison for independent samples in the lexical competence of the English language.

Groups	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean standard error
Linguistics and English	33	49,27	14,942	2,601
Language Institute	36	33,58	8,251	1,375

Table 35 - T test for independent samples for the lexical competence.

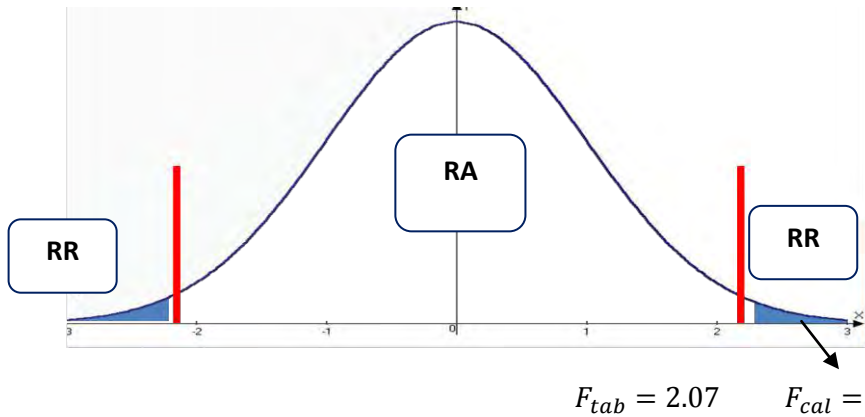
Variance Analysis	Levene Test for the variances equality		T test for means equality							
	F	Sig.	t	gl	Sig. (bilateral)	Means differences	Standard Error of the difference	95% trust interval for the difference		
								Inferior	Superior	
Equal variances have been assumed	10,901	0,002	5,459	67	0,000	15,689	2,874	9,953	21,426	
No equal variances have been assumed			5,332	48,896	0,000	15,689	2,942	9,776	21,602	

Variance Equality Test

Through the analysis of the t test for independent samples it is necessary to evidence if the variances are equal or different, these results are approved through the distribution $F_{tab}(n_1 - 1; n_2 - 1; 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2})$ and sets the hypothesis in the following way:

$$H_0: \sigma_C^2 = \sigma_E^2$$

$$H_a: \sigma_C^2 \neq \sigma_E^2$$



10.901

Decision

As $F_{cal} = 10.901 < F_{tab} = 2.07$ (sig. = $0.607 > \frac{\alpha}{2} = 0.025$, so the decision is not to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the variances are equal (homogeneous).

Test of Means difference

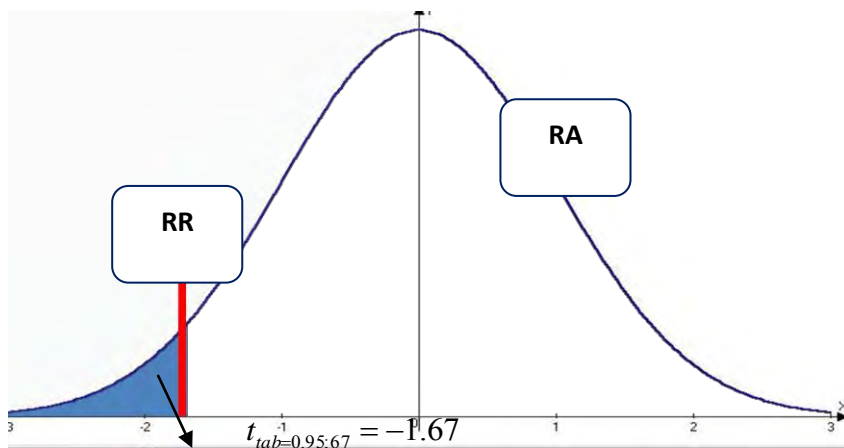
Hypothesis

H₀1: There is no difference among the averages of the dimension of lexical competence of the students of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

H_a1: There is a difference among the averages of the dimension of lexical competence of the students of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

H₀: $\mu^C = \mu^E$

H_a: $\mu^C < \mu^E$



$$t_{cal} = -5.332$$

Decision

As $t_{cal} = -5.332 < t_{tab} = -1.67$ ($\text{sig.} = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$), then the null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is enough evidence to say that the groups produce average grades different, to a significance level of 0.05.

Conclusion

The “Reading English Adapted Digests” program was effective in the acquisition of the lexical competence in the students of the experimental group above the control group with a 95% of trust.

4.1.8. Hypothesis test for the difference of two independent means: Language Acquisition

The differences observed are a random sample with a normal distribution of differences that could be generated under the same circumstances.

Test statistic:

In light to the assumptions, the approved test statistic is:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{(n_1 - 1) + (n_2 - 1)} \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}}$$

Test statistic distribution:

If the alternative hypothesis is true the test statistic is distributed as

$t_{tab}(1-\alpha; n_1 + n_2 - 2)$ degrees of freedom.

Decision rule

Reject the H_0 if $\text{sig} < \alpha$

Accept the H_0 if $\text{sig} > \alpha$

Statistic using SPSS 19.0

On table 40, the statistic analysis of means comparison for independent samples was used; having as a result a mean for the Linguistics and English group 112,061 and 69,028 for the Language Institute group.

Table 36 - Analysis of means comparison for independent samples in the language acquisition of the English language.

Groups	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean standard error
Linguistics and English	33	112,061	33,079	5,758
Language Institute	36	69,028	13,929	2,322

Table 37 - T test for independent samples for the language acquisition.

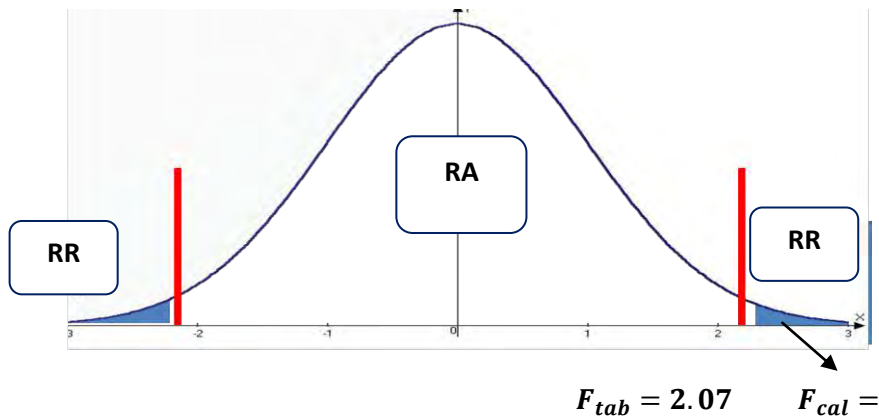
Variance Analysis	Levene Test for the variances equality		T test for means equality						
	F	Sig.	t	gl	Sig. (bilateral)	Means differences	Standard Error of the difference	95% trust interval for the difference	
								Inferior	Superior
Equal variances have been assumed	20,288	0,000	7,148	67	0,000	43,033	6,020	31,017	55,049
No equal variances have been assumed			6,931	42,228	0,000	43,033	6,201	30,505	55,561

Variance Equality Test

Through the analysis of the t test for independent samples it is necessary to evidence if the variances are equal or different, these results are approved through the distribution $F_{\text{tab}} (n_1 - 1; n_2 - 1; 1 - \alpha/2)$ and sets the hypothesis in the following way:

$$H_0: \sigma_C^2 = \sigma_E^2$$

$$H_a: \sigma_C^2 \neq \sigma_E^2$$



20.288

Decision

As $F_{\text{cal}} = 20.288 < F_{\text{tab}} = 2.07$ ($\text{sig.} = 0.607 > \alpha/2 = 0.025$), so the decision is not to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the variances are equal (homogeneous).

Test of Means difference

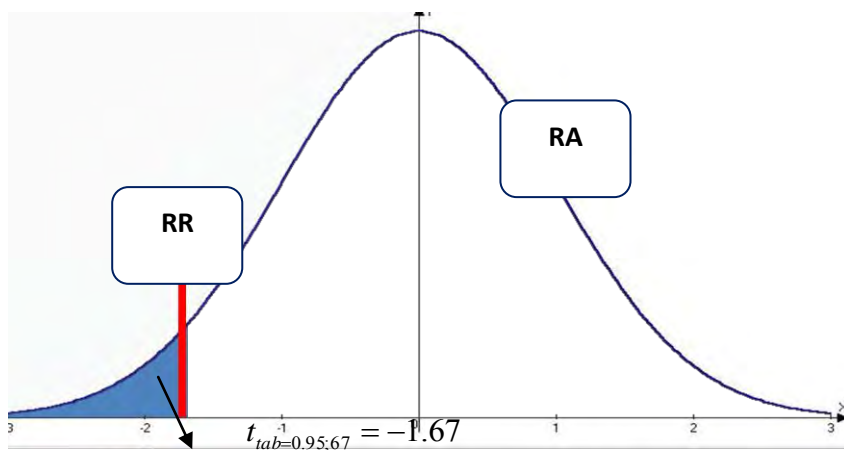
Hypothesis

H₀1: There is no difference among the averages of the language acquisition of the English language of the students of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

H_a1: There is a difference among the averages of the language acquisition of the English language of the students of the Universidad Peruana Unión.

$$\mathbf{H_0: \mu^C = \mu^E}$$

$$\mathbf{H_a: \mu^C < \mu^E}$$



$$t_{cal} = -6,931$$

Decision

As $t_{cal} = -6.931 < t_{tab} = -1.67$ (sig. = 0.000 < $\alpha = 0.05$), then the null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is enough evidence to say that the groups produce average grades different, to a significance level of 0.05.

Conclusion

The “Reading English Adapted Digests” program was effective in the acquisition of the English language in the students of the experimental group above the control group with a 95% of trust.

4.2. Discussion

The obtained results let us check the alternative hypothesis, evidencing the effectiveness of the R.E.A.D. program in the students from the Linguistics and English career and the Language Institute of the Universidad Peruana Unión which produced a significant improvement in the English language and in the dimensions of grammatical and lexical competence.

After the application of the program, the Student T analysis was made for the comparison of means for related samples, getting a mean of 40,32 before and 48,52 after the application of the program, with an average difference of 8,203 and a sig. = 0,000 lower to the test value ($p=0,05$) in the grammatical competence.

In the lexical competence, it was gotten a mean of 27,12 before and 41,09 after the application of the program, with an average difference of 13,971 and a sig. = 0,000 lower to the test value ($p=0,05$) in the lexical competence.

In general, in the language acquisition, it was gotten a mean of 67,435 before and 89,609 after the application of the program, with an average difference of 22,174 and a sig. = 0,000 lower to the test value ($p=0,05$) in the English language acquisition.

Besides the application of the program, the Student T analysis was made for the comparison of means for independent samples. The Linguistics and English group got a mean of 62,79 and the Language Institute group a 35,44 in the grammatical competence.

In the lexical competence, the Linguistics and English group got a mean of 49,27 and the Language Institute group 33,58.

In general, in the language acquisition, the Linguistics and English group got 112,061 while the Language Institute group got 69,028.

These results agree with Shin (2001) cited by Krashen, who examined the impact of a six-week self-selected reading experience among two

hundred sixth-and seventh-graders who had to attend summer school because of low reading proficiency. Students attended class four hours per day; during this time, approximately two hours were devoted to sustained silent reading, including twenty-five minutes in the school library. The district invested \$25 per student on popular paperbacks and magazines, with most books purchased from the Goosebumps series. In addition, about forty-five minutes per day were devoted to reading and discussing novels such as *Holes* and *The Island of the Blue Dolphins*. Comparison children ($n=160$) followed a standard language arts curriculum during the summer. Attrition was high for both groups but similar (class size dropped from 20 to 14.3 among readers, and from 20 to 13.2 among comparisons) as was the percentage of limited English proficient children (31 percent in the reading group, 27 percent in the comparison group). The readers gained approximately five months on the Altos test of reading comprehension and vocabulary over the six-week period, while comparisons declined. On the Nelson-Denny reading comprehension test, the summer readers grew a spectacular 1.3 years (from grade 4.0 to grade 5.4). On the vocabulary section, however, the groups showed equivalent gains.

The same agreement is with the research by Hayes and Ahrens (1988) who supports the idea that lighter reading can prepare readers for heavier reading. According to their findings, it is highly unlikely that much educated vocabulary comes from conversation or television. Hayes and Ahrens found that the frequency of less-common words in ordinary conversation, whether adult-to-child or adult-to-adult, was much lower than in even the “lightest” reading. About 95 percent of the words used in conversation and television are from the most frequent 5000. Printed texts include far more uncommon words, leading Hayes and Ahrens to the conclusion that the development of lexical knowledge beyond basic words “requires literacy and extensive reading across a broad range of subjects.” Table 1.1 presents some of their data, including two of the three measures they used for word frequency. Note that light reading (comics, novels, other adult books, and magazines), although somewhat closer to conversation, occupies a position between conversation and abstracts of scientific papers.

4.3. Implications

- a. Graded readers could help EFL students increase their vocabulary and accuracy.
- b. The level of English could improve if they used graded readers more frequently with a focus on increasing their knowledge on English grammar and vocabulary.
- c. The use of graded readers has to be accepted as part of an EFL curricula. Graded readers are to be considered as effective tools that enhance learning.
- d. The use of graded readers is a necessity for students, but it can be a necessity for English teachers too.
- e. The official government should include the use of graded readers as part of the official plan of “Reading Plan” for public and private schools.
- f. In Christian schools, graded readers can be a great tool in order to share the stories from the bible. Bible language is very complicated to be understood by EFL students, so making it easier to read can be a great for sharing the wonderful stories that we can find there.

4.4 . Conclusions

In relation to the raised objectives and hypothesis, it is concluded that

1. The Reading English Adapted Digests generates a significant improvement in the grammatical competence, getting a mean of 40,32 before and 48,52 after the application of the program, with an average difference of 8,203 and a sig. = 0,000 lower to the test value ($p=0,05$)
2. The Reading English Adapted Digests generates a significant improvement in the grammatical competence, getting a mean of 27,12 before and 41,09 after the application of the program, with an average difference of 13,971 and a sig. = 0,000 lower to the test value ($p=0,05$) in the lexical competence.
3. In general, in the language acquisition, it was gotten a mean of 67,435 before and 89,609 after the application of the program, with an average difference of 22,174 and a sig. = 0,000 lower to the test value ($p=0,05$) in the English language acquisition.
4. Independently, according to the Student T analysis the Linguistics and English group got a mean of 62,79 and the Language Institute group a 35,44 in the grammatical competence.
5. In the lexical competence, the Linguistics and English group got a mean of 49,27 and the Language Institute group 33,58.
6. In general, in the language acquisition, the Linguistics and English group got 112,061 while the Language Institute group got 69,028.
7. All of these results show that the use of graded readers can be a great tool for acquisition for any EFL level (Elementary, Secondary, Language Institute and University). There is a big variety of topics for being introduced according to the reality of any academic or social level. The R.E.A.D. program can be applied with a very low budget as a supplementary activity where the students can do it outside the regular schedule of classes; or as a principal activity as part of the regular classes. The computer classroom can be used for this purpose. The school can supply with the headphones or the students can bring their own ones in order to listen to the readings.

8. The R.E.A.D. program is a great alternative for English teachers against grammar based teaching. Usually, English classes become tedious and boring because of the emphasis in grammar. Graded readers supply the classes with communicative and significant activities that improve the reading and listening skills, making effective the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary.
9. For the secondary level, the R.E.A.D. program can be a second reading plan (the first one usually is in Spanish). This can enhance the reading habit in the students making it an enjoyable activity.
10. The R.E.A.D. program can be a window opened to the production of more real and contextualized texts according to our national situation. Students from the Linguistics and English department can make authentic texts into adapted texts for the other levels. On the other side, they can produce original texts according to the interests and situations of our students.

4.5. Recommendations for further study

1. It is recommended to develop a detailed and extended study of the effectiveness of the Reading English Adapted Program in a higher stratum in order to confirm the results obtained showing that this program can be useful in our society.
2. It is also recommended to develop new researches concerning to the Reading English Adapted Digests in other areas such as: culture, pronunciation text production and others in order to increase English language acquisition.
3. To organize long term programs as complementary activities for EFL classes.
4. To recommend the R.E.A.D. in the English teaching process of public and private institutions.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

1. Pre test
2. Post test
3. Characteristics of the test
4. Checklist – Language Institute
5. Checklist – Linguistics and English career
6. National Geographic Graded Readers

APPENDIX 1

This pre test was taken at the beginning of the application of the R.E.A.D. program in order to get the real situation of the students. It has 60 questions and it was taken in 45 minutes.

PRE TEST

Name: _____ Date: _____

Section A

Choose the best word or phrase to fill the gap.

- 1) "Excuse, is this seat free?" "Yes, it is."
a) me b) her c) him d) you
- 2) "Hi, my name is Juan." "Nice to meet Juan. I'm David."
a) her b) him c) us d) you
- 3) "..... are you from, Juan?"
a) What b) When c) Where d) Why
- 4) "I from Argentina."
a) am coming b) come c) comes d) do come
- 5) "Are you a student?" "Yes,"
a) I am b) I can c) I do d) I have
- 6) "How old are you?" "..... twenty years old."
a) I'm b) I have c) I've got d) My age is
- 7) I like pasta I don't like pizza.
a) and b) because c) but d) or

Section B

- 8) Kate is a She works in a restaurant.
a) doctor b) nurse c) teacher d) waitress
- 9) She has three: two cats and one dog.
a) pets b) hobbies c) jobs d) kids
- 10) Her favorite in her new apartment is the kitchen.

- a) salon b) flat c) furniture d) room

11) Desmond planes. He's a pilot.

- a) works b) drives c) rides d) flies

12) She works Monday through Friday. She doesn't work on

- a) Saturday and Sunday b) Sunday and Tuesday c) Saturday and Wednesday d) Sunday and Thursday

Section C

13) Later this evening out with friends to the movies.

- a) I'm going b) I go c) I do go d) I went

14) My house is very near. Don't worry -..... it very easily.

- a) you've found b) you'll find c) you're finding d) you find

15) I didn't see the program on TV because I tennis.

- a) was playing b) would play c) am playing d) played

16) Missouri is not as California

- a) big like b) bigger c) as big d) big

17) Mr. Murphy is the popular teacher in school.

- a) less b) much c) more d) most

18) Maria is taller Susan.

- a) as b) like c) than d) that

19) you ever been to Hawaii?

- a) Do b) Did c) Have d) Were

Section D

20) James is a good - he sings and plays various instruments.

- a) conductor b) pianist c) musician d) magician

21) He isn't tall and he isn't thin either. He's

- a) young and fat b) short and old c) short and fat d) young and short.

22) His favorite are jeans and t-shirts.

- a) clothes b) colors c) hobbies d) vests

- 23) He has brown hair and blue
 a) arms b) ears c) eyes d) legs
- 24) She likes to go skiing in the when it's very cold.
 a) fall b) spring c) summer d) winter

Section E

- 25) Sheila spoke so fast that Peter didn't understand at all.
 a) anything b) everything c) nothing d) something
- 26) If we now, we'll still catch the train."
 a) leave b) left c) will leave d) would leave
- 27) Debby really liked the car but decided that she afford it.
 a) couldn't b) didn't c) shouldn't d) wouldn't
- 28) I'm going to give up playing golf I can spend more time with my kids.
 a) for that b) so that c) such that d) that
- 29) The police wanted to know how the window broken.
 a) is b) get c) gets d) was
- 30) I don't know where Susan is. She be at home.
 a) can b) may c) will d) would
- 31) Do you mind I close the window?
 a) can b) if c) that d) when

Section F

- 32) Mary high school in San Francisco.
 a) attends b) goes c) studies d) visits
- 33) She enjoys studying science subjects such as
 a) chemistry and drawing b) biology and math c) art and history
 d) English
- 34) After getting up, she always has in the kitchen.
 a) breakfast b) dinner c) lunch d) supper

- 35) He in a new apartment downtown.
a) habits b) leaves c) lives d) rests
- 36) Mark works in a grocery store. He sells
a) clothes b) food and drink c) records d) gas

Section G

- 37) The party was quite good but there weren't really people.
a) a lot b) enough c) enough of d) much
- 38) I'm a bit tired right now. I think I'd rather later.
a) go b) to go c) I'd go d) that I go
- 39) Tessie in the same house for twenty years now.
a) has been living b) is living c) lived d) lives
- 40) Let me know you need anything and I'll be there to help you.
a) in case b) if c) provided d) unless
- 41) There's a meeting at 3 o'clock,?
a) is it? b) isn't it? c) isn't there? d) won't there?
- 42) I play a lot of sports but now I don't have time.
a) had the habit of b) ought to c) used to d) would
- 43) He didn't stop smoking even his doctor told him to give up.
a) if b) that c) though d) whether

Section H

- 44) Henry enjoys his bicycle in the countryside.
a) biking b) cycling c) driving d) riding
- 45) I'm going to the movies to a film. Do you want to come?
a) regard b) listen c) look d) watch
- 46) I yesterday afternoon with friends in a café.
a) spent b) used c) took d) passed
- 47) Mark is very interested computers
a) at b) by c) from d) in

- 48) Simon can French but he cannot speak it.
a) hear b) know c) listen d) understand

Section I

- 49) They went for a walk in of the heavy downpour.
a) case b) despite c) the event d) spite
- 50) Susan handed in her resignation only after her lawyer.
a) consult b) consulted c) consulting d) the consultation
- 51) A good conversationalist can talk about subject comes up.
a) whatever b) whenever c) whenever d) wherever
- 52) You can't be serious. You be joking.
a) couldn't b) must c) should d) wouldn't
- 53) They think that they their meeting in half an hour.
a) will be finished b) will have been finished c) will have finished
d) have finished
- 54) Mrs. Jimenez is the woman purse was stolen.
a) that b) of which c) whom d) whose
- 55) If Terry more careful, there wouldn't have been an accident.
a) had been b) has been c) would have been d) would be

Section J

- 56) Mr. Brown's doctor advised him to some new medicine.
a) come across b) fix up c) take after d) try out
- 57) We have a very busy work this month.
a) agenda b) appointment c) calendar d) schedule
- 58) Don't I can't hear what you're saying!
a) frown b) glare c) slouch d) whisper
- 59) Mark went on visit with a student from Venezuela last year.
a) a change b) an exchange c) an external d) interchange
- 60) Peter went on a diet but was unable to to it.
a) make b) put c) set d) stick

APPENDIX 2

This post test was taken at the end of the application of the R.E.A.D. program in order to compare the result with the one got from the pre test. It is exactly the same test from the pre test. It has 60 questions and it was taken in 45 minutes.

POST TEST

Name: _____ Date: _____

Section A

Choose the best word or phrase to fill the gap.

- 1) "Excuse, is this seat free?" "Yes, it is."
a) me b) her c) him d) you
- 2) "Hi, my name is Juan." "Nice to meet Juan. I'm David."
a) her b) him c) us d) you
- 3) "..... are you from, Juan?"
a) What b) When c) Where d) Why
- 4) "I from Argentina."
a) am coming b) come c) comes d) do come
- 5) "Are you a student?" "Yes,"
a) I am b) I can c) I do d) I have
- 6) "How old are you?" "..... twenty years old."
a) I'm b) I have c) I've got d) My age is
- 7) I like pasta I don't like pizza.
a) and b) because c) but d) or

Section B

- 8) Kate is a She works in a restaurant.
a) doctor b) nurse c) teacher d) waitress
- 9) She has three: two cats and one dog.
a) pets b) hobbies c) jobs d) kids

- 10) Her favorite in her new apartment is the kitchen.
 a) salon b) flat c) furniture d) room
- 11) Desmond planes. He's a pilot.
 a) works b) drives c) rides d) flies
- 12) She works Monday through Friday. She doesn't work on
 a) Saturday and Sunday b) Sunday and Tuesday c) Saturday and
 Wednesday d) Sunday and Thursday

Section C

- 13) Later this evening out with friends to the movies.
 a) I'm going b) I go c) I do go d) I went
- 14) My house is very near. Don't worry - it very easily.
 a) you've found b) you'll find c) you're finding d) you find
- 15) I didn't see the program on TV because I tennis.
 a) was playing b) would play c) am playing d) played
- 16) Missouri is not as California
 a) big like b) bigger c) as big d) big
- 17) Mr. Murphy is the popular teacher in school.
 a) less b) much c) more d) most
- 18) Maria is taller Susan.
 a) as b) like c) than d) that
- 19) you ever been to Hawaii?
 a) Do b) Did c) Have d) Were

Section D

- 20) James is a good - he sings and plays various instruments.
 a) conductor b) pianist c) musician d) magician
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 short.

- 22) His favorite are jeans and t-shirts.
a) clothes b) colors c) hobbies d) vests
- 23) He has brown hair and blue
a) arms b) ears c) eyes d) legs
- 24) She likes to go skiing in the when it's very cold.
a) fall b) spring c) summer d) winter
- Section E**
- 25) Sheila spoke so fast that Peter didn't understand at all.
a) anything b) everything c) nothing d) something
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a) for that b) so that c) such that d) that
- 29) The police wanted to know how the window broken.
a) is b) get c) gets d) was
- 30) I don't know where Susan is. She be at home.
a) can b) may c) will d) would
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37) The party was quite good but there weren't really people.
a) a lot b) enough c) enough of d) much

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40) Let me know you need anything and I'll be there to help you.
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41) There's a meeting at 3 o'clock,?
a) is it? b) isn't it? c) isn't there? d) won't there?

42) I play a lot of sports but now I don't have time.
a) had the habit of b) ought to c) used to d) would

43) He didn't stop smoking even his doctor told him to give up.
a) if b) that c) though d) whether

Section H

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a) biking b) cycling c) driving d) riding

45) I'm going to the movies to a film. Do you want to come?
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- 51) A good conversationalist can talk about subject comes up.
a) whatever b) whenever c) whenever d) wherever
- 52) You can't be serious. You be joking.
a) couldn't b) must c) should d) wouldn't
- 53) They think that they their meeting in half an hour.
a) will be finished b) will have been finished c) will have finished
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- 54) Mrs. Jimenez is the woman purse was stolen.
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- 55) If Terry more careful, there wouldn't have been an accident.
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- 56) Mr. Brown's doctor advised him to some new medicine.
a) come across b) fix up c) take after d) try out
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a) frown b) glare c) slouch d) whisper
- 59) Mark went on visit with a student from Venezuela last year.
a) a change b) an exchange c) an external d) interchange
- 60) Peter went on a diet but was unable to to it.
a) make b) put c) set d) stick

APPENDIX 3

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TEST

The following characteristics of the pre test and the post test are based on the items based on the Common European Framework in order to have a clear description of the level of the students on the grammatical competence.

GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE

No.	ITEMS / DIMENSION	EQUIVALENCIES				
	DIMENSION 2: GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE	Pre Test Section	N° Questions	Value per question	Total Per Section	Common European Framework Level
1	“Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a learnt repertoire.”	A	7	1	7	A1
2	“Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes – for example tends to mix up tenses and forget to mark agreement; nevertheless, it is usually clear what he/she is trying to say.”	C	7	2	14	A2
3	“Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used ‘routines’ and patterns associated with more predictable situations.”	E	7	3	21	B1
4	“Communicates with reasonable accuracy in familiar contexts; generally good control though with noticeable mother tongue influence. Errors occur, but it is clear what he/she is trying to express.”					

5	“Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make mistakes which lead to misunderstanding.”
6	“Good grammatical control; occasional ‘slips’ or non-systematic errors and minor flaws in sentence structure may still occur, but they are rare and can often be corrected in retrospect.”
7	“Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare and difficult to spot.”

G	7	4	28	B2
I	7	5	35	C1
TOTAL	35		105	

The following characteristics of the pre test and the post test are based on the items based on the Common European Framework in order to have a clear description of the level of the students on the lexical competence.

LEXICAL COMPETENCE

No.	ITEMS / DIMENSION
	DIMENSION 2: GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE
1	“Has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases to particular concrete situations.”
2	“Has a sufficient vocabulary for the expression of basic communicative needs”. “Has a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple survival needs.”

EQUIVALENCIES				
Pre Test Section	N° Questions	Value per question	Total Per Section	Common European Framework Level
B	5	1	5	A1
D	5	2	10	A2

3	“Has sufficient vocabulary to conduct routine, everyday transactions involving familiar situations and topics.”
4	“Has a sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some circumlocutions on most topics pertinent to his/her everyday life such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.”
5	“Has a good range of vocabulary for matters connected to his/her field and most general topics. Can vary formulation to avoid frequent repetition, but lexical gaps can still cause hesitation and circumlocution.”
6	“Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions; little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies. Good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.”

F	5	3	15	B1
H	5	4	20	B2
TOTAL	25		75	

APPENDIX 4

The following checklist was made in order to get specific information about the language institute students. This information would be compared with the linguistics and English career students. The second part is information just for the teacher in order to measure the students level after taking the pre test and the post test.

UNIVERSIDAD PERUANA UNIÓN CHECKLIST – LANGUAGE INSTITUTE

INSTRUCTIONS

This survey is designed in order to know the different strategies that the students use for acquiring the English language. Your answers will be very valuable. The survey will be used as a diagnosis.

Check **(X)** or **(√)** or write clearly in the option that requires it. Remember that you cannot check two options.

I. GENERAL DATA

1 Name:

2 School

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Education and Human Sciences	Business Sciences	Health Sciences	Theology	Engineering and Architecture

3 Academic Semester

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
II	IV	VI	VIII	X

4 Age: _____

5 Gender

(1)	(2)
Masculine	Feminine

6 Economical status

(1)	(2)	(3)
High	Average	Low

7 Elementary school

(1)	(2)
Private	Public

8 Hours of English classes per week in Elementary School

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
5 or more hours	3 – 4 hours	1 – 2 hours	0 hours

9 Secondary School

(1)	(2)
Private	Public

10 Hours of English classes per week in Secondary School

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
5 or more hours	3 – 4 hours	1 – 2 hours	0 hours

II. DATA ABOUT PERCEPTION

No.	ITEMS / DIMENSION	Yes	No
DIMENSION 1: LEXICAL COMPETENCE			
1	“Has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases to particular concrete situations.”		
2	“Has a sufficient vocabulary for the expression of basic communicative needs”. “Has a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple survival needs.”		
3	“Has sufficient vocabulary to conduct routine, everyday transactions involving familiar situations and topics.”		
4	“Has a sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some circumlocutions on most topics pertinent to his/her everyday life such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.”		
5	“Has a good range of vocabulary for matters connected to his/her field and most general topics. Can vary formulation to avoid frequent repetition, but lexical gaps can still cause hesitation and circumlocution.”		
6	“Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions; little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies. Good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.”		
7	“Has a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning.”		
DIMENSION 2: GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE			
8	“Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a learnt repertoire.”		
9	“Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes – for example tends to mix up tenses and forget to mark agreement; nevertheless, it is usually clear what he/she is trying to say.”		
10	“Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used ‘routines’ and patterns associated with more predictable situations.”		
11	“Communicates with reasonable accuracy in familiar contexts; generally good control though with noticeable		

	mother tongue influence. Errors occur, but it is clear what he/she is trying to express.”		
12	“Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make mistakes which lead to misunderstanding.”		
13	“Good grammatical control; occasional ‘slips’ or non-systematic errors and minor flaws in sentence structure may still occur, but they are rare and can often be corrected in retrospect.”		
14	“Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare and difficult to spot.”		
15	“Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others’ reactions).”		

APPENDIX 5

The following checklist was made in order to get specific information about the Linguistics and English career students. This information would be compared with the Language Institute students. The second part is information just for the teacher in order to measure the students level after taking the pre test and the post test.

UNIVERSIDAD PERUANA UNIÓN

CHECKLIST – LINGUISTICS AND ENGLISH CAREER

INSTRUCTIONS

This survey is designed in order to know the different strategies that the students use for acquiring the English language. Your answers will be very valuable. The survey will be used as a diagnosis.

Check **(X)** or **(√)** or write clearly in the option that requires it. Remember that you cannot check two options.

III. GENERAL DATA

1. Name:

2. Academic Semester

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
II	IV	VI	VIII	X

3. Age: _____

4. Gender

(1) Masculine	(2) Feminine
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5. Economical status

(1) High	(2) Average	(3) Low
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6. Elementary school

(1) Private	(2) Public
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8 Hours of English classes per week in Elementary School

(1) 5 or more hours	(2) 3 – 4 hours	(3) 1 – 2 hours	(4) 0 hours
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9 Secondary School

(1) Private	(2) Public
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10 Hours of English classes per week in Secondary School

(1) 5 or more hours	(2) 3 – 4 hours	(3) 1 – 2 hours	(4) 0 hours
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7. DATA ABOUT PERCEPTION

No.	ITEMS / DIMENSION	Yes	No
DIMENSION 1: LEXICAL COMPETENCE			
1	“Has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases to particular concrete situations.”		
2	“Has a sufficient vocabulary for the expression of basic communicative needs”. “Has a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple survival needs.”		
3	“Has sufficient vocabulary to conduct routine, everyday transactions involving familiar situations and topics.”		
4	“Has a sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some circumlocutions on most topics pertinent to his/her everyday life such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.”		
5	“Has a good range of vocabulary for matters connected to his/her field and most general topics. Can vary formulation to avoid frequent repetition, but lexical gaps can still cause hesitation and circumlocution.”		
6	“Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions; little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies. Good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.”		
7	“Has a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning.”		
DIMENSION 2: GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE			
8	“Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a learnt repertoire.”		
9	“Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes – for example tends to mix up tenses and forget to mark agreement; nevertheless, it is usually clear what he/she is trying to say.”		
10	“Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used ‘routines’ and patterns associated with more predictable situations.”		
11	“Communicates with reasonable accuracy in familiar contexts; generally good control though with noticeable		

	mother tongue influence. Errors occur, but it is clear what he/she is trying to express.”		
12	“Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make mistakes which lead to misunderstanding.”		
13	“Good grammatical control; occasional ‘slips’ or non-systematic errors and minor flaws in sentence structure may still occur, but they are rare and can often be corrected in retrospect.”		
14	“Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare and difficult to spot.”		
15	“Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others’ reactions).”		

APPENDIX 6

This is the list of the graded readers from the National Geographic series. They are selected in three groups according to the number of headwords (800, 1000 and 1300 headwords)

National Geographic Graded Readers

Level 800	Level 1000	Level 1300
Incredible Animals	Incredible Animals	Incredible Animals
Arctic Whale Danger!	Farley the Red Panda	Birds in Paradise
Happy Elephants	Gorilla Watching Tours	Cambodia Animal Rescue
Monkey Party	Puffin Rescue!	Night Hunt
Fascinating People	Fascinating People	Fascinating People
The Future of a Village	A Disappearing World	The Adventure Capital of the World
Life on the Orinoco	The Knife Markets of Sanaa	Butler School
The Lost City of Machu Picchu	A Special Kind of Neighborhood	One Village Makes a Difference
Remarkable People	Remarkable People	Remarkable People
Colombus and the New World	The Last of the Cheju Divers	A Real Winner
Dreamtime Painters	Peruvian Weavers	One Boy's Journey
The Young Riders of Mongolia	Taiko Master	Living With a Volcano
Exciting Activities	Exciting Activities	Exciting Activities
Alaskan Ice Climbing	Cheese-Rolling Races	Let's Make a Deal
Don't Believe Your Eyes!	Making a Thai Boxing Champion	Dangerous Dining
The Story of the Hula	Water Sports Adventure	Flying Pumpkins!

Amazing Science

The Giant's Causeway

Snow Magic!

Volcano Trek

Amazing Science

Dinosaur Search

The Memory Man

Wild Animal Trackers

Amazing Science

Killer Bees

Wind Power

The Missing Snows of Kilimanjaro