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Editor's Message

Dear colleagues,

The second volume of the TOJELT is ready with the third issue. In this issue, you will read the recent research on ELT.

We sincerely thank all board members and the referees for their efforts that increase the quality of the TOJELT.

With regards,

Dr. Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR

Editor-in-Chief

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Polyglots and the Comprehension Hypothesis

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Abstract: In this paper, I present the insights of two amazing polyglots, second language acquirers who have had a tremendous amount of experience acquiring different languages in different situations. My source of information are their writings and my conversations with them. Lomb Kato and Steven Kaufman have each acquired at least 15 languages as adults, many without living the country where the language is spoken. Their observations about language acquisition are in close agreement with the claims of current second language acquisition theory.

Keywords: *polyglot, comprehension, grammar, correction.*

1. Introduction

In this paper, I present the insights of two amazing polyglots, second language acquirers who have had a tremendous amount of experience acquiring different languages in different situations. My source of information are their writings and my conversations with them.

Their books were written before they were aware of current research and theory in second language acquisition: They came to their understandings from their own experiences. Here are my conclusions:

1. The polyglots understand that the driving force behind language acquisition is comprehensible input, and they recognize the limited role of conscious knowledge of grammar and error correction.

2. They reject the popular idea that all you need is to "go the country" ("immersion").

3. They seek high interest "compelling" input.

4. They warn us about striving for perfectionism, both in terms of producing and understanding language.

5. They urge us to "trust the process."

2. The Polyglots

Lomb Kato (1909-2003) did not grow up multilingual, and lived in Budapest her entire life. She acquired, however, 17 languages and was a professional interpreter and translator. She got interested in languages after receiving her PhD in Chemistry, first studying French and then studying and teaching English. She was 86 when I met her in Budapest in 1995, and she had made considerable progress on language number 18, Hebrew. (Note: In English, Lomb Kato is Kato

Lomb. Hence, I have listed her book as Lomb (2016). It was originally written in 1983 in Hungarian, and translated by Adam Szegi, and edited by Scott Alkire). Steven Kaufman, although a native of Montreal, also grew up in a monolingual environment, his only exposure to French being traditional instruction in school. Kaufman has acquired 15 languages, the last eight between ages 61 and 71.

3. The Comprehension Hypothesis

The Comprehension Hypothesis claims that we acquire language and develop literacy in only one way: when we understand aural and written language. It claims that our competence in grammar, our knowledge of vocabulary and our ability to produce language fluently and easily are a result of getting "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 2003).

This is quite different from traditional methodology, which I refer to as "skill-building." The Skill-Building Hypothesis reverses the causality: It claims that first we have to consciously learn grammar rules and vocabulary items, and practice using them in spoken and written production, doing it repeatedly until production becomes "automatic." We can "fine-tune" our conscious knowledge of grammar by getting our errors corrected when we produce language. Skill-Building also maintains that our spoken fluency is the result of practicing speaking.

The Comprehension Hypothesis is, of course, a hypothesis, which means it is subject to falsification. Thus far, however, the research is quite consistent with the predictions it makes: In method comparison studies, students taught with methods consistent with the Comprehension Hypothesis generally do better, and never do worse, than students taught with traditional methods (Krashen, 2003). For a list of studies, see Krashen (2014a). A powerful form of comprehensible input, self-selected reading, has consistently emerged as a strong predictor of scores on standardized tests in a variety of situations (Krashen, 2012). The Comprehension Hypothesis also helps explain success in second language acquisition in a wide variety of case histories (Krashen, 2014b; Mason & Krashen, 2017).

4. The role of grammar in the two rival hypotheses.

For the Skill-Building Hypothesis, grammar is central: The route to competence requires that we first learn rules consciously, and then "practice" them in output. In contrast, a hypothesis related to the Comprehension Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, claims that conscious knowledge of rules has a limited impact on language production: We apply our learned grammar rules to our output only when three very severe conditions are met: (1) when we know the rule, (2) when we have time, and (3) when we are thinking about correctness, or focusing on form. Condition (1) is impossible to meet for all rules of language –many rules are extremely complex and linguists admit that they have not described all the rules of any language. Conditions (2) and (3) are also a challenge: in oral language production we rarely have enough time to retrieve complex rules and apply them, and when conversations get interesting we generally think about the meaning of what we are saying and what the other person is saying, rather than the form. These conditions are fully met only when we take a grammar test (Krashen, 1982) or when we edit our writing, watching out for grammatical rules that even well-read writers have not acquired but that must be obeyed, eg the its/it's distinction.

5. Comprehension, not skill-building

It is clear that both polyglots attributed their accomplishments to the Comprehensible Input, not grammar study. Here is Kaufman's blunt advice: "Do not spend your time in a vain attempt to master the language from grammar rules and word lists. You will not enjoy this tedious form of study, and it will not work." (Kaufman, 2003; p. 90).

Lomb Kato included grammar study as part of her personal program in working on new languages, but felt that grammar is not the most important aspect of developing competence in languages; grammar study should be optional for adults, and should consist only of the most straight-forward rules. Requiring children to study grammar was, in her opinion, "absurd" (Krashen and Kiss, 1996).

Similarly, Lomb Kato tell us, "What lets you avoid mistakes is not memorized laws of grammar but the right form seen, head, and said (sic) to such an extent that it has become second nature" (Lomb, 2016, p. 92). She notes that even a profound knowledge of grammar does not mean competence in the language: "Many excellent philologists who with impressive confidence in the most abstract realms of a foreign language need an interpreter to buy a streetcar ticket or order lunch" (Lomb, 2016, p. 91). Stated in terms of current theory, conscious learning is not of much use in real language use, but what we have acquired through comprehensible input is.

Steven Kaufman relates what happens when he consults grammar books: "Sometimes the explanations helped and at other times they did not ... I would usually remember grammar rules or explanations (if I understood them) only for a short period of time and then forget them. In the end it was only through enough exposure to the language that my grammar improved" (Kaufman, 2003, p. 100).

6. Accepting the new grammar

Both polyglots talk about the importance of being open to the acquisition of new forms. Kaufman (2003) says that instead of grammar study, "I just accepted the various structural patterns of sentences in Chinese as normal. I knew that with enough exposure they would start to seem natural to me. I found it easier to learn the structure of a new language from frequent exposure to phrase patterns rather than trying to understand abstract grammatical explanations." (p. 42). And: "Sentence structures that were strange and difficult at first eventually felt natural if I encountered them often enough in my reading and listening." (p.100). When a structure "feels natural," this can be interpreted as a sign of subconscious language acquisition.

Similarly, Lomb Kato (2016) tells us: "Perusing books frequently and listening to the radio diligently allow us to encounter the right forms again and again. If our interest gets our heart and mind to accept these patterns, we can recall them quickly when we need them." (p. 93).

7.Correction

According to current theory, correction is aimed at conscious learning: the purpose of correction is to help the learner arrive at the correct version of a consciously learned rule. Language learners are rarely grateful for these corrections; even though they may ask to be corrected, they often don't react well when it happens (Krashen, 1994) and there is good evidence that correction doesn't work very well (Truscott, 1999; 2016).

Lomb Kato's reaction to correction mirrors the research just cited: On one hand, she states that "Uncorrected mistakes are very perilous! If one keeps repeating wrong formulas, they take root in the mind and one will be inclined to accept them as authentic" (Alkire, 2005, p. 21). But she also experienced the negative impact of correction, even saying that correction can make you

"sick to your stomach." She recalled one situation, when, as an interpreter translating into English, she said "unorganic" instead of "inorganic," clearly a slip (Dr. Lomb had a Ph.D. in Chemistry). Even though the translation was successful, she was haughtily corrected by another interpreter. She reports that she was lost for the rest of the day (Krashen & Kiss, 1996).

8. Immersion

Common advice to those wanting to acquire other language is to "go to the country." Lomb Kato and Steven Kaufman both recognize the limitations of "immersion." Immersion does not always mean comprehensible input. Lomb Kato (2016): "When you are abroad – especially as a tourist – it is rather difficult to make the acquaintance of someone patient, intelligent, and available enough to help you practice your foreign language skills. With the energy it requires, one can normally achieve the same results while staying at home" (p. 111).

She also notes, in agreement with the Comprehension Hypothesis, that residence in the country works best for those at the intermediate level, when acquirers have enough competence to understand at least some of what they hear: "Those who know nothing at the outset will probably return with virgin minds. For those at a very advanced level, improvement will be difficult to detect. The best results will show ... at the intermediate level" (p. 22).

There are strategies for getting comprehensible input from an uncooperative environment. Lomb Kato recommends taking guided tours, and going to the movies: "Studying a language provides an excellent excuse for going to the movies" (Alkire, 2005, p. 22). And here is one more:

Language parents: A source of comprehensible input

Steven Kaufman also recognizes the limits of immersion. He suggests finding a friend: "My closest colleague at the Canadian Embassy in Tokyo was the Japanese Commercial Officer, Mr. 'Nick' Yazaki. He was a major help … He (was) inclined to express himself in a most careful, painstaking and long-winded way … Finding a native speaker who is patient and supportive can be invaluable in learning a new language" (p. 55).

Lonsdale (2006) makes a similar suggestion, and coined the term "language parent." A language parent is somebody who will engage you in conversation in the language you are acquiring but who will not try to be your teacher, will try to understand what you say "even though you are miles away from what a native speaker would usually be able to understand" (p. 178), is interested in you as a person, and "more often than not, the person will be quite talkative" (p. 179). In other words, a language parent is someone who will give you interesting comprehensible input.

My German language "parent" in Vienna in 1961-1962 was my landlady, the wonderful Frau Novak. She told the same stories again and again, but they were great stories and I understood more each time I heard them, a familiar occurrence with narrow listening (Dupuy,1999; Rodrigo & Krashen, 1996).

A reasonable conjecture is that one person, one solid language parent, can supply the bridge that helps low level acquirers acquire enough competence to be able to interact with many native speakers.

9. The Importance of compelling Comprehensible Input

If language acquisition requires that we understand input, we must pay attention to it. There is, of course, a better chance of this happening if the input is interesting, and an even better chance of this happening if the input is extremely interesting, so interesting that we even "forget" that it is in another language. When we get "compelling" comprehensible input, our focus is entirely on the message. We are in a state of "flow" in which our sense of time and even our sense of self is

diminished (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Krashen, 2011; Lao & Krashen, 2014). A reasonable hypothesis is that compelling input may is optimal for language acquisition.

Each of the two polyglots understood the importance of compelling input. While taking Mandarin classes Steven Kaufman (2003) noted that "the best sessions were those when the teacher would just talk about some interesting subjects. I did most of my learning at these more informal conversational sessions ..." (p. 38). I had a similar experience in Hebrew classes in Israel: Our teacher dedicated that last 30 minutes of each three-hour session to telling amazingly interesting versions of bible stories, with no obvious pedagogical goal. I suspect these sessions were the most valuable for acquiring Hebrew.

Lomb Kato's (2016) major source of compelling input was reading fiction; she did nearly all of her pleasure reading in other languages. The following quotes show that she understood the importance of being in "flow": "A character's fate becomes the reader's fate ... Genuine readers sail with Robinson Crusoe, throw themselves under the train with Anna Karenina, and die of tuberculosis with the Lady of the Camellias. Afterword, luckily, they come back to life." (p. 21).

10. Perfectionism

Both Lomb Kato and Steven Kaufman warn us against perfectionism. In terms of current theory, perfection in language production means over-use of the conscious monitor, making sure everything one is about to say is fully correct according to the rules we have learned (Krashen, 1981).

Lomb Kato (2016) warns us that "if you feel that you must speak like a native… you will be inhibited" (p. 28), and has a refreshing point of view about imperfect language: ".... language is the only thing worth knowing even poorly .... Propagation of half-truths is not an advancement of science but a hindrance. For the language learner, however, it would be a pity to fall silent because he or she doesn't know with certainty whether a form will hit home or not" (p.111).

Steven Kaufman (2003) has wonderful advice along with a profound observation – other people are not worried about your mistakes! "You will often feel that you are struggling, when in fact you are communicating quite successfully…. Focus on the meaning you are trying to communicate, not on how well you are doing. Do not think that your grammar and pronunciation are being judged ... your listeners want to understand you." (pp. 128-9). And: "Try to force yourself from the desire to achieve perfection, which is vanity and will hinder your progress. Instead, seek to communicate naturally and enjoy yourself. Your improvement will be constant although uneven." (p. 89).

Current theory predicts that we will make greater progress in language acquisition if we follow this advice. We will interact more and thereby get more comprehensible input.

Perfectionism in reading is the tendency to look up every unknown word. Kaufman (2003) points out the futility of looking up words: "You can ... expect to forget whatever you look up in a dictionary pretty quickly." (p. 133). In fact, Kaufman has stated that he generally forgets the meaning of the word he has looked up by the time puts down the dictionary and returns to the text: consciously learned knowledge does not stick.

Lomb Kato (2016) agrees and suggests we keep reading reasonably comprehensible texts: "Do not automatically reach for the dictionary if you encounter a word or two you don't recognize. If the expression is important, it will reappear and explain itself; if it is not so important, it is no big loss to gloss over it." (131-2).

These observations are consistent with what research tells us: Acquisition is gradual. Swanborn and de Glopper (1999) provide evidence that each time we encounter a new word in a comprehensible context, we acquire a part of the meaning: This means that many words are not learned all at once when they are seen in context. Rather, word knowledge is acquired in "small increments," confirming a conjecture made by Twadell (1973): "we may 'know' a very large number of words with various degrees of vagueness – words which are in a twilight zone between the darkness of entire unfamiliarity and the brightness of complete familiarity" (Twadell 1973, p. 73).

This suggests that stopping to look up every word will result in less chance for vocabulary acquisition because it means less reading. If we can skip some words and are still confident we have understood the text, we will read more, encounter more words in a comprehensible context and gradually acquire their meaning.

Of course, sometimes we must check on the meaning of a word because it seems to be important and context does not help. When this happens too frequently, we need to find another text

.

11. Trust the process

When we are frustrated with what we think is the slow emergence of fluency, Kaufman (2003) urges us to keep listening and reading and trust the process: "The successful foreign language speakers take for granted that they will have to communicate in another language, and do not feel that it is an unusual thing. It is natural to them" (p. 96). "Accept the fact that you were born with the ability to learn to speak a new language..." (p. 95).

12. Conclusion

I have presented here only two case histories. Taken in isolation, they provide suggestive evidence supporting the Comprehension Hypothesis and related hypotheses. One can always argue, as many do, that Steven Kaufman and Lomb Kato are somehow "different," and have unusual powers that we ordinary people do not have. But these are not the only cases: I have argued that a number of case histories are consistent with current theory (Krashen, 2014b, Mason and Krashen, 2017), as is a substantial research literature. The cases reviewed here have more than theoretical value, however: these experienced language acquirers provide valuable advice for language acquirers, and this writer is among those who are indebted to them for sharing their wisdom.

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Relationship among Efficacy, Strategy Use and Proficiency: Case of Listening in an EFL Classroom

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Abstract: Among four skills in foreign language learning, listening has been the least researched one, mostly because there are various cognitive and affective factors to consider. This study only focused on strategy use (cognitive) and efficacy beliefs (affective) of the students to investigate the relationship between listening proficiency, efficacy and strategy use of EFL learners. In accordance with quantitative research design, listening efficacy and listening strategy use questionnaires together with a listening comprehension test were used at the outset of a 14-week listening course, which is one of the mainstream courses in the ELT department. The results underline a positive correlation among the three variables. This study suggests some implications for the language teaching and teacher education fields.

Keywords: *Listening proficiency, efficacy beliefs, strategy use, ELT,*

1. Introduction

Listening in a foreign language has received the least attention of all four skills by the researchers in the field of education (Vandergrift, 2006, p.191) and is called as the *Cinderella* skill which has been overlooked by its elder sibling *speaking* by Nunan (1998). This claim is also obvious in the review article of Lynch (2011). In this review, among the 147 articles published in first nine volumes of *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, only 9 were conducted to examine Listening and Speaking in foreign language. More specifically, out of these nine articles, only one was conducted on listening comprehension (Read, 2002). As any case in the field of education, this is not also without reasons some of which can be the difficulty and complexity of conducting research on listening and its being under the influence of various affective factors. Therefore, in order to examine the listening proficiency of a group of learners, affective factors such as efficacy and strategy use need to be taken into consideration.

2. Literature Review

Success of foreign language learners has been determined through two complementary domains: Cognitive and affective. Within the frame of cognition, language aptitude, and strategy use of learners have been agreed to have a significant role on learners' language skills achievement (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1978; Skehan, 1989). On the other hand, affective variables such as anxiety, motivation, empathy, attitude, efficacy, belief, need, and autonomy which were all originated in the field of psychology (Gardner 1960; Lambert 1963), have been widely accepted to be corresponding to the effect of cognitive domain on language learning (Brown, 1987; Chastain, 1988; McKenna et al., 1995). The underlying reason of this claim is that affective factors have the power to control the desire of activating cognition. As Pajares (2000) stated a learner's knowledge and skills, he undertook previously, can predict the upcoming attainments to a certain extent. Therefore, it will not be wrong to claim the stronger impact of these two domains when activated simultaneously to predict a language learner's performance.

Language learners' performance in listening as one of the prominent language skills also require the activation of these both domains. In this study, language learners' strategy use and their efficacy beliefs in listening were examined as representatives of each domain to predict their listening proficiency.

a. Strategy use in Listening

Language learners generally report employing two types of strategies: Metacognitive and cognitive (O'Malley et al. 1985a, Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Metacognitive strategies are about knowing about learning, controlling learning through planning, monitoring and evaluating the learning activity. Strategies applied in listening are mental processes that are involved in to comprehend oral texts (Vandergrift, 1999). In listening comprehension, retaining awareness of the task demands and information content is known as monitoring, one of the metacognitive strategies. Two other compensatory metacognitive strategies that support monitoring are selective attention and directed attention (O'Malley, Chamot & Küpper, 1989). Cognitive strategies, on the other hand, comprise active manipulation of the task through following strategies: rehearsal, repeating the names of objects or items that have been heard, or practicing a longer language sequence, organization, or grouping information to enhance comprehension, elaboration, or relating new information to previously stored information (O'Malley, Chamot & Küpper, 1989). The third type of strategy which has rarely been mentioned by the language learners is social/affective strategies. These strategies are; cooperative learning, questioning for clarification and affective control over learning experiences (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). As Rubin (1994) stated during this engagement learners are activating their cognition to select, employ and assess the strategies they employ for better listening comprehension.

Listening strategies that are mostly used by the foreign language learners, and the effect of strategy training on listening performance have been researched in the field (Chen, 2010; Goh, 1998; Goh & Taib, 2006; Graham, 2003; O'Malley, Chamot, & Küpper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1997, 2003).

O'Malley, Chamot and Küpper (1989) in their study investigated the mental processes of second language listeners. They specifically focused on the differences between strategies used by effective and ineffective listeners. The study, in which think-aloud protocols were applied, showed that effective and ineffective listeners differed mainly regarding monitoring, elaboration, and inferencing strategies.

In another study, Goh (1998) examined the listening strategies and tactics of high and low-ability ESL learners in China. The study proved that high-ability listeners applied more strategies and tactics compared to low-ability ones. They also managed to differ the tactics within each strategy. Either group employed cognitive strategies and tactics more frequently than metacognitive ones.

Vandergrift (2003) conducted a research with French learners. Strategy training was placed in pre-, while- and post- listening activities. In the end of the training, students reported their positive feelings about the training and admitted its benefit for their listening performance. Similar to the previous study, Chen (2010) investigated the language learners' strategy use after a 14-week strategy training in a Taiwanese college. Results of the study showed that treatment group surpassed the control group in terms of both listening performance and proficiency test.

As it is clearly explained in these studies, the positive effects of strategy training are unquestionable. The differences in strategy use of high and low achievers are also obvious. In order to delve into the possible reasons of these differences and performance problems of listeners, affective variables in addition to cognition should also be researched.

b. Listening Efficacy

As the complementary domain, adding an affective variable to investigate language skills performance of language learners is believed to contribute to both the findings of this research and its implications. Therefore, within the scope of this study, learners' listening efficacy beliefs is another concern.

The concept of self-efficacy has been defined in various ways. It is defined as the extent to which the students assume they have the capacity to accomplish a learning task by coping with the challenges by Ehrman (1996). Same concept is also explained as learners' beliefs regarding their own capabilities to achieve a task by Bernhart (1997). Bernhart (1997) states that learners with high self-efficacy believe that they have the required capability to perform that language skill. On the other hand, ones with low self-efficacy lack this belief.

The possible effects of self-efficacy on language performance have also received attention in the field. The effects of this prominent concept on listening have also been under investigation (e.g. Chen & Deborah, 2007; Rahimi & Abedini, 2009).

In their study, Chen and Deborah (2007) investigated the relationship between efficacy beliefs and listening performances of college-level Taiwanese students. Results indicated that there was a positive and significant relation between these both variables. Also, efficacy beliefs of students were found to be a much stronger predictor of language performance in comparison to student anxiety and perceived value.

Rahimi and Abedini (2009) conducted a similar research with 61 freshman learners of English. They aimed at investigating the role of listening self-efficacy on listening test performance. Results of the analysis showed a significant correlation between self-efficacy and performance regarding listening skill.

Another research field is interested in listening strategy training to boost listening comprehension and performance through increasing language learners' self-efficacy beliefs (Graham, 2007, 2008, 2011; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Siew & Wong, 2005). To illustrate, Graham (2007) investigated the impact of strategy training on French learners' self-efficacy by showing them the strategies they used and the achievement they gained. The results showed that the students who were trained with strategies and received feedback had higher self-efficacy and proficiency in the end of the treatment. Graham (2011) also wrote a descriptive article in which

she explained the relation between strategy training, self-efficacy and proficiency with specific relation to listening.

Other studies mentioned previously have also resulted in similar findings. In other words, language learners with high listening self-efficacy beliefs employed a variety of listening strategies more frequently. And strategy training that language learners received, was found to affect both variables positively and significantly.

In the light of this theoretical and practical evidence in the literature, this study aims to investigate the relationship among EFL learners' listening self-efficacy, listening strategy use and listening performance at the end of a 14-week listening course. With these purposes in mind following research questions were addressed for investigation.

1. Is there a relationship among language learners' self-efficacy beliefs, strategy use and listening performance?
2. In which cases do the participants state feeling most /least efficacious?
3. Which strategies do the participants state using the most / least frequently?

3. Methodology

a. Participants and Setting

35 university level foreign language learners, 24 of whom were female and 11 were male, participated in the study. The age range of the participants was 18-30. They were all freshman students who were majoring in English Language Teaching at a private university in the South-East region of Turkey. They were all attending introductory courses about English Language and Teaching. One of these courses is Listening and Pronunciation course, one of the compulsory courses in the first year of ELT curriculum in Turkey. It is offered 3 hours a week for 14 weeks. The aim of this course is to improve students' listening and pronunciation skills while developing their confidence in communicating in English. It makes use of authentic listening materials and speech samples used in different contexts to be analyzed as communication-oriented classroom activities. While the course focuses on basic listening and phonetic skills such as discriminating minimal pairs and formulating phonetic transcriptions of problematic sounds focused in class, it also aims to improve learners' higher level listening skills and strategies by integrating reading and writing to the course curriculum through content-based activities. Students are delivered the fundamentals of listening and phonetics such as vowels, consonants, stress in words, rhythm and intonation as well as the practice of phonetic alphabet for learning and production purposes. The list of strategies this course involves can be categorized under three strategy types; Metacognitive, cognitive and affective/social (see Table 1).

Table 1. Listening Strategies

Metacognitive	**Cognitive**	**Affective/social**
Planning	Listening for gist	Asking for clarification
Monitoring	Listening for details	Asking for explanation
Directed Attention	Inferencing	Encouraging oneself
Selective Attention	Prediction	
Evaluation	Elaboration	
	Visualization	
	Summarization	
	Note-taking	

b. Data Collection Instruments

Data, for the purposes of this study, gathered through three quantitative instruments: (1) Listening Efficacy Questionnaire, (2) Listening Strategy Use Questionnaire, (3) Listening Comprehension test at the end of the term.

Listening Efficacy Questionnaire. Rahimi and Abedini (2009) constructed this 20-item questionnaire based on three different questionnaires; Beliefs about Language Learning (BALLI) developed by Hortwiz (1985), Persian Adaptation of the General Self-efficacy Scale constructed by Nezami, Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1996) and Morgan-Links Student Efficacy Scale (MJSES) designed by Jinks and Morgan (1999). All items were prepared on a five point likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The Cronbach Alpha value of this questionnaire was found to be ,79 which is agreed to be quite high.

Listening Strategy Use Questionnaire. Participants' strategy use was investigated through a questionnaire developed by Chen (2010). It consisted of 36 strategies under three main categories of metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective strategies. The participants were asked to respond in a way that best reflects how they presently approach an English listening task. All items were in the form of a five point likert scale (1: Almost never – 5: Almost always). The reliability value of this questionnaire was found to be ,71.

Listening Comprehension Test. In order to assess participants' listening proficiency, a 40-question IELTS listening practice test provided by Oxford University Press that was retrieved from https://elt.oup.com/student/ielts/masterclass/a_practice_test?cc=global&selLanguage=en was administered. Since all the participants entered university with language scores in the university entrance exam which is a kind of proficiency test, this exam was found to align to the level of the participants' proficiency. The content and face validity of the test was checked and approved by two language teaching experts with PhD.

c. Procedure

As it was explained in the previous section, two questionnaires and a multiple choice test on listening proficiency were administered to collect data for the purposes of the research. For the reasons of anonymity and confidentiality, students' names were not required to be on the documents. First of all, the 40-question listening proficiency test was given to the students. The students were asked to check the instructions and the questions prior to the listening. They were allowed to listen to the recording twice. Other research instruments were administered following the test in another class session.

4. Data Analysis and Results

In this quantitative study, data were tested for normality to decide on the type of statistical test to be run to analyze the results. Shapiro-Wilk test, which is suggested to be appropriate for small sample sizes (<50 samples) was used as the numerical means of assessing normality of the data. The result of the test revealed that the data gathered through all three instruments are normally distributed (see Table 2).

Table 2. Test of Normality

	Shapiro-Wilk			
	Statistic	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig.**
Listening Efficacy	,114	,962	35	,268
Strategy Use	,167	,941	35	,061

Listening Proficiency	,088	,973	35	,528

Therefore, a partial correlation test was run to determine the relationship between participating students' listening efficacy and strategy use whilst controlling for listening proficiency. Results of the test showed that there was a high, positive partial correlation between listening efficacy and stated strategy use whilst controlling for listening proficiency which was not found to be statistically significant, r(32) = .091, N = 35, p = .610 (see table 3).

Table 3. Partial Correlation Test

Control Variables			Listening Efficacy	Strategy Use	Listening Proficiency
Listening Proficiency	**Listening Efficacy**	Correlation	1,000	,091	
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,610	
		df	0	32	
	Strategy Use	Correlation	,091	1,000	
		Significance (2-tailed)	,610	.	
		df	32	0	

In order to explore in which cases participants stated to be most and least efficacious, data from Listening Efficacy Questionnaire were analyzed through descriptive statistics. According to the results, items 4 (M=3.91), 5 (M=3.77), 16 (M=3.77), 17 (3.94) were rated most frequently. On the other hand, items 7 (M=3.05), 8 (M=2.97) and 13 (M=2.60) were rated the least. These items can be seen in table 4 and 5.

Table 4. Items rated most frequently in the Listening Efficacy Questionnaire

Most frequently rated items		
Item	**Statement**	M
4	I believe that my proficiency in listening skill will improve very soon.	3.91
5	I am sure that if I practice listening more, I will get better grades in the course.	3.77
16	When I am doing a listening practice with a tape at home, it is not important that how difficult it is because I repeat it so much that I can understand it	3.77
17	I enjoy meeting tourists because I can understand them well.	3.94

Table 5. Items rated least frequently in the Listening Efficacy Questionnaire

Least frequently rated items		
Item	**Statement**	M
7	I cannot understand an English film without English subtitles.	3.05
8	No one cares if I do well in listening course.	2.97
13	I enjoy doing listening practice, when the speaker speaks fast.	2.60

As the final purpose of the study, the strategy use of participants was investigated through Listening Strategy Use Questionnaire (Chen, 2010). The results showing most and least highly rated strategies are depicted in tables 6 and 7.

Table 6. Strategies rated most frequently in the Listening Strategy Use Questionnaire

Item	**Strategy Type**	**Statement**	**M**
19	**Cognitive**	When I don't understand something, I use information from pictures or the speaker's expressions to guess the meaning.	3.31
21	**Cognitive**	I use my knowledge about English language to approach the meaning (e.g.,	3.28

		whether a word is an adjective or a noun)	
25	**Cognitive**	I can picture some key words in my mind.	3.34
27	**Cognitive**	Before trying to understand everything, I first translate some difficult English words into Turkish.	3.28
33	**Social/Affect**	When I don't understand something, I ask the speaker/teacher to repeat or explain.	3.28
34	**Social/Affect**	When I don't understand something, I ask my classmate or friends to clarify my comprehension.	3.57

Table 7. Strategies rated least frequently in the Listening Strategy Use Questionnaire

Item	Strategy Type	Statement	M
1	**Metacognitive**	Before I listen to something in English, I first find out more about the topic/task.	2.62
15	**Metacognitive**	After I finish listening, I evaluate how much I've understood this time, e.g., I could comprehend 80% of the text.	2.82
20	**Cognitive**	I use my experience and knowledge about the topic to approach the meaning.	2.82
26	**Cognitive**	I try to listen for each word or detail.	2.85
29	**Cognitive**	When I hear words I don't recognize, I stop to think hard about what they mean.	2.80

5. Discussion and Conclusion

As it was stated earlier in the field and in this article, the success of foreign language learners has been determined through cognitive and affective factors which act as complementary. Keeping this in mind, first in this present study, whether there exists any relationship among the participating EFL learners' listening proficiency, listening efficacy beliefs and stated strategy use was aimed to be investigated.

As a result of the data analysis, a strong positive correlation was found among these three variables. It is well-known that when activated simultaneously, efficacy –an affective factor- and strategy use –a cognitive factor-, has the power to predict language learner's performance which also the case in this study. Therefore, this result supports some other studies discussed previously (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1978; Chen & Deborah, 2007; Graham, 2007, 2008, 2011; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Rahimi & Abedini, 2009; Skehan, 1989; Siew & Wong, 2005). On the other hand, it is not possible to claim that participants' success is only related to their efficacy and use of listening strategies. As Pajares (2000) stated a learner's knowledge and skills, he undertook previously, is also effective in his attainment.

Secondly, the participants felt efficacious regarding their belief to improve their listening skills provided that they practice more. They also stated to enjoy meeting tourists as another and significant sign of their efficacy in this skill. Moreover, they rated the item about social support (item 8) the least showing that their improvement in the listening course was cared by others. On the other hand, they felt least efficacious in understanding fast speaking speakers. These results show that participants who are majoring in the field of language teaching are much aware of the importance of practice in skills improvement without any fear or anxiety. However, it is also clear that they do not feel comfortable when the speaker speaks so fast which shows their lack of confidence and need for more practice.

Finally, which strategies were stated to be employed the most and least frequently was also explored with this study. Data showed that participants stated to mostly employ cognitive and social/affective strategies compared to metacognitive strategies. On the other hand among the

least frequently employed ones, metacognitive strategies also take place. This shows that, participants are open to cooperative learning, questioning for clarification and have the required affective control over their self-learning experiences (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). However, they still lack metacognitive strategies which are about knowing about learning, controlling learning through planning, monitoring and evaluating the learning activity. This finding is parallel to the results of some other research in the field (Chen, 2010; Goh, 1998; Goh & Taib, 2006; Graham, 2003; Graham, 2011; O'Malley, Chamot, & Küpper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1997, 2003).

To conclude, this research study demonstrated that both cognitive and affective domains of language learning have a strong relation with learners' listening proficiency. Additionally, it can be claimed that the participants of the study can be more efficacious in their listening performance if they practice and communicate more with native speakers. Finally, they appeared to employ cognitive and social/affective strategies while listening in English.

6. Limitations

Firstly, the number of participants is limited to 35, which should be taken into consideration before making generalizations. This limitation may also be the explanation for the insignificant correlation among three variables. Also the participants were only Turkish learners of English and all were from the same university. Finally, this study employed quantitative method only, so in the future researches interview may be used or students' reflections can be collected to support the interpretation of the quantitative data.

7. Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the current study are of benefit for both the EFL practitioners and EFL research field. They also provide useful information to curriculum designers and language policy makers. Findings indicate that language learners' proficiency level can be affected by the strength of their self-efficacy beliefs and the types of strategies they employ. As claimed by the relevant literature, cognitive and affective dimensions have a powerful role to boost their language attainment. Therefore, instructors need to support their learners continuously in the process of language learning to improve their self-confidence, autonomy and efficacy instead of attributing their mistakes and failures to their inabilities. They also need to create a communicative atmosphere in the classroom where students do not hesitate to talk, ask for clarification.

Additionally, the curricula applied in the language classroom should be learner-centered and communicative enough to encourage students' communication both with peers and the instructor. In this sense they also help learners feel efficacious enough to take risk and control of their own learning. Especially in skills classes, instructors and curriculum designers should pay utmost attention to improve learners' strategy use through the materials, curriculum, activities, tasks and assignments made use of in the language classroom.

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The Effect of Pleasure Reading Experience 30 Years Ago

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Abstract: This paper reports on a pleasure reading experience case. "Miyako" developed an English reading habit as a student in Japan 30 years ago and has continued pleasure reading in English since that time. She reads not to improve her English but because she enjoys it. In 2011, she started working for a company that required the TOEIC examination. Miyako achieved a near-perfect score and was awarded an $800 bonus from her company. At first she did not think she had done anything special to achieve this high level of English, and only later realized that her reading habit was the reason.

Keywords: *pleasure reading, English, TOEIC.*

1. Introduction

Do students who are introduced to pleasure reading in a foreign language continue to read after they graduate from the university? It is hard to track students after they graduate. They often leave home and start working. It is not easy to find out whether what we teach in school is actually helping them do well at their workplace after they leave school. The goal of foreign language education in school should be to help them become autonomous acquirers of the foreign language (English in this case for Japanese students). We need to find out whether this occurs.

2. The origins of a reading program

I started a story reading program at Shitennoji University Junior College in 1985 after persuading the department head that it was the right direction for the English department. It was a new approach suggested by the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1981, 1982). The strong version of the hypothesis claims that understanding messages is the cause of language acquisition and reading alone is sufficient for the development of accuracy and fluency in reading and perhaps in other areas of language competence.

In 1985, the program had in total about 750 graded readers. The graded readers came primarily from two publishers: Oxford University Press (most of which are out of print now) and some books from Heinemann (which later became Macmillan Readers). This collection served roughly 250 students. Students began the program by reading from the simplest of these books, and then gradually moved up to the highest level of graded readers available at that time (2200-word level).

3. Miyako and TOEIC

Miyako was in the first group of students who experienced pleasure reading with me in the English department at Shitennoji University Junior College. However, Miyako only took the course for one year. She had the taste of what reading was like for two semesters, but then she graduated.

She went to Tampa, Florida for one year and four months to study English at a language school. She took the TOEFL test then and she recalls that she scored 520 out of 677 on the paper and pencil TOEFL test in 1988, equivalent to about 645 on today's TOEIC examination (http://www.conversation.jp/faq/faq-english/TOEIC-TOEFL.html).

After she returned to Japan, she took a job at a shipping management company in Osaka. She told me that the language that people used in that company was English. So, she regularly communicated in English with her colleagues. She worked for this company for 23 years. After the company closed down and left Japan, she took another position at a different company in Kobe in 2011. The language that they used in this company was not English, but the employees were required to take the TOEIC and were required to submit their score to the company. Those who scored over 800 points on the TOEIC were given a bonus of ¥80,000 (US$800).

When Miyako took this second job, she was also told to take the TOEIC. She did as she was told. Her score was 975 out of 990; almost perfect. I asked her if the company had given her US$800, and she said yes. I asked her what she did to score so high on the TOEIC. At first, she said she had done nothing unusual. I pressed her, and insisted that she must have done something to score 975 on the TOEIC. She finally realized what it must have been and admitted that she had been reading in English all these years.

4. What was Miyako reading?

I asked Miyako what she had read. She said that she had read most of the mystery books written by Agatha Christie (Amazon lists 85 Agatha Christie titles). She said that she had read all the Harry Potter series and other best-sellers on the train she took to go to work.

Miyako told me that she had no interest in reading newspapers in the past, but after finishing reading all the Harry Potter books, she began to read newspapers with no difficulty.

I asked her whether her English competence could have been from working in an English-speaking company. She said she did not believe so. She gave the credit to reading Agatha Christie, Harry Potter, and other books she had read in English.

She told me that she is one of only four company employees to have a scor4 above 900. She said that there are other employees who have gone abroad to study, and they all have been using test preparation exercise books to improve their TOEIC score, but many of them cannot reach 800. She told me that she advises them to read books in English, but they don't. They say reading is difficult.

5. Conclusion

An interesting comment from Miyako was that she thought that she had done nothing to raise her TOEIC score. She was not reading books to raise her TOEIC score. She was reading because she wanted to. She told me that the reading class that she took 30 years ago was the beginning of her book reading in English.

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Development of Self-Knowledge Scale for Learning English: A Study of Validity and Reliability

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Abstract: The aim of this research is to develop the scale of self-knowledge for learning English. The research population consists of all the ninth-grade students receiving education in Anatolian high schools of the Aydın city in the academic year 2015-16. For the first pre-implementation, the sample of the study includes 646 ninth class students in five Anatolian high schools in a province of Aydın. Following the analyses, the scale was revised. For the second pre-implementation of the revised scale, a different sample in another two provinces of Aydın was determined, and the sample included 816 ninth grade students receiving education in eight Anatolian high schools in total, four schools for each one of the two provinces in the same academic year. After the analyses of the first pre-implementation and second pre-implementation data separately, it was determined that, the scale developed consists of a total of 17 items and those items were grouped under the four factors identically in both analyses. Regarding to the factors' percentages in explaining total variance of the scale; the percentages are 19% for metacognition, 17% for motivation, 13% for anxiety and 12% for endeavor. It was identified that all these factors together contribute to the variance of the scale with a percentage of 61%. Key to the confirmatory factor analysis carried out after the explanatory factor analysis, the fit indices were examined altogether, and the model was determined as acceptable overall. In the analysis carried out to determine the internal consistency coefficients of the scale, Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was found to be 0.81 for the whole scale. This indicated that the items of the scale are consistent with each other. Internal consistency reliability coefficients determined for the factors respectively are; 0.84 for metacognition, 0.85 for motivation, 0.72 for endeavor and 0.70 for the fourth factor anxiety. In accordance with the results obtained in the study, the scale can be used as a valid and reliable instrument to measure ninth class students' self-perceptions for learning English.

Keywords: *English learning, metacognition,motivation, endeavor, anxiety*

1. Introduction

English is now regarded as a global language and it stands out among the foreign languages that have been learned in our country. The need for foreign language learning is increasing in accordance with the intensification of inter-communal relations and the development of mass

media (Öner & Gedikoglu 2007). Increasing and intensifying international relations make it difficult for nations to communicate with their native language, and learning the languages of other nations seems to be a precondition for living as a member of the international community (Bagçeci, 2004). At the same time, one of the criteria of modernity is accepted as knowing foreign language. Many people in our country are aware of the importance of foreign language learning, and they are making every effort for themselves and to get their children to learn the language (Öner & Gedikoglu 2007).

In the twenty-first century, program designers focused their attention on learning quality and learning development in foreign language teaching (Tanyeli & Kuter, 2013). In many countries around the world, great importance has been given to teaching foreign languages. Knowledge a foreign language in Turkey has become one of the core compulsory courses in educational programs today (Demirpolat, 2015). Especially during the eighties and afterwards in our country, in accordance with the world, although English gets more and more preferred every day, the expected goals in lessons of English, which started in primary school and continued until the end of high school, were not reached (Kırkıç & Boray, 2017).

Foreign languages begun to be taught in Turkish education system training programs a long time ago and various changes have been made in terms of quantity and quality in foreign language education programs in order to respond to the changing needs and demands over time. However, despite the changes made in the training programs, it cannot be said that Turkey is successful in foreign language teaching. The failure of foreign language teaching is clearly seen both in the gradation of international foreign language competence and in the national examinations (Demirpolat, 2015). In our country, very different English-based school attempts such as high school (super high school) and preparatory class (Anatolian High School), in which foreign language education has been prominently carried out up to now, have been adopted and English programs starting from pre-school classes have been practised in private schools. Very different solutions have been sought for teaching English so far. However, even though these changes provide only a limited improvement, our country has not moved beyond the 50th place among the 70 countries in the study of the English Proficiency Index (EPI) in 2015 (Kırkıç, Boray, 2017). In the same study, in 2016, our country was 51st out of 72 countries with very low proficiency (www.ef.com.tr/epi/).

Private secondary schools and state Anatolian high schools emphasize English and spend a lot of time and resources learning English (Işık, 2013). Over the years, Anatolian high schools instruction system has shown changes. In the beginning years of these schools, students, firstly, received foreign language preparatory education for one year and in the following years, they learnt all the lessons through foreign language. Because of the criticism directed towards education in foreign language, instruction programs were revised and the lessons except from the foreign language lesson began to be taught in mother tongue (Hancı Yanar, 2008). In 1997, education in foreign language came to an end and instruction of foreign language was carried into practice. In both system, duration of education in Anatolian high schools was four years in total in the form of one year preparatory class and three years of high school education. In the academic year of 2005-2006, duration of education in the Anatolian and General high schools was changed with the declaration of Ministry of National Education. With regard to this declaration, by that time, high schools in which students received preparatory education as well as general and vocational high schools having the form of preparatory class plus three years adopted education duration of four years without including preparatory class (Hancı Yanar, 2008). This implementation was carried out gradually. A total of 40 hours of English lessons which had been allocated as 24 hours for

preparatory class per week; eight hours for the first year of high school and eight hours for the second year, were allocated for four years of high school. Key to that system, per week, the students were given ten hours of English lessons in ninth class; and in the 10th,11th and 12th grades, four hours of English lessons were given for each, per week. Hence, 40 hours of English lessons were reduced to 22 hours per week (Hancı Yanar, 2008). In the year of 2010, with a circular, the process of restructuring all the general high schools in the form of Anatolian or vocational high schools within the subsequent four years, was commenced in the academic year of 2010-2011 and 1.477 general high schools were transformed into Anatolian or vocational high schools. That process was completed in the academic year of 2013-2014 (Küçüker, 2017). With this amendment, an improvement in the quality of secondary schools were pursued (Çelik, 2015). As of the academic year 2017-2018, the foreign language lessons of 4 hours are included in the curriculum of the 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th classes of the Anatolian High School (ogm.meb.gov.tr, 2017). The basic purpose of secondary school English lesson curriculum of 9th-12th grades is to provide students with an encouraging, motivating and enjoyable learning environment with the aim of enabling them to use English language in an effective, fluent and accurate way (mufredat.meb.gov.tr, 2017).

Affective variables such as motivation, attitude and self-efficacy are as important as the cognitive domain in reaching the purpose of foreign language teaching programs (Hancı Yanar & Bümen, 2012). According to the results of a research conducted by Kazazoğlu (2013) on 8th and 9th grade students, it was determined that there is a significant relationship between students' attitudes towards English lesson and academic achievement. Kazazoğlu (2013) has found that the relationship between attitude and language achievement is significant because the attitude determines the capacity of individual to learn effectively in the learning process and that the individual should have a positive attitude toward the subject in order to achieve cognitive success and as a result, has emphasized that the attitude should not be underestimated during the foreign language learning process. Affective factors such as attitude, emotion, motivation, and values significantly influence learning. There are three strategies in this group: anxiety reduction, self-encouragement and taking the level of emotion into account. Good language learners are also aware of the negative feelings that hamper learning while controlling their feelings and emotions towards learning (Samida, 2012). Anxiety can be both beneficial and harmful. It is believed to be beneficial, to a certain degree, allowing learners to gain the highest level of performance. Excessive anxiety has the opposite effect by preventing learning. Anxiety often manifests itself in the form of sadness, anger, insecurity, fear, self-doubt (Samida, 2012). Learners must also have time management skills and be able to cope with stress and other affective factors that can negatively impact learning. In addition, learners should have basic knowledge about the learning process and language nature (Crookall, 1983, Ellis & Sinclair, 1989, Wenden, 1991, cited by Ho & Crookall, 1995). Encouraging oneself requires the learners have motivation. The effect of motivation on learning and the fact that awareness of the learning strategies used by learners affects academic achievement has been accepted as important issues in the literature (Yağlı, 2014). Motivation is the most underlying factor in language learning, but studies in this regard are not enough. Since language teaching is more skill training than knowledge teaching, it is very important that the students are active in the teaching process and they are willing to learn the language (Gömleksiz & Kılınç, 2014). The willingness of the learners to take responsibility does not have to be innate, and this is something that should be encouraged and can be learned by formal learning (Holec, 1981; cited by Chan, 2001). Learners should learn to be motivated and self-disciplined (Ho & Crookall 1995). In addition to general knowledge, the individuals also have beliefs about their own motivations. These include judgements about the performance of a task (self-efficacy), the goals of completing a task (learning or just getting a good score) and the value of the task for them (low interest and attention,

high interest and high value) (Pintrich, 2002). The awareness of individuals about their own learning and perception styles also play an important role in motivating them (Suna & Durmuşçelebi, 2013).

According to Vandergrift (2005), the strategies most affected by motivational level are cognitive and metacognitive strategies. It is important that students should develop self-knowledge and self-awareness of motivation as well as developing self-knowledge and self-awareness of their information and knowledge (Pintrich, 2002). Schmidt and Watanabe argue that if a person believes in the value of learning another language, both instrumentally and internally, he/she may be expected to use various cognitive and metacognitive strategies to achieve the goal (Schmidt & Watanabe cited by Vandergrift, 2005). Flavell (1979) describes cognitive awareness, metacognition, and cognitive knowledge as the consciousness about the factors and variables which affect the cognitive processes of an individual and knowing how they influence those processes. Metacognition involves the ability of an individual to predict, plan, monitor and evaluate his / her mental activities (Özsoy, 2008, p. 716). As one can see, cognitive and affective features influence each other and create a dynamic whole in learning English. According to Gestalt theory, the whole is greater than the sum of all parts (Clarkson, 1989, Clarkson & Mackewn, 1993, cited by Ikehara, 1999). A holistic understanding of any phenomenon can only be achieved through multiple viewpoints (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008: 28, cited by Karataş, 2015).

Cognitive and affective features originate from individual differences and influence the quality of learning English as a foreign language. Erbil Tursun (2010) emphasizes that many language educators say that individual differences are more or less contributing to language learning success, indicating that failure to adequately address individual characteristics and differences in foreign language teaching can be shown as a reason for failure. Larsen-Freeman separated the individual differences into 3 groups; first, the determinants of learner such as age, gender, personality, social status; second, motivation, attitudes and beliefs of learners in the acquisition of foreign languages; (Matsuura, 2007) and finally, the activities of the learners in language learning (learning strategies, etc.). In this respect, it is crucial to dwell on how to improve the effectiveness of the English learning process, taking individual characteristics into account. Language teaching in Turkey occurs in an environment where natural language exposure is at the lowest level. Learning is limited solely to the school environment (Suna & Durmuşçelebi, 2013). In order that foreign language education to be carried out effectively, there is a need for students to be self-confident learners who can also maintain their out-of-school learning effectively. In this context, the concept of learning autonomy in secondary language education is important (Kurt & Acat, 2016).

Communicative approach's coming into prominence, innovations such as the learner centered instruction and autonomy have made the learner as the main actor in the learning process (Barbot, 2000, cited by, Kurt & Acat, 2016). It can be said that some kinds of knowledge, skills and attitudes qualify autonomous learning. Among these, self-knowledge which means that someone knows what he/she needs to learn and how to learn comes the first (Dickinson, 1987; Holec, 1981, 1989, cited by Ho & Crookall, 1995). Not all self-knowledge is used for the individual to think about oneself at any time. The working self-concept originates from the set of existing self-perceptions which are active in mind and memory. This can be viewed as continuously active alternating sequencing of available self-information (Markus & Nurius, 1986, 957, cited by Henry, Dörnyei & MacIntyre, 2015). Once the learners have begun to develop their self-knowledge, they have a basis for learning how to design their own learning pathways and managing their learning. Self-knowledge forms the basis for the use of self-management strategies that seem to be central

to a more autonomous approach to language teaching (White, 1995). Self-knowledge includes knowledge strengths and weaknesses of oneself. For example, a student knowing that he or she is more successful in multiple-choice exams than in written exams shows that he/she has metacognitive knowledge about his / her test skills. This information can be useful when the student is working for two different types of exams. One of the distinguishing features of the experts is that they know that they do not know something, and they need to use some general strategies to find the right information. The awareness of the breadth and depth of one's own knowledge base is an important aspect of self-knowledge (Pintrich, 2002). It is possible that improved metacognition, through increased self-awareness, leads to greater autonomy, more effective strategies and the use of more diverse sources and increased interaction with language. A more autonomous approach also accelerates the rate of improvement. This operation interacts with the emotions of learners (less anxiety, more motivation, increased self-confidence) so that the whole process will accelerate even more. In summary, neglecting metacognition can have a negative impact on autonomy and learning to interact with each other and on the dynamism of this interaction (Victori & Lockhart, 1995). Chamot (2005) stated in the research that it has been proven that good learners have the ability to match appropriate strategies to the tasks they are working on, but that those less successful in language learning obviously do not have metacognitive knowledge of the task requirements needed to choose appropriate strategies. Chamot (2005) emphasizes that language learners who learn well have been defined as the ones whose minds are active, who control the language and performance, practice communicating on the field, using general and linguistic preliminaries, using various memory techniques, and asking questions for clarity. Autonomous learner needs to improve his/her capacity to start and control in order to be able to make important decisions about what, how and when to learn. It is claimed that increasing learning control increases the level of self-determination and thus increases general motivation for autonomous learning (Dickinson, 1987; as cited by Chan, 2001).

The fact that learners have a high level of motivation and cognitive awareness and that their anxiety is at a level which does not negatively affect their learning will allow them to use self-knowledge more effectively in the learning process, and naturally they are expected to carry learning processes out of the classroom environment. These students are most probably struggling to transfer what they learn about the target language to daily life. An example is the way in which students can read books written in target language and practice speaking by communicating with others in the target language. This endeavor is an action to improve English language skills. According to Kahneman (1973), the endeavor in the direction of the current plan and in chosen actions with current purpose is a product of voluntary attention. Endeavor requires the mind to be active in order to achieve the goal. The activeness of the mind increases the quality of actions that will achieve the goal by providing continuity in the foreign language improvement effort. Consequently, in order to deepen research on self-knowledge which is accepted as the basis for the practice of skills considered as the key to autonomous and self-directed learning as with the words of Dickinson (1987) and Holec (1981, 1989) and cited by Ho and Crookall (1995), it is important to study the concepts of motivation, endeavor and anxiety, which are all related to each other. No measurement tool which adress all the concepts mentioned above as a whole to carry out research has been encountered. In this study, a scale consisting of metacognition, motivation, endeavor and anxiety subscales was developed for 9th grade secondary school students in order to study on their of self-knowledge perceptions about learning English.

In this research, it was aimed to develop a valid and reliable scale for 9th-grade students of Anatolian High Schools with the aim of finding out their perceptions towards self-knowledge for learning English.

2.1. Research Context and Site

The general population of the research consists of all the Anatolian high schools affiliated to the National Education Directorate in Aydın. During the academic year of 2015-16, in autumn period, Anatolian High School students in three provinces affiliated to Aydın city center formed the sample of the research.

2.2. Research design

This research was designed in descriptive survey model. The research method that takes the subject matter area in terms of the existing probable conditions, practice beliefs, processes, relations and tendencies is always called the descriptive survey research (Salaria, 2012). The descriptive research is to define a phenomenon and its features. Research is more concerned with the question "what" rather than why and how something happens. As a result, observation and survey tools are used to collect data (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007; cited by Nassaji, 2015). Descriptive data can be expressed qualitatively by verbal symbols or quantitatively by mathematical symbols. Two structures can be used in one study (Khan et al., 2017). Descriptive research defines a given situation as fully and carefully as possible. The most common descriptive method in the study field is the survey study because researchers summarize the characteristics (skills, preferences, behaviors, etc.) of individuals, groups or (sometimes) physical environments (such as school) (Büyüköztürk et al., 2017).

2.3. Participants

The first form of the measurement tool was implemented 646 students in one province of Aydın and the deficient or missing data were removed, and the data obtained from 604 students were included in the analysis (339 f, 265 m). After the analysis, and in accordance with expert opinion, revised form of measurement tool was implemented on a total of 816 students attending Anatolian High School in two provinces. A total of 593 (378 f, 215 m) students were included in the analysis by extracting deficient or missing data.

3. Development Process of the Scale

Literature review had been performed before the item pool was formed for the scale. And also, to measure the cognitive, emotional and behavioral characteristics of the 9th Grade students in order to determine how they know themselves about learning English by making use of the findings of qualitative studies on the English learning process, previously conducted by the researcher, a 7th likert type (1: least likelihood 7: most appropriate) form was prepared and the first implementation of the form was made. The reconstructed measuring tool was implemented on a different sampling group, taking into account the expert opinion in the direction of the analyses made and the content validity.

3.1. Data Analysis

The first form of the measurement tool was implemented on 646 students in 5 Anatolian schools located in one province of Aydın and an explanatory factor analysis was performed with SPSS 18.0

statistical package program for 604 (339 f, 265 m) students after excluding deficient or missing data. As a result of the factor analysis, it was seen that the measurement tool had a 5-component structure consisting of 32 items. As a result of the analysis, the second preliminary implementation was made with a 32-item form and 816 students from 8 Anatolian schools, 4 in one province and 4 in the other province. The deficient or missing data were excluded and the descriptive (AFA) and confirmatory factor (DFA) analysis were performed using the data obtained from 593 (378 f, 215 m) students.

4. Findings

Before the factor analysis of the preliminary data for the development of the self-knowledge scale for learning English was performed, reversed items were recoded. After this process was completed, the principal components factor analysis was performed on the data obtained from the answers of 604 participants in order to determine the factor structure. KMO and Bartlett's test were performed to determine the appropriateness of the first preliminary data of the measurement tool to factor analysis. It is expected that the KMO coefficient is higher than .60 for factorability (Büyüköztürk, 2017). The KMO value of the scale was .93 and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity significance was p = .000 (p <.001). Accordingly, it has been determined that the measurement tool is appropriate for factor analysis.

In the first analysis with all the items, it was seen that there were 11 dimensions with eigen-values greater than 1. It is recommended that in a factor, the difference between the highest load value of an item and the highest load value after this value should be at least .10 (Büyüköztürk, 2017). Items that were included with factor load values in more than one factor and factor load value differences were less than 0.10 and the items which remained as the the only one in a factor were excluded from the scale. Also, 18 items which were determined to be below the .30 value of factor loadings were extracted from the scale. After the analyses made, it is seen that the measuring instrument consists of a total of 32 items and has a 5-component structure called metacognition, endeavor, anxiety, motivation, and memory.

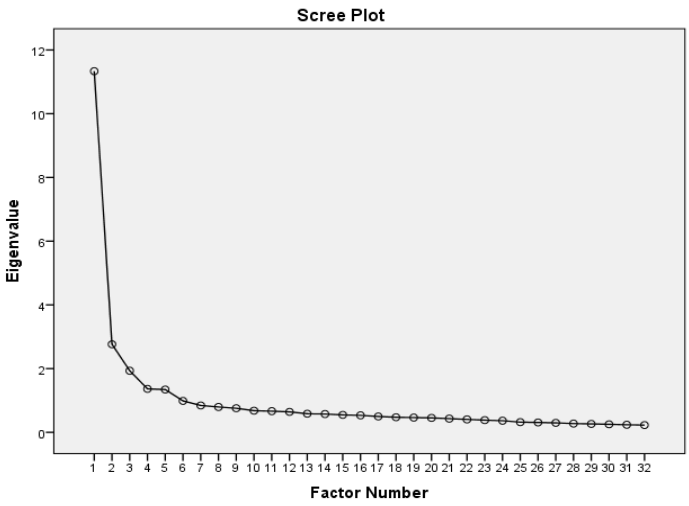

Figure 4.1 Graph of the eigen values of the factors related to first preliminary implementation

The first preliminary data was subjected to factor analysis again after the second preliminary data analyses and for the reason that all three items gathered in the memory sub-dimension were determined as insufficient to measure memory features, these items were excluded from the analysis by taking the expert opinion and content validity taking into account, it was determined that the instrument was composed of a total of 17 items and 4 sub-dimensions.

Figure 4.2. Graph of the eigen-values of the factors for the second analysis of the first preliminary implementation

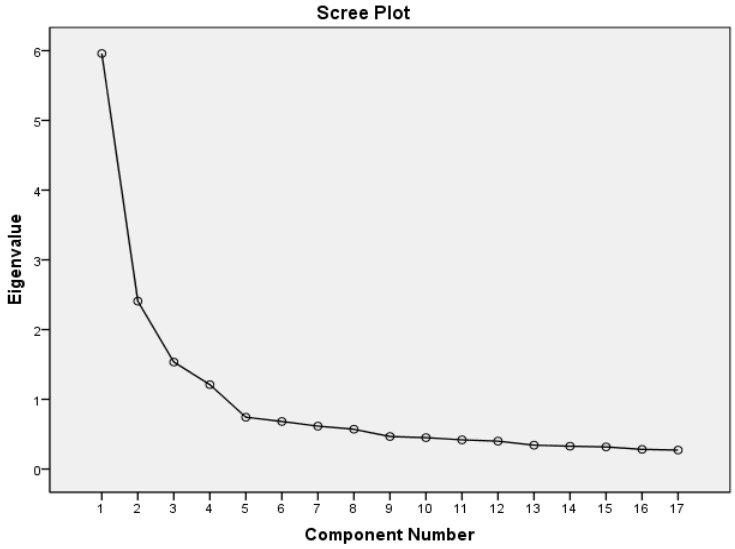

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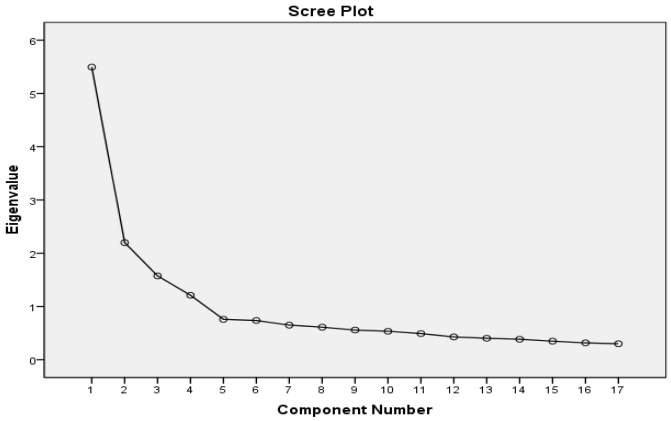
Table 4.1. Factor Load Values of the First Preliminary Implementation

Items	Load values after conversion			
	F1	F2	F3	F4
Dimension 1: Metacognition				
21. I study in a planned way to learn English effectively.	.665			
26. If I have difficulties while learning English, I review the subject.	.759			
28. I try to find out why I have difficulty in learning English.	.758			
45. I question myself and evaluate my studies for a better performance while learning English.	.759			
46. I can find the reasons for my mistakes when I evaluate myself in learning English	.733			
Dimension 2: Motivation		.792		
2. I believe that learning English will provide opportunities for me in the future.		.789		
3. I would like to learn English for my professional development and career.		.818		
4. I would like to acquire four language skills (speaking, reading, writing, listening) in English accurately.		.716		
5. I am determined to learn English accurately.				

Dimension 3: Endeavor	
16. To improve my English, I watch movies and programs, etc. in target language (English)	.768
17. To improve my English, I listen to the songs, radio programs, etc. in the target language (English)	.730
19. To improve my English, I read the books and publications in the target language (English).	.759
20. I speak English with my friends or acquaintances.	.674
Dimension 4: Anxiety	
39. I get anxious if I speak English with someone whose native language is English.	.740
40. I get anxious about my English exams at school.	.784
41. I get anxious about national English exams.	.815
44. I get anxious about trying not to make grammar mistakes when I speak English.	.701

The total Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the 17-item scale, which is the result of explanatory factor analysis of the first preliminary data, was found to be .84. Before the factor analysis of the first preliminary data for the development of the self-knowledge scale for learning English was performed, the answers of the test were reversed by coding the following expressions as negative: ‘’I get anxious if I speak English with someone whose native language is English.’’, "I get anxious about my English exams at school.", "I get anxious about national English exams.", and "I get anxious about trying not to make grammar mistakes while I speak English." After this process was completed, the principal components factor analysis was applied to the scores obtained from the answers of 593 persons to the measurement tool in order to determine the factor structure. Kaiser - Meyer - Olkin (KMO) sample adequacy test and Bartlett sphericity test were applied to test the suitability of the dataset for factor analysis. The dataset was found to be as appropriate for the factor analysis since the KMO value was found to be 0.87 above the acceptable limit of 0.60, and the Bartlett sphericity test was above 0.50 and significant at 0.05 significance level. The KMO coefficient value indicates that data are appropriate for analysis. The items were analyzed using the principal component method and the Varimax rotation method. It was determined that the measurement tool was composed of 17 items under 4 factors. The curve graph obtained as a result of explanatory factor analysis is shown in the figure.

Figure 4.3. Graph of the eigen-values of the factors related to the second preliminary implementation.



The scale consists of four components. There are 5 items measuring the dimension of "metacognition" (example item I question myself and evaluate my studies for a better performance while learning English.), 4 items measuring the dimension of "motivation" (EI: I believe that learning English will provide opportunities for me in the future), 4 items measuring the dimension of "endeavor" (EI: To improve my English, I read the books and publications in the target language (English) and 4 items that measure the size of the "anxiety" (EI: I get anxious about trying not to make grammar mistakes when I speak English.). The load values for the explanatory factor analysis are shown in the table.

Table 4.2. Factor Load Values of the Second Preliminary Implementation

Items	Load values after conversion			
	F1	**F2**	**F3**	**F4**
Dimension 1: Metacognition				
1. I study in a planned way to learn English effectively.	.759			
2. If I have difficulties while learning English, I review the subject.	.728			
3. I try to find out why I have difficulty in learning English.	.623			
4. I question myself and evaluate my studies for a better performance while learning English.	.747			
5. I can find the reasons for my mistakes when I evaluate myself in learning English	.687			
Dimension 2: Motivation				
6. I believe that learning English will provide opportunities for me in the future.		.796		
7. I would like to learn English for my professional development and career.		.775		
8. I would like to acquire four language skills (speaking, reading, writing, listening) in English accurately.		.833		
9. I am determined to learn English accurately.		.635		
Dimension 3: Endeavor				
10. To improve my English, I watch movies and programs, etc. in target language (English)			.815	
11. To improve my English, I listen to the songs, radio programs, etc. in the target language (English)			.729	
12. To improve my English, I read the books and publications in the target language (English).			.626	
13. I speak English with my friends or acquaintances.			.551	
Dimension 4: Anxiety				
14. I get anxious if I speak English with someone whose native language is English.				.677
15. I get anxious about my English exams at school.				.791
16. I get anxious about national English exams.				.747
17. I get anxious about trying not to make grammar mistakes when I speak English.				.674

Four factors were identified after EFA analysis of the second preliminary implementation data. The total variance of the scale is composed of 19% of metacognitive dimension, 17% of

motivation dimension, 13% of anxiety dimension and 12% of endeavor dimension. These four factors were found to be 61% of the variance contribution.

Table 4.3. Rotated Factor Loads of Self-Knowledge Scale for Learning English

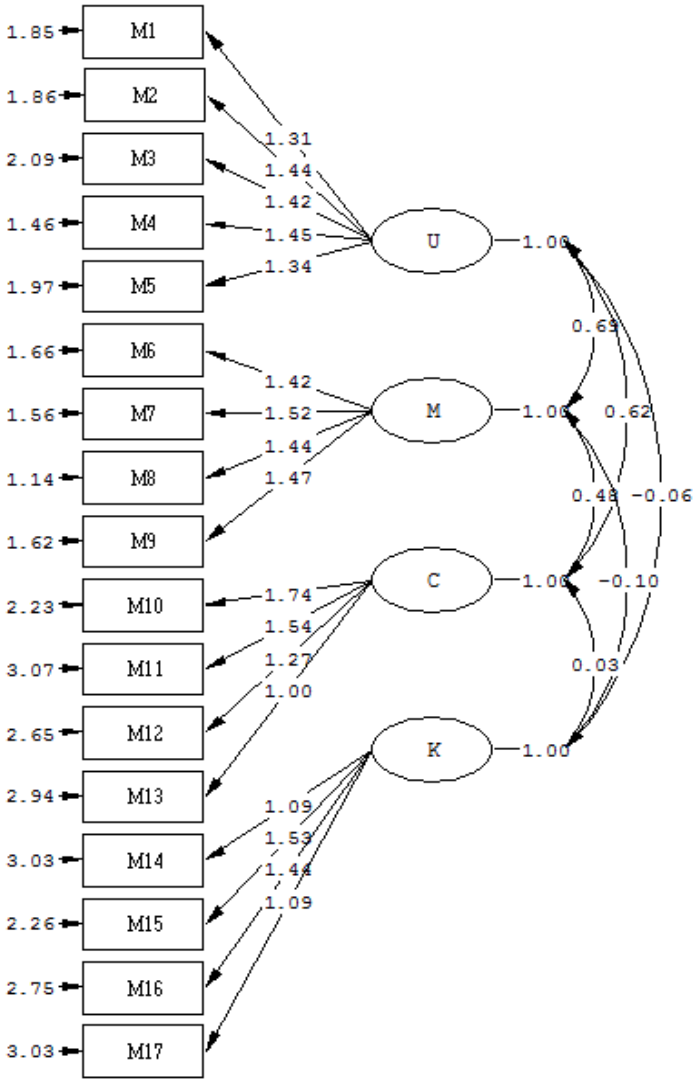
Factor	Eigen-values	Variance (%)	Cumulative (%)
Metacognition	3.281	19.301	19.301
Motivation	2.958	17.398	36.699
Anxiety	2.152	12.661	49.360
Endeavor	2.087	12.274	61.634

In order to determine the reliability of the scale, the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was determined. Cronbach Alpha values as a result of the analyzes; .84 for the dimension of metacognition, .85 for the motivational dimension, .72 for the endeavor dimension, .70 for the anxiety dimension, and .81 for the whole scale.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis:

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a testing method of assessing factor structures determined after the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), also assessing factor structures that are determined by using the sources and assessing factor structures pre-determined generally accepted / defined for the original scales, or assessing the estimated factor structures (Özdamar, 2016). The confirmatory factor analysis of Self-Knowledge Scale for Learning English which was determined to consist of 4 factors with explanatory factor analysis, was evaluated by using confirmatory factor analysis and paying attention to theoretical implications.

Figure 4.4. CFA Diagram of the Scale



The reported values for model fit are usually x2 / df (CMIN / DF), GFI, NFI, CFI, and RMSEA, although there are many values. The general model fit indices x2 / df (CMIN / DF), absolute fit index GFI, comparative fit indexes CFI, NFI and RMSEA were used to evaluate the analysis results. The values obtained as a result of the analysis are given in Table 2.

Table 4. 4. Model Fit Indices of the Scale

Fit Measurements	Good Fit	Acceptable Fit	Measurement
RMSEA	0<RMSEA<0.05	0.05≤RMSEA≤0.10	0.078
NFI	0.95≤NFI≤1	0.90≤NFI≤0.95	0.938
CFI	0.97≤CFI≤1	0.95≤CFI≤0.97	0.952
GFI	0.95≤GFI≤1	0.90≤GFI≤0.95	0.905
AGFI	0.90≤AGFI≤1	0.85≤AGFI≤0.90	0.872

x^2: 469.207 df: 113, Measurement: 4.152

Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2008) state that a statistical norm that minimizes the effect of sample size in the chi-square model is the normalized square (χ2 / df) of Wheaton et al. adding that no compromise has been reached for the ratio that is acceptable for this statistic. Recommended values may vary from a high value of 5.0 (Wheaton et al., 1977; cited by Hooper et al., 2008) to a low value of 2.0 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; cited by Hooper at al.,2008). The value obtained by dividing the value of χ2 by the degree of freedom should be two or less. It is acceptable if it is five or less (Hooper & Mullen 2008; Munro 2005; Şimşek 2007). While Chi-square / df ratio shows good fit between 2.0 and 5.0, ratio; less than 2.0 indicates extreme fit (Kelloway, 1998). When the fit measures are evaluated together, it is determined that the fit values of the developed scale are within the acceptable limits.

The Reliability of the Self-Knowledge Scale for Learning English:

The Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient for the whole scale was found to be 0.81 in the analysis to determine the internal consistency coefficient of the self-knowledge scale for learning English. It has been determined that the items forming the scale are consistent with each other. Internal consistency reliability coefficients for the sub-dimensions are; 0.84 for the metacognition subdimension, 0.85 for the motivation subdimension, 0.72 for the endeavor subdimension, and 0.70 for the anxiety, the fourth subdimension. Büyüköztürk (2017) stated that the correlation coefficient is high between 0.70 and 1.00 as an absolute value, moderate between 0.70 and 0.30, and between 0.30 and 0.00 can be defined as a low correlation. In this context, it can be said that the reliability coefficients of sub-dimensions are high.

5 .Results

In this study, a scale was developed to determine the self-knowledge of Anatolian high school students of the ninth grade for learning English. This scale called "self-knowledge scale for learning English", consists of 17 items. The scale item pool was composed of 50 items in the first stage. When the data were analyzed after the first preliminary implementation, it was found that the scale was composed of 32 items and gathered in the sub-dimensions of metacognition, motivation, anxiety, memory, and endeavor. As a result of the analysis, a second preliminary

implementation was carried out with the revised form composed of 32 items and with a different sampling. The explanatory and confirmatory factor analyses of the second preliminary data were performed on 593 participants. The scale was determined to be of 17 items and four factors as a result of explanatory factor analysis of the second preliminary data. As a result of confirmatory factor analysis of the second preliminary data, when the fit indices were evaluated together, it was determined that the developed scale model fit indices were within acceptable limits. The first preliminary data was subjected to factor analysis again after the second preliminary data analysis and it was determined that the three items collected in the memory sub-dimension were insufficient to measure that subdivision so those items were excluded from the analysis. Subsequent to all the analyses carried out, it was determined that, the scale developed consists of a total of 17 items and those items were grouped under the four factors identically in both analyses. Those factors were identified as metacognition, motivation, endeavor, and anxiety. The total variance of the scale consists of 19% of metacognitive dimension, 17% of motivation dimension, 13% of anxiety dimension and 12% of endeavor dimension. These four factors altogether contributed to the total variance with a percentage of 61%. The Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient for the whole scale was found to be 0.81 in the analysis. It has been determined that the items forming the scale are consistent with each other. Internal consistency reliability coefficients for the sub-dimensions are; 0.84 for the metacognition subscale, 0.85 for the motivation subscale, 0.72 for the endeavor subscale, and 0.70 for the anxiety which is the fourth subscale. It was determined that the scale developed according to the results obtained in the research was valid and reliable to measure the self-knowledge perceptions of 9th-grade students of Anatolian High School to learn English. In this context, it was determined that the scale developed in this research in Turkish language, which is valid and reliable, will contribute to the studies related to this topic. This scale can also be implemented on different sample groups to perform validity and reliability studies. Besides, to use the scale in English form, linguistic equivalence reliability and validity studies should be performed. In this research paper, the scale items were written in English just for comprehension. Further studies that will contribute to enhance the understanding of self-knowledge for learning English should be conducted.

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Appendix: Self-knowledge scale for learning English

	İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENMEYE YÖNELİK ÖZ-BİLGİ ÖLÇEĞİ	EN AZ UYGUN						EN ÇOKUYGUN
		→						
1	**İngilizceyi etkili öğrenmek için planlı çalışırım.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	**İngilizce öğrenirken zorluk yaşarsam konu tekrarı yaparım.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	**İngilizce öğrenirken neden zorluk yaşadığımı bulmaya çalışırım.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	**İngilizce öğrenirken daha iyi bir performans için kendimi sorgular ve çalışmalarımı değerlendiririm.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	**İngilizce öğrenirken kendimi değerlendirdiğimde hatalarımın sebeplerini bulabilirim.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	**İngilizce öğrenmenin gelecekte bana fırsatlar sunacağına inanırım.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	**İngilizceyi profesyonel gelişimim ve kariyerim için öğrenmek isterim.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	**İngilizcede dört dil becerisini (konuşma, okuma yazma, dinleme) tam olarak kazanmak isterim.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	**İngilizceyi tam olarak öğrenmeye kararlıyım.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	**İngilizcemi geliştirmek için hedef dilde (İngilizce) filmler, programlar vb. izlerim.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	**İngilizcemi geliştirmek için hedef dilde (İngilizce) şarkılar, radyo programları vb. dinlerim.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	**İngilizcemi geliştirmek için hedef dilde (İngilizce) kitap ve yayınları okurum.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	**Arkadaşlarım veya tanıdıklarımla İngilizce konuşurum**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	**Ana dili İngilizce olan biriyle İngilizce konuşursam kaygılanırım.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	**Okulda girdiğim İngilizce sınavlarında kaygılanırım.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	**Ulusal İngilizce sınavlarında kaygılanırım.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	**İngilizce konuşurken gramer hatası yapmamaya çalışmak beni kaygılandırır.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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Do You Need to Read 8,000,000 Words to Acquire 2,000 Word Families in English?: A Comment on Hill and Laufer (2003)

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Abstract: This brief research note comments on estimates made by Hill and Laufer (2003), and repeated by other researchers, regarding the total number of words one needs to read to acquire 2,000 word families in English. Hill and Laufer (2003) only considered the acquisition of 23 previously unknown words from a text of 20,000 words. Subjects acquired five of them. From this, they concluded that readers will only acquire five new words from a text of 20,000 words. But they considered a 23-word sample, ignoring unknown words in the rest of text, under the incorrect assumption that words appearing only once in a text are never even partially acquired.

Keywords: *vocabulary, acquisition, research design, reading, ESL*

1. Introduction

Reading is an important source of vocabulary growth for both first- (L1) and second-language (L2) acquirers (Krashen, 1989; Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985). This growth comes primarily through *incidental* word acquisition – that is, when readers are focused on comprehending the meaning of a text, not on building their vocabulary *per se*. Incidental vocabulary acquisition is often distinguished from *intentional* word learning, where learners are consciously attempting to learn or memorize new words.

The most common research design to measure incidental vocabulary acquisition is a "read-and-test" study, where subjects are asked to read a text that contains words unknown to them, after which they are given a surprise vocabulary test (see Krashen, 2004 for a review). Studies in L1 vocabulary acquisition have found that probability of acquiring an unknown word in English incidentally while reading is between .05 and .15 (Swanborn & de Glopper, 1999). L2 studies have produced similar estimates (e.g. Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010).

Some read-and-test studies employ modified texts in which all of the words are assumed known to the subjects except a small set of embedded target words. These target words are often pseudo-words (invented words) (e.g. Waring & Takaki, 2002), used to ensure that the subjects have no prior knowledge of them before reading. In such studies, *all* the target words are typically tested to measure the amount of word acquisition.

In other studies, researchers select real words that appear in a text but are thought to be unknown to the reader, based on pilot testing with a similar group of students, a pre-test given before the text is read, and/or because they are words that would only likely be encountered in

that text. Examples of this latter case include foreign words appearing in novels such as *A Clockwork Orange* (e.g. Saragi, Nation, & Meister, 1978) or *Things Fall Apart* (Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010). In these studies, it is more likely that a sample of the potentially unknown words is chosen to represent the larger population of unknown words.

Proper calculation of amount of word knowledge gained through incidental exposure to words while reading depends in part on distinguishing between the absolute number of words gained from the target word *sample* and the potential gains from the entire *population* of unknown words.

2. Hill and Laufer (2003): Samples, Populations, and the 8,000,000 Word Estimate

An initial error in understanding how word gains should be calculated can lead to further errors in estimating word growth from reading, as was the case with Hill and Laufer (2003). The researchers claimed that a second language reader in English would need to read 8,000,000 words in order to acquire a mere 2,000 new word families. Schmitt (2008) repeated this claim in order to bolster his argument that developing a vocabulary sufficient to read native-level texts requires a strong dose of direct instruction, since gains from incidental acquisition were too low to be counted on within a reasonable timeframe.

Here is Hill and Laufer's (2003) reasoning for their calculation:

> Studies on vocabulary acquisition from reading (without any enhancement tasks) show that pick up rates of unfamiliar words range from 1–5 words in a text of over 1,000 words (Hulstijn 1992; Knight 1994; Luppescu & Day 1993; Paribakht & Wesche 1993; Zahar et al. 2001). Similar gains occur during reading books. In Horst et al.'s (1998) experiment, an average of five words were gained from the reading of a simplified version of *The Mayor of Casterbridge*, a text of 21,000 words. Lahav (1996) conducted a study with students who read four simplified readers, each one of about 20,000 words, and found an average learning rate of 3–4 words per book. *At this rate of growth, a second language learner would have to read in excess of eight million words of texts, or about 420 novels to increase their vocabulary by 2,000 words.* This would appear to be a daunting and time consuming means of vocabulary development. It is therefore reasonable that L2 learners acquire their vocabulary not only from input, be it reading or listening, but also through word-focused activities. (p. 88, emphasis added)

How did Hill and Laufer (2003) arrive at this conclusion, and is their estimate correct?

The authors give the example of Horst, Cobb, and Meara's (1998) study of students reading a simplified reader version of *The Mayor of Casterbridge* (the Lahav study mentioned is unpublished). In Horst et al. (1998), the researchers tested students on a set of 45 words. The 45 words included eight that occurred seven or more times in the text but, because they were not part of a list of high-frequency words students studied in another aspect of their language course, were likely to be unknown to the subjects. The rest of the words were randomly selected from among low- and medium-frequency words, occurring in the text six or fewer times.

A pretest determined that the students already knew about half of the 45 target words, so the average number of new words students could have acquired on the test that was administered to them was about 23. After reading the novel, students took the post-test, which showed an average gain of around five words out of the 23 or so target words that were new to the students. The simplified novel they read contained a little more than 20,000 words. Hill and Laufer (2003) concluded therefore that you can only expect to pick up around five words for every 20,000 words you read.

Based on Horst et al.'s (1998) data, Hill and Laufer (2003) arrived at the figure 8,000,000 words that one would need to read to acquire 2,000 words: If you acquire 5 words for every 20,000 words you read, then you would need to read 400 of these 20,000 word novels, or 8,000,000 words.

The error here should be clear: Horst et al. (1998) did *not* find that only five words were acquired by students after reading a 20,000 page book, but rather that subjects got five words correct out of the *sample* of words tested. Hill and Laufer (2003) confused the population of all the unknown words in the text with the sample of words that were included in the test; Krashen, (2004) makes a similar point about this study.

Horst et al. (1998) initially estimated that the actual population of unknown word families in the text was 222. They then eliminated any word that appeared only once, which left them with 75 words, and then sampled 45 words from that list to create their test. Overall, their subjects acquired 22% of the new words they encountered, as measured on an immediate post-test.

Although the researchers thought that words that occur only once in a text were not good candidates for being acquired, other research has found that the cumulative effect of even a low rate of acquisition of single-occurring words can be substantial, in part because the majority of unknown words in a text fall into this category (McQuillan, 2016a). Pellicer-Sánchez and Schmitt (2010), for example, found that the meaning of 5% of the words that appeared only once in the text they used to measure incidental acquisition were recalled by their subjects on a post-test. Waring and Takaki's (2003) subjects recognized the meaning of 16% of the pseudo-words occurring only once on an immediate post-test similar to Horst et al.'s (1998) test.

Even if we assume that Horst et al.'s (1998) subjects already knew half of the untested words (as they knew half of the 45 tested words), and that the pick up rate was only 10%, that would leave around nine additional words acquired, effectively tripling the total number of words acquired (222 total words – 45 test words = 177 untested words, divided by 2 = 88.5 , multiplied by .10 = 8.5 words). Horst et al.'s (1998) study, then, does not provide evidence for Hill and Laufer's (2003) claim that we need to read 8,000,000 words in order to acquire 2,000 new word families.

3. Reading to Acquire 2,000 Words

The best recent estimates on the number of words one would need to read to acquire 2,000 word families in English come from a corpus analysis by Nation (2014). Table 1 summarizes Nation's estimates on the number of words one would need to acquire the 4th through the 8th most frequently occurring word families in English. Note that most adult-level texts in English can be read with vocabulary coverage of 98% at the 8,000- to 9,000-word-family level, and many popular best sellers can be read with knowledge of only 6,000- to 7,000-word families (McQuillan, 2016a).

Table 1. Number of Words One Needs to Read to Acquire the 4th through 8th Most Frequently Occurring Word Families in English

Word Family Level	Number of Words One Needs to Read	Hours @ 150 wpm	Cumulative Hours of Reading
4,000	500,000	56	56
5,000	1,000,000	112	168
6,000	1,500,000	167	335
7,000	2,000,000	222	557
8,000	2,500,000	278	835

Adapted from McQuillan (2016a), Table 1, p. 65.

Table 1 is read this way: To acquire the 1,000 word families at the 4,000-word-family level, you would need to read about 500,000 words of text (novels, magazines, newspapers, etc.). These texts would ideally be books written with 98% vocabulary coverage at the 3,000-word-family level; that is, 98% of the running words in the text would be in 1,000- to 3,000-word-family range, with only 2% at the 4,000-word-family level and above. To acquire the next 1,000 word families (the 5,000-word-family level), you would need to read 1,000,000 words of text written with all but 2% of the running text written at the 1,000- through 4,000-word-family levels, and so on. McQuillan (2016a) demonstrated that there are abundant texts written at these levels, beginning with graded readers and continuing on with juvenile, young-adult, and popular series books, including John Grisham thrillers, Agatha Christie mysteries, and the like.

Table 1 also contains time estimates of how long it would take to read this amount of text reading based on a somewhat conservative estimate of 150 words per minute (McQuillan & Krashen, 2007). For example, to go from the 4,000- to 5,000-word-family level would require around 56 hours of reading (500,000 words/150 words per minute = 3,333 minutes/60 minutes = about 56 hours).

Note that moving from the 5,000-word-family level to the 7,000-word-family level would require reading around 2,500,000 words, a much easier goal to attain than the 8,000,000 words Hill and Laufer (2003) estimated. This is something that most serious L2 students could easily manage. A student who reads 45 minutes a day in English for one year at (a relatively slow) 150 words a minute could read a total of 2,463,750 words, almost enough to reach this goal (see McQuillan, 2016b).

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