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RESPONSE TO LITERATURE: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE REACTIONS OF ADULT ESL AND ENL STUDENTS TO TWO CONTRASTING SHORT STORIES

BY

MARGARET DAVEY

A thesis submitted to
the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of MASTER OF EDUCATION in Adult and Higher Education.

DEPARTMENT OF ADULT, CAREER AND TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION

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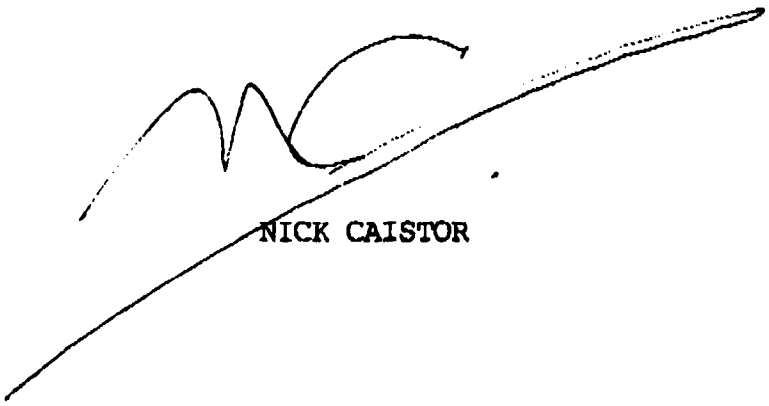

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Supervisor
Dr. R. Hayden

Dr. T. Derwing

Dr. W. Fagan

Date: November 23, 1992

DEDICATED TO MY HUSBAND,

RONALD AUSTIN DAVEY

ABSTRACT

Using Purves' (1968) schema for the classification of response to literature, this study examined, described and compared the unstructured oral and written responses of adult ESL and ENL students to two, unfamiliar and contrasted short stories. The sample consisted of 10 ESL and 9 ENL student volunteers, equally divided as to gender, who were registered in various sections of a mandatory reading development course. The researcher worked with every student individually for three sessions of 1 to 1 and 1/2 hours each. Students first completed a biographical/reading questionnaire, and then practised a 'think aloud' method of oral response to a preparatory story. In two subsequent sessions, students read silently, responded orally and later in writing, to each of two stories, underlining unfamiliar vocabulary as they read. As a means of response less dependent on spoken and/or written English, students then rated lists of adjectives associated with each story on 7-point, uni-polar scales. Oral responses were subsequently tape-recorded and transcribed verbatim; written responses were typed without alteration. Both were then coded and collated, and mean percentage frequencies for the descriptive elements and/or sub-categories tabulated. All results were then compared and analysed descriptively -- the written responses before the oral.

The written responses (by element and sub-category) were mainly restricted to general elements of the engagement, evaluation, and miscellaneous categories and to more specific elements involving narration (perception), and interpretation of story-content. ENL

interpretive story-content scores for "Woman . . ." were unusually low, and ESL miscellaneous scores unusually high.

The oral (as opposed to written) responses (by sub-category) reflected substantially higher scores for narrative and interpretive story-content and generally lower miscellaneous scores. There were more ESL narrative, and more ENL interpretive responses, particularly for "Woman . . .". ESL students had marked difficulty with story vocabulary. No perceptible difference in overall performance on the verbal scales could be detected among the ESL, ENL, Female or Male groups, suggesting that the scales were of assistance to less able students. Differences between males and females were minimal throughout.

The implications of the study findings for further research and instruction are also given.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Whatever the effects of reader-response theory and practice may be in "the long perspective of critical history" (Tompkins, 1980, p. 225), it remains true, as Louise Rosenblatt (1978) pointed out, that until comparatively recently, critical attention has been focused on authors and texts rather than on "the invisible reader" (p. 1). If any reader's response was considered significant, it was that of the professional critic whose reactions were valued and widely disseminated as appropriately objective and definitive.

Concurrently, teachers of literature assumed, as many still do today, that if participating students read the requisite texts and wrote a sufficient number of analytical critiques based on them, student literacy competence was necessarily assured.

In 1929, I. A. Richards (1930) shattered that myth when he published the results of an on-going experiment he had conducted over several years with Honours students of English Literature at Cambridge University, whom he had asked to respond to a series of unidentified poems. Although unscientifically collated by modern standards, the results amazed both Richards and his students and presumably the institution, for, as Squire (1964) noted, they had a "profound influence on subsequent college teaching" (p. 5). Amongst other findings, Richards noted his students' inability to understand the poet's meaning on a number of different levels, the prevalence of stereotyped responses

and critical preconceptions and the way in which personal beliefs prevailed over the evidence of the text (cited in Squire, p. 5).

That little has changed in English academic circles may be inferred from C. S. Lewis' comments (cited in Widdowson, 1975):

> Everyone who sees the work of Honours students of English at a university has noticed with distress their increasing tendency to see books wholly through the spectacles of other books. On every play, poem or novel, they produce the view of some eminent critic . . . . Less and less do we meet the individual response. The all-important conjunction (Reader meets Text) never seems to have been allowed to occur of itself and develop spontaneously (p. 75).

and from those of British educationalists, Dixon and Brown (1984):

> . . . it would be fair to say that most teachers and examiners still seem to accept a response model developed by the English schools of the 1930s to 1960s. Unfortunately, despite Richards' pioneering work in the 1920s, there has been disappointingly little effort in England to extend his investigations of actual readers (and the same might be said of many Continental alternatives). Readers' responses to novels, plays and other longer works have hardly been touched. The process of articulating response, and the factors that encourage or inhibit it, remain so far as we know uninvestigated (p. 9).

Yet, as long ago as 1938, Rosenblatt advocated a "transactional" approach to literature when she wrote, "The reading of any work of literature is, of necessity, an individual and unique occurrence involving the mind and emotions of some particular reader" (p. 32). Following Richards, Rosenblatt (1978) conducted similar experiments with her American graduate students of English but with a somewhat different purpose: she was primarily interested in "what happens when the reader has to start from scratch with the text on the page" (p. 7). Over a period of twenty-four years, her students were therefore handed various unidentified poems and asked to jot down whatever came to mind immediately after reading ". . . to make articulate the very stages that

are often ignored or forgotten by the time a satisfactory reading has been completed" (p. 10). Based on careful observation, Rosenblatt noted the reading strategies involved and showed how students' initial responses gradually changed as more information was processed.

The emphasis that educators such as Rosenblatt and Dixon place on the necessity of response to literature by "actual readers" is in itself an indication of how traditional literature teaching and the literary criticism associated with it has failed. Many students have resorted to pre-digested criticism of literary texts rather than trust their own judgement because polished academic criticism was unreasonably expected of them. Yet, as Hansson (1991) points out, "Fully verbalized descriptions, analyses, and evaluations" constitute an "acquired language" representing the "final stage of the reading process" (p.113). According to him, inconvenient, early stages of literary response have been mainly dismissed by teachers, researchers and literary theorists alike as "too vague, too emotional, too little concerned with the meaning of the text, too little related to the actual wording and structuring of the text" (p. 101). Like Rosenblatt, Hansson stresses the tentative nature of response to the first reading of literary texts; he also posits the possible existence of perhaps as many as four overlapping, non-linear levels of understanding, some of which may be pre-verbal (p. 108). If he is right, even oral and certainly written responses could be seen as relatively advanced types of response.

Such views can only further undermine traditional conceptions of literary criticism and methods of literature teaching and testing as

well as, perhaps, the value placed on literature itself, especially as a subject to be taught in schools and colleges.

Not surprisingly, this renewed and wides interest in response to literature has been reflected in subsequent and varied research, from that of Taba (1955), working with eighth-grade students, who developed classifications of literary response based on classroom discussions, to Squire's (1964) own categorization of the oral responses of adolescents on which Wilson (1966) based his comparable work with college students; and from Purves' (1968) international study of literary achievement which required the development of a complex, content analysis schema, to the less descriptive but related studies of Segers (1978) and Hansson (1985), using scaled responses.

Despite this on-going research, widespread disquiet about the nature and results of English and literature teaching in schools and colleges has continued, and occasioned, for instance, the Anglo-American Seminar on the subject, which took place at Dartmouth College, New Hampshire in 1966. Known subsequently as the Dartmouth Seminar, this trans-Atlantic dialogue, later continued at York in 1971, produced, amongst other things, Squire's (1968) valuable report on response to literature, and, according to Squire and Britton (Dixon, 1975), finally seemed to give significant impetus to the development of more student-centred language education. Recently, however, it seems that in Britain at least, particularly as reflected in external literature examinations, progress in this direction has slowed and in some areas been partially reversed (J. Dixon, personal communication, October 22, 1992).

Renewed interest in student-centred, literary education and response, has also coincided with applied linguistics' research on and promotion of discourse and stylistic analysis of texts, as well as with the desire of many teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) and particularly of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), who use a communicative-competency approach to language teaching, to find a correspondingly appropriate method of literature instruction (Tarvin & Al-Arishi, 1990). All are linked by the realization that the literary education of many students, whether native or non-native speakers of English, continues to be characterized by "a flight from the text" (Short & Candlin, 1986, p. 89), which not only prevents them from acquiring literary competence (Brumfit, 1981; Culler, 1975), but also often results in positive dislike, rather than enjoyment of literature.

The Problem

With this almost unparalleled interest in new and more effective ways of approaching literature teaching and learning, much of it emanating from EFL teachers and educationalists such as Brumfit (1986) and Long (1986), who have had EFL teaching experience in Tanzania and Thailand respectively, increasing attention is being focused on the reading efficiency and difficulties faced by non-native English readers of both expository and literary texts. This, in turn, has raised a number of important and related issues; for instance, should ESL/EFL students be reading literature at all (Marckwardt, 1978), and, if so, what kinds and levels of texts should they be studying?; at what level

of efficiency in the second language can such students be considered ready to understand and respond to literature?; do ESL/EFL students need special training to read literature, and, if so, what would it entail in terms of methods, materials and organization (Long, 1986; Rodger, 1983; Widdowson, 1975)? Other researchers, such as Aslanian (1985), Carrell & Eisterhold (1983), Gajdusek (1988), Yorio (1971) and Zvetina (1987), have realized that ESL/EFL students have many additional reading problems peculiar to them: first language interference, inadequate formal and content schemata or background knowledge, limited vocabulary, and unfamiliarity with cohesive markers and the rhetorical organization of English texts, to mention a few.

Now that more and more adult ESL students in Canada (and elsewhere) are competing with native speakers of English in various college and adult education upgrading and credit courses in English, some of which require the study of literature, many teachers realize that a number of these students are experiencing difficulty. This is not always obvious until after the perusal of the first, in-class, written assignments because many ESL students take little part in class discussion and rarely seek help. Moreover, while the written work may be poorly done, the root problem may well lie elsewhere, as already indicated.

Adding to the busy teacher's, perhaps, futile efforts to locate the source of the student's difficulty, is the fact that ESL students seldom, if ever, form a homogeneous group. Some may be young, foreign-educated students on temporary visas, a few may have spent a year or two in high school, but many will be older and may not have

studied in formal courses for years, if at all. They will have come from various regions of the world and may, or may not be highly literate in their own language. Just as their ultimate aims will vary, so too will their familiarity with western culture and the Roman alphabet, and their verbal fluency and comprehension. Even more importantly, they are unlikely to share a similar body of knowledge, having arrived in these tertiary education classes by different routes. Some may have experience of 'survival' English in lower-level ESL classes; others may have only recently landed in the country having learned most of their English in a refugee camp. East European students will tend to be highly educated but have varying degrees of oral facility, while other, less educated students, may have lived in Canada, or other English-speaking countries for twenty odd years, picking up the language in the course of their work but have become 'fossilized.' Yet another group may emerge as the course proceeds: those who are, in fact, native Canadians, but who grew up in homes where the parental language was not English.

The main purpose of this study is therefore to discover and highlight some of the typical problems that adult ESL students (and perhaps ENL students) experience in studying and responding to literature at the high school/college level, to examine and describe their responses, and to compare both problems and responses with those of their native English-speaking peers. A multi-method approach (Nicol, 1975), combining an unstructured, oral response to two contrasting short stories, with a comparable, written response, and two verbal scales (Hansson, 1985) based on those stories will be used.

Research Questions

1. Do ESL and ENL students differ in their oral 'think aloud' responses to short stories?

2. Do ESL and ENL oral responses, when transcribed, fall into similar literary sub-categories (Purves, 1968)?

3. Are the oral responses of ESL, ENL, male and female students markedly different?

4. Do the oral responses of ESL, ENL, male and female students differ for each of the stories?

5. Do ESL and ENL students differ in their written responses to short stories?

6. Do ESL and ENL written responses fall into similar literary sub-categories?

7. Are the written responses of ESL, ENL, male and female students markedly different?

8. Do the written responses of ESL, ENL, male and female students, differ for each of the stories?

9. Do ESL and ENL students differ in their understanding of the story vocabulary?

10. Are there differences in male and female students' understanding of the story vocabulary?

11. Do ESL and ENL students differ in their reactions to the verbal scales?

12. Are there differences in the reactions of male and female students to the verbal scales?

Definition of Terms

ESL student -- refers to a student whose native language is not English but who lives in an English-speaking country and must/wishes to become fluent in the English language.

ENL student -- refers to a student whose native language is English.

EFL student -- refers to a student whose native language is not English but who lives in a non-English-speaking country and wishes to study in/or become fluent in the English language.

fossilized -- refers to an ESL/EFL student whose English is capable of little further development and in whose English speech, non-native forms have become a permanent feature (Savignon, 1983).

metacognitive skills -- abilities which enable readers to reflect on their own mental processes and direct their thinking and learning.

mentalistic techniques -- techniques (subsumed under metacognition) for studying mental states in which thinking aloud and self-observation is required of the subject (Cohen & Hosenfield, 1981).

response to literature -- various physiological, emotional or intellectual reactions which may be experienced after reading, hearing, or seeing a performance of a literary work, including those reactions to the work as it is experienced and those expressed subsequently, as in oral and written responses (Quirk, 1982).

transactional approach to reading -- an approach which emphasizes that reader and text are mutually interconnected (Rosenblatt, 1978).

communicative competence -- a level of skill in communication in which linguistic competence is demonstrated in a social context of authentic, dynamic exchange. (Savignon, 1972; Widdowson, 1978).

literary competence -- a stage which implies that an understanding of literary conventions such as plot and genre, and the ability to "infer a message" have been internalized (Brumfit, 1981; Carter & Long, 1991; Culler, 1975).

sheltered classes -- classes where ESL/EFL students only are helped to learn subject matter in the second language, resulting in incidental improvement of their English language skills (Krashen, 1985).

narrow reading -- reading based on a "narrow input" of reading matter concerned with one topic or the works of one author (Krashen, 1985).

efferent reading -- a type of reading in which the reader is mainly concerned with the information he can take away from it (Rosenblatt, 1978).

aesthetic reading -- a type of reading where the reader is primarily concerned with what happens during the reading as he lives through the experience of it (Rosenblatt, 1978).

audiolingual methodology -- a method of second language teaching that emphasized the oral/aural aspects of language: repetitious language drills and good pronunciation, with little concern for meaningful communication.

semantic differential -- a bi-polar scale of opposing verbal terms which permits a subject to indicate both the direction and intensity of his judgement (Osgood, 1957).

Limitations of the Study

1. The subjects were adult ESL and ENL college students mostly with little recent academic experience, who were required to take an upgrading reading development course before they could proceed in their chosen field of study.
2. All participating students were volunteers who were free to withdraw at any time.
3. For some students, the division of the short stories into sections, may have made comprehension more difficult.
4. During the 'think aloud' reading sessions, the researcher made occasional encouraging comments and sometimes asked questions when it was evident that students were having difficulty with the text (Aslanian, 1985), thus expanding the number of student responses.
5. Because only the first three sections of each story were coded, student responses to the other sections, particularly the endings, may have been different.
6. All oral responses were tape-recorded which may have heightened the anxiety levels of ESL students particularly, thereby lessening, to some extent, the reliability and validity of the results.

7. Since the study was limited to a small group of nineteen students, the conclusions can be generalized only to the population from which the sample was drawn.

Significance of the Study

Given the fact that most research on literary response has focused on native, English-speaking university, college or high school subjects, this study, although small in scope, is an attempt to respond to a need expressed by Purves and Beach (1972) almost twenty years ago:

> . . . studies in response to literature have looked much too little at differences among groups, when those groups are determined by something other than age, sex, or reading ability. We have barely begun to look at the responses of different ethnic groups, of groups differentiated on cognitive style, or of groups differentiated on geography or dialect (p. 178).

It is hoped that a knowledge of the particular difficulties experienced by adult ESL students -- and these could vary according to reading ability, educational background and cultural groupings -- with the level and kind of literature typically studied in upgrading and credit classes, will indicate in what ways they could be helped, either concurrently with other courses, in 'sheltered classes' (Krashen, 1985) for instance, or, perhaps, in short, intensive, pre-literary and/or remedial reading study groups. According to need, these could be designed, for example, to highlight the similarities and differences between non-literary and literary texts (Rodger, 1983; Widdowson, 1975), to illustrate the differences between efferent and aesthetic reading

(Rosenblatt, 1978), perhaps linked with writing, and to study differences between literary genres (Moffett, 1981).

The study could also make a case for the provision of relevant literary experience at lower and transitional levels of ESL continuing education comparable to that documented in the Alberta Education Language Services guidelines for ESL students in senior high schools (English as a Second Language 10C, 1986). Should the findings show that native English language (ENL) students also experience difficulty with literary studies, changes in teaching methods, of advantage to both groups, might be seen as desirable, not only for these students, but for those in other institutions. Moreover, in accordance with the maxim that ". . . the communicative test should be virtually indistinguishable from the communicative classroom activity" (Mendelsohn, 1989, p. 102), the response method employed in this study, ultimately derived from Rosenblatt (1978) and Purves (1968), could be used as part of an ongoing and more process-oriented way of evaluating student progress in literature.

CHAPTER II

SURVEY OF RELATED LITERATURE

Writing from a North American as well as a European viewpoint, but without specific reference to second-language groups, the Swedish researcher, Hansson (1985), has stressed the continuing need for much more empirical research ". . . specially designed to investigate basic problems" (p. 226) in literary response.

However, with rare exceptions such as Fanselow's (1974) work with ninth-grade, Spanish-English bilingual students, very few studies on literary response have been done with EFL/ESL subjects, particularly adults. Increasingly, research involving such groups, has mainly focused on second-language reading problems, usually with expository text, as described in several papers pertinent to this study (e.g. Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Cohen, Glasman, Rosenbaum-Cohen, Ferrara, & Fine, 1988; Aslanian, 1985), to be briefly reviewed later.

The lack of research on EFL/ESL literary response is surely a true reflection of the current status of literature and literature teaching in such classes world-wide. According to Tarvin and Al-Arishi (1990), university teachers of EFL in Saudi Arabia, the communicative language teaching which has successfully replaced the post-war audiolingual methodology, has hardly affected literature teaching. For Gajdusek (1988), the cause may lie elsewhere but the effect is the same: "Disappointingly . . . literary texts, which have the potential to provide the basis for intensely interactive, content-based ESL classes,

have not enjoyed the general resurgence of attention that our commitment to communicative teaching might have predicted" (Gajdusek, cited in Tarvin & Al-Arishi, p. 30).

Prodromou (1985), who teaches English for the British Council in Greece, is also committed to communicative literature methods but bemoans the lack of "practical classroom methodology" comparable to that supplied by Widdowson, who "devotes a whole chapter to examples of exercises that activate the relationship between literature and other varieties of English" (Prodromou, p. 15).

The situation in Istanbul, Turkey, is even more ambiguous and frustrating. Akyel and Yalçin (1990), prepared two sets of questionnaires, one for teachers and one for second-year senior high school students of private schools, to discover preferred teaching methods and objectives and student reactions to teacher-selected literary texts and teacher-dominated literature classes. The results showed that teachers were wavering between traditional and modern practices, that student-perceived needs and objectives were not considered important and that there was only limited commitment to communicative language methodology, which stimulates "learner-learner interaction" (p. 174).

Widdowson (1983) implies that most lower-level ESL students in England, and, perhaps, by implication, in North America, are preoccupied with 'survival' English rather than engaged in any truly literary activity, when he writes:

> . . . It's not easy to see how learners at any level can get interested in and therefore motivated by a dialogue about buying stamps at a post office. There is no plot, there is no mystery, there is no character; everything proceeds as if

> communication never created a problem. There's no misunderstanding, there's no possibility of any kind of interaction (pp. 33-34).

Because of the comparative lack of research on ESL and literary response, references to research will be mainly limited to selected native-language response studies and to a representative sample of the most relevant research on ESL/EFL reading problems from which, in combination, a suitable research design for non-native English speakers can be extrapolated.

The research of I. A. Richards (1930) is seminal, despite its non-scientific methods, and seems to have established a standard by which all subsequent study of reader-response to literature is measured. Much of its impact arises from the fact that Richards revealed in great detail how inadequate were the responses of even the most well-educated and gifted Honours English undergraduates, and by implication, those of established literary critics -- graduates of similar institutions.

As mentioned earlier, Rosenblatt's (1978) similar experiments with the written responses of her American university graduates are of particular significance for this study, since she was mainly interested in her subjects' "tentative first interpretations" of the text (p. 7) and the way those initial responses changed as the reading proceeded. For that reason, she deliberately chose works, such as Robert Frost's poem entitled, "It Bids Pretty Fair," which could not be automatically assimilated without negotiation between the first and subsequent interpretations of the text. The results are interesting, in the present context, since, in general, the first-mentioned responses were very mundane and such as any average reader might make. For example, one

student wrote, '"Upon reading . . . the first time, I couldn't make any sense out of it,"' and another commented, '"I am torn between trying to put these sentences together in order to evoke one impression, and taking each as an individual entity . . ."' (p. 7).

However valuable an unstructured response may be, a classification/categorization system is useful, and sometimes necessary, if the findings are to be translated into the basis for the development of more appropriate methods of teaching and testing, for example. In her year-long research with ethnically mixed eighth-grade students, designed primarily to increase social sensitivity through classroom discussion of fiction, Taba (1955) elicited and recorded unstructured responses to books and stories, noting four main categories of response and identifying four typical responders. Types of response included (a) projections (attempts to understand, such as factual restatements, explanations and evaluations of behaviour), (b) generalizations or interpretations, (c) references to experience and/or self-references, and (d) irrelevancies. The responders comprised (a) those who participate fully and freely in the story, without generalizing from it or relating it to their own experience, (b) egocentric responders, who limit the story to their own associations and experience, (c) similarly egocentric responders, who advise story characters how to behave, and (d) those who project and generalize, and therefore reap the full benefit of new experience offered by the work.

Overall, Taba found that her students were preoccupied with story content, and in the initial stages, that projections, particularly factual restatements of stories, were the dominant type of response,

with explanations and analysis of behaviour in second place and self-reference in third. However, in the later stages of the research, Taba noted an overriding interest in explanations for and understanding of human behaviour coupled with a growth in objectivity and analytical ability. At the same time the irrelevant use of experience diminished and a marked decrease in self-reference occurred. The latter seems to have been welcomed as a means of combating pat solutions for complex problems, but in the context of response to literature per se, while much depends on the degree to which such associations depart from the original work, modern pedagogy supports connection of the text with personal experience. As indicated by Brumfit (1981), "The fundamental ability of a good reader of literature is the ability to generalize from the given text to either other aspects of the literary tradition or personal or social significances outside literature" (p. 246).

The research of Squire (1964), who later edited the Dartmouth Seminar report on literary response, involved the audiotaping and transcription of fifty-two 14-16 year old adolescents' responses as they read four short stories, and was, in some ways, more ambitious in its scope than studies previously mentioned, though its debt to them is obvious. Apart from his insistence (cf. Rosenblatt, 1978) on obtaining reactions while students were actually engaged in reading, Squire required an oral response and sought to discover whether literary response was correlated with intelligence, reading ability, socio-economic background, and aspects of personality and experience. He also aimed to isolate and analyse factors which might "create barriers to sound interpretations of literature" (p. 2), and to achieve

"a reliable, systematic, quantitative description of reading responses" (p. 16).

Amongst other findings, Squire found the quality of individual responses to be unrelated to intelligence and reading ability and only partially affected by personality and experiential background. However, low socioeconomic status seemed to "increase the percentage of narrational reactions, possibly because readers from culturally disadvantaged social grouping [sic] are less able to develop skill in reading," whereas high socioeconomic status was associated "with an increase in interpretational reactions" (p. 36). Establishing his own classification system, Squire identified seven categories of response: (a) literary judgments, (b) interpretational responses, (c) narrational reactions, (d) associational responses, (e) self-involvement, (f) prescriptive judgments, and (g) miscellaneous. Nearly a third of the total responses were interpretive, and just less than one sixth were narrational. Prescriptive and literary judgements represented the next largest classification.

Not unlike Richards, Squire noted and expanded on six widespread sources of difficulty which would tend to inhibit sound literary response: (a) failure to grasp meaning, (b) reliance on stock response, (c) marked 'happiness binding' (a romantic predilection for happy endings and an unwillingness to face the realities of unpleasant events), (d) critical predispositions, (e) irrelevant associations, and (f) the search for certainty. Based on these findings, Squire concluded that adolescents need help in interpreting literature, particularly because misinterpretations early in the text can affect their cumulative

judgment of the story. The identification of these sources of difficulty also confirmed Squire's pre-study theory that reader-reactions obtained while reading are much more illuminating than those obtained afterwards which "may conceal more than they reveal" (p. 1).

Wilson (1966) claims to have been one of the first to investigate "the influence of the classroom on responses to literature" (p. 1). Using the Squire system of categories, he worked with fifty-four college students from two freshman English classes at San Francisco State College. Tested beforehand on the verbal section of the School and College Ability Test, twenty-six of the students were found to be above the fortieth percentile and twenty-seven below. Three well-known novels were studied over a period of nine class sessions and the students wrote free written responses on each before and after study, which included seventy minutes of discussion on the novels led by the instructor, and a comparable seventy-five minutes led by student panels. Part of the instructor's time was devoted to intensive investigation of aspects of the novel which had caused disagreement, ending with an attempt to integrate conflicting views. A fundamental object of the discussions was to release the students from passive absorption of the instructor's ideas.

After statistical analysis of the results, nine subjects were chosen for a more qualitative, individual analysis. While the latter revealed no striking trends or changes as the result of study, the analysis demonstrated that the responses of the main student group had changed after instruction, both statistically and individually.

Post-study findings noted fewer literary judgements and self-involvement responses, less retelling of the story and more interpretation. Since both before and after study, miscellaneous responses were few, interpretation high, and misinterpretations negligible (compared to Squire's results), Wilson concluded that it was probably due to the increased age and sophistication of his subjects.

Wilson, who undertook his research in order to remedy a perceived lack of investigation into the effects of literature teaching, makes many interesting comments on his findings, two of which should be mentioned here. Firstly, he notes the limitations of content analysis, saying that ". . . coding a response as interpretational or as literary judgement was far from defining its shape" (p. 35). Secondly, like Rosenblatt (1978) and Hansson (1991), he recognizes that students' first reactions to a work may be groping and emotional, adding, "If the instructor wishes to encourage individual and honest reactions to literature, he should refrain from demanding that feelings or empathies be fully described, or logically argued for" (p. 40).

Beach (1973) used a slight modification of Purves' (1968) categories to code the responses of thirty-six junior and senior English majors at the University of Illinois, who were members of the same class. The group was randomly divided into three, each being given a different assignment. Subjects in one group were given a contemporary poem and a tape-cassette and asked to record their thoughts while reading, continuing for each rereading of the poem over a period of an hour. A second group was given the same poem and asked to write down their thoughts. The third group had to read the poem once. All three

groups then discussed the poem for a 45-minute class period. Two other poems were similarly assigned and discussed on two other occasions, each group receiving a different assignment every time.

After coding and establishing percentage means for each subject's responses and for each group, Beach found that responses to the three poems were similar and that subjects' private responses resembled those made in discussions. One reason for this homogeneity seemed to be that subjects tended to restate their previous thoughts fairly consistently. Nevertheless, subjects were noticeably willing to talk of their first feelings of personal involvement with the poems and easily recalled the various moods they had experienced while rereading them. The responses themselves seemed to indicate that subjects passed through various stages of response, beginning with autobiographical digression. For instance, those who had recorded or written down their rather personal reactions after reading the poems, did not carry them into the subsequent discussion, whereas those students who were simply assigned to read but not respond to the work, reacted more emotionally and personally in the discussions. Interestingly, Beach noted that the stages seemed to begin with perception, move to engagement and autobiographical digression, then to interpretation of the whole, "the later stages building on responses from previous stages" (p. 102). This implies, as Beach points out, that facts needed organizing before interpretation could take place. As a result of his findings, Beach also noted that, while student responses were inherently unique, their 'public' responses, designed to impress and compete, were "often an

exercise in redundancy, a formalized repetition of previous thoughts" (p. 112).

The doyen of the systematic, categorization of literary response for purposes of evaluation is Purves (1968, 1973). Faced with the need to make objective comparisons between large numbers of essays in a cross-national survey of student achievement in literature (inaugurated by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement or IEA in 1965), Purves was obliged to develop a complex, content analysis schema consisting of 139 elements comprising "all the possibilities that lie open to the essay writer each time he confronts a literary work" (1968, p. 3). These were arrived at through an exhaustive compilation of statements about a literary work from a number of scholars and critics, which were then compared with writings of students and teachers on the same work. These elements formed 24 sub-categories, and 5 main categories, which were more refined than those of Squire and less prone to overlapping (see Appendix A). Purves (1968) stressed that no attempt was made to group the original elements hierarchically nor according to any one principle; they were intended to be "critically sound and neutral" (p. 2). As Purves (1973) indicated in his report of the international study, the elements were successfully used to measure the response to literature of students of 14 and 18 years of age in Belgium, Chile, England, Finland, Iran, Italy, New Zealand, Sweden, and the United States. In a comparison (by sub-category) of responses from England, the United States and New Zealand, it was found that while sub-category 320 (interpretation of content) was the most frequent choice in the United States, in New Zealand and

England, the most predominant was 420 (evaluation of the author's method), an aesthetic criterion.

Sullivan (1974), who has used the Purves categories to show, amongst other things, that students in high schools can be influenced to change their patterns of response, believes that they can be useful to the classroom teacher when marking essays as well as to the researcher:

> By assigning an element number or abbreviation to each statement in an essay, or in a set, a teacher could discern the frequency of a particular type of response, a dominant pattern in a class, even the omission of a certain kind of response. This seems an easier and more objective method of characterizing response rather than relying on an impression (pp. 11-12).

Purves' schema has been used in a number of doctoral theses, such as those of Quirk (1982), Somers (1972), and Sullivan (1974) and by researchers like Morris (1976) and Odell and Cooper (1976). As the latter indicate, it is sometimes difficult to reconcile the evaluative aspect of Purves' categorization with the descriptive rather than judgmental stance that he advocates. According to Odell and Cooper, Purves solves this dilemma by arguing that some responses are more 'full' and therefore more satisfactory than others and that initial responses to student work should be descriptive rather than judgmental. "Instead of 'being seduced by the rightness or wrongness' of a student's observations, we need to look first at the kinds of response implicit in those observations and at how the student has gone about formulating those r. 'oonses" (Odell and Cooper, p. 204). Odell and Cooper go on to point out that Purves is less helpful in describing the process that students use when responding. In their response research, Odell and Cooper therefore supplement Purves' schema, mainly by drawing on

"descriptions of intellectual categories" from the rhetorical theory of Richard E. Young et al. (p. 204).

In Sweden, Hansson (1985) has carried out interesting research on literary response, sometimes with inexperienced readers, using 'semantic differential' or bi-polar verbal scales:

> One of the advantages with verbal scales is that they bypass the difficulties many people have in verbalizing their responses and describing qualities in these responses . . . . At the same time, however, the information the researcher gets will be limited to the dimensions in which he has defined his scales. That is one reason to combine them with other techniques (p. 231).

In one experiment described by Hansson, three groups of students from different levels of the Swedish educational system, aged 16, 18, and 20-25 (university students) respectively, responded to four poems chosen from ten, normally studied in Swedish schools. The assignment for all groups was identical. In all, 14 unipolar, 7-point scales with a 'not relevant' box added were developed, based mainly on teachers' answers to questionnaires concerning their experience, teaching practices, ways of introducing texts, use of different types of poetry analysis and difficulties experienced in teaching the poems. Besides responding to the scales, the student-readers were asked to explain some of the problems they experienced with the poems in writing, and were finally asked to evaluate the poems, giving as many reasons as possible for their judgments.

On the verbal scales, Hansson found striking similarities, despite the great differences in age, knowledge and experience of reading literature. However, the written responses showed "conspicuous differences" between the three student groups -- in the amount written,

in "their ability to use descriptive and expressive language to communicate what they had found in the poems, and -- most important perhaps -- in the content of their interpretations" (p. 220). Thus, according to Hansson, the scaled responses showed that the 16-year-olds had comparable basic linguistic ability to the other two groups, but lacked the ability to transfer it into a coherent, meaningful whole in words. Based on this finding, Hansson cautioned that different levels of response to literature must be distinguished.

Limiting themselves to the study of evaluative responses, Devries (1973) and Segers (1978), have made significant use of scaled responses. Devries constructed large, 15-point bi-polar scales for the use of volunteer, undergraduate students from thirteen sections of a Shakespeare course at the University of Illinois in the fall of 1971-2. The object of the research was to record subjects' changing responses to characters in The Tempest as they read the work at leisure, and to obtain information on their general response to the play itself.

In his doctoral thesis, Devries gives interesting reasons why he prefers the semantic differential scales to other methods of response. They include (a) their potential for rapid recording, (b) the fact that he believed them to be more efficient than either essays or many types of multiple-choice questions, (c) their usefulness in causing minimum interruption of reading, and (d) the economy of effort that their use involves. According to Devries, the sheer effort of responding in essay form risks a loss of response: "With the semantic differential, words do not need to be recalled but simply recognized and responded to" (p. 181).

Segers (1978), a Dutch researcher in the United States, used such scales in experiments on literary text evaluation with undergraduates, graduate students and faculty at Indiana and Yale Universities. His evaluative criteria were first obtained from graduate students who were asked to explain their preferences for various types of short story. The criteria were then used to construct seven-point scales, which respondents used to evaluate each of four selected short stories. As opposed to those who object to the use of these so-called positivistic methods, Seger's support for quantitative measurement in areas of literary communication was strengthened by his findings, which showed that text evaluation was based at least as much on factors such as novelty and impact as on personal taste.

One notable study of ESL students' response to literature was conducted by Fanselow (1974) with 60 ninth grade Spanish-English bilingual students in Manhattan. Selected to take part were 29 boys and 31 girls (34 above- and 26 below-average readers of Spanish and English on tests) who, in varying degrees, spoke both languages fluently. The research objective was to analyse the students' response to the same four short stories used by Squire (1964) in order to facilitate the teaching of short stories, not to make any systematic experimental comparison with Squire's findings. With certain exceptions, however, the procedures were similar. Responses varied somewhat according to story, but for all four stories together, results were as follows: narrational responses: just over 40%; interpretational responses: just below 40%; literary judgment: just below 10%; self-involvement: below 5%. Associational responses, prescriptive judgments and miscellaneous

statements were barely above 0%. Variables, such as reading ability, age, sex, cultural traits were not found to be statistically significant. Certain minor differences between Squire's findings and those of Fanselow were noted; e.g. the bilingual students were less self-involved, showed more respect for and interest in story characters from different age groups and were less concerned with uncertain story outcomes. Finally, while Fanselow noted the limited range and depth of the responses, including the superficiality of the literary judgments, he also emphasized the perceptive nature of the character interpretations, expressed the view that narrational responses might have a deeper significance than is currently believed and suggested that the responses of second language students needed to be questioned and probed to better reveal their meaning.

Two studies concerned with the effect of cultural background on reading comprehension should be briefly mentioned here. Both involve EFL students' reactions to American short stories.

In the Philippines, Gatbonton & Tucker (1971), worked with both an experimental and a control group of Filipino high school students and a comparable control group of American students from Clark Air Force Base. At the time, it was normal for the Filipino students to study either American or British literature, but it had been noticed that they did not seem to enjoy or appreciate the stories. It was suspected that comprehension problems arising from "cultural filtering" (p. 142) was responsible, so the research was designed to test this hypothesis. During their second lesson, the experimental group of Filipino students was given specific opportunities to read and discuss selected American

short stories with particular reference to cultural differences, to see if, after their third lesson with two similar but new stories, test results would show significant similarities to the American group and marked differences from the Filipino control group. Findings confirmed the latter, but not the former, where the likeness was only partial. Although future, more complex experiments were considered necessary, it was decided that future American story selections should be glossed to highlight relevant cultural differences, at least for teachers and perhaps also for students. The researchers were sufficiently encouraged to believe that an effective program could be designed "to reduce the effects of cultural . . . bias" (p. 142).

The second experiment was more complex; it was conducted by Bensoussan and Rosenhouse (1987) at Haifa University, Israel, with equal numbers of native speakers of Hebrew and Arabic first-year EFL students of reading comprehension, from various university departments. The researchers were interested to discover to what extent comprehension difficulties were due to the students' varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds, to the fact that some were bilingual and/or trilingual, and/or to unfamiliar cultural conventions in the text. The situation was often more complicated for Arabic students since for many of them Hebrew was the second language and English the third. Moreover, it was noted that, for native speakers of Arabic, "there is a wide gap between the colloquial mother tongue and the formally-learnt literary Arabic " (p. 324).

Within a period of two hours, the subjects were required to make a written translation, in their native language, of a 530-word extract

from a short story by Scott-Fitzgerald, 'Bernice Bobs Her Hair.' For Israeli students, this was a familiar type of exercise. To make sure that all students had understood the main points, the translations were followed by two comprehension questions. The story was purposely chosen for its clear story line, difficult, idiomatic vocabulary, and its unusual social and cultural background; it was believed to be equally unfamiliar to both groups. Discourse analysis was used to determine what type of translation errors were made most frequently and to differentiate between errors made as the result of reading comprehension difficulty and those indicating lack of language proficiency.

Some interesting and relevant aspects of the findings include the fact that Arabic speakers tended to find literary Arabic more difficult than comparably skilled Hebrew speakers found written Hebrew; that, in accordance with language theory, the more languages spoken, the greater the amount of language interference; and that Arabic speakers seemed to find the cultural gap between them and the story greater than Hebrew speakers. With reference to the latter, the researchers, as in the Philippines experiment, advocated the use of explicit, prior discussion of culturally unfamiliar textual items.

As Iser (1978) points out, since "a literary text can only produce a response when it is read, it is virtually impossible to describe this response without also analysing the reading process" (p. ix). There is no lack of research on the latter, but, in the last decade, a growing body of research has focused specifically on reading in a second language (Zvetina, 1987). As an example, Zvetina mentions the work of Bernhardt, who notes the view promulgated in most reading models that

". . .'the comprehender is an active participant in the comprehension process who perceives and selects features of the text...for processing' . . ." (cited in Zvetina, p. 234). Before describing her own reading model, Bernhardt acknowledges, describes, and then rejects Coady's psycholinguistic model of an ESL reader, mainly because of its first-language origins and lack of field testing. Her own "constructionist model" of second-language reading, properly derived from second language recall data, ". . . includes the components of prior knowledge, word recognition, phonemic/graphemic features, metacognition, syntactic feature recognition, and intra-textual perceptions" (cited in Zvetina, p. 234).

As Carrell (1988) indicates, it is only recently that second and foreign language reading has been recognized in this way -- as an active/interactive process like native language reading. Earlier work, particularly in ESL reading, "assumed a rather passive, bottom-up, view" of it, so that reading comprehension was seen as essentially a decoding problem. With these new insights has come the realization that ESL/EFL readers, especially those in higher education, cannot perform successfully nor "compete with their native English-speaking counterparts" without "solid reading proficiency" (Carrell, p. 1).

Although most ESL/EFL reading research has been concerned mainly with expository text, as indicated earlier, reference will be made to that part of the research most relevant to the present study; for instance, to the work of Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) and Carrell (1984) on schema theory, including the rhetorical structures and organization of texts; of Yorio (1971) on related reading problems

experienced by foreign-language learners; to the work of Cohen and Hosenfield (1981) on the ways in which mentalistic research methods can be used to improve second language reading skills; to that of Brumfit (1981), Schulz (1983), and Byrnes (1985), on the non-native students' need for authentic, content area materials; and to the work of Cohen et al. (1988), and Aslanian (1985) on various ESL/EFL test results. Nystrand and Gamoran's (Nystrand, 1991) experiment on the importance of curriculum and instruction in literature study will also be described.

As Carrell and Eisterhold point out, schema theory, which emphasizes the important role of background knowledge in language comprehension (a hitherto neglected area of EFL/ESL reading), hinges on the fundamental belief that text itself does not carry meaning; rather, the latter is constructed by the reader as he/she attempts to activate the appropriate background knowledge structures or schemata in the course of reading. A distinction is drawn between formal schemata which focus on "background knowledge of the formal, rhetorical organizational structures of different types of text" (p. 560), and content schemata which are often culturally based and/or depend on familiarity with textual content areas. Included in the former is recognition of differences in genre, in the structure of simple stories, fables, poetry and newspaper articles, for instance, as well as of various kinds of expository text. Research on the effects of rhetorical organization of text on ESL readers (Carrell, 1984) shows that "more tightly organized comparison, causation, and problem/solution types" (p. 464), tend to result in better recall/retention of ideas. However, a study conducted by Carrell with 80 foreign students at the three highest levels in an

intensive English program at Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, suggested that, with the exception of a proportion of Spanish speakers, most of the students, particularly those of non-Western origin, failed to identify the particular rhetorical organization of the text, presumably because they did not possess the appropriate formal schema. Explicit reading instruction devoted to discourse structure identification could remedy this and thus improve reading comprehension and retention (Carrell, 1984). If ESL/EFL readers fail to activate a certain content schema (as in the case of the Arabic students at Haifa University, Israel, pp. 29-30, this paper), it may be because the cultural conventions of the text being read are too unfamiliar (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983). 'Narrow' reading, whereby students read texts on one topic and/or by a single author, as suggested by Krashen, and Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) of student-selected texts, are also cited by Carrell and Eisterhold as means of enriching students' content schema.

Using a questionnaire specially designed to identify the self-perceived reading problems of 30 literate, adult native Spanish speakers at the English Language Institute (ELI), Cosquin, Argentina, Yorio (1971) shows how complex those problems really are and what they imply for improved second-language reading instruction and text selection. According to Yorio, second-language readers invariably see their main difficulty as one of vocabulary acquisition; his students were no exception. However, he shows that, in fact, they have many more complex problems, not the least of which is the "psycholinguistic guessing game" involving the prediction, association and recollection of

reading cues, compounded by native language interference and unfamiliarity with the code:

> . . . At any given point of the reading process, the reader is both predicting future cues and making associations with the past cues that he has stored in his memory. The native speaker does this unconsciously; for the foreign reader, this is a slow and difficult process. The prediction of future cues is restricted by his imperfect knowledge of the language; moreover, because he has to recall unfamiliar cues, his memory span is very short; he therefore easily forgets the cues that he has already stored. These two factors make associations insecure, slow, and difficult (p. 110).

Yorio, a non-native, but fluent speaker of English himself, suggests that teachers be sympathetic to the ESL/EFL readers' preoccupation with words and bilingual dictionaries, but aim to counter it by emphasizing and testing overall comprehension from the outset. Passages for reading should be neither lengthy nor so short that cues would be insufficient in number, and those with a "story-line" such as novels and short stories are preferable because they serve as a guide "for predicting future cues and recollecting past ones" (p. 113) (cf. student-majority response questionnaire, claiming textbooks and fiction to be easier to read than newspapers and magazines, Yorio, p. 113).

Cohen and Hosenfield (1981) focus on the value of mentalistic techniques (the investigation of mental states) in second-language learning, believing that "learners themselves may have important insights into how they learn" (p. 289). As Hosenfield (1976) said, "Too often our focus has been what students should be doing; we must begin asking what students are doing" (p. 128). Cohen and Hosenfield (1981) describe two major ways of studying a mental state: "thinking aloud and self-observation," the former performed almost concurrently with the

activity being investigated, the latter, either an immediate reflection or "introspection" on the activity, or a later "retrospection." If, however, "introspection" is reflected upon a short time later, it becomes "immediate retrospection" whereas, if a longer interval elapses, the researchers term it "delayed retrospection" (p. 286) Amongst other research on multiple skills, oral communication, and writing with a focus on grammar, Cohen and Hosenfield review six reading studies using some or all of the techniques mentioned above. Three of those aimed to investigate the process used by second-language readers and to help them "acquire new reading strategies" (p. 295). The remaining studies form the basis of the Cohen et al. (1988) study to be described later. The first three experiments, which were each conducted in New York with various American students enrolled in foreign language courses, demonstrated that successful and unsuccessful readers use different strategies to derive meaning from text, and that the latter type of reader can be taught more efficient reading methods. The researchers, who found the "step-by-step" information on students' reading processes very illuminating, listed ways in which teachers could help less successful students and cautioned that more empirical data were needed on other activities such as note-taking and that data-collecting tasks required further refinement.

Brumfit (1981) is strongly of the opinion that to be really effective, the development of skills in the target language must take place in the context of a worthwhile body of information -- a content area -- such as literature can provide. Byrnes (1985) too, while not specifying literature, makes a similar point, arguing for the second

language to be conveyed through subject-matter knowledge, which would provide authentic reading and reading tasks. In a related approach, Schulz (1983), concerned that teachers of second-language reading should recognize the differing needs of beginning and advanced students, maintained that preparation for reading authentic materials should begin at the intermediate level.

In different ways, both Cohen et al. (1988) and Aslanian (1985), have presented somewhat surprising findings in connection with ESL/EFL reading. Four studies conducted by Cohen et al. (1988) with mainly non-native English-speaking students of genetics, biology, political science and history at Haifa University, Israel, coincided with research indicating non-native reading problems with highly specialized textbooks, and documentation showing how second language students could help themselves with reading difficulties by describing them to researchers (Hosenfield, 1976). Amongst others, the three main findings emphasized: student problems with "heavy noun phrase subjects and objects; syntactic markers of cohesion, and . . . nontechnical vocabulary in technical texts" (p. 158). The latter was particularly astonishing because the language teachers concerned had always assumed that ensuring familiarity with technical vocabulary was their most important objective. A few examples of the time sequence/frequency 'problem' words show that although not highly technical, they could have been critically important for comprehension: "eventual, perpetual, succeeding, ensuing, preceding, progressively, simultaneously, alternately . . ." (p. 164).

While, in the first three studies, the researchers designed questions which focused on problem areas, in the fourth, they concentrated on comprehension, using questions which "required some integration or generalization from specific sentences in order to answer . . ." (p. 157). They concluded that it might have been more fruitful to ask how learners went about solving problems in reading in general rather than concentrating on what was problematic about reading texts in a foreign language. Aslanian's (1985) study, in which he recorded, in detail, the immediate reactions of three of his own high-intermediate ESL students to the same excerpt from an expository text, resembles that of Cohen et al. in that it highlights more unexpected reading difficulties of non-native readers and, at the same time, demonstrates the efficacy of individual, "verbal interaction" (p. 21) techniques which make revelation of those difficulties possible.

Aslanian points out that in testing comprehension by methods such as multiple choice, the cloze procedure and/or questioning without further probing for explanations, very deceiving results can ensue:

> . . . very often the student is able to come up with the right answers to most of the questions by means of the clues that are available either in the text or in the test items, without bothering much about the meaning relationships, organization of the text, the reasoning pattern of the exposition, or what the text generally means, for that matter. Alternatively, he or she might be able to make sense of the text reasonably well in spite of failing to select the right answers to some of the test items (pp. 20-21).

Such tests "do not reflect what has gone on in the mind of the reader, nor do they tell us much about how the reader has arrived at certain decisions with regard to the tasks" (p. 21).

Aslanian uses two fill-in-the-blank, multiple-choice-type

questions as entry points to each of his three students' transcribed responses. The latter, together with his perceptive comments and suggestions for remedial teaching, are valuable and relevant in the context of ESL reading problems.

Nystrand and Gamoran (Nystrand, 1991) conducted an experiment which demonstrated that "curriculum and instruction significantly affect the difficulty or ease that students experience with literature" (p.152), particularly in the areas of recall and depth of understanding. They worked with 1,041 students in 58 eighth grade literature classes in 16 mid-western American schools, of which three were rural and white, four suburban and mostly white, and nine were urban, with students of mixed socio-economic and ethnic background. The instructional procedures of the schools were examined, using questionnaires, and each school was observed four times, twice in spring and twice in the fall. Students were tested on short stories, drama and a novel that they had studied in eighth grade, the tests involving probing questions on story characters, themes, conflicts and endings etc.. The study controlled for race, ethnicity, sex, socio-economic status and grade. Teachers were observed according tc the following criteria: (a) number of authentic (open-ended) questions asked, (b) periods of discussion of literature in terms of students' own experience, (c) amount of 'uptake' (teachers' incorporation of student views into subsequent discussions) employed, (d) deliberate relation of works to other readings, and (e) time devoted to discussion. Results included the following: (a) approximately 12% of teachers' questions were authentic, (b) just 11% of all questions involved 'uptake,' and (c) on average, less than a minute

daily was spent on discussion. Most writing was of the short-answer type; paragraphs and essays of more than a page were far less common.

To demonstrate how far from ideal the study data shows this teaching situation to be, Nystrand describes a hypothetical literature class which promotes both recall and depth of understanding. It would emphasize (a) regularly assigned homework to be completed by all students, (b) frequent paragraph and page-length writing rather than short-answer exercises, (c) class time characterized by numerous authentic questions with maximum 'uptake,' (d) regular discussions probing student responses to their own and others writing and reading (cf. Robinson, 1973), and (e) a particular effort by teachers to help students see the relationship of literature to their own experience.

The Rationale for the Study

This selective but by no means exhaustive survey of the related research on response to literature illustrates to what extent existing studies are mostly centred on average to above-average native English speakers in high schools, colleges and/or universities, while EFL/ESL research is focused more on students' reading comprehension problems with expository text. It further emphasizes, as was intimated in the introductory chapter, how fixed, long-standing attitudes to literature and literary education have inevitably acted as a break on the development of more creative teaching methodologies and, if only by implication, of more comprehensive literary response research.

The precise effect of these attitudes on research in reader-response to literature, is best understood in the broad philosophical, historical and literary context of reader-response theory and research, and the reader- or 'audience-orientated' criticism (Suleiman, 1980) now associated with it. According to Cooper (1985), that research tradition, particularly in the educational sphere, goes back at least to Rosenblatt's (1938) original statement of her reader-response theory, which, as indicated earlier, stressed the interdependence of text and reader and the active rather than passive nature of readers. In Anglo-American critical circles, this theory was in direct opposition to the current and subsequent views of the New Critics, who believed in the autonomy of the text and feared that a standard of criticism derived from readers' subjective experiences of a work could only end in relativism (Tomkins, 1980). During the years 1930-1960, despite their adherence to different movements, such critics, including their European counterparts and even others normally antagonistic to New Criticism, were united in their "common and unquestioned assumption that critical discourse was a commentary about, and measured by, an objective text . . ." (E. Wasiolek, cited in Tomkins, p. x).

However, once this position on the status of the text was assailed, as it increasingly was between the 60s and 70s by reading theorists, literary and reader-response theorists and critics alike, focus shifted in varying degrees away from the autonomous text to the reader (or audience) and his/her role in determining meaning. As Cooper (1985) has shown, a surprising number of potentially fundamental changes

flowed from this apparently slight shift in perspective. For instance, by the mid-70s, the realization that reading comprehension depended in part on the interaction of readers' knowledge and expectations with the constraints of the text, greatly stimulated educational and psychological research into the nature of reading comprehension; and for many literary theorists, attention was gradually transferred to the reading experience, not only of the general reader but also of particular readers and readings. Similarly, in varying degrees, the implications of reader-response theory have affected attitudes to literature, emphasizing "the value of literature for self-knowledge and for understanding others" and "the importance of individual consciousness . . ." while concurrently undermining the rationale for dependence on "critical authority and received knowledge . . ." (Cooper, pp. xii-xiii) in the classroom.

That literary response research is only in its infancy is surely acknowledged by Hansson (1985) when he admits that "we know shockingly little of what constitutes response to literature" and that

> There are almost no limits to the amount of research that is needed before we know even the gross outlines of what goes on in the reading processes where the latent meanings, qualities, and structures of works of literature are realized in the minds of readers" (p.226).

His suggested remedies include the need for specially designed empirical research of all kinds: survey-type research to yield reliable data on large groups of representative readers; research on evaluative problems to aid publishers, libraries, and book buyers; information on how groups of people from all parts of society read and/or appreciate the same works and how, from generation to generation, such groups react to

well-known works. For the benefit of teachers, curriculum designers and editors of anthologies, research is also needed to determine when students have the necessary levels of linguistic ability and experiential maturity to successfully study any particular work. Lastly, Hansson (1985, 1991) emphasizes the importance he attaches to the first, tentative, and often ignored responses to literature of ordinary readers, preferably those reactions caught in the preliminary stages by means of verbal scales and/or early discussion, or through initial oral/written responses made in the course of reading.

As suggested by Purves and Beach (1972), the present study seeks to widen the field of research in response to literature to include and investigate the responses of adult students, some of whom are differentiated by both cognitive style and geographic and/or ethnic background from the subjects of most existing research. Using the Purves (1968) literary response classification schema, it further aims (following Hansson, 1985, 1991) to compare the initial, unstructured oral and written responses of comparable ESL and ENL students to unfamiliar short fiction in order to examine the nature of untutored response and to determine whether the ESL subjects are at a disadvantage vis à vis their peers. The design which guided this study is outlined in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Design of the Study

In this chapter, the design of the study, the selection of the stories, the sample, and the procedures for data collection and coding of the responses are described.

The Design

The primary objective of the present study was to examine, describe, and compare the responses of 19 adult ENL and ESL students to short fiction. For this purpose, each student met individually with the researcher for three sessions. During the introductory sessions, students, all of whom were volunteers, were asked to complete a biographical and reading questionnaire (see Appendix B). With the researcher's help, they then practised reading silently and responding orally to a selected practice story. At two subsequent sessions of over an hour each, students silently read two unfamiliar and contrasting short stories (one on each occasion) which were divided into seven sections. While reading, students were asked to underline unfamiliar vocabulary. They were then encouraged to respond orally as each section of text was read. These responses were audiotaped. After a second reading of the entire story, students were asked to provide an

unstructured, written response to the story from memory. Finally, on uni-polar scales, students rated two lists of adjectives, each one associated with one of the stories.

Using Purves' (1968) system of classification for the study of response to literature, the written responses were first coded according to elements from which sub-categories were later derived to permit comparison with the subsequent sub-category coding of the oral responses. The results were then collated, tabulated and converted to percentage means for later analysis. Associated but secondary objectives of the study aimed to note any marked differences in response to the two contrasted stories, in male versus female responses and between unstructured written responses, and verbal scales, believed by Hansson (1991) to provide a significant, alternative means of response for students with less verbal ability.

Selection of the Stories

The following factors influenced the selection of the short stories to be used in the study:

1. It was necessary that at least one of the stories not yield too readily to "automatic assimilation" (Rosenblatt, 1978, p. 10), but provide ample opportunities for possible reinterpretation of earlier assumptions.
2. Closely associated with the above requirement was the need to provide contrasting stories, one preferably poetic and abstract, the

other, apparently easier, more narrational and concrete but capable of being read on more than one level.

3. Ideally, the stories needed to be of a similar grade level to those normally used in college reading development courses.

4. Because of the need for students to read and respond to each story in one session, brevity was essential (Sage, 1987).

5. It was thought that more contemporary stories would appeal to and better utilize the background knowledge of both ESL and ENL students.

6. It was doubly desirable that the stories should be unknown, not only so as not to benefit any particular student, but also so that the emphasis would be on reading rather than recall (Cooper 1985).

7. As long as they were neither too long nor too short to provide sufficient cues, complete stories rather than extracts were considered preferable (Yorio 1971).

8. Since the study was concerned particularly with responses to literature, the literary quality of the chosen stories was an important consideration (Squire 1964).

Three contrasting stories were selected for the study. The first was chosen for initial, practice purposes (see Appendix C), the other two for the main study. The practice story was "The Story of an Hour" by Kate Chopin (1969). The two others were "Woman in the Middle" ("Woman . . .") by Arturo Arias (1989), a Guatemalan writer, translated from the Spanish by Nick Caistor and "Action Will Be Taken: An Action-Packed Story" ("Action . . .") by Heinrich Böll (1966), translated from the German by Leila Vennewitz (see Appendix D).

Concerning readability, it was hoped to establish a grade level of 9 - 10 for all three stories as measured by the Dale-Chall Readability Formula (Dale & Chall, 1948), but this only proved true of the third story: "Action Will Be Taken . . .". The grade levels for both "The Story of an Hour" and "Woman in the Middle" ("Woman . . .) were found to be approximately from 7 - 8. However, since "The Story of an Hour" is included in the college reading development course book, and "Woman . . ." is stylistically difficult and requires specific background knowledge (Zakaluk & Samuels, 1988), they were both retained.

The Selection of the Sample

The 'selection' of the adult student volunteers required for the study took place intermittently during a period of just over a year, from June 1991 - August 1992. Unlike studies of children in school, precise plans for the complete process could not be drawn up beforehand, nor could help in the identification of suitable candidates normally be asked of instructors.

From the outset, any would-be volunteer had to satisfy certain broad conditions before he/she could be accepted. For example, volunteers were required to (a) be entry-level college students, (b) take and pass the same specified developmental reading course having failed mandatory tests of adult basic English, including the Nelson-Denny Reading Test, Form E (Brown, Bennett & Hanna, 1981), and (c) be truly consenting and 'informed' volunteers -- that is, be well aware of

the purpose and requirements of the study and of their rights to withdraw from it at any time.

While the latter criterion ensured that prospective volunteers knew of the researcher's intention to try to muster equal numbers of ENL and ESL students of both sexes, neither the final number of volunteers, nor their exact distribution in terms of language group or gender could be ensured beforehand. Similarly, whether equally representative groups would finally be established, and, if so, over what period of time, could not be foreseen. Such problems constitute two of many difficulties that confront the researcher seeking adult volunteer subjects.

At the time of their participation in the study, most of the selected student-volunteers were already enrolled in evening or summer sessions of the required reading development course. Like many adult students for whom study time is limited, they were often subject to a variety of pressures. These included other courses, domestic commitments, and/or part-time day or night jobs. For such reasons, it was often necessary to schedule student-researcher meetings at widely separated times and/or at one of three different venues.

The methods by which volunteer students were made aware of the study were necessarily varied. In many cases, generous instructors allowed the researcher to visit their classes to explain the nature of the study and distribute explanatory leaflets, together with appointment sheets and a telephone number to contact. On other occasions, comparable leaflets were distributed to students as they arrived to write their basic English test. In a few instances, students from the

researcher's own classes volunteered. Advertisements asking for volunteers were periodically placed on college bulletin boards. On one notable occasion, Cantonese and Vietnamese versions were posted, together with the offer of a small honorarium, which ultimately resulted in the participation of one suitably qualified Cantonese-speaking student.

These difficulties aside, by the end of the first week of August 1992, twenty qualified volunteer students (ten ENL, ten ESL, evenly divided according to gender) had completed their part in the study. The final number of twenty (5 x 4) was, to a large extent, determined by the first participants -- five ENL females who volunteered in the same week during the summer of 1991. From that point on, it was established that matching numbers would be sought for each of the remaining three sections, while no further ENL female students would be accepted.

Although two ENL males, two ESL males and three ESL females also volunteered at different times that summer and during the fall, subsequent participation in every section slowed down considerably, with the result that the necessary numbers in each group had to be built up very gradually throughout the period from January to August 1992.

Because of the difficulty of recruiting new volunteers at that time, no apparently qualified and willing students were turned away, at least until any given section had reached its target figure of five, even if, on occasion, the student's basic English test results were not yet known. One ENL male, who was willing to take this risk, completed all three sessions, only to find that his high test scores finally rendered him ineligible for the study.

During the course of the 1992 period, two ESL females and one ESL male withdrew of their own volition after the introductory session. A third ESL female, who completed all three study sessions, was later found to be ineligible since she had, unbeknown to her, satisfied the requirements of the basic English test.

Although the twenty students who finally completed the study satisfied certain common eligibility requirements, one female ENL student with a medical disability eventually had to be dropped because her scores were atypical to the point that they distorted those of her section as a whole. In addition, it was not possible to control for many other variables inherent in the group, such as disparities in reading comprehension, English usage and vocabulary development levels highlighted by the basic English test. Still other variables included: wide differences in age, in length, nature and recency of education and in final programme objectives. ESL students further differed according to: language and country of origin, ability to understand and speak English, experience of formal education in English and length and permanency of stay in Canada (see Appendix E).

Collection of Data

Each eligible student undertook to work with the researcher at mutually acceptable times for three separate sessions of one hour, one hour and a quarter, and one hour and a half respectively. Although it was originally hoped that the introductory meeting could be a group session, this proved possible on only two occasions and never with more

than two students. The data were therefore mainly collected on an individual basis.

The object of the initial session was three-fold: to establish a friendly and relaxed relationship between student and researcher in which the former felt able to ask questions and voice opinions; to ask the student to complete a biographical and reading questionnaire; finally, to practise the method of oral 'think aloud' response to a short story, using identical, pre-prepared copies of the selected text, one each for researcher and student.

The main reason for using the oral responses was to gauge the student's immediate reactions to an unfamiliar text. This,in turn, involved dispensing temporarily with certain pedagogically desirable activities such as pre-reading, the availability of dictionaries and opportunities for reflection, as well as any prior instruction. More controversially, since the oral response method aims to cull participants' reactions during, rather than after reading, students were not able to read straight through the selected short stories in the normal way but were required to read and respond to them at several predetermined points.

Hence, the practice story, Chopin's "The Story of an Hour," was divided into approximately equal sections, each usually indicative of a new development in the story-line and delimited from the others by two short parallel lines, thus // (Squire 1964). Guided by the diacritical marks, the student was then asked to read the story once silently, section by section, and to respond orally as if thinking aloud at the end of each. In order to encourage the most spontaneous and

unstructured responses possible, students were asked to think of each segment of text as a puzzle to be solved out loud. They were also told that the researcher would help them where necessary by commenting and asking questions (Lanian, 1985). Finally, to enable the researcher to estimate to what extent vocabulary difficulties hindered comprehension, students were asked to underline any unfamiliar words that they encountered while reading. Since it was not known beforehand how well ESL subjects would be able to respond orally, their practice responses were audiotaped. The necessary equipment was set up beforehand and the researcher explained that she needed to remember all that was said and could not do so without the audiotape. Participants did not appear to be constrained by this.

The second session with any given student usually began with a friendly exchange of greetings and small talk to re-establish the convivial atmosphere of the first. Researcher and student then prepared to read their respective copies of "Woman in the Middle" which, like the practice story, was divided into pre-determined sections. Students were first asked if they had read the story before. Each one was then reminded of the way in which he/she had learned to respond in the practice session and reassured that the researcher would assist as before if necessary. It was suggested, however, that the student would probably be able to respond much more independently than before. As the second and third working sessions were always audiotaped, the equipment was again set up in advance and, for the benefit of ENL students who had not been recorded before, the same explanation, given above, was made.

When students had read and commented on the entire story, they were asked to re-read it straight through, both to counter the fragmentary effect of the original reading and to provide them with their first opportunity to read the story as a whole. Without reference to the text, students were then asked to respond to the story in writing (see Appendix F). To avoid a mere repetition of the oral responses, it was suggested that they give their opinions of the story.

Finally, using a 7-point, uni-polar scale, with a box for 'Not Relevant' outside it, students rated 38 adjectives suggestive of the story or its setting according to their relevance or irrelevance. This was done by circling one number only for each adjective over the entire scale, from Not Relevant to Not Applicable to Very Applicable.

The same procedure was followed for the second story, "Action Will Be Taken: An Action-Packed Story." The uni-polar scale for the latter consisted of 22 adjectives suggestive of either the story or its characters, or irrelevant to both (see Appendix G).

Coding of the Responses

Written Responses

The students' written responses (or essays) were coded and analysed before the oral responses because they were considerably shorter than the latter and could therefore more quickly furnish a preview of what might be expected from the group. The papers were first typed (without any changes) to make them easier to read. Using Purves'

(1968) method of content analysis (see Appendix A), they were then coded by 'element.' This involved the use of an increasingly discriminating three-digit coding procedure, in which the first digit is indicative of one among five broad categories, the second, one out of twenty-four sub-categories and the third, one of some 139 possible elements which could be used to describe and discriminate between a writer's (or reader's) statements. The exact procedure for coding is explained in "The Practical Reader," a coding guide by Rippere (Purves, 1968, pp. 67-81).

For the present study, three teachers, including the researcher, first read all thirty-eight written responses (nineteen for each story) and broke each one down into statements so that the total number per paper could be established (see Appendix F for coding samples Each statement was separated from the next by a slash and numbered consecutively with superscript numerals; e.g. I enjoyed the story./[1] It reminded me of my own country./[2] As defined by Rippere, a statement includes "anything that is set off by its own terminal punctuation, including sentence fragments and epithets; thus, '"Fie! No quotation marks!"' (p. 68) is scored as two statements. Depending on the degree of precision required, Rippere suggests that compound sentences joined by coordinate conjunctions (<u>and</u>, <u>but</u>, <u>or</u>, <u>nor</u>, <u>for</u>), or by conjunctive adverbs (<u>however</u>, <u>nonetheless</u>, etc.) be scored as two, while most sentences with causal and conditional subordination be scored as one statement. She also notes that on occasion, one simple statement may need to be broken into two because each part would fall into a different

'element' classification; e.g. "This story is unbelievable and unpunctuated" (p. 74).

Before attempting the coding proper, the researcher worked with the other teachers using the responses of ineligible subjects and those from sample essays (with the coding removed) provided in Rippere's coding guide (pp. 75-81), to obtain adequate practice. Each teacher was supplied with a copy of Purves' (1968) "Summary of the elements of writing about a literary Work" (pp. 9-46), which describes the characteristics of each element in detail, a copy of Rippere's coding guide, mentioned above, and a copy of Purves' abbreviated "Summary and code list" (pp. 83-86) for scoring, and reporting student essays (see Appendix A).

When all three researchers were familiar with the coding procedures, each was given his/her own copy of the thirty-eight written responses (or essays) -- nineteen based on "Woman in the Middle' and nineteen on "Action Will Be Taken." Within each group of nineteen, the essays were arranged in the following order: ESL female, ESL male, ENL female, ENL male, but within those categories the responses, identified by first name only, were randomized. The researchers were then asked to independently code any four papers, preferably from different language groups, and to meet again in a few days to discuss any problems that had arisen.

As anticipated, a number of difficulties were encountered. Most were subsequently resolved at the meeting. For instance, it was noted that the shorter "Summary and code list" included, in each category, a 'General Element'(0) for vague statements, as well as three-digit code

numbers for the other elements, which did not appear in the earlier more detailed exposition (or 'Summary' of the elements) to which reference had to be constantly made. All these three-digit code numbers, including the General Element numbers were, therefore, added to the researchers' copies, making the cross-referencing from list to exposition and vice versa much easier. The decision was then made to code as Miscellaneous General (500), various statements for which no category was provided in Purves' scheme, such as the following: "I would not mind finding more of the same style of story in the future." It was agreed that at some later time, it might be useful to create some added elements under the Miscellaneous category to differentiate more precisely between various types of miscellaneous statements seemingly particularly characteristic of this group of students.

Sporadic discussions concerning coding problems took place among the researchers until all statements had been independently coded. A series of meetings was then arranged at which researchers reported their individual codings. These codings were recorded and collated, and all two- and three-way agreements noted. Finally, researchers sought, by reasoned argument, to maximize consensus on the coding of every statement in the thirty-eight written responses. In consequence, an inter-rater agreement for 289 out of a total of 292 statements (98.97%) was established. The resulting negotiated two- and three-way agreements were recorded for each participating student. It should be noted that the process of negotiation, in some cases, produced (a) an increase in the number of elements utilized and (b) significant changes in category.

Oral Responses

Having coded the written responses by element and found that many elements were not reflected in them, it was decided to code the oral responses using the twenty-four sub-categories, which would still allow a comparison with the written responses. Purves (1968) himself found scoring by element "somewhat unwieldy" (p. 48) under certain conditions.

Before coding, the oral responses were transcribed. The first three sections of each student's response to both stories were then divided into statements as agreed by two researchers. Each statement was marked off from the next by a slash (/) and then numbered as before. The inter-rater agreement process was also somewhat different from that used with the written responses. Of the 166.7 pages produced in response to sections 1 - 3 of both stories, seventeen were independently coded by the two researchers. The degree of inter-rater agreement (91.17%) which this independent coding of the 340 statements involved (12.27% of a total of 2769 statements) indicates the reliability of the coding system. One researcher alone coded the remaining 149.7 pages.

Unfamiliar Vocabulary (from the two stories)

All words underlined by each of the participating students in the seven sections of each story, whether repeated more than once or not, were listed. Repeated words were then eliminated from the list leaving one example only, taken from the section in which it first occurred. Hyphenated words, such as 'maize-field' or compound words such as 'tree

trunk' were recorded as follows (depending on whether both or only one part the word was underlined): *-* to indicate the underlining of both parts, and *- or -* to indicate the underlining of the first or last part respectively. In other cases, where groups of words had been underlined, these were listed in parentheses (. . .) with the significant word printed in CAPITALS; e.g. (PREGNANT with action). If pregnant alone was underlined, it was recorded thus: *. If the full phrase was underlined, then it was recorded thus: (*. . .*). Words listed show the distribution for individual students whether from the ESL or ENL group (see Appendix H, Tables H-1 to H-14).

Verbal Scales

With each scale given a value from 0 - 7 (not relevant to not, or very applicable), both the ESL and ENL student ratings of the adjectives for each of the two stories were collated and recorded. Means were then obtained for both ESL and ENL females and males and from these, total means for each were derived.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this chapter, analyses of the data are presented. In addition, the findings for each section -- written responses, oral responses, unfamiliar vocabulary from the stories, and verbal scales -- are discussed.

Written Responses (by element)

Frequency counts for each element were performed on the thirty-eight coded written responses (10 ESL and 9 ENL students, responding to both stories) and percentage distributions were obtained. Means were then derived from the responses of each of the four groups identified in the research questions (ESL, ENL, Female and Male students) to (A) '2 Stories' (both stories together), to (B) "Woman . . ." and (C) "Action . . ." respectively. For each of these story groupings (A, B and C), 'All Groups' (or total) percentage means were finally obtained (see Appendix I, Tables I-1 and I-2).

Among this student population, only 55 of the possible 139 descriptive elements listed by Purves (1968) were represented and, as can be seen from the tables, the distribution of those was exceedingly uneven. This may in part be associated with the marked difference in the number of response statements made for either story, which varied from four to seventeen.

Table 1 demonstrates the procedure by which, following Purves (1968), frequency counts and percentage distributions were established. In the example shown, student SLF2 wrote seven statements in response to (B) "Woman. . ." which were distributed among five different elements as follows:

Table 1

WRITTEN RESPONSES: STUDENT SLF2, FREQUENCY COUNT AND % DISTRIBUTION

Elements		Frequency	% Distribution
Engag. Gen.	100	2 responses i.e.	28.57%
Reading Comp.	203	1	14.28%
Diction	214	1	14.28%
Inter. Gen.	300	1	14.28%
Eval. Gen.	400	2	28.57%
Total		7	99.96%

From such results, the various group means were determined by computer calculation as shown in Tables I-1 and I-2 (Appendix I). Inspection of (A), the All Groups (2 Stories) means (Table 2) shows the highest percentage frequencies for the population as a whole.

Table 2

WRITTEN RESPONSES: (A) ALL GROUPS (2 STORIES)
ELEMENTS WITH HIGHEST MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS

Elements		Mean
Engagement General	100	6.72%
Perception:		
(Reading Comprehension)	203	5.00%
(Action: Narration of Story)	232	8.74%
(Character Identification and Description)	233	4.61%
Interpretation: (Character Analysis)	322	6.77%
Evaluation General	400	8.77%
Miscellaneous General	500	13.80%

However, the relevance of these mean percentage frequencies cannot be discussed in a vacuum. That being so, each should first be compared with the other All Groups (B and C) mean percentages as well as with the ESL, ENL, Female and Male means (A, B, or C) for the same element (see Appendix I, Tables I-1 and I-2). The mean distributions of each of the elements listed in Table 2 will therefore be examined, compared and discussed in the following order:

Engagement General	100
Evaluation General	400
Miscellaneous General	500
Interpretation: (Character Analysis)	322
Perception: (Reading Comprehension)	203
Perception: (Character ID & Description)	233
Perception: (Action/Narration of Story)	232

Engagement General (100)

While the category of Engagement denotes personal involvement with the story, which Rosenblatt (1938; 1978) and Squire (1964), amongst others, view as an essential part of response to literature, of the nine possible elements (very infrequently represented in student responses in this study), Engagement General signifies the least specific degree of involvement. In fact, according to Purves (1968), all five 'General' elements (i.e. those numbers ending with _00) were added somewhat later than the original ones in the attempt to provide a satisfactory classification for vague and/or very general statements. Examples of the latter from the present study include the following: "My impressions of this story were many;" "It is a story which give me to think a lot

about what is going to be on the next;" "The style of this story is interesting and makes you want to continue reading . . .;" and examples of negative engagement such as ". . . but it isn't something I would enjoy reading;" or "This kept me from totally concentrating on the story."

Table 3

WRITTEN RESPONSES: MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR ENGAGEMENT GENERAL

	(A) 2 Stories All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(B) "Woman..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(C) "Action..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %
100	6.72	6.87	6.56	7.47	6.05	11.23	10.97	11.53	13.71	9.00	2.21	2.78	1.59	1.23	3.09

As can be seen in Table 3, which shows all the percentage means for Engagement General, those for (A) 2 Stories are relatively low and those for (C) "Action . . ." particularly so. However, while those for (B) "Woman . . ." are almost twice as high in some cases as the means for (A), this is not the result of a marked difference between the ESL and ENL groups since their scores (10.97% and 11.53% respectively), are fairly close, but rather one between females (ESL and ENL): 13.71% and a comparable group of males: 9.00%. The relatively high mean scores for this story suggest a greater degree of personal involvement by both sexes in (B) than in the other story, with female students showing the most interest. Since the story is mainly about women, albeit battling against tremendous odds in a guerilla war, perhaps such results could have been expected. It does not account for the extent of the male

interest, however. This suggests that perhaps all students found the story itself relatively absorbing -- a fact not noticed by the researcher at the time and somewhat surprising since the story was stylistically difficult. It is worth noting that male involvement in (C) "Action . . .," a story mostly about men, though low (3.09%) by comparison with (B) "Woman . . ." (9.00%), seems to have been responsible for most of the interest shown in the former.

Evaluation General (400)

Evaluation General is the least specific of twenty elements in the category of Evaluation which provides criteria "either for a subjective or objective appraisal of the work" (Purves, 1968, p. 41). As can be seen from Table I-2 (Appendix I), very few of the responses under review here fell into the remaining nineteen element-classifications. Furthermore, as was mentioned in the 'Coding the Responses' section, some statements indicating a liking for, or a dislike of, a story were coded as Evaluation General (cf. Rippere in Purves, 1968, pp. 76 and 79), which Quirk (1982), for instance, might argue should have been coded as Engagement General. The point being made here is that were it not for this problem there might have been still fewer Evaluation General codings. Statements which clearly belonged in this sub-category included the following: "It is generally a good story;" "It is a puzzle history;" "I found this story powerfully subtal;" "It was a humerous story from the beginning to the end."

Table 4 shows all the percentage means for Evaluation General.

Table 4

WRITTEN RESPONSES: MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR EVALUATION GENERAL

	(A) 2 Stories All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(B) "Woman..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(C) "Action..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %
400	8.77	10.18	7.20	10.78	6.95	5.78	5.36	6.26	7.19	4.52	11.75	15.00	8.15	14.38	9.39

While in many cases, the percentage means for (B) "Woman . . ." are almost half those for Engagement General, those for (C) "Action . . ." are much higher, thus elevating the (A) 2 Stories means. The higher figures for the ESL (15.00%) and Female (14.38%) groups in (C) suggest that ESL students and women (probably more ESL than ENL) made more evaluative statements about this story than men. This does not mean that their judgements were necessarily favourable; each element allows for a positive or negative reaction. A glance at the responses themselves shows that women, many but not all of them ESL students, were almost equally divided between those who did not like the story and/or found it boring and those who found it rather humorous. On the other hand, most males who evaluated the story seemed to enjoy it and/or found it amusing. Talking about essay paradigms, Purves (1968) suggests that an essay characterized by strong, positive evaluation would be expected to first show comparable evidence of the writer's engagement with the story. By analogy, it is not surprising to find somewhat negative evaluations of (C) "Action . . ." coexisting with very low percentage means for the story in Engagement General.

Miscellaneous General (500)

The Miscellaneous category itself was originally designed to classify statements that do not relate to the work itself and, apart from Miscellaneous 500 -- the general sub-category -- comprises six elements. These include classifications for (a) references to other writers on literature such as critics, (b) comparisons with other works, and (c) digressions, as well as rhetorical fillers and nonsensical statements. In practice, Miscellaneous General tends to be used for statements that seem to have little or no relevance to the work under discussion, for vague and general statements and for comments considered unclassifiable in that they cannot be fitted into the other available categories (Somers, 1972). Examples from the present study include: "Lots of Ideas came running through my mind on the reason;" "It is a good material for a student whose English is not first language;" ". . . and would not mind finding more of the same style of story in the future;" "However, I have to do many thing I do not like in order to survive."

From Tables I-1 and I-2 (Appendix I), it is clear that with the exception of (A) 2 Stories and (C) "Action . . .," ENL percentage means and, possibly the (C) Male percentage mean, some of the highest and most widely applicable scores in this study occur in Miscellaneous General. This can be seen more clearly in Table 5, which shows all the percentage means for that element. In each section (A, B, and C), the ESL mean is considerably higher than for the ENL group, and for (C) "Action . . .," the ESL score of 25.18% is the highest in the study. Similarly, the

Female percentage means in (A) 2 Stories and (C) "Action . . ." (17.20% and 20.99% respectively), are markedly higher than the comparable Male

Table 5

WRITTEN RESPONSES: MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR MISCELLANEOUS GENERAL

	(A) 2 Stories					(B) "Woman..."					(C) "Action..."				
	All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %
500	13.80	21.47	5.28	17.20	10.73	13.91	[illegible]	9.63	13.42	14.34	13.69	25.18	0.93	20.99	7.13

scores (10.73% and 7.13%). This would seem to indicate that at least in the (A), and particularly in the (C) sections, women ESL students have made more Miscellaneous General statements than any other group. However, the ENL (9.63%), Female (13.42%) and Male (14.34%) figures for (B) "Woman . . ." and the Male (7.13%) score for (C) suggest that ESL men and a small proportion of ENL students, probably of both sexes, also contributed their share of Miscellaneous statements.

Compared to other response studies known to the researcher, the high proportion of Miscellaneous General responses in this study is unusual. Wilson (1966), in his study of college students, for instance, reports very few miscellaneous statements of any kind, either before or after instruction. Quite apart from the obvious language problems of ESL students, possible explanations for the discrepancy likely to have affected all students, include the following: (a) No structure or topic

was offered for the written responses, (b) students did not have the text to refer to as they did in the oral responses, (c) stories were being read out of the context of any course or grading system, (d) students had not been prepared for the story readings in any way, (e) there had been no pre-reading or time for reflection prior to writing, (f) no discussion had preceded the writing, and (g) students were probably tired, having commented orally on the stories before writing.

For the ESL students there were added difficulties including (a) vocabulary problems (see Appendix H, Tables H-1 to H-14), (b) greater inability to express themselves in English, and (c) probable lack of familiarity with literature in English and/or practice in writing about it (Dixon & Brown, 1984; Nystrand, 1991). More specifically, it was noticeable that in their Miscellaneous General responses (a) ESL students legitimately digressed (as did ENL students) in order to link the stories with their experience but often wen too far and forgot to return to the story, (b) their paragraphs were full of divergent comments, and (c) assertions were often made without any evidence from the story.

Finally, in the context of the present discussion, it is worth noting that Beach (1973), unlike many instructors and researchers, almost welcomes digressive responses, finding that students who are interested (engaged) tend to contribute to "group cohesion," by concentrating on the divergent topic before they "circle back to the poem." He also notes that privately recorded responses contain more digressions than public discussions. Thus digressive responses may constitute "an important part of response" (pp. 184-185), acting as a

prelude to interpretation by satisfying the essential prior need for factual clarification.

Interpretation 322

Of forty possible elements in the category of Interpretation, only one (322: Character Analysis) was widely responded to. According to Purves (1968), Interpretation refers to the ways by which the writer "invests meaning in the work" (p. 30) and/or defines the type of meaning he/she has found, either in the whole work or part of it. Important aspects of interpretation include meanings inferred by the reader/writer related to his knowledge of the world and human nature, and the analysis of the motivations and actions of the characters, with which Interpretation 322 is specifically concerned.

Table 6 shows all the percentage means for Interpretation 322. While the means for (A) 2 Stories: ESL (6.45%) and ENL (7.13%) are very close (cf. (A) All Groups: 6.77%), the Male score is noticeably higher (9.69%), and the Female mean proportionately lower (3.53%), as it is for each of the stories separately. For (B) "Woman . . .," the ESL mean (6.11%) remains about the same, the Female mean (3.05%) is almost unchanged, and the Male one (2.50%) drops while significantly, the ENL group is not represented at all. Other interesting results occur in (C) "Action . . .," where the ENL (14.26%) and Male (16.88%) means are highest, yet the ESL score is still maintained at around 6.78%. These figures seem to indicate that men (more ENL than ESL) were mainly responsible for statements concerned with character analysis based on (C), but that a small proportion of ESL men (2.50%) and women (4.01%) students alone responded similarly to (B) "Woman . . .". Moreover, for

the same story, only ESL students (8.33%) responded in the other interpretive classification represented: Interpretation 332, concerned with the writer's comparison of the textual world with his own.

Table 6

WRITTEN RESPONSES: MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR INTERPRETATION 322

	(A) 2 Stories					(B) "Woman..."					(C) "Action..."				
	All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female	Male Mean %	All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %
322	6.77	6.45	7.13	3.55	9.69	3.22	6.11		4.01	2.50	10.33	6.78	14.26	3.05	16.88

Although Purves (1990) maintains that the 'full response' is the ideal and that no one category of response is considered better than another (presumably the Miscellaneous classification is an exception), writers and researchers such as Squire (1964), Wilson (1966) and Rea and Thompson (1990), seem to believe that the transformative or interpretive stage of reading represents a higher level of comprehension than the reproductive or literal level. It is therefore somewhat dispiriting to note the paucity of interpretive responses in this study, though the reasons for it may be similar to those given to explain the frequency of Miscellaneous General statements. However, the fact that there are a few such responses, including some from ESL students, gives some cause for optimism.

Perception 203/232/233

The last elements to be discussed form part of the second category: Perception. Statements classified under this heading comprise the writer's description of such things as the work's content, characters, theme, language, literary devices and structure as he perceives them, his classification (e.g. satire, comedy, boy-meets-girl story) of the work as an object "distinct from himself" (Purves, 1968, p. 6.), and/or possibly a separate consideration of the author as craftsman. Of 58 elements in this category, only three were represented by student responses in this study: Perception 203, 232, and 233 (see Table 7), the last two of which will be discussed in reverse order.

Although many students showed, or even stated that they understood the broad outlines of the stories, Perception 203 (Reading Comprehension) is described by Purves (1968) as a "negative element" since it normally "applies to statements about lack of comprehension either of action or language" (p. 14). Both types of incomprehension were particularly evident in (B) "Woman . . .", the former more frequent in the responses of ENL students (11.73%), male and female than in those of the ESL group (3.43%), for some of whom the story's Latin American origin was familiar. Whereas the main source of ENL difficulty seemed to lie in the indeterminate nature of the story and its inconclusive ending (cf. Squire, 1964), for a few ESL subjects, the latter problem was compounded by language deficiencies.

Perception 233 is concerned with the straightforward identification and description of characters "in the same terms in which they were presented" (Purves, 1968, p. 20). As can be seen from Table

7, ESL scores are low (in the (A) '2 Stories' and (C) "Action . . ." sections) compared to those of ENL and Female students in (A) 2 Stories and to those of ENL, Female and Male groups in (C) "Action . . ., where the scores are highest. These figures suggest that at least for section

Table 7

WRITTEN RESPONSES: MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR PERCEPTION 203/232/233

	(A) 2 Stories All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(B) "Women..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(C) "Action..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %
203	5.00	2.71	7.33	4.64	5.50	7.36	3.43	11.73	7.76	7.00	2.63	2.00	3.33	1.11	4.00
232	8.74	6.65	11.17	8.64	8.84	5.43	6.98	3.70	7.75	3.33	12.06	6.32	18.44	9.53	14.34
233	4.61	3.75	5.57	5.83	3.51	2.05	2.22	1.85	4.32		7.18	5.28	9.29	7.35	7.02

(C), ENL students, men and women, wrote nearly twice as many statements concerned with identification literal description of characters as did the ESL group. However, if these results are compared with the character analysis element (Interpretation 322) for the same story (see Table 6), the ratio of ENL (14.26%) to ESL (6.78%) statements is even greater, with the Male (16.88%) score over five times that of the . ma' (3.05%). Thus, as a comparison of Perception 233 and Interpretation 322 scores shows more clearly, the ESL responses to each element are very similar (around 6%), while for the ENL (9.29%: 14.26%) group, the Interpretation 322 percentage means are higher.

Perception 232 refers to the writer's perception of the action or events of a work as the author has presented them and may result in a

quotation from, paraphrase, summary, or narration of the story (cf. Squire's (1964) "Narrational Reactions," p. 17). As can be seen in Table 7, while the ESL mean remains constant in each section at just over 6%, for (C), the ENL mean (18.44%) is twice that of the Female (9.53%) and somewhat higher than the Male (14.34%) score. These figures indicate that ENL men were responsible for the predominance of narrations in (C), with ENL women and some ESL students of both sexes contributing to a lesser extent. In (B) "Woman . . .," on the other hand, where the overall scores are admittedly much lower, the ESL(6.98%) and Female (7.75%) percentage means are the highest -- almost twice that for the ENL (3.70%) and Male (3.33%) groups. These somewhat conflicting results may be due, at least partially, to stylistic differences between the two stories, (C) "Action . . ." being much more explicit than (B) "Woman . . .".

Research shows not only that narrational responses (e.g. Perception 232) to literature are common in varying degrees, partly depending on the age of the students, but also that both researchers and examiners are troubled by them (Taba, 1955; Squire, 1964; Wilson, 1966; Quirk, 1982; Dixon & Brown 1984). Squire's view is that "This factual retelling may occur when the reader has difficulty in comprehending" and that "Low socioeconomic status appears to increase the percentage of narrational reactions, possibly because readers from culturally disadvantaged social grouping [sic] are less able to develop skill in reading" (pp. 17 & 36).

Assessing the results of his research, Wilson's attitude to narrational responses is much less indulgent:

> Narrational responses were (excepting . . . . miscellaneous) perhaps the most naïve. They constituted a kind of "easy out," an evasion of the difficulties of interpretation or of judgment. The decrease in narrational responses following study of the novels indicated a change to more analytical responses" (pp. 13-14).

Quirk's comments are not dissimilar:

> We could conclude . . . that for those with either little experience writing about literature or little understanding of what they read, retelling often becomes a substitute for the higher level cognitive tasks of analysis, interpretation, or evaluation. It is, for some, a safe way to pass the time when they feel they have nothing else to say (pp. 95-96).

Finally, in a rather different situation, the criticism of an external examiner of literature is more positive but still somewhat denigrating:

> The method used is that of narrating events from the book with plenty of incidental critical comments. The whole answer is well-organized and structured, but it has all the faults of such a method -- diffuseness, repetition, retracing of ground already covered and, as time went on, over-simplification of issues . . ." (cited in Dixon & Brown, p. 68).

While many of these comments may be justified at least in some cases, narration seems to be so common as to prompt one to seek an explanation for its persistence. Obviously, it is mostly thought of as a low-level activity engaged in by those who are poor readers or comprehenders of literature and/or who do not know what is normally expected by way of a response to it. Wilson's opinion suggests that it can be obviated by instruction and replaced with a more 'acceptable' activity such as analysis. However, both Beach (1973) and Dixon and Brown (1984) seem to recognize narration as an essential stage that cannot be dispensed with. For Beach, as indicated earlier, it provides an opportunity for students to clarify the facts of a poem (or story) so that interpretation can then take place, whereas Dixon and Brown see it

(not dissimilarly) as indicating a need for some exploratory writing to facilitate the transition to the next stage.

In conclusion, although there is no doubt that the written responses of ESL students in this study included more Miscellaneous General statements than the ENL group, the prevalence of other comparable sub-categories such as Engagement and Evaluation General suggests that the responses of a majority of participants were both vague and non-specific. This accords with Somers' (1972) criticism of his middle-class, high school subjects' responses and, at least partially, with the 'incoherence' noted by Quirk (1982) in many of his college freshmen's essays on more unconventional stories. If the predominance of statements from the Perception category and the narrow range of elements into which most responses fell is also taken into consideration, the general standard of responses must be termed inadequate (cf. Somers; Quirk). There could be several reasons for this, including those already suggested to account for the preponderance of miscellaneous statements. Two others deserve brief mention.

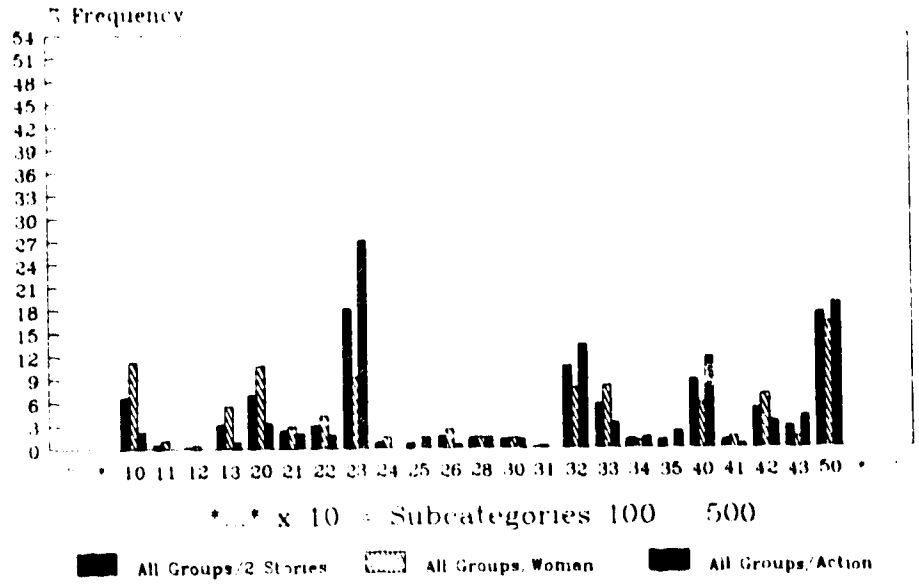
The first concerns the division of the stories into sections. With reference to "Action . . .," one ENL student wrote that she found the periodic breaks made it difficult for her to piece the story together (cf. Squire, 1964). As Squire points out, in breaking up the stories, there is a danger that it may prevent some readers from gaining a sense of the whole, although, for occasional research, he justifies it on the grounds that it can help to identify problems and show students how to make a fuller response. The second, in the form of a rhetorical question, implies that without previous preparation, adequate written

responses to literature cannot reasonably be expected: "Is there not something odd about a subject that demands such great verbal explicitness, and yet does so tacitly?" ask Dixon and Brown (1984, p. 72).

Written Responses (by sub-category)

As indicated earlier (p. 44), for the purposes of comparison with the oral responses which were classified only by sub-category, sub-categories were also derived from the coding (by element) of the written responses and similarly tabulated (see Appendix J, Table J-1).

In some instances, where a particular sub-category is also an element (e.g. Engagement and Evaluation General), the mean percentage distributions for written responses by element and by sub-category are thus identical. However [illegible]e Perception, Interpretation and Miscellaneous categories, where more than one element was originally represented, those other elements are subsumed under one sub-category such as Perception 230, Interpretation 320, and Miscellaneous 500. The mean percentages for these sub-categories thus appear to be disproportionately large when compared with their corresponding and similarly numbered elements (see Tables I-1 and I-2, Appendix I). Coincidentally, the classification by sub-categories further affirms the narrow range of the responses, as can be seen in Figure 1.



Distribution for ESL/ENL groups combined

Figure 1

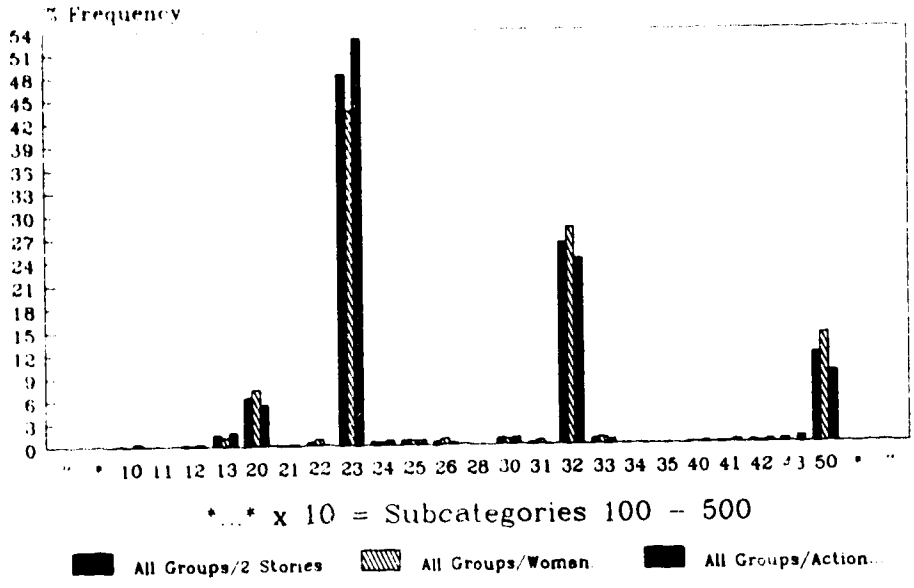
WRITTEN RESPONSES BY SUB-CATEGORY FOR:

All Groups (2 Stories/"Woman . . ."/"Action . . .")

Oral Responses (by sub-category)

Since so few of the 139 elements were represented in the written responses of both ESL and ENL students, it seemed pointless to use them when coding the oral responses (see p. 44). The latter were therefore coded by sub-category. Frequency counts were then performed and percentage distributions and means obtained, as described under 'Written Responses' (p.58). As can be seen from Table J-2 (Appendix J) and Figure 2, the highest percentage means as reflected in all three

sections, (A), (B), and (C), are concentrated in three main sub-categories: (a) Perception 230, which is concerned with empirically verifiable story content (characters, places and action or narration); (b) Interpretation 320 (involving mainly interpretive character analysis and some inferencing); and (c) Miscellaneous 50[illegible] which includes both Miscellaneous General and additional unclassifiable statements.



Distribution for ESL/ENL groups combined

Figure 2

ORAL RESPONSES BY SUB-CATEGORY FOR:

All Groups (2 Stories/"Woman . . ."/"Action . . .")

Although they are considerably lower, the figures for Perception 200 (General and vague responses), should also be noted, as should the

extremely low and sometimes intermittent scores for Engagement and Evaluation General (100 and 400) respectively. Table 8 shows the sub-category percentage mean distributions for both written and oral responses.

Table 8

WRITTEN/ORAL RESPONSES: HIGHEST MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR ALL GROUPS

	(A) 2 Stories All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(B) "Women..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(C) "Action..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %
WRITTEN RESPONSES															
* 100	6.72	6.87	6.56	7.47	6.05	11.23	10.[illegible]	11.53	13.71	9.00	2.21	2.78	1.59	1.23	3.09
* 230	18.06	14.39	22.14	21.23	15.21	9.24	12.56	5.55	13.96	5.00	26.88	16.22	38.73	28.51	25.42
* 320	10.53	10.26	10.84	8.81	12.09	7.72	12.01	2.96	8.90	6.67	13.35	8.52	18.71	8.73	17.50
* 400	8.77	10.18	7.20	10.78	6.95	5.78	5.36	6.26	7.19	4.52	11.75	15.00	8.15	14.38	9.39
* 500	17.35	26.26	7.46	17.67	17.07	15.97	18.58	13.07	13.42	18.27	18.73	33.93	1.85	21.91	15.88
ORAL RESPONSES															
* 100	0.14		0.29	0.29							0.28		0.58	0.58	
* 230	48.22	53.25	42.62	49.93	46.68	43.45	48.51	37.84	44.17	42.81	52.98	58.00	47.40	55.68	50.55
* 320	26.06	18.93	33.98	24.96	27.05	28.12	18.40	38.91	29.11	27.23	24.01	19.47	29.05	20.82	26.88
* 400	0.21	0.04	0.41	0.45		0.11		0.23	0.23		0.31	0.07	0.58	0.66	
* 500	11.75	19.01	3.68	10.46	12.92	14.22	22.54	4.97	12.82	15.47	9.28	15.49	2.39	8.09	10.[illegible]6

Comparison of Written and Oral Responses (by sub-category)

As a comparison of the two types of response indicates, the oral responses are even more obviously restricte to the three sub-categories of Perception 230, Interpretation 320 and Miscellaneous 500 than are the

written, and by contrast with the latter, hardly reflect the Engagement and Evaluation General sub-categories at all. Moreover, as can be clearly seen by comparing Figures 1 and 2, oral responses in the sub-categories of Perception 230 and Interpretation 320 are substantially higher while, in many cases, those for Miscellaneous 500 are lower. A quick comparison of the three All Groups (A, B, and C) percentage means for each of those sub-categories (written and oral responses respectively), highlights the degree to which many oral response scores differ from those of the written responses (see Table 8).

Starting with Miscellaneous 500, for which the number of written statements was unusually high, the mainly lower figures of the oral responses are particularly interesting, although in terms of the ESL and ENL groups, not conclusive. While for (C) "Action . . ." and (B) "Woman . . ." respectively, the Female scores change from 21.91% to 8.09% and from 13.42% to 12.82%, and the Male scores from 15.08% to 10.36% and from 18.27% to 15.47%, the ESL and ENL results are far more mixed. Thus, whereas for (C), the ESL (33.93%) written response score is almost twice that for the oral (15.49%), for (B), it changes from 18.58% to 22.54%. Similarly, the ENL score for (C) differs, if only slightly, going from 1.85% to 2.39% but then for (B), moving from 13.07% to 4.97%.

Apart from the unexpected ESL and ENL changes, these generally lower figures suggest that the constant attention to text required for the oral responses was largely responsible for the corresponding difference in miscellaneous statements -- a possible argument in favour of testing at least partially based on assessments of term work such as literary journals, group portfolios, and open-book examinations etc.

(Hackman, 1987; Spack, 1985). However, since there was such a dramatic difference between the written and oral ESL scores for (C) "Action . . .," yet a slight reversal in the ratios for (B) "Woman . . .," the less explicit story, it seems likely that the nature and style of the stories also affected the outcome.

By contrast, as Table 8 indicates, for both Interpretation 320 and Perception 230, the oral response means, though varied, are considerably higher than the written in all sections (A,B, and C). For example, the written response All Groups (A) mean for Interpretation 320 changes from 10.53% to 26.06% (oral), that of the ENL group for (B) "Woman . . ." goes from 2.96% to 38.91% (oral), the greatest differential in this sub-category, (indicative, perhaps, of greater ENL facility in reading and speaking English) and the ESL score for (B) alters from 12.01% (written) to 18.40% (oral). Yet for (C), the differentials between the ESL and ENL mean distributions (written versus oral responses) for "Action . . ." are negligible. Similarly, the differentials between Female and Male scores for (B) are almost identical and those for (C) differ by only 2.71%.

Differences in the frequency of written and oral responses to Perception 230 are even more spectacular, as can be readily seen in Table 9, which shows the mean distributions for (A) All Groups, as well as the breakdown for each group, on 2 Stories. In every case, while the written response scores are markedly lower than for the oral, the ESL students' performance is the most noteworthy, particularly as they started out with the lowest written response score. Moreover, reference to Table 8 will show that in this sub-category, not only the ESL oral

Table 9

WRITTEN/ORAL RESPONSES: MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR PERCEPTION 230

	All Groups	ESL	ENL	Female	Male
Written	18.06%	14.39%	22.14%	21.23%	15.21%
Oral	48.22%	53.25%	42.62%	49.93%	46.68%

response scores but also the written versus oral differentials, remain amongst the highest, no matter which story is involved.

Thus, in summary, the oral responses evince a similar (if narrower) sub-category choice pattern to the written but exhibit substantially higher mean percentage distribution counts for Perception 230 and Interpretation 320, with a somewhat lower count for Miscellaneous 500 (see Figures 1 and 2). For most sections, differences between written and oral responses for Interpretation 320 were generally smaller than for Perception 230. With the exception of the rather low differentials for the ESL group, the figures for Interpretation 320 suggest that more effort to find meaning was expended on (B) "Woman . . ." than on the other story, although (or perhaps because) it was a much more difficult one to puzzle out. This accords with Olshavsky's (1976-1977) belief that an abstract, indirect style forces the reader to make inferences. It also supports the view that perceived difficulty of text is often just that -- perceived rather than actual (Purves, 1991). While the ESL written/ oral differences for (B) were relatively small, the ESL (8.67%) gain reflected in (A) 2 Stories indicates that this striving after meaning was not limited to ENL students, as was often evident during the reading sessions. Student SLF5 was an interesting case in point. Despite many admitted problems

with unfamiliar vocabulary, she persisted in reading each sentence aloud. For each one, she would then seek synonyms or meaning from context before stating her understanding of it, and repeating the cycle with the next sentence.

Whereas, in the written responses, composed without access to the text, Perception 230 (Content) was somewhat more predominant in the ENL group (see Table 8: (A) 2 Stories and (C) "Action . . ."), the oral responses of all sections in that sub-category were characterized by relatively larger percentage means, those of the ESL group being the most noteworthy. This widespread concern with the verifiable aspects of story content (Perception 230), was surely the direct result of continuous close contact with the texts (cf. Miscellaneous 500) and the need for an ongoing response to them.

Finally, since Squire (1964) maintains that the responses to the endings of stories can vary from those made to earlier sections, one wonders if the results based on oral responses would have been different, better or worse, if all the statements had been coded and analysed instead of just those from the early sections. What Krashen (1985) terms the "first few pages" (p. 73) effect, referring to ESL students' tendency to find the early pages of a new work the most difficult, raises similar questions. Although such caveats must naturally be taken into account, their premises can hardly be said to invalidate the results of this study which was primarily concerned to record students' first, tentative approaches to a totally unfamiliar text (cf. Rosenblatt, 1978).

Unfamiliar Vocabulary (both stories)

As they read each story silently, the students were asked to underline any words that they did not understand. The underlined words for the seven sections of each story are presented in Tables H-1 to H-7 and H-8 to H-14 (Appendix H). Words that were underlined more than once are marked thus: #. Where phrases or sentences were underlined, key words are recorded on separate lines.

As the mean figures show (ESL: 42.25; ENL: 3.94), ESL students underlined nearly eleven times as many words as students from the ENL group. For "Woman . . .," the mean for ESL males was 67.00 compared to 37.60 for ESL females and, for "Action . . .," the ratio was 39.20: 25.20. Across both stories, the mean for ESL males was 53.10 and for ESL females, 31.40. The averages for comparable ENL groups are much lower: ENL males (3.20) and ENL females (2.25) for "Woman . . .," and for "Action . . ., ENL males (5.40) and females (4.75). Taking both stories together, the ratio for ENL males and females respectively is 4.30: 3.50 and for all males versus all females, 28.70: 19.00.

Since the figures suggest that ESL students, particularly males, found much of this vocabulary so unfamiliar, one wonders how they were able to understand the two stories as well as they did. A partial explanation seems to be that only four comparatively recent arrivals (3 male and 1 female) accounted for the highest number of underlined words, two of them being students on visas. One should note, however, that two ENL students (1 female and 1 male) with no vocabulary problems had some comprehension difficulties, particularly with "Woman . . .".

Some of the more ordinary words not understood from "Woman . . ." include the following: descent, foliage, premature, prone, ditch, salty, trickling, embroidered, trot, pit, jumble, convey, lizard, topple, colliding, shadowy, and flee. More unusual words from the same story are: incandescent, swarm, gnats, cordite, forlorn, fangs, quivering, shimmering, gaunter, seeping, coursing, poised, trek, abyss, rubber-limbed, savaged, craning, wafted, desolation, prey, unleashed, ambush, and vultures. A similar division of words from "Action . . ." include: compel, ebb, briskly, aptitude, aquariums, trivial, crammed, vigorous, exploits, knitting, obsessed, marvellous, radiant and such words as, pensiveness, modulations, interludes, aversion, ushered, imperative, hirsute, vestiges, spewed at, swarming, decapitated, and triumphantly.

Verbal Scales

The decision to use verbal scales (Hansson, 1985) in this study was originally based on the fear that some ESL students might not be proficient enough in English (oral or written) to adequately respond to the short stories. In the end that fear was unjustified since even the least skilled ESL participant was able to respond sufficiently, although a few students, two ESL males particularly, had difficulty with the verbal scale vocabulary, especially for "Woman . . .". However, combined with other types of literary response, as Hansson maintains they should be, it was thought that the verbal scales constituted a different and potentially valuable method of recording student

reactions, the results of which could be used to validate and/or add another dimension to those obtained by more traditional means.

Two verbal scales were used, one for each story. The first consisted of thirty-eight adjectives suggestive of the story and/or setting of "Woman . . ." Since the seven-point scale allows a range of choices between 1 and 7 with a neutral point at 4, and 0 outside the scale for adjectives considered irrelevant, at best the results can only be expected to indicate general trends rather than identical correspondences. It should also be pointed out that a few adjectives such as 'noisy,' 'calm,' 'silent,' 'cold,' 'dark' and 'light,' were difficult to score, mostly because any one of them could have been considered relevant at certain points in the story but not at others. Table K-1 (Appendix K), shows the tabulated responses for "Woman . . ." and the means derived from them for the ESL, ENL, Female and Male student groups.

Noticeably, for the adjectives that could reasonably be termed irrelevant to this story: 'happy,' 'gay,' 'foolish,' 'lazy,' and 'urban,' there was general agreement. The exceptions were: the score of 7 for 'foolish' given by SLF1 and the 6 for 'urban' assigned by SLF2. Trying to explain these apparent aberrations is not easy; so many possibilities come to mind. In the first case, since student SLF1 gave so many low scores for adjectives like 'monstrous,' 'ominous,' 'fearful,' 'wicked,' 'tragic,' and 'frightening' -- all applicable to the story -- it is possible that she mistook the low numbers for the high end of the scale and vice versa, although she scored words like 'hot,' 'rural,' and 'wooded,' quite plausibly. Alternatively, she may

have considered the story itself foolish, perhaps because she found it difficult to understand. In the second case, if the 6 for 'urban' is taken in conjunction with the 0 score for 'steep' and the otherwise reasonable scoring, it suggests that student SLF2 was not sure of the meanings of those two words.

Apart from the irrelevant words, those which referred to the characters' reactions to the tragic events of the story, such as 'fearful,' 'tense,' 'agitated,' 'frightening,' and 'horrific,' seemed to garner the most extensive agreement and the highest means, suggesting that the majority of students were more affected by the women's frightening experiences than anything else. As can be seen in Table K-1 (Appendix K), for these words, the means for the ESL, ENL, Female and Male groups were very compatible. For the words 'fearful,' 'tense' and 'tragic,' the ENL and Male scores were the highest and closest, followed by those for the ESL and Female groups, which, though slightly lower, were also very close (cf. the means for 'tense': ENL: 6.11; Male: 6.10 and ESL: 5.80; Female: 5.78).

Overall, it is difficult to pinpoint any wide disagreement between groups. For instance, for the three adjectives 'agitated,' 'rural,' and 'dry,' the ESL means (6.00, 6.30, and 5.00) seem to reflect the true situation better than those of the ENL group (5.25, 2.88, and 4.89), although for 'dry,' the Female score (5.44) is higher than both. However, for the words 'monstrous,' 'ominous,' and 'tragic,' the ENL scores (5.33, 5.11, and 6.89) compare favorably to those of the ESL group (4.90, 4.22, and 5.50). Similarly, for words which accurately describe the story setting, such as 'wooded' and 'steep,' the Male

scores (5.56 and 5.11) as opposed to those of the ESL (4.20 and 4.78), ENL (5.13 and 4.44) and Female (3.67 and 4.11) seem definitive. There was less unanimity about some words concerned with setting, such as 'bare' and 'peopled,' and high agreement over others, such as 'dusty,' 'empty,' and 'flat.' Yet, the word 'hot,' a seemingly true description of the climate, was widely disputed, while the less accurate word 'wet' produced unanimous agreement. These occasional disagreements about setting and climate are not altogether surprising since the former was sometimes suggested rather than directly described, and the latter was changeable, partly depending on whether the sun was obscured or not.

The verbal scale for "Action . . ." comprised twenty-two adjectives mostly associated with the story itself, but occasionally with the characters. The scores of student SLF1 were again atypical, while those of student SLM1, which never rose above 5, seemed to indicate a lack of confidence. Except for the word 'happy,' none of the words was obviously irrelevant although many students considered 'deceitful' and 'cynical' to be so. As Table K-2 (Appendix K) shows, the highest means within the four groups: ESL, ENL, Female and Male, were those for the adjectives, 'strange' (ESL: 4.90; ENL: 5.56; Female: 5.22; Male: 5.20) and 'exaggerated' (ESL: 5.50; ENL: 5.44; Female: 4.78; Male: 6.10), which characterize the essence of the story very well. Yet overall, no one group stands out as more consistently 'right' than any other. For instance, for words like 'strange' and 'exaggerated' and other relevant adjectives such as 'humorous' and 'fast-paced,' different group combinations in turn (ENL and Female, ESL and Male, ESL and Female, ENL and Male, respectively) registered the highest scores. The

figures for words like 'eager,' 'hyperactive,' 'slow,' 'shocking,' and 'funny,' show little variation and tend to hover round the neutral point. Where there is more major disagreement, as for the adjectives 'dreamlike' (ESL: 5.10; ENL 3.33; Female: 4.44; Male: 4.10), and 'unfamiliar' (ESL: 4.60; ENL: 2.78; Female: 3.89; Male: 3.60), a good case could be made in favour of the higher scores of the ESL students. For words such as 'satirical' and 'sarcastic,' the slightly higher scores of the ENL group seem more appropriate, but can be balanced by those of the ESL students for words such as 'alarming' and 'cynical.' Thus, since there were so many instances where the ESL scores were as appropriate as those of the ENL, Female and Male students, or more so, it is evident that, as concluded earlier with respect to the verbal scale for "Woman . . .," no one group can be considered better than another.

Summary

When the written responses (by element) had been analysed, sub-categories were derived from them for the purpose of comparison with those of the oral responses. Substantial differences between the written and oral responses were noted in three main sub-categories. The analysis of the data on unfamiliar story vocabulary showed the extent to which some ESL students, particularly males, compare unfavorably with their ENL counterparts. However, despite the initial vocabulary problems of certain ESL students (mostly male), the verbal scale data

suggests that there is little difference in the performance of ESL, ENL, Female, or Male students.

Chapter V presents the overview and findings of the study. Recommendations for further research, and instructional implications, are also presented.

CHAPTER V

OVERVIEW FINDINGS, AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter contains a brief overview of the study, the main findings and conclusions. Recommendations for further research and implications for teaching are also presented.

Overview

The main purpose of this study was to examine, describe, and compare adult ESL and ENL students' oral and written responses to unfamiliar short stories, with particular emphasis on their initial oral responses. The sample consisted of 10 ESL and 9 ENL students with 5 male and 5 female students in the former group and 5 male and 4 female in the latter. Participating students, who were all volunteers, were required to have registered in a specific reading development course, mainly as a result of unsatisfactory performance on an adult basic English test. All students completed an initial biographical and reading questionnaire. On two separate occasions, after a practice session, students were asked to read and respond freely to two unfamiliar, contrasting short stories, both orally and in writing. As they read each story, students were also asked to underline any unfamiliar vocabulary. All oral responses were tape-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Written responses were typed without alteration, and both types of response were subsequently coded, tabulated and

analysed, before being compared. Finally, in order to offer less able students the opportunity to respond without the anxiety of writing, participants were asked to rate lists of adjectives associated with each of the two stories on 7-point, uni-polar scales.

Findings

1. The majority of both ESL and ENL written responses with the highest mean percentage distributions were restricted to 7 elements of description out of a possible 139.

This finding, though indicative of a relatively limited range of response, nevertheless demonstrates both the general validity and wide applicability of the Purves (1968) literary response classification system, in that all five possible categories were represented in the written responses of this particular student group. Thus, of the seven elements mentioned above, one occurred in each of the engagement, interpretation, evaluation and miscellaneous categories and three in the content-based category of perception. The emphasis on the latter, the very general nature of the engagement, evaluation and miscellaneous elements, and the restriction of the interpretive element to analysis of character, represents in microcosm the overall response-pattern.

However, these findings raise some interesting questions concerning for instance, the utility of the Purves schema for non-academic students, the reliability of these particular responses which were written after the oral responses when students were tired,

and the extent to which any range of elements should be extended by instruction, to name only a few.

2. Of the four elements with the highest mean percentage frequencies in the written responses: narration of content (perception), analysis of character (interpretation), evaluation general, and miscellaneous general, all are related to the story, "Action will be Taken."

The straight-forward narrative character of this story (vis à vis the allusiveness of "Woman in the Middle"), may account for the overall concentration of responses in these particular elements. However, since males (mostly ENL students) predominated in the content areas of perception and interpretation, the story itself -- about a young man who successfully competes for a rather strange job -- could also have affected the outcome. High female representation in the evaluative and miscellaneous elements suggests that women students were more inclined either to make judgments about the work and/or to use it as a point of discussion.

That a high proportion of mainly ENL students (more male than female) retold the story of "Action . . ." is surprising, precisely because it is already so much more comprehensible than "Woman . . .". That an almost equal number of the same group (this time mostly male) should make interpretive statements about the same story is also surprising since, according to several research findings, it is more often the difficult stories that tend to elicit interpretive responses.

While narration of content is a relatively common feature of response studies, especially those with grade school and/or less able subjects, high miscellaneous scores, such as occur in the written

responses of this study, are rare. Apart from the more comparable ENL (male and female) miscellaneous scores for "Woman . . .," miscellaneous statements (particularly for "Action . . .") represented the predominant response of the ESL students, more often female than male. Most of these miscellaneous responses were of two kinds. The majority, usually expressed impersonally, were generalizations about the world at large which, though initially provoked by the story, failed to relate back to it. The remainder tended to be comments on the student's attempt to identify and use (successfully or not) strategies for reading and/or understanding the stories. In both cases, one could claim (cf. Fanselow, 1974, and Beach, 1973) that these responses are moving, albeit by circuitous routes, towards a form of engagement.

As indicated in the analysis, there are several possible reasons for the discrepancy in miscellaneous responses between this and other studies, four of which are particularly relevant here. The most likely is the fact that most (if not all) response research has centred on white, middle-class, native English speakers of average or above-average ability in high schools, colleges and sometimes universities. Other factors which probably affected the outcome include: (a) the planned lack of pedagogically desirable preparation; (b) the choice of stories, in the selection of which, student interest was only one of many concerns; and (c) the lack of access to the story texts while responses were being written.

3. With rare exceptions, most students (ESL and ENL) had difficulty expressing themselves adequately in their written responses which, though sometimes perceptive, were often

characterized by limited literary response, unsupported generalizations, vagueness and digressive statements.

While all written responses were considerably shorter than the oral and much more general, many, particularly those of a small group of ESL and ENL males, were vague and brief to a fault, as if the writers really had nothing to say. Although some ESL students tried to express their feelings candidly in very imperfect English, others seemed to reject substance in favour of 'correct' or familiar sentence forms. The longer, more ambitious responses of ESL students, male and female, tended to be the most digressive.

The responses of several ENL males and two ENL females to "Woman . . ." consisted entirely of comments on their difficulties with the story, often with suggestions as to how it could have been improved and made more comprehensible either by being more explicit, by the omission of various phrases, and/or by having a more certain outcome. A few ENL students, both male and female, and one ESL female, noted that various aspects of the author's writing technique in "Woman . . ." contributed to the vividness of the story. Although most students found "Action . . ." easier to understand, only two (one ESL and one ENL female) seemed to sense and respond to its deeper, satiric intention.

Overall, the majority of student essays (ESL and ENL) were poorly written, ungrammatical, and limited in terms of literary response. Above all, they were marred by unsupported generalizations, with little consistent reference to the stories themselves, except for the narration of story content mentioned earlier. Other researchers, mainly those who have worked with high school students, have noted comparable weaknesses,

particularly the predominance of brief, shallow responses full of generalizations. As a result, some are questioning whether it is reasonable to expect students to provide a considered response to literature immediately after reading, and indeed whether, for secondary level students, it can be pedagogically justified at all.

4. The written responses (by element) of ENL students to the story, "Woman in the Middle" are indicative of both 'engagement' in and difficulty with the story.

As already indicated, by comparison with "Action . . .," "Woman in the Middle," a story about native women and their children fleeing a destroyed village during a guerilla war, was more difficult to understand, being partially written in the form of an allusive interior monologue. Figures indicate that while the written responses (by element) of ENL students (more female than male) and, to a slightly lesser extent, those of ESL females and males, reflected 'engagement' with the story, a number of ENL students, both female and male, had problems in understanding it, rarely attempted to retell the story nor made any written interpretive statements about it (2.96% sub-categories). Noting also the relatively high ENL miscellaneous scores that the story elicited, the total profile of written response scores suggests that ENL students, while absorbed by the story, also found it frustratingly difficult, possibly because it was rather different from stories to which they were accustomed. As will be noted in the discussion on oral versus written responses, this contrasts strangely

with the number of interpretive statements made by the same group in the oral responses.

5. By comparison with the written statements (both by element and sub-category), the much longer oral responses were restricted to three main sub-categories and showed some substantial differences in percentage frequencies.

In contrast to the written responses, the oral statements, which were elicited first (and then transcribed), were abundant and had the flavour of a detailed, personal diary with its characteristically incomplete sentences and interposed comments, together with evidence of the periodic and hoped-for amended interpretations of the text. However, despite their relative length, these oral responses were limited to three main sub-categories: those involving story content (perception), analysis of story content (interpretation), and miscellaneous statements (miscellaneous). Noticeably, the categories of engagement and evaluation, which were perhaps a natural aspect of the written responses, were barely evident in the oral statements.

The biggest and most widespread differences in the oral responses (as opposed to the written) were evident in the high figures related to story content (perception), indicating that when students began reading and 'puzzling out' the meaning of the texts for the first time, they were primarily concerned with sorting out the facts of the story -- what happened and to whom. These high scores were thus a result, at least in part, of the requirement to pay close and continuous attention to a text before responding in a particular way. While the differentials between the two types of response were high across groups and for both stories,

those for ESL students were the highest and particularly so for "Action . . .".

Turning next to the miscellaneous sub-category (which includes the element of miscellaneous general), the oral versus written responses were inconsistently different, sometimes depending on the story involved. Overall however, the generally lower miscellaneous figures evident in the oral responses are another indication that in the initial stages, when students were first responding to texts, there were fewer miscellaneous statements made. For instance, specific figures for "Action . . ." show that the ESL oral-responses score is less than half that of the written responses and that the female score is just over a third less. However, the inconsistency referred to earlier is most obvious in the scores for ESL oral responses to "Woman . . .," which are nearly four points higher than those for the written.

Although the oral-response scores for interpretation/analysis of content were all higher than those for the written statements, in general, the differentials between the two sets of figures were neither so large nor quite so consistent as for the perception of content sub-category. In fact, for the female versus male group (either story), the figures are so close as to merit little comment. Similarly, the oral versus written differentials of both the ESL and ENL groups for "Action . . ." are virtually identical while the ESL responses for "Woman . . ." only differ by about a third. However, ENL figures for "Woman . . ." in the content-interpretation sub-category differ dramatically, changing from 2.96% in the written to 38.91% in the oral responses.

A number of possible explanations for this come to mind, including two mentioned in association with the perception of story content and miscellaneous categories; namely, the access to texts and the subsequent attempt to 'puzzle out' their meanings that were required for the initial oral responses. It is also probable that ENL students were less content-bound than their ESL peers because of their greater facility in reading and speaking English, and that having 'interpreted' the text in the oral sessions, they saw no further need to do so in their written responses. A less likely explanation is that suggested by the research of Olshavsky (1976-1977) which concluded that stories written in a more abstract/indirect style tend to force the reader to interpret. This was one reason why the story, "Woman in the Middle" was included in the study.

It should be noted in passing that few studies seem to have attempted a comparison of oral and written responses with the same student sample (Applebee, 1977), and that the present study might be improved by making the conditions for the two types of response more similar.

6. Difficulties with the story vocabulary were largely restricted to ESL students.

The ESL students underlined far more unfamiliar words in the two stories than the ENL group. However, perhaps by reading the words in context, they often understood more than might be expected. Conversely, as indicated in the analysis and in #3 and #4 of these findings, there were ENL readers with no overt vocabulary difficulties, who had problems

with comprehension. Stories such as the practice story and "Woman in the Middle" were really too difficult for a few of the ESL students although again, that did not usually prevent them from getting the gist of a story.

7. There was very little obvious difference between the ESL and ENL students in their use of the verbal scales.

The only obvious difference between the ESL and ENL groups was that far more ESL students had difficulty understanding some of the listed adjectives to be rated and often asked what they meant. To what degree the verbal scales were useful in such cases is debatable, but since the ESL students did as well as other groups when rating them, it seems that the scales performed the function for which they were intended; namely to offer an alternative means of responding, independent of speech or written composition, with which more conventional kinds of response could be compared.

8. Female versus male responses varied somewhat according to story and sub-category, as well as on the verbal scales, but overall no consistently marked pattern of difference emerged.

If any clear pattern between Female and Male responses (oral or written) is discernible, it is that in the area of written responses, with certain exceptions, particularly in the case of miscellaneous statements for "Woman . . .," the scores for male students occasionally tended to be lower than those of females, whereas their scores for oral

responses in any given sub-category were either higher than or closer to those of female students. In terms of story preferences, males generally seemed to prefer "Action . . ." to "Woman . . ." often finding the latter more difficult to understand.

Recommendations for Further Research

The present study has sought to focus attention on suitable methods of promoting, teaching and evaluating the study of literature for adult ESL and ENL students with little recent academic experience. To refine, augment, and increase the relevance of the study, the following suggestions for further literary response research (particularly with comparable students) are made.

1. Since unusually high ESL miscellaneous scores were a feature of the present study, similar research with ESL and ENL students in the upper grades of high schools, and with adults in continuing education and other colleges (using a variety of different stories) could help to establish whether other variables besides choice of story and/or the presence or absence of texts have influenced the results. Comparable local and national studies conducted in high schools with mixed local/immigrant populations could provide useful short-term data for comparison with analogous groups of adults entering college after varying periods of time away from school. Such studies could be repeated at intervals to note any differences which might occur as the result of changes in teaching methods or other variables.

2. When more studies with widely divergent population samples have been done, a research project could perhaps be instituted by interested groups with a view to deciding whether, for instance, elements of metacognition and 'indirect' engagement could (or should) be usefully incorporated into the Purves (1968) miscellaneous and engagement categories respectively. The immediate aim would be to decide if such a measure would permit the inclusion in the schema of some responses currently deemed 'unclassifiable,' such as those indicative of the desire to better understand a story. Alternatively, a decision to use an additional or totally different 'sieve' might be considered preferable.

3. As already pointed out, not many studies have attempted to compare the oral and written responses of the same students. However, the conditions under which each type of response was compared in this study, were perhaps not sufficiently similar to result in a true comparison. Other studies could remedy that. For example (using the same story), subjects could be divided into two groups, the first group responding orally and then in writing, the other reversing the order. In addition, comparisons could be made between responses that immediately followed reading and those made after a period of discussion, reflection, written commentary and/or oral free association (cf. Beach, 1973).

4. Except for occasional scrutinies of particular protocols, and those made for coding purposes, neither a qualitative nor a detailed comparison of responses formed part of the present study. This was mostly the result of the priority accorded to categorization. Other

researchers might wish to reverse priorities or do both. A method whereby students could tape their own oral responses at a given signal and after a practice session could facilitate this (cf. Olshavsky, 1976-1977).

5. In this study, only the oral responses to the first three sections of each story were analysed. Had all sections of the stories, including the endings, been examined, the results might have been very different (Squire, 1964). Other research, particularly any that aims to study more diverse populations, might consider the extent to which different sections of a story seem to produce different types of response. Specific studies could also be done with ESL students to compare their difficulties with reading and responding to the beginnings of a variety of stories, with their responses when reading other sectors of the same stories (cf. Krashen, 1985).

6. For this study, as opposed to many others, the choice of stories was not based on previously established student preferences. Rather, the researcher's choices were based on criteria such as brevity, likely unfamiliarity, adult interest, and evidence of contrasting styles. Since the findings of this study suggest that the chosen stories may well have affected the types of response made, much more could be done to discover whether any particular patterns of response can be associated with specific kinds of story. It would be interesting to know, for instance, whether 'exciting' stories produced far more engagement/evaluation responses.

7. No consistent distinctions between ESL males and ESL females, nor between ESL students of different ethnic origin were made in this

study. Other studies, such as one concerned to establish the main differences between the rhetorical patterns of writing characteristic of different cultures, would certainly require such information.

Implications for Instruction

On the basis of the study findings, the following implications for teaching are suggested.

1. Since, contrary to expectation, the abilities of the ESL students were as varied as those of their ENL peers, ESL students would not necessarily require additional help beyond that accorded to every student in a class or educational institution. However, based on this study, it is evident that many ESL students have particular problems with vocabulary and that many of them are at a disadvantage vis à vis the majority of ENL students, in terms of facility in reading and speaking English. This is not usually evident in the classroom because many ESL students tend to be withdrawn and unwilling to speak in front of others, and most study reading is done at home. Evidently, many ENL students also have literacy problems, but these could probably be sufficiently helped by tutor-counsellors and a literary-response-orientated curriculum, with writing closely associated with literature and other required reading (cf. Dixon & Brown's concept of "A Literature Course in Writing," p. 74, 1984), class discussions, and the occasional private interview. A similar curriculum would obviously also assist those ESL students lacking speech-fluency and reading skills. Ideally however, they would be better helped in 'sheltered classes.' which would

provide them with extra reading experience in content-based classes. Such classes can help second-language students to acquire the additional background knowledge and associated vocabulary that they need to make them better readers. Furthermore, since the classes allow students to be temporarily separated from their ENL peers and classmates in an intimate, small-group atmosphere, students can more easily be given extra help with required course-reading if necessary, and be encouraged to ask questions and take part in class discussions. An almost incidental benefit of such classes is that they facilitate improvements in students' general linguistic skills.

2. The study showed that all students, in varying degrees, need much more writing experience, again preferably content-based in order that written work will have a more concrete basis. A literary-response-orientated curriculum would necessarily provide opportunities for meaningful writing. Teachers obviously need to model: (a) different types of response based on a variety of texts; (b) the organization of paragraphs, particularly of the illustration/example type, and (c) ways in which students can become more skilled in providing specific information. For this, instructors could provide them with specific questions to keep in mind while reading. Students could also be encouraged to supply their own questions.

3. Students not only demonstrated that overall their responses vary according to story, type of response, reading skill and fluency in English, but also that overall their responses tend to fall within a limited range of descriptive elements/sub-categories. To what extent the range and level of student-responses should be accepted or 'improved

upon' by instructors depends on a number of factors such as the age and literary experience of the student. Purves sees the 'full response' as the ideal, and a number of response-studies have measured changes in response after instruction and/or discussion of the various categories of response available. Others fear that this could result in stereotyped responses. According to Purves (personal communication, November 9, 1992), there is little danger of this if the categories are taught as a "broad heuristic," and in his view "It is not stereotyped to say to a student if you want to raise a question of value, here is the sort of evidence you have to use."

Unipolar and/or semantic differential verbal scales as used in this study would provide a simple and time-efficient way of helping students broaden their range of responses as well as their critical skills. Students could be asked to respond on scales to a variety of questions (perhaps sometimes based on the broad categories mentioned earlier) during the course of their reading. Scales could also be designed by the students themselves. Such questions as: 'To what extent does the main character change by the end of the book? 'To what extent do you find this story exciting?' (Not much/ slightly/ very much/ a great deal) would help students to focus on critical problems such as those of evaluation and engagement.

As far as levels of response are concerned, the present study showed that while some interpretive statements were made, far more narrational and miscellaneous-type responses are to be expected, and should probably be accepted as indicative of a necessary stage in a student's literary and critical development. Tentative and limited

first responses should also be accepted as normal, and, as Hansson (1990) indicated, some students could even be at a pre-verbal stage. Teachers should therefore not always require or expect highly polished, critically sophisticated book reports from such students. Rather they need to allow students to develop their critical faculties gradually, both by discussion and by encouraging them to respond personally to a great variety of texts.

4. The written responses particularly demonstrated the need for preparation and reflection before writing, as well as the desirability of having an accessible text to which to refer. The conditions under which these responses were written were to some extent similar to those prevailing in many traditional-type examinations. For inexperienced students, it would certainly seem desirable to rely less on such methods of evaluation and more on assessments of work done during the course, such as literary journals, portfolios of group work, group reports etc. Moreover, having practised responding in writing to a variety of texts over time, students could then reasonably be examined on a literary response to an unfamiliar work. Periodic requirements of this sort could enable teachers to note progress or lack of it, as of course many do now. If this material were in some way recorded over time, it would provide valuable research material.

Conclusion

As a possible alternative to traditional methods of teaching and evaluating literature, this study has focused on the more

student-centred approach of reader-response, based on Rosenblatt's (1938) belief that literature involves a 'transaction' between a specific text and "the mind and emotions of some particular reader" (p. 32). Purves' (1985) augmented model of literary understanding, which stresses the interrelationship of text with the writer, reader and audience or 'small community of readers' (Fish, 1980), is a comparable recognition of the fact that the shift of emphasis from teacher to student implied by the adoption of reader-response theory is not an invitation to abandon the close reading of texts nor to ignore their uniqueness.

With this interpretation of reader-response in mind, the present study used Purves' (1968) schema of descriptive elements (and later his sub-categories) to categorize the oral and written responses of nineteen adult ESL and ENL students. Although the elements were first thought to be too refined for the subjects of this study, they finally provided a more "subtle analysis" (Purves, 1968) of the latters' responses than would have been possible if the sub-categories only had been used.

A number of other researchers (whose ranks I now join) have acknowledged the comprehensive nature of Purves' "synoptic rake" which, in Morris' (1976) view, has reduced the chaos of many critical methods into something approaching the 'super criticism' envisaged by Hyman. It only remains to express the hope that this somewhat isomorphic study (Purves, 1985) will eventually form part of a larger backdrop of similar studies which, together with others, will gradually succeed in widening the dimensions of literary response, perhaps embracing responses of an

intensity, depth and significance as yet scarcely envisaged or described (Slatoff, 1970).

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APPENDIX A

Summary and Code List of Elements and Sub-Categories (Purves, 1968)

SUMMARY AND CODE LIST

The Elements of Writing about a Literary Work

The following summary is drawn up for the purposes of scoring and reporting student essays. Each category, subcategory, and element is given a three-digit number. The first digit establishes the category; the second, the subcategory; and the third, the element. The category and subcategory headings are italicized for those who wish to identify the code numbers that would be most appropriate for a large-scale study (See Chapter III).

100 Engagement General
110 Reaction to Literature
- 111 Reaction to Author
- 112 Assent
- 113 Moral taste

120 Reaction to Form
- 121 Re-creation of effect
- 122 Word associations
- 123 Retelling

130 Reaction to Content
- 131 Moral reaction
- 132 Conjecture
- 133 Identification
- 134 Relation of incidents to those in the writer's life

200 Perception General
- 201 Citation of stance
- 202 Objective perception
- 203 Reading comprehension
- 204 Style unspecified

210 Language
- 211 Morphology and typography
- 212 Syntax
- 213 Sound and sound patterns
- 214 Diction
- 215 Etymology, lexicography, and dialect

220 Literary devices
- 221 Rhetorical devices
- 222 Metaphor
- 223 Imagery
- 224 Allusion
- 225 Conventional symbols
- 226 Larger literary devices
- 227 Irony
- 228 Presentational elements
- 229 Perspective

230 Content
- 231 Subject matter
- 232 Action
- 233 Character identification and description
- 234 Character relationships
- 235 Setting

240 Relation of Technique to Content

250 Structure
- 251 Relation of parts to parts
- 252 Relation of parts to whole
- 253 Plot
- 254 Gestalt
- 255 Allegorical structure
- 256 Logic

260 Tone
- 261 Description of tone
- 262 Effect
- 263 Mood
- 264 Pace
- 265 Point of view
- 266 Illusion
- 267 Orientation
- 268 Image patterns

270 Literary Classification
- 271 Generic classification
- 272 Convention
- 273 Traditional classification
- 274 Interpretive tradition
- 275 Critical dictum

280 Contextual Classification
- 281 Author's canon
- 282 Textual criticism
- 283 Biographical
- 284 Intentional
- 285 Historical
- 286 Intellectual history
- 287 Sources

300 Interpretation General
- 301 Citation of stance
- 302 Interpretive context
- 303 Part as a key

310 Interpretation of Style
- 311 Symbolic use of style
- 312 Inferred metaphor
- 313 Inferred allusion
- 314 Inferred irony
- 315 Derivation of symbols
- 316 Inferred logic

320 Interpretation of Content
- 321 Inference about past or present
- 322 Character analysis
- 323 Inference about setting
- 324 Inference about author

330 Mimetic Interpretation
- 331 Psychological
- 332 Social
- 333 Political
- 334 Historical
- 335 Ethical
- 336 Aesthetic

340 Typological Interpretation
- 341 Psychological
- 342 Social
- 343 Political
- 344 Historical
- 345 Philosophical
- 346 Ethical
- 347 Aesthetic
- 348 Archetypal

350 Hortatory Interpretation
- 351 Psychological
- 352 Social
- 353 Political
- 354 Historical
- 355 Ethical
- 356 Philosophical
- 357 Aesthetic

400 Evaluation General
- 401 Citation of criteria

410 Affective Evaluation

420 Evaluation of Method
- 421 Formal
- 422 Rhetorical
- 423 Typological rhetoric
- 424 Generic
- 425 Traditional
- 426 Originality
- 427 Intentional
- 428 Multifariousness

430 Evaluation of Author's Vision
- 431 Mimetic plausibility
- 432 Imagination
- 433 Thematic importance
- 434 Sincerity
- 435 Symbolic appropriateness
- 436 Moral significance
- 437 Moral acceptability

500 Miscellaneous
- 501 Divergent response
- 502 Rhetorical filler
- 503 Reference to other writers
- 504 Comparison with other works
- 505 Digression
- 506 Unclassifiable

APPENDIX B

Biographical and Reading Information Questionnaires

BIOGRAPHICAL AND READING INFORMATION (1a)

1. Family name: _____ First name: _____

2. Date of birth: _____

3. Sex: Male_____ Female_____

4. Marital: Married____ Single____ Widowed____ Divorced____

5. Country of origin: _____

6. First language: _____

7. Other languages spoken: _____ _____

_____

8. Number of years of school in your country:

Regular school _____

Technical school _____

College _____

University _____

9. Did you study English in your country?: Yes____ No____

10. If so, for how many years? _____

11. Did you study any literature in your country?: Yes____ No____

12. If so, what kind?

Short stories____ Novels____ Plays____ Poetry____

13. Which year did you come to Canada?: _____

14. Have you studied English in Canada?: Yes____ No____

15. If so, for how long? _____

16. Do you have your Grade 12?: Yes____ No____

17. Do you have English 30____ English 33____ Other?____

18. Have you studied any literature (written in English) in Canada?:

Yes____ No____

19. If so, what kind?

Short stories____ Novels____ Plays____ Poetry____

20. Did you enjoy studying literature? Yes____ No____

Explain: _____

21. Do you have any difficulties with the study of literature?:

Yes____ No____

Explain: _____

_____

_____

_____

22. Do you like reading?: Yes____ No____

23. What do you like reading: Novels___ Newspapers___ Magazines___

Other _____

_____

24. Have you ever had any difficulties with reading in English?

Yes____ No____

Explain: _____

_____

25. Have you ever had any difficulties with reading in your own language? Yes____ No____

26. Explain: _____

_____

27. Do you watch much television? Yes____ No____

28. Which television programmes do you watch most?: _____

_____

_____

29. How often do you go to the movies?: _____

30. What kind of movies do you like?: _____

_____

31. Any other relevant information?: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

BIOGRAPHICAL AND READING INFORMATION (1b)

1. Family name: _____ First name: _____

2. Date of birth: _____

3. Sex: Male_____ Female_____

4. Marital: Married____ Single____ Widowed____ Divorced____

5. Country of origin: _____

6. If not Canada, which year did you come to Canada?: _____

7. First language: _____

8. Languages spoken: _____ _____

   _____

9. Number of years of education in Canada:

   High School _____

   College _____

   Technical School _____

   University _____

   Other _____

10. Do you have your Grade 12?: Yes____ No____

11. Do you have English 30____ English 33____ Other?____

12. What kind of literature have you studied before?:

    Short stories____ Novels____ Plays____ Poetry____

13. Did you enjoy studying literature? Yes____ No____

    Explain: _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

14. Do you have any difficulties with the study of literature?:

Yes____ No____

Explain: _____

_____

_____

_____

15. Do you like reading?: Yes____ No____

16. What do you like to read? Novels___ Newspapers___ Magazines___

Other: _____

_____

17. Have you ever had any difficulties with reading? Yes____ No____

Explain: _____

18. Do you watch much television?: Yes____ No____

19. Which television programmes do you watch most? _____

_____

_____

20. How often do you go to the movies?: _____

21. What kind of movies do you like?: _____

_____

_ _____

22. Any other relevant information?: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX C

Practice Story

The Story of an Hour

Knowing that Mrs. Mallard was afflicted with a heart trouble, great care was taken to break to her as gently as possible the news of her husband's death.

It was her sister Josephine who told her, in broken sentences, veiled hints that revealed in half concealing. Her husband's friend Richards was there, too, near her. It was he who had been in the newspaper office when intelligence of the railroad disaster was received, with Brently Mallard's name leading the list of "killed." He had only taken time to assure himself of its truth by a second telegram, and had hastened to forestall any less careful, less tender friend in bearing the sad message.

She did not hear the story as many women have heard the same, with a paralyzed inability to accept its significance. She wept at once, with sudden, wild abandonment, in her sister's arms. When the storm of grief had spent itself she went away to her room alone. She would have no one follow her. //

There stood, facing the open window, a comfortable, roomy armchair. Into this she sank, pressed down by a physical exhaustion that haunted her body and seemed to reach into her soul.

She could see in the open square before her house the tops of trees that were all aquiver with the new spring life. The delicious breath of rain was in the air. In the street below a peddler was crying his wares. The notes of a distant song which someone was singing reached her faintly, and countless sparrows were twittering in the eaves.

There were patches of blue sky showing here and there through the clouds that had met and piled above the other in the west facing her window.

She sat with her head thrown back upon the cushion of the chair quite motionless, except when a sob came up into her throat and shook her, as a child who has cried itself to sleep continues to sob in its dreams.

She was young, with a fair, calm face, whose lines bespoke repression and even a certain strength. But now there was a dull stare in her eyes, whose gaze was fixed away off yonder on one of those patches of blue sky. It was not a glance of reflection, but rather indicated a suspension of intelligent thought. //

There was something coming to her and she was waiting for it, fearfully. What was it? She did not know; it was too subtle and elusive to name. But she felt it, creeping out of the sky, reaching toward her through the sounds, the scents, the color that filled the air.

Now her bosom rose and fell tumultuously. She was beginning to recognize this thing that was approaching to possess her, and she was striving to beat it back with her will—as powerless as her two white slender hands would have been.

When she abandoned herself a little whispered word escaped her slightly parted lips. She said it over and over under her breath: "Free, free, free!" The vacant stare and the look of terror that had followed it went from her eyes. They stayed keen and bright. Her pulses beat fast, and the coursing blood warmed and relaxed every inch of her body.

She did not stop to ask if it were not a monstrous joy that held her. A clear and exalted perception enabled her to dismiss the suggestion as trivial. //

She knew that she would weep again when she saw the kind, tender hands folded in death, the face that had never looked save with love upon her, fixed and gray and dead. But she saw beyond that bitter moment an long procession of years to come that would belong to her absolutely. And she opened and spread her arms out to them in welcome.

There would be no one to live for during those coming years; she would live for herself. There would be no powerful will bending her in that blind persistence with which men and women believe they have a right to impose a private will upon a fellow creature. A kind intention or a cruel intention made the act seem no less a crime as she looked upon it in that brief moment of illumination.

And yet she had loved him—sometimes. Often she had not. What did it matter! What could love, the unsolved mystery, count for in face of this possession of self-assertion which she suddenly recognized as the strongest impulse of her being.

"Free! Body and soul free!" she kept whispering. //

Josephine was kneeling before the closed door with her lips to the keyhole, imploring for admission. "Louise, open the door! I beg: open the door—you will make yourself ill. What are you doing, Louise? For heaven's sake open the door."

"Go away. I am not making myself ill." No; she was drinking the very elixir of life through that open window.

Her fancy was running along those days ahead of her. Spring days, and summer days, and all sorts of days that would be her own. She breathed a quick prayer that life might be long. It was only yesterday she had thought with a shudder that life might be long.

She arose at length and opened the door to her sister's importunities. There was a feverish triumph in her eyes, and she carried herself unwittingly like a goddess of Victory. She clasped her sister's waist, and together they descended the stairs. Richards stood waiting for them at the bottom. //

Some one was opening the front door with a latchkey. It was Brently Mallard who entered, a little travel-stained, composedly

carrying his grip-sack and umbrella. He had been far from the scene of accident, and did not even know there had been one. He stood amazed at Josephine's piercing cry; at Richards' quick motion to screen him from the view of his wife.

But Richards was too late.

When the doctors came they said she had died of heart disease—of joy that kills. //

APPENDIX D

Selected Short Stories

Woman in the Middle

The descent was slow, slow the arriving at the maize-field. From one side to the other, one side to the other of the zigzag track. They never stopped. They hurried along, one side to the other, so they wouldn't feel the weight that was growing heavier and heavier. The weight on their backs, and the other one. The one burning in their insides like an incandescent gas. The one they could sense somewhere in the irregular band of shade that the trees threw on the dry grass. The three of them terror-struck, the weight of their children on their backs. Feliciana thought she was going crazy. She was barefoot, but her feet had ceased to exist for her. Her face swollen from being unable to cry, my God, from being unable to cry. Side to side down the hill.

Shots. They heard them close by, as if they came from the gully, down among the welcoming warmth of the trees. The silence that followed made the foliage tremble. The wind shook twigs and leaves. Her heart was a bloodstained bird fallen in the grass. Another burst of gunfire, the sound gone in an instant like a vanishing swarm of gnats, then the smell of cordite wafted up to her. She rubbed her cheek, as though in need of the rough feel of her premature wrinkles. All of a sudden, the clouds parted. The joy of the sun flooded her.

She raised her hand in an empty gesture. Manuela went out of sight round the next bend. She didn't, couldn't hear Magdalena, lying prone in the ditch by the roadside at the exit to the village. She felt she was inside a huge bubble. Her frightened gaze sought out the river, visible in the distance, south of the bend in the track. She wanted to be reassured that at least one thing was still in its proper place. Yes, there the river was, skeleton-like, silent, empty of people, stretched out under the forlorn desolation of the heart of the sky.

The sun vanished again. She bit on the dry dust that the slightest of breezes had deposited in her mouth, as on the black branches of the pines. She looked up. The clouds resembled enormous black hounds whose four fangs, hungry for flesh, spread over all the landscape, stretched as far as the horizon in pursuit of nameless, innumerable prey. The damp but dusty breeze was like a dog's panting, the warm breath of death unleashed. The hunters were closing in. She speeded up; the colours and textures of the gully quivering like those of a deep lake shimmering nervously. She could feel drops of sweat dripping from her dishevelled hair. She didn't dry herself. She let them moisten her skin, as if in their slow, salty trickling there might be a way to hold back the scream tearing at her from inside: Magdalena lying in the ditch, her unending cry.

A round face. Small eyes, dry from so much sadness. Fleshy, wide nose. What had once been a sturdy body now seemed gaunter with every minute of her descent, one side to the other, with a load so heavy she was beyond feeling it. The sun, the heart of the sky, on her blouse embroidered in yellow, green, violet and orange, lifted one bundle to

help lighten her burden. She screwed up her eyes to see into the distance. Though there had been no more sound of shots, she could see all the animals fleeing the woods.

In front of her went Manuela. She appeared, disappeared. She had broken into a trot out of fear. Behind her was only Rosenda. Just her, no one else. But she felt the whole village pressing on her heels. As though all of them had got out of that pit and could begin again. Magdalena, prone in the ditch. Everything was reduced to a memory now. She touched her face, to make sure once more she was sill alive. She was. But her memories were a jumble. Everything was mixed up, blanketed in mist. Grey, seeping in everywhere. The dry earth stirred beneath her feet, but could no longer convey anything to her. Now the earth was dry, stripped of maize. Panting from running, sweat coursing all down her body. Inside, nothing left except fear.

Faster. Not from the weight now, but because she couldn't bear to breathe that incandescent gas a moment longer. The bloodstained bird left her breathless. The shadows lengthened, black hounds poised in ambush. She was worn out, lined, weary from the trek. She wanted to wipe away the sweat, but the bundles on her back were so heavy she couldn't risk lifting an arm and overbalancing. She blinked to try to wash out the drops of sweat plucking at her eyes like hungry vultures. Magdalena lying there. The gully was a narrow slit from which to stare up at the sky. The dry dust filling her mouth. She was inside a bubble. The almost dried-up river. Faster. A lizard flashed between her feet, slipped behind a rock. She would have liked to stop and stare at it, but there was no time in their descent that had turned into a fall. Her hands hung heavy. Her whole body was asleep, knocked unconscious. She thought she would never return, there was nothing to return for, she would have to stay for ever in this abyss, listening to her heartbeats, hers alone, until the end of time. Faster, faster.

The river's skeleton was almost directly in front of her. The bend was coming up. She had to shift all the weight over to her left so that her speed didn't topple her to the right and send her off for ever into the dark pit. Dimly, she remembered her mother teaching her this movement. She willed herself to remember, but the only image in her mind was Magdalena. The whole village pressing behind her. Rubber-limbed bodies rolling down into a black pit, savaged by the hounds. Clouds all the time. Cold. Perhaps because of the bloodstained bird. The incandescent gas. Biting on the grey dust. No maize. The bend in the track.

She rounded it, and stopped short. Too late to save her from colliding with Manuela's child. The baby's screams wailed on like a siren. Her tiny hands swung through the air, together and apart, together, apart.

Manuela was standing stock still, like a statue. As though she weren't a living being, indistinguishable from the other tree trunks. Craning her neck to peer down into the shadowy depths of the gully. The taste of dust in her mouth. Choking her. The burning load, the ravaging hounds. How she longed to be able to flee along the line of the trees' shadows falling on the dry grass. But her face was too swollen now even to find the heart of the sky. The fangs trying to

force the cry from her. It would never end. They had rolled into a pit. The hungry vultures would pluck at her eyes.

The others were climbing the same path. The line of heads grew closer. They were staring up at the women. One after the other, one after the other. Marching up with measured self-assured steps. She had walked so far, and had reached nowhere. Would never reach anywhere.

From the way they moved and their stripes, they looked like mountain cats. All that was missing were the fangs.

She felt a blow in her back, a jab from an elbow. The siren's wail enveloped her again like a bubble. But the warmth of the scream offered no protection. It was Rosenda, who had run into her just as she had bumped into Manuela. The three of them were trapped. No way for them to retreat. She remembered the ruins of the village. She had been, once. Had been. Everything was finished now. The mountain cats climbing closer, one after the other. Now they were alongside.

Instinctively, she flattened herself against a tree trunk. Manuela and Rosenda did the same. If only she could merge into the foliage. Evaporate like the water from the dried-up river, snuff out the embers still burning interminably inside her.

They strode towards the women, who could hear sobbing. The three of them suppressed their own desire to scream at this boundless silence. They looked at each other, then at the line of soldiers.

She realized something she hadn't noticed before. There were three other women in the middle of the file. She was struck first by their shining eyes and wide mouths. She felt cold, and everything went dark. It couldn't be. How could it possibly be? An explosion shook her ears, her eyes. Fragments of memories flooded back, coloured scraps that dispersed over the dry earth. She felt tainted, pierced by the children's screams. She could barely breathe, as if anticipating a violent blow. Unspeaking. Only the children howled. The file of soldiers right upon them now. Level with them. She didn't want to see.

But she couldn't avoid it, and saw. The three women were being led, their hands tied behind their backs. Two soldiers on either side of them, gripping their arms. Shoving, dragging them along. Their feet traced strange patterns in the dust, leaving long trails which here and there branched out into monstrous shapes that plucked at the eyes. Then again the mist.

The other women were almost surrounded. That was why she had been unable to make them out properly. Everything was unsteady, spinning around her. Things began to loom out of proportion. She wanted to burst out laughing at having felt Magdalena's silence so, as she lay in the ditch at the edge of the village.

She had seen the woman in the middle before. She tried to pretend she didn't recognize her face, because the soldiers were watching her closely, closely. She didn't recognize the face. Yes, this was the first time she had seen her properly, though she might have glimpsed her somewhere before, in a street market perhaps. Before, everything was possible. Before.

Of course, she did recognize the face. It wasn't the first time she had seen her. The woman in the middle, this stranger hemmed in by soldiers and with her hands tied behind her back, this woman was her mother.

The long line continued on its way up the slope, disappeared round the bend. Feliciana stared at the spot where the woman had vanished, but saw only dark undergrowth.

Arturo Arias

In *The Faber Book of Contemporary Latin American Short Stories*. Edited and translated from the Spanish by Nick Caistor. London: Faber & Faber, 1989 (pp. 69-73).

Action will be Taken: An Action-Packed Story

Probably one of the strangest interludes in my life was the time I spent an employee in Alfred Wunsiedel's factory. By nature I am inclined more to pensiveness and inactivity than to work, but now and again prolonged financial difficulties compel me—for pensiveness is no more profitable than inactivity—to take on a so-called job. Finding myself once again at a low ebb of this kind, I put myself in the hands of the employment office and was sent with seven other fellow-sufferers to Wunsiedel's factory, where we were to undergo an aptitude test.

The exterior of the factory was enough to arouse my suspicions: the factory was built entirely of glass brick, and my aversion to well-lit buildings and well-lit rooms is as strong as my aversion to work. I became even more suspicious when we were immediately served breakfast in the well-lit, cheerful coffee shop: pretty waitresses brought us eggs, coffee and toast, orange juice was served in tastefully designed jugs, goldfish pressed their bored faces against the sides of pale-green aquariums. The waitresses were so cheerful that they appeared to be bursting with good cheer. Only a strong effort of will—so it seemed to me—restrained them from singing away all day long. They were crammed with unsung songs as chickens with unlaid eggs.

Right away I realized something that my fellow-sufferers evidently failed to realize: that this breakfast was already part of the test; so I chewed away reverently, with the full appreciation of a person who knows he is supplying his body with valuable elements. I did something which normally no power on earth can make me do: I drank orange juice on an empty stomach, left the coffee and egg untouched, as well as most of the toast, got up, and paced up and down in the coffee shop, pregnant with action.

As a result I was the first to be ushered into the room where the questionnaires were spread out on attractive tables. The walls were done in a shade of green that would have summoned the word "delightful" to the lips of interior decoration enthusiasts. The room appeared to be empty; and yet I was so sure of being observed that I behaved as someone pregnant with action behaves when he believes himself unobserved: I ripped my pen impatiently from my pocket, unscrewed the top, sat down at the nearest table and pulled the questionnaire toward me, the way irritable customers snatch at the bill in a restaurant.

Question No. 1: Do you consider it right for a human being to possess only two arms, two legs, eyes, and ears?

Here for the first time I reaped the harvest of my pensive nature and wrote without hesitation: "Even four arms, legs and ears would not be adequate for my driving energy. Human beings are very poorly equipped."

Question No. 2: How many telephones can you handle at one time?

Here again the answer was as easy as simple arithmetic: "When there are only seven telephones," I wrote, "I get impatient, there have to be nine before I feel I am working to capacity."

Question No. 3: How do you spend your free time?

My answer: "I no longer acknowledge the term free time—on my fifteenth birthday I eliminated it from my vocabulary, for in the beginning was the act."

I got the job. Even with nine telephones I really didn't feel I was working to capacity. I shouted into the mouthpieces: "Take immediate action!" or "Do something!—We must have some action—Action will be taken—Action has been taken—Action should be taken." But as a rule—for I felt this was in keeping with the tone of the place—I used the imperative.

Of considerable interest were the noon-hour breaks, when we consumed nutritious foods in an atmosphere of silent good cheer. Wunsiedel's factory was swarming with people who were obsessed with telling you the story of their lives, as indeed vigorous personalities are fond of doing. The story of their lives is more important to them than their lives, you have only to press a button, and immediately it is covered with spewed-out exploits.

Wunsiedel had a right-hand man called Broschek, who had in turn made a name for himself by supporting seven children and a paralyzed wife by working night-shifts in his student days, and successfully carrying on four business agencies, besides which he had passed two examinations with honors in two years. When asked by reporters: "When do you sleep, Mr. Broschek?" he had replied: "It's a crime to sleep!"

Wunsiedel's secretary had supported a paralyzed husband and four children by knitting, at the same time graduating in psychology and German history as well as breeding shepherd dogs, and she had become famous as a night-club singer where she was known as *Vamp Number Seven*.

Wunsiedel himself was one of those people who every morning, as they open their eyes, make up their minds to act. "I must act," they think as they shave, triumphantly watching their beard hairs being washed away with the lather: these hirsute vestiges are the first daily sacrifices to their driving energy. The more intimate functions also give these people a sense of satisfaction: water swishes, paper is used. Action has been taken. Bread gets eaten, eggs are decapitated.

With Wunsiedel, the most trivial activity looked like action: the way he put on his hat, the way—quivering with energy—he buttoned up his overcoat, the kiss he gave his wife, everything was action.

When he arrived at his office he greeted his secretary with a cry of "Let's have some action!" And in ringing tones she would call back: "Action will be taken!" Wunsiedel then went from department to department, calling out his cheerful: "Let's have some action!" Everyone would answer: "Action will be taken!" And I would call back to him too, with a radiant smile, when he looked into my office: "Action will be taken!"

Within a week I had increased the number of telephones on my desk to eleven, within two weeks to thirteen, and every morning on the streetcar I enjoyed thinking up new imperatives, or chasing the words *take action* through various tenses and modulations: for two whole days I kept saying the same sentence over and over again because I thought it sounded so marvelous: "Action ought to have been taken"; for another two days it was: "Such action ought not to have been taken."

So I was really beginning to feel I was working to capacity when there actually was some action. One Tuesday morning—I had hardly settled down at my desk—Wunsiedel rushed into my office crying his "Let's have some action!" But an inexplicable something in his face made me hesitate to reply, in a cheerful jay voice as the rules dictated: "Action will be taken!" I must have paused too long, for Wunsiedel, who seldom raised his voice, shouted at me: "Answer! Answer, you know the rules!" And I answered, under my breath, reluctantly, like a child who is forced to say: I am a naughty child. It was only by a great effort that I managed to bring out the sentence: "Action will be taken," and hardly had I uttered it when there really was some action: Wunsiedel dropped to the floor. As he fell he rolled over onto his side and lay right across the open doorway. I knew at once, and I confirmed it when I went slowly around my desk and approached the body on the floor: he was dead.

Shaking my head I stepped over Wunsiedel, walked slowly along the corridor to Broschek's office, and entered without knocking. Borschek was sitting at his desk, a telephone receiver in each hand, between his teeth a ballpoint pen with which he was making notes on a writing pad, while with his bare feet he was operating a knitting machine under the desk. In this way, he helps to clothe his family. "We've had some action," I said in a low voice.

Broschek spat out the ballpoint pen, put down the two receivers, reluctantly detached his toes from the knitting machine.

"What action?" he asked.

"Wunsiedel is dead," I said.

"No," said Broschek.

"Yes," I said, "come and have a look!"

"No," said Broschek, "that's impossible," but he put on his slippers and followed me along the corridor.

"No," he said, when we stood beside Wunsiedel's corpse, "No, no!" I did not contradict him. I carefully turned Wunsiedel over onto his back, closed his eyes and looked at him pensively.

I felt something like tenderness for him, and realized for the first time that I had never hated him. On his face was that expression which one sees on children who obstinately refuse to give up their faith in Santa Claus, even though the arguments of their playmates sound so convincing.

"No," said Broschek, "no."

"We must take action," I said quietly to Broschek.

"Yes," said Broschek, "we must take action."

Action was taken: Wunsiedel was buried, and I was delegated to carry a wreath of artificial roses behind his coffin, for I am equipped with not only a penchant for pensiveness and inactivity but also a face and figure that go extremely well with dark suits. Apparently as I

walked along behind Wunsiedel's coffin carrying the wreath of artificial roses I looked superb. I received an offer from a fashionable firm of funeral directors to join their staff as a professional mourner. "You are a born mourner," said the manager, "your outfit would be provided by the firm. Your face—simply superb!"

I handed in my notice to Broschek, explaining that I had never really felt I was working to capacity there; that, in spite of the thirteen telephones, some of my talents were going to waste. As soon as my first professional appearance as a mourner was over I knew: This is where I belong, this is what I am cut out for.

Pensively I stand behind the coffin in the funeral chapel, holding a simple bouquet, while the organ plays Handel's *Largo*, a piece that does not receive nearly the respect it deserves. The cemetery café is my regular haunt; there I was behind coffins which I have not been engaged to follow, I pay for flowers out of my own pocket and join the welfare worker who walks behind the coffin of some homeless person. From time to time I also visit Wunsiedel's grave, for after all I owe it to him that I discovered my true vocation, a vocation in which pensiveness is essential and inactivity my duty.

It was not till much later that I realized I had never bothered to find out what was being produced in Wunsiedel's factory. I expect it was soap.

Heinrich Böll

In *Heinrich Böll: 18 Stories*. Translated from the German by Leila Vennewitz. New York: McGraw Hill, 1966 (pp. 163-170).

APPENDIX E

Subject Sample

Table E - 1

SUBJECT SAMPLE:
BY SEX, COUNTRY OF ORIGIN/YEARS IN CANADA, AGE,
AND A.B.E. ACHIEVEMENT LEVEL

CODE	COUNTRY OF ORIGIN	YEARS IN CANADA	AGE IN YEARS	ADULT BASIC ENGLISH TEST R.COMP. %ile	VOCAB %ile	ESSAY Max 4	USAGE %
ESL FEMALE							
SLF1	Philippines	19	51	39	65	2	65
SLF2	Columbia	8	33	1	14	3	55
SLF3	Hongkong	3	21	13	23	2	70
SLF4	Taiwan	2	28	17	19	2	68
SLF5	Hongkong	2	45	8	17	4	73
ESL MALE							
SLM1	Hongkong	4	23	2	83	2	57
SLM2	Chile	16	42	13	17	2	28
SLM3	Hongkong	2	21	32	10	2	53
SLM4	Poland	4	35	42	35	2	83
SLM5	Columbia	17	39	47	90	3	62
ENL FEMALE							
NLF1	Canada		22	52	90	4	72
NLF2	" "		20	47	59	4	75
NLF3	" "		30	32	51	**	**
NLF4	" "		20	47	59	3	47
ENL MALE							
NLM1	Canada		27	47	90	3	57
NLM2	" "		24	62	80	3	50
NLM3	" "		36	17	35	2	62
NLM4	" "		27	37	42	3	38
NLM5	" "		41	48	91	4	70

NOTE: ** Exempted because of High School achievement level.

APPENDIX F

Coding Sample Protocols

CODING SAMPLE: 1

WRITTEN RESPONSE: Woman in the Middle

ID CODE: SLM2

This event, in Woman in the Middle, is something real, and not a piece of fiction of North-American Literature, in Centro-America./[1] In Centro-Ammerica the army has absolute power over the powerless peasant or over the poor and powerless in any part of Centro-America./[2] I can mention countries, but is not necessary because it is all around the same./[3] I believe the story is well write./[4] It is quite descriptive/[5] and keep the interes of the reader./[6]

[1]Inter...	#330
[2]Inter...	#343
[3]Misc....	#500
[4]Eval....	#421
[5]Perc....	#226
[6]Engag...	#100

TOTAL.....	6
Engag.....	1
Percep.....	1
Inter.....	2
Eval.....	1
Misc.....	1

CODING SAMPLE: 2

WRITTEN RESPONSE: Action Will Be Taken

ID CODE: NLM2

The main character is an intelegent man with a very simple outlook in life./[1] not wanting to get hung - up with trivial difficulties he adapt to varius situations easly./[2] Definatly a follower not a leader and for the most part not very outspoken./[3] Quite content to be average eventhough he may be capible of more./[4]

[1]Perc..... #233

[2]Inter.... #322

[3]Inter.... #322

[4]Inter.... #32_

TOTAL..... 4

Engag.....

Percep..... 1

Inter..... 3

Eval.....

Misc.....

APPENDIX G

Verbal Scales: Specimen Format

VERBAL SCALES: "Woman in the Middle"

Which of the words listed below are suggested by the story and/or its setting? Circle a number from 0 (NOT RELEVANT) to 7 (VERY APPLICABLE).

	NOT RELEVANT 0	NOT 1	2	3	APPLICABLE 4	5	6	VERY 7
HAPPY	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TENDER	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MONSTROUS	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
GAY	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OMINOUS	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FOOLISH	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FEARFUL	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
WICKED	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SLOW	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TENSE	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
LAZY	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NOISY	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AGITATED	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TRAGIC	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CALM	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
URBAN	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COLD	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FRIGHTENING	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SILENT	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HOT	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
RURAL	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

(Verbal scales: "Woman in the Middle" continued)

	NOT RELEVANT	NOT APPLICABLE						VERY
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DARK	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PEOPLED	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
WET	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DUSTY	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
URGENT	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
WOODED	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
LIGHT	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DRY	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MISTY	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STEEP	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EMPTY	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TROPICAL	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FAST-PACED	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BARE	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FLAT	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
REPETITIVE	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HORRIFIC	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

VERBAL SCALES: "Action Will Be Taken—An action-packed story"

Which of the words listed below are suggested by the story and/or its setting? Circle a number from 0 (NOT RELEVANT) to 7 (VERY APPLICABLE).

	NOT RELEVANT	NOT			APPLICABLE			VERY
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRANGE	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EAGER	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HYPERACTIVE	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DREAMLIKE	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
UNFAMILIAR	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HUMOROUS	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SLOW	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EXAGGERATED	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SHOCKING	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MOURNFUL	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
IMPOSSIBLE	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DECEITFUL	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SATIRICAL	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FUNNY	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FAST-PACED	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SARCASTIC	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TRUTHFUL	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CRITICAL	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HAPPY	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ALARMING	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CYNICAL	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TRAGIC	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX H

Unfamiliar Word Tables: Student Scores

Table H - 1

(Woman...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 1 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
descent						*	*	*				*							
# maize-field	*-		*-	*-		**		**	*-							*-	**		
zigzag			*			*		*											
# track								*	*										
(one side to					(*														
the other)					*)														
(the other					(*														
one)					*)														
# incandescent	*		*		*	*		*	*			*	*	*		*	*		
band									*										
shade									*										
terror-struck						**		**	-*										
Feliciana		*					*												
barefoot						*			*										
ceased			*			*			*										
exist						*													
(side to side					(*														
down)					*)														
# gully	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*										
# foliage		*	*	*	*	*		*	*										
tremble									*										
shook									*										
twigs								*											
# bloodstained			*			*			*										
# burst						*													
gunfire						*													
vanishing									*										
swarm		*				*			*										
gnats	*	*		*	*	*			*			*						*	
cordite		*	*		*	*		*	*	*		*						*	
wafted		*	*			*		*	*										*
rubbed									*										
rough									*										
premature			*			*													
wrinkles						*			*							*			
parted									*										
# flooded								*	*										
TOTALS	4	7	10	4	4	21	4	12	23	1	3	2	0	1	2	1	6	1	0

NOTE: # Signifies a word occurring more than once. Underlining is discontinued here and the word is omitted from later sections.

Table H - 2

(Woman...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 2 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
gesture			*			*														
Magdalena							*													
# prone	*	*	*	*	*	*		*							*		*			
# ditch	*	*	*	*		*			*										*	
# bubble				*	*	*			*											
gaze						*														
reassured					*	*														
# skeleton-like			*.			**		**												
stretched out									*											
forlorn	*		*	*	*	*		*									*			
desolation	*		*	*	*	*		*												
# vanished									*											
slightest						*														
breezes						*														
pines								*	*											
resembled						*														
enormous						*														
# hounds	*	*				*			*											
# fangs			*		*	*		*	*											
flesh									*											
landscape						*														
horizon						*														
pursuit			*			*														
innumerable					*	*														
prey		*	*			*		*												
damp			*	*		*		*	*											
breeze									*											
# panting	*	*	*			*			*											
unleashed		*	*	*	*	*			*											
textures			*			*														
quivereing		*	*		*	*	*	*												
shimmering		*	*	*		*		*	*											
dripping						*			*											
dishevelled	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*										*	
moisten						*		*												
salty						*			*											
trickling	*	*				*		*	*											
Totals	8	9	16	10	9	32	2	14	18	0	0	0	0	1		2	0	2	0	0

NOTE: # Signifies a word occurring more than once. Underlining is recorded here and the word is omitted from later sections.

Table H - 3

(Woman...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 3 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
fleshy		*							*										
sturdy		*	*	*		*		*	*										
gaunter	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*									*	
blouse						*		*											
embroidered			*	*		*		*	*										
violet						*													
bundle						*		*	*										
burden						*			*		*								
screwed						*													
fleeing						*													
trot (out)	*	*	*	*		*		*	*										
village									*										
(PRESSING on		(*						*											
her heels)		*)				*													
# pit		*		*		*			*										
jumble	*	*	*		*	*		*	*										
blanketed		*				*		*	*										
# mist						*			*										
seeping		*	*			*													
stirrred								*											
convey				*	*	*		*	*										
stripped		*				*			*										
sweat						*													
coursing	*					*			*										
lengthened						*													
poised									*										
ambush		*	*	*	*	*		*	*			*							
worn out						*			*										
lined									*										
weary								*	*										
trek		*	*		*	*		*	*										
wipe						*													
plucking		*				*													
# vultures			*	*		*		*	*										
slit				*		*			*										
stare up									*										
lizard		*		*		*			*										
flashed									*										
abyss	*		*	*		*			*										
Totals	5	13	11	11	5	30	0	14	28	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

NOTE: # Signifies a word occurring more than once. Underlining is recorded here and the word is omitted from later sections.

Table H - 4

(Woman...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 4 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ESL	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL
topple	*	*	*			*			*												
dimly						*		*	*												
willed									*												
rubber-limbed		-*				*			*												
savaged			*	*					*												
bird									*												
biting						*															
colliding	*			*		*		*													
wailed		*				*		*	*												
siren		*				*															
swung						*			*												
(standing								(*													
STOCK STILL)								*)	*												
statue						*															
indistinguishable							*														
# (tree-)trunks						*															
craning	*	*	*	*		*			*												
shadowy						*		*	*												
ravaging		*	*	*		*		*	*												
longed									*												
flee		*				*			*												
rolled									*												
pluck						*		*													
Totals	0	3	7	4	4	15	0	8	15	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	

NOTE: # Signifies a word occurring more than once. Underlining is recorded here and the word is omitted from later sections.

Table H - 5

(Woman...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 5 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
staring up									*										
stripes		*		*		*			*										
jab	*	*	*			*			*										
siren's						*													
wail						*			*										
bumped						*		*											
trapped						*			*										
retreat									*										
ruins		*				*													
(She had been,				(*															
once.)				*)															
alongside								*											
instinctively						*		*											
flattened						*			*										
merge		*				*			*										
evaporate			*			*													
snuff (out)	*		*			*			**										
embers		*				*			*										
interminably			*			*			*										
strode (up)						*		*	**										
sobbing		*				*		*	*										
suppressed	*					*													
boundless						*			*										
soldiers						*													
Totals	1	2	6	4	2	19	0	5	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

NOTE: # Signifies a word occurring more than once. Underlining is recorded here and the word is omitted from later sections.

Table H - 6

(Woman...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 6 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
file	*		*			*													
struck						*			*										
shining									*										
(everything		(*																	
went dark)		*)																	
explosion		*																	
fragments						*		*											
scraps						*			*										
dispersed			*			*			*						*				
tainted	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*										
pierced		*				*		*	*										
anticipating				*															
howled	*					*		*	*										
led						*													
gripping		*				*			*										
shoving		*				*		*	*										
dragging		*						*	*										
traced						*			*										
trails				*				*											
branched out						*		*	*										
monstrous		*				*		*											
plucked			*			*			*										
surrounded									*										
unsteady						*													
spinning						*			*										
(to LOOM out		*	(*			*		*	*										
of PROPORTION)			*)			*													
Totals	1	3	7	7	3	20	0	9	17	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

Table H - 7

(Woman...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 7 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
glimpsed		*				*		*	*										
hemmed		*	*	*		*		*	*										
slope	*								*										
spot									*										
undergrowth	*					*		*	*										
Totals	0	2	2	1	1	3	0	3	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
GROSS TOTALS	39		41			140		65		1	4		0		5		9		0
	19		59		28		6		120			3		2		1		1	

Table H - 8

(Action...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 1 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
interludes			*	*		*		*	*										
inclined						*		*	*										
# pensiveness	*	*	*	*		*		*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
compel				*		*												*	
ebb	*			*		*	*	*	*					*			*		
undergo									*									*	
aptitude			*	*	*	*			*										
exterior						*													
arouse						*													
suspicions						*													
brick						*													
aversion	*	*		*		*		*											
well-lit	*					*													
suspicious						*													
jugs						*			*										
pale-green						*		*											
aquariums		*				*		*											
bursting						*			*										
restrained						*		*											
crammed				*		*	*		*										
chewed			*			*		*											
reverently	*	*	*	*		*		*	*			*							
appreciation								*											
paced up									*										
# (PREGNANT with				(*		*		*						(*					
# action)				*)										*)					
Totals	0	5	6	4	9	22	2	12	12	0	1	2	1	3	1	1	3	3	0

NOTE # Signifies a word occurring more than once. Underlining is recorded here and the word is omitted from later sections.

Table H - 9

(Action...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 2 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
ushered	*	*		*		*		*	*										
summoned	*					*		*	*										
interior						*													
decoration						*													
enthusiasts				*		*													
behaves									*										
ripped						*			*										
impatiently								*											
unscrewed						*			*										
irritable						*		*											
snatch						*			*										
possess						*													
(REAPED the...				*	(*	*		*	*		*								
... my PENSIVE)	*				*)	*									*				
(beginning was					(*														
the act)					*)														
adequate						*													
# equipped			*			*													
arithmetic						*													
mouthpieces			*		*	*													
imperative	*	*	*	*	*	*					*		*		*				*
Totals	2	3	4	1	6	17	0	5	7	0	0	2	0	1	1	1	0	0	1

NOTE # Signifies a word occurring more than once. Underlining is recorded here and the word is omitted from later sections.

Table H - 10

(Action...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 3	ESL										ENL									
WORDS	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	F1	F2	F3	F4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	
nutritious														*						
swarming		*						*	*											
obsessed		*				*		*												
vigorous				*	*	*		*												
spewed-out	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*											
exploits			*		*	*		*	*											
right-hand		*																		
paralyzed						*		*												
# knitting			*			*		*	*											
breeding						*		*	*											
shepherd						*														
vamp No. 7		*																		
Totals	1	5	3	2	3	8	0	8	5	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	

NOTE # Signifies a word occurring more than once. Underlining is recorded here and the word is omitted from later sections.

Table H - 11

(Action...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 4 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
briskly			*	*		*		*											
bathrobe					*	*			*										
belts					*														
triumphantly			*	*		*		*											
lather		*																	
hirsute	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*				*	*					
vestiges	*	*	*	*	*	*			*				*	*					
driving						*													
intimate					*	*		*											
swishes			*	*		*			*										
decapitated		*	*	*	*	*		*	*										
trivial		*	*			*		*	*										
quivering			*			*		*	*										
buttoned up						*													
overcoat						*													
greeted						*			*										
radiant			*			*			*										
streetcar		*							*										
imperatives			*			*		*					*					*	
chasing			*																
modualtions			*	*	*	*		*											
marvelous						*		*	*										
Totals	2	5	13	7	7	18	1	9	11	0	0	3	2	0	2	2	2	3	0

NOTE # Signifies a word occurring more than once. Underlining is recorded here and the word is omitted from later sections.

Table H - 12

(Action...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 5 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
(working to	(*																		
capacity)	*)																		
inexplicable		*		*		*		*					*						
gay						*													
dictated						*													
paused	*					*													
# reluctantly	,					*		*											
naughty						*			*										
hardly	*																		
uttered	*					*		*	*										
rolled								*											
confirmed									*										
Totals	0	5	1	0	1	7	0	4	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table H - 13

(Action...): UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 6 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
corridor		*				*													
ballpoint									*										
bare									*										
spat out	*					*			*										
detached	*	*						*											
corpse		*				*													
contradict								*											
# pensively	*	*				*		*	*				*				*	*	
tenderness						*													
obstinately	*	*		*		*													
faith									*										
Santa Claus						*													
playmates						*													
Totals	0	4	5	0	0	8	0	3	5	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0

NOTE # Signifies a word occurring more than once. Underlining is recorded here and the word is omitted from later sections.

Table H - 14

(Action...):UNFAMILIAR WORDS UNDERLINED (ESL/ENL)

SECTION 7 WORDS	ESL F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ESL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	ENL F1	F2	F3	F4	ENL M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
buried						*		*											
delegated			*		*	*		*											
wreath		*			*	*		*	*										
penchant	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*			*			*			*	
suoerb		*	*		*	*	*			*									
mourner		*	*			*		*	*										
outfit						*		*	*										
(handed in my						(*													
notice)						*)													
(cut out for)				*		*			*										
chapel		*	*			*													
bouquet			*			*													
cemetery								*											
haunt	*	*			*	*		*	*										
owe			*			*													
Totals	2	7	9	1	6	13	1	8	7	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
GROSS TOTALS	33 / 7		15 / 39		32	4 / 93		50 / 49		0	1 / 10		3 / 5		5 / 5		7 / 6		1

APPENDIX I

Written Response Tables: Mean % Distributions for Elements

Table I-1

WRITTEN RESPONSES: MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR ELEMENTS 100 - 284

	(A) 2 Stories All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(B) "Women..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(C) "Action..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %
100	6.72	6.	56	7.47	6.05	11.23	10.97	11.53	13.71	9.00	2.21	2.78	1.59	1.23	3.09
110	0.50		1.06	1.06		1.00		2.12	2.12						
120															
122															
123	0.24		0.51	0.51		0.48		1.01	1.01						
130	0.24		0.51	0.51		0.48		1.01	1.01						
132															
133	2.07		4.37	1.73	2.38	4.14		8.75	3.46	4.76					
134	0.88	0.83	0.93	0.93	0.83	0.88		1.85		1.67	0.88	1.67		1.85	
200	1.94	1.56	2.36	2.97	1.00	3.29	2.00	4.71	4.71	2.00	0.58	1.11		1.23	
203	5.00	2.71	7.53	4.44	5.50	7.36	3.43	11.73	7.76	7.00	2.63	2.00	3.33	1.11	4.00
210	0.75	1.00	0.46	0.46	1.00	1.05	2.00			2.00	0.44		0.93	0.93	
212	0.29	0.56		0.62							0.58	1.11		1.23	
214	1.34	1.55	1.11	0.79	1.83	1.80	1.43	2.22	1.59	2.00	0.88	1.67			1.67
221	0.58		1.23	1.23		1.17		2.47	2.47						
223	0.24		0.51	0.51		0.48		1.01	1.01						
226	1.26	2.39		0.62	1.83	2.51	4.78		1.23	3.67					
227	0.88		1.85		1.67						1.75		3.70		3.33
230	0.22		0.46	0.46							0.44		0.93	0.93	
231	3.34	3.27	3.42	4.68	2.13	1.37	2.53		1.89	0.83	5.34	4.00	6.84	7.47	3.43
232	8.74	6.65	11.07	8.64	8.84	5.43	6.98	3.70	7.75	3.33	12.06	6.32	18.44	9.53	14.34
233	4.61	3.75	5.57	5.83	3.51	2.05	2.22	1.85	4.32		7.18	5.28	9.29	7.35	7.02
234	0.67	0.31	1.06	1.06	0.31						1.33	0.63	2.12	2.12	0.63
235	0.48	0.42	0.56	0.56	0.42	0.44	0.83			0.83	0.53		1.11	1.11	
240	0.73	0.56	0.93	0.62	0.83	1.46	1.11	1.85	1.23	1.67					
252	0.48		1.01	1.01							0.96		2.02	2.02	
253	0.24		0.51	0.51							0.48		1.01	1.01	
260	0.53	0.56	0.51	1.12		0.58	1.11		1.23		0.48		1.01	1.01	
263	0.72	0.42	1.06	1.06	0.42	1.44	0.83	2.12	2.12	0.83					
268	0.24		0.51	0.51		0.48		1.01	1.01						
284	1.36	2.08	0.56	0.56	2.08	1.32	2.50			2.50	1.40	1.67	1.11	1.11	1.67

Table I-2

WRITTEN RESPONSES: MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR ELEMENTS 300 - 505

	(A) 2 Stories All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(B) "Women..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(C) "Action..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %
300	1.22	1.86	0.51	1.39	1.15	1.23	1.43	1.01	2.60		1.21	2.50			1.29
314	0.15	0.29		0..		0.31	0.59		0.65						
320	1.13	0.31	2.04	1.11	1.15	0.88		1.[illegible]			1.38	0.63	2.[illegible]	2.22	0.63
321	2.19	2.66	1.67	3.23	1.25	3.32	5.31	1.[illegible]	[illegible]	1.50	1.05		2.22	2.22	
322	6.77	6.45	7.13	3.53	9.69	3.22	6.11		[illegible]	2.50	10.33	6.78	14.26	3.05	16.88
324	0.45	0.85		0.94		0.31	0.59				0.58	1.11		1.23	
330	3.09	4.33	1.72	0.93	5.05	2.94	4.17	[illegible]		1.59	3.25	4.50	1.85	1.85	4.50
332	2.19	4.17		1.39	2.92	4.39	8.33		[illegible]	5.83					
333	0.33	0.63			0.63	0.66	1.25			1.25					
340	0.44		0.93	0.93							0.88		1.85	1.85	
342	[illegible]		0.46	0.46							0.44		0.93	0.93	
343	[illegible]	0.83			0.83	0.88	1.67			1.67					
350	0.22		0.46	0.46							0.44		0.93	0.93	
352	0.88		1.85		1.67						1.75		3.70		3.33
400	8.77	10.18	7.20	10.78	6.95	5.78	5.36	6.26	7.19	4.52	11.75	15.00	8.15	14.38	9.39
410	0.97	0.56	1.43	1.12	0.83	1.46	1.11	1.85	1.23	1.67	[illegible]		1.01	1.01	
420	2.39		5.05		4.55	2.68		5.66		5.09			4.44		4.00
421	2.73	2.64	2.84	2.62	2.83	4.15	2.78	5.68	2.47	5.67	1.32	2.50		2.78	
431	0.51	0.56	0.46	1.08							1.02	1.11	0.93	2.16	
432	0.70		1.48	0.56	0.83	1.40		2.96	1.11	1.67					
433	0.92	1.25	0.56	0.56	1.25						1.84	2.50	1.11	1.11	2.50
435	0.26		0.56	0.56							0.53		1.11	1.11	0.00
436	0.38	0.71			0.71						0.75	1.43			1.43
500	13.80	21.47	5.28	17.20	10.73	13.91	17.75	9.63	13.42	14.34	13.69	25.18	0.93	20.99	7.13
504	0.60		1.26	0.46	0.71	0.75		1.59		1.43	0.44		0.93	0.93	
505	2.96	4.79	0.93		5.62	1.32	0.23	1.85		2.50	4.61	8.75			8.75

APPENDIX J

Written & Oral Response Tables:
Mean % Distributions for Sub-Categories

Table J-1

WRITTEN RESPONSES: MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR SUB-CATEGORIES

	(A) ? Stories All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(B) "Women..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(C) "Action..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %
* 100	6.72	6.87	6.56	7.47	6.05	11.23	10.97	11.53	13.71	9.00	2.21	2.78	1.59	1.23	3.09
110	0.50		1.06	1.06		1.00		2.12	2.12						
120	0.24		0.51	0.51		0.48		1.01	1.01						
130	3.19	0.83	5.80	3.16	3.21	5.50		11.61	4.47	6.43	0.88	1.67		1.85	
200	6.93	4.27	9.89	7.41	6.50	10.66	5.43	16.44	12.47	9.00	3.22	3.11	3.33	2.35	4.00
210	2.38	3.10	1.57	1.87	2.83	2.86	3.43	2.22	1.59	4.00	1.90	2.78	0.93	2.16	1.67
220	2.96	2.39	3.59	2.36	3.50	4.16	4.78	3.48	4.7	3.67	1.75		3.70		3.33
* 230	18.06	14.39	22.14	21.23	15.21	9.24	12.56	5.55	13.96	5.00	26.88	16.22	38.73	28.51	25.42
240	0.73	0.56	0.93	0.62	0.83	1.46	1.11	1.85	1.23	1.67					
250	0.72		1.52	1.52							1.44		3.03	3.03	
260	1.49	0.97	2.07	2.69	0.42	2.51	1.94	3.13	4.37	0.83	0.48		1.01	1.01	
270			0.00												
280	1.36	2.08	0.56	0.56	2.08	1.32	2.50			2.50	1.40	1.67	1.11	1.11	1.67
300	1.22	1.86	0.51	1.30	1.15	1.23	1.43	1.01	2.60		1.21	2.29			2.29
310	0.15	0.29	0.00	0.33		0.31	0.59		0.65						
* 320	10.53	10.26	10.84	8.81	12.09	7.72	12.01	2.96	8.90	6.67	13.35	8.52	18.71	8.73	17.50
330	5.02	9.12	1.72	2.31	8.59	7.99	13.75	1.59	2.78	12.68	3.25	6.50	1.85	1.85	6.50
340	1.10	0.83	1.39	1.39	0.83	0.88	1.67			1.67	1.32		2.78	2.78	
350	1.10		2.31	0.46	1.67						2.19		4.63	0.93	3.33
* 400	8.77	10.18	7.20	10.78	6.95	5.78	5.36	6.26	7.19	4.52	11.75	15.00	8.15	14.38	9.39
410	0.97	0.56	1.43	1.12	0.83	1.46	1.11	1.85	1.23	1.67	0.48		1.01	1.01	
420	5.13	2.64	7.89	2.62	7.38	6.83	2.78	11.34	2.47	10.76	3.42	2.50	4.44	2.78	4.00
430	2.77	2.52	3.06	2.75	2.80	1.40		2.96	1.11	1.67	4.14	5.04	3.15	4.38	3.93
* 500	17.35	26.26	7.46	17.67	17.07	15.97	18.58	13.07	13.42	18.27	18.73	33.93	1.85	21.91	15.88

Table J-2

ORAL RESPONSES: MEAN % DISTRIBUTIONS FOR SUB-CATEGORIES

	(A) 2 Stories All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(B) "Woman..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %	(C) "Action..." All Groups Mean %	ESL Mean %	ENL Mean %	Female Mean %	Male Mean %
• 100	0.14		0.29	0.29							0.28		0.58	0.58	
110															
120	0.19	0.20	0.19	0.22	0.17	0.12		0.25		0.23	0.27	0.39	0.13	0.44	0.11
130	1.45	1.11	1.84	0.95	1.91	1.11	1.37	0.83	0.27	1.87	1.79	0.85	2.84	1.63	1.95
200	6.37	4.13	8.86	7.72	5.16	7.38	5.33	9.66	7.56	7.21	5.36	2.94	8.05	7.87	3.10
210	0.15		0.32	0.13	0.17	0.13		0.26	0.26		0.18		0.38		0.34
220	0.40	0.10	0.75	0.37	0.43	0.77	0.12	1.49	0.66	0.87	0.04	0.07		0.08	
• 230	48.22	53.25	42.62	49.93	46.66	43.45	48.51	37.84	44.17	42.81	52.98	58.00	47.40	55.68	50.55
240	0.46	0.12	0.84	0.17	0.73	0.36	0.25	0.48	0.34	0.37	0.57		1.20		1.08
250	0.58	0.24	0.96	0.29	0.94	0.57	0.28	0.90	0.58	0.57	0.58	0.20	1.01		1.11
260	0.53	0.07	1.04	0.12	0.89	0.76	0.15	1.45	0.26	1.21	0.29		0.62		0.56
270															
280															
300	0.78	1.27	0.28	0.11	1.38	0.70	1.01	0.37	0.23	1.13	0.85	1.45	0.19		1.62
310	0.30		0.62	0.38	0.22	0.50		1.06	0.76	0.27	0.09		0.19		0.17
• 320	26.06	18.93	32.38	27.06	27.05	28.12	18.40	38.91	29.11	27.23	24.01	19.47	29.05	20.82	26.88
330	0.73	0.81	0.66	0.92	0.57	0.85	1.61		1.56	0.20	0.62		1.31	0.27	0.94
340	0.08		0.17		0.16						0.16		0.35		0.31
350	0.05	0.10			0.10	0.11	0.20			0.20					
• 400	0.21	0.04	0.41	0.45		0.11		0.23	0.23		0.31	0.07	0.58	0.66	
410	0.23	0.13	0.34	0.27	0.19	0.13	0.04	0.23	0.27		0.33	0.21	0.46	0.27	0.38
420	0.30	0.11	0.52	0.36	0.25	0.21		0.45	0.45		0.39	0.21	0.59	0.27	0.50
430	0.42		0.88	0.88							0.83		1.75	1.75	
• 500	11.75	19.01	3.68	10.46	12.92	14.22	22.54	4.97	12.82	15.47	9.28	15.49	2.39	8.09	10.36

APPENDIX K

Verbal Scale Tables: Student Scores & Group Means

Table K-1

VERBAL SCALES (Women...): ESL/ENL, FEMALE/MALE, STUDENT SCORES AND MEANS

	ESL										ENL										All Groups	ESL	ENL	All Groups	Female	Male
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	F1	F2	F3	F4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5		Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Happy	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2		0.47	0.10	0.89	0.47	0.56	0.40
Tender	4	5	0	0	2	0	7	0	7	0	6	3	0	6	0	4	5	1	0		2.63	2.50	2.78	2.63	2.89	2.40
Monstrous	2	7	6	7	2	4	0	7	7	7	7	7	0	6	4	6	4	7	7		5.11	4.90	5.33	5.11	4.89	5.30
Gay	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0		0.37	0.10	0.67	0.37	0.56	0.20
Ominous	0		6	7	4	4	0	5	5	7	7	7	2	7	4	2	3	7	7		4.67	4.22	5.11	4.67	4.76	4.40
Foolish	7	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0		0.63	0.80	0.44	0.63	0.78	0.50
Fearful	2	7	6	7	5	5	6	6	6	7	7	7	5	7	7	7	6	7	7		6.16	5.70	6.67	6.16	5.89	6.40
Wicked	1	6	7	7	1	3	4	5	7	2	5	6	2	6	3	3	2	7	0		4.16	4.30	4.00	4.16	4.56	3.80
Slow	7	0	5	7	7	2	3	4	5	3	2	1	1	5	2	0	4	1	1		3.16	4.30	1.89	3.16	3.89	2.50
Tense	3	7	6	7	6	5	6	6	6	6	7	6	4	6	6	7	5	7	7		5.95	5.80	6.11	5.95	5.78	6.10
Lazy	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0.16	0.20	0.11	0.16	0.22	0.10
Noisy	1	5	0	3	0	4	5	0	7	6	7	6	2	4	1	2	0	1	4		3.05	3.10	3.00	3.05	3.11	3.00
Agitated	2	7	6	7	7	5	6	6	7	7	7	5		6	5	2	5	7	5		5.67	6.00	5.25	5.67	5.88	5.50
Tragic	0	7	6	7	3	6	5	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	7	7		6.16	5.50	6.89	6.16	[illegible]	6.60
Calm	5	1	1	0	2	1	0	4	0	0	3	5	0	0	1	1	0	1	1		1.37	1.40	1.33	1.3		.90
Urban	0	6	2	0	0	4	0	2	0	0	0	4		0	0	0	0	0	0		1.00	1.40	0.50	1.00	[illegible]	0.60
Cold	4	7	6	7	0	5	3	6	0	0	5	3	2	5	3	2	2	7	3		3.68	3.80	3.56	3.68	4.33	3.10
Frightening	1	7	6	7	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	6	2	7	5	5	4	7	7		5.58	5.60	5.56	5.58	5.22	5.90
Silent	1	4	5	6	6	1	5	0	0	0	5	6	0	5	2	1	0	6	1		2.84	2.80	2.89	2.84	4.22	1.60
Hot	7	7	6	0	6	2	7	5	7	5	5	7	1	7	4	1	0	0	6		4.37	5.20	3.44	4.37	5.11	3.70
Rural	7	6	5	7	7	4	7	6	7	7	5	1		5	5	0	0	0	7		4.78	6.30	2.88	4.78	5.38	4.30
Dark	1	4	4	4	1	3	0	1	5	2	7	4		0	2	4	4	0	3		2.72	2.50	3.00	2.72	3.13	2.40
Peopled	7	7	1	2	3	2	4	3	4	5	5	7	7	4	2	5	4	3	5		4.21	3.80	4.67	4.21	4.78	3.70
Wet	1	4	2	7	2	3	3	6	4	3	5	2	0	4	1	5	7	2	4		3.42	3.50	3.33	3.42	3.00	3.80
Dusty	7	6	7	7	5	3	5	7	4	6	7	7	3	6	6	5	6	7	6		5.79	5.70	5.89	5.79	6.11	5.50
Urgent	0	0	6	7	4	6	6	5	3	6	7	6	0	7	7	7	2	0	5		4.42	4.30	4.56	4.42	4.11	4.70
Wooded	6	4	1	1	5	4	5	4	6	6	5	5	1	5	5	7		6	7		4.61	4.20	5.13	4.61	3.67	5.56
Light	0	4	3	4	6	2	5	3	5	2	6	5	0	6	6	1	1	7	7		3.53	3.40	3.67	3.53	3.78	3.30
Dry	4	4	5	7	7	1	5	6	5	6	7	7	1	7	6	1	1	7	7		4.95	5.00	4.89	4.95	5.44	4.50
Misty	0	7	0	7	0	2	3	6	5	3	7	6	0	0	5	4	3	6	5		3.63	3.30	4.00	3.63	3.00	4.20
Steep	6	0	6	7	4	4		4	6	6	6	5	0	3	6	4	6	5	5		4.61	4.78	4.44	4.61	4.11	5.11
Empty	0	4	1	7	0	3	3	6	0	2	7	1	0	6	4	2	5	0	0		2.68	2.60	2.78	2.68	2.89	2.50
Tropical	6	7	4	0	6	3	5	5	0	0	4	0	0	4	7	7	6	0	6		3.68	3.60	3.78	3.68	3.44	3.90
Fast-paced	1	4	2	3	1	4		1	6	7	5	5	1	6	5	5	6	7	0		3.83	3.22	4.44	3.83	3.11	4.56
Bare	6	5	4	7	5	5	5	7	0	7	4	5	1	7	2	2	5	0	0		4.05	5.10	2.89	4.05	4.89	3.30
Flat	1	0	5	2	0	2	4	1	0	0	3	5	0	1	4	0	1	0	1		1.58	1.50	1.67	1.58	1.89	1.30
Repetitive	5	5	6	6	6	3	5	6	4	2	3	4	0	6	5	2	2	4	0		3.79	4.60	2.89	3.79	4.56	3.10
Horrific	1	7	5	7	4	5	6	5	7	7	7	7	2	6	6	6	1	7	6		5.37	5.40	5.53	5.37	5.11	5.60

Table K-2

VERBAL SCALES (Action...): ESL/ENL, FEMALE/MALE, STUDENT SCORES AND MEANS

	ESL										ENL										All Groups	ESL	ENL	All Groups	Female	Male
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	F1	F2	F3	F4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5		Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Strange	3	6	5	5	5	5	7	5	4	4	7	3	7	6	7	3	6	6	5		5.21	4.90	5.56	5.25	5.22	5.20
Eager	0	7	1	7	2	3	7	5	4	4	7	6	0	6	7	4	1	6	7		4.42	4.00	5.89	4.42	4.00	4.80
Hyperactive	3	0	7	7	4	4	6	3	4	1	7	7	0	6	6	4	0	6	7		4.32	3.90	4.78	4.32	4.56	4.10
Dreamlike	1	7	4	6	6	4	5	7	7	6	6	5	0	7	6	0	6	0	0		4.26	5.10	3.33	4.26	4.44	4.10
Unfamiliar	0	7	6	4	5	2	6	7	6	3	6	5	0	2	5	5	0	0	2		3.74	4.60	2.78	3.74	3.89	3.60
Humorous	6	7	6	6	4	5	7	0	0	6	3	6	1	5	4	5	4	6	1		4.32	4.70	3.89	4.32	4.89	3.80
Slow	4	7	1	2	3	4	3	0	4	6	6	0	6	1	2	0	4	6	1		3.16	3.40	2.89	3.16	3.33	3.00
Exaggerated	2	7	5	6	6	3	7	7	6	6	3	6	1	7	6	6	7	6	7		5.47	5.50	5.44	5.47	4.78	6.10
Shocking	1	3	5	5	1	3	7	4	5	0	4	5	0	4	5	5	2	6	0		3.42	3.40	3.44	3.42	3.11	3.70
Mournful	0	7	3	1	1	3	2	3	7	6	5	3	0	4	1	2	5	6	2		3.21	3.30	3.11	3.21	2.67	3.70
Impossible	7	4	4	1	4	3	7	7	3	0	4	2	1	7	3	6	7	6	6		4.32	4.00	4.67	4.32	3.78	4.80
Deceitful	1	4	2	5	0	5	0	7	7	0	5	0	0	6	0	0	6	6	5		3.11	3.10	3.11	3.11	2.56	3.60
Satirical	3	3	4	0	0	5	0	5	2	2	4	7	0	3	5	5	1	6	6		3.21	2.40	4.11	3.21	2.67	3.70
Funny	4		5	5	1	4	5		3	5	6	6	1	6	1	5	6	6	2		4.18	4.00	4.33	4.18	4.25	4.11
Fast-paced	1	2	4	6	3	4	6		6	5	6	6	1	7	4	5	5	6	6		4.61	4.11	5.11	4.61	4.00	5.22
Sarcastic	1		6	0	3	2	5	5	6	0	5	6	1	6	4	5	5	0	3		3.50	2.80	3.89	3.50	3.50	3.50
Truthful	1	1	5	5	1	3	5	0	1	4	6	2	5	2	4	1	1	0	4		2.68	2.60	2.78	2.68	3.11	2.30
Critical	1	7	6	0	2	4	0	4	6	0	6	0	1	0	4	1	1	6	3		2.74	3.00	2.44	2.74	2.56	2.90
Happy	1	6	2	4	3	4	5	0	3	6	6	4	2	3	2	2	1	0	0		2.84	3.40	2.22	2.84	3.44	2.30
Alarming	1	7	5	6	0	3	0	4	5	0	4	1	0	4	2	0	1	6	0		2.58	3.10	2.00	2.58	3.11	2.10
Cynical	1	1	4	4	0	4	5	0	6	0	5	2	0	0	1	1	1	0	4		2.05	2.50	1.56	2.05	1.89	2.20
Tragic	5	0	3	4	2	5	0	4	7	4	5	3	0	5	2	0	1	6	0		2.95	3.40	2.44	2.95	3.00	2.90