

## A Linguistic Analysis of Adapted Literary Texts in Korean High School English Textbooks\*

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The present study is aimed to investigate types of input modification in adapted literary texts and its impact on the adapted literary texts. Four literary texts adapted in Korean high school English textbooks were analyzed using a modification tool revised by the researcher based on the previous studies. Overall linguistic analyses on the four literary texts revealed that both simplification and elaboration occurred, not either of them dominantly. Looking inside, content reduction was found to occur the most, followed by syntactic and lexical simplification. In terms of elaborative modification, on the other hand, lexical elaboration was most frequent, followed by content and syntactic elaboration. The authors of the current study judged some negative effects of input modification such as less contextual clues, a decrease in the flavor of the original text, disruption of the flowing of sentences, meaning contraction and change, etc. The findings suggest that modified literary texts could discourage or distort the reader's comprehension. This study is not an experimental study, however. Thus, an experimental study should be conducted with the effects of modification of literary texts on L2 learning.

[input/modification/simplification/elaboration/

입력/수정/단순화/정교화]

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## I. INTRODUCTION

Language input refers to the exposure that learners have to all types of linguistic data from a target language. The role of input is critical in second language acquisition (Hatch, 1978). Second language acquisition theories emphasize the importance of comprehensible input, which is language just beyond the competence of the learner, and provides the ideal conditions for acquisition to happen (e.g., Gass, 1997; Krashen, 1985; Long, 1985). The input that L2 (second/foreign language) learners receive is often modified to make it comprehensible. In spoken speech, L2 learners receive modified input that is simplified at the lexical, phonological, and syntactic level (Gaies, 1983). The quality of language input provided by the teacher talks is a significant element in facilitating students' L2 learning process (S. A. Kim, 2007). At the level of written texts, input is often modified to make the texts more comprehensible, generally in the syntactic structure and the lexicon (Hill, 1997). When it comes to the modification of reading texts, material developers, publishers, and teachers need to consider two other choices as well: elaborated texts and authentic texts. The former maintain the complexity of the authentic text, but clarify message content and structure through repetition and paraphrasing (Yano, Long, & Ross, 1994). The latter are texts that were originally created to fulfill a social function in the language community (Little, Devitt, & Singleton, 1989).

As Day and Bamford (1998) point out, there is a divide within the field of L2 materials development over the use of authentic reading texts versus simplified reading texts as the means of language input for beginning and intermediate L2 learners. Nevertheless, a majority of L2 learning texts depend on simplified texts, and many material developers and L2 educators emphasize the practical value of simplified texts, especially for beginning and intermediate L2 learners (Young, 1999). Proponents on both sides assert the respective linguistic merits of simplified and authentic texts, the findings being inconsistent, or inconclusive. Furthermore, there is a paucity of research on the modifications (simplification or elaboration) of literary texts in the Korean context.

Widdowson (1978, as cited in Lucas, 1991) asserts that the process of modification is more suitable for literature rather than functional texts since the adapter tends to follow the framework of the authentic literature. In other words, the adapter tries to keep the original characters and plot intact while not changing them of his will. A functional text, on the other hand, is often rewritten because its main goal is to deliver the main idea. As long as the main idea is successfully delivered, the original framework may not be important. However, the idea of keeping intact the original framework and style of literary texts may be important because the original literary texts introduce more native-like language to learners. In a nutshell, native-like language is believed to be crucial in second language learning through literature.

Therefore, the central questions pursued in this study

were what types of input modification occurred the most and what effects of the types of input modification had on the adapted text. Specifically, the two research questions were addressed as follows: 1) which types of modification between simplification and elaboration happened more frequently in the adaptation of literary texts?; and 2) which level of modification among lexical, syntactic, and content happened the most when adapting literary texts?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 1. Input Modification

Input modifications can be divided into two types of simplification and elaboration (Parker & Chaudron, 1987). Input simplification for L2 comes in a variety of forms, such as shorter sentences, simpler syntax, omission of inflections, and repeating the same word. In input elaboration, redundancy and clear thematic structure are the main purposes (Parker & Chaudron, 1987; Yano et al, 1994). Many have focused on linguistic modification, which is the typical ways to adapt a text by simplifying syntax and paraphrasing a syntactically more complex structure (Blau, 1982; Chaudron, 1983; Honeyfield, 1977). When it comes to elaborating a text, syntactically more complex sentences are used and sentence structures are often deleted or become not explicit. More specifically, Blau (1982) suggest three versions of passages according to the degrees of elaboration (see Table 1).

**TABLE 1**  
Three Versions of Modified Passages

Three versions of passages	Comments
<p>&lt;Version 1&gt; Disease germs may be present in food. Cook food for a long enough time. This will kill any disease germs. Food may not be clean. Cook it thoroughly. In this way you can combat possible uncleanliness of food.</p>	Use simple sentences
<p>&lt;Version 2&gt; If you cook food for a long enough time, you will kill any disease germs that may be present. Therefore, one way that you can combat possible uncleanliness of food is by cooking it thoroughly.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Use complex sentences</li> <li>· Relative pronouns not deleted</li> </ul>
<p>&lt;Version 3&gt; Cooking food for a long enough time will kill any disease germs possibly present. Therefore, cooking it thoroughly is one way of combating possible uncleanliness of food.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Use complex sentences</li> <li>· Relative pronoun deleted or replaced</li> <li>· Use gerund</li> </ul>

As shown in Table 1, the passage of version 1 consists

of simple sentences. On the other hand, version 2 contains complex sentences. Surface clues to underlying relationships are left intact. Relative pronouns, for example, are not deleted as in *you will kill any disease germs that may be present* and *one way that you can combat possible uncleanliness of food is by cooking it thoroughly*. Subjects and finite verbs are retained in subordinate clauses: *If you cook food for a long enough time* and *one way that you can combat possible uncleanliness*. Likewise, the passage of Version 3 constitutes complex sentences but reflects a higher degree of chunking. Where a finite verb is not possible, gerunds or derived nouns are used rather than infinitives: *Cooking food for a long enough time* and *cooking it thoroughly is one way of combating possible uncleanliness of food*. In version 3, conditional sentences are less explicit as seen in the sentence of *cooking food for a long enough time will kill any disease germs possibly present*. In addition, relative pronoun ‘that’ and the verb ‘are’ are omitted. As seen above in version 2 and 3, using a complex sentence with relative pronouns, a conditional sentence, and gerund, albeit the underlying relationships left intact, makes sentences longer and complicated as well. In other words, the modification of the texts could influence the learners’ comprehension of the texts.

As aforementioned, reading texts are generally simplified to make them more comprehensible for L2 learners by modifying their lexicon and syntactic structure (Simensen, 1987; Young, 1999). Hirvela (1988) claims that simplified texts are of considerable value in contributing to learners’ language acquisition within the context of using literature in language teaching. Furthermore, Lucas (1991) asserts that a simplified version is more appropriate for a literary text than for a functional text. According to Tweissi (1998), the cognitive mechanisms that lead to language acquisition are believed to reflect simplistic orientations similar to those located in simplified texts. Allen and Widdowson (1979) suggest that simplified texts benefit L2 learners because they exclude unnecessary and distracting idiosyncratic style without suffering a loss of the valuable communication features and concepts that are found in real texts.

However, simplification is not without its critics. Long and Ross (1993) point out that the removal of complex linguistic forms in favor of more simplified and frequent forms can prevent L2 learners from their learning of the natural forms of language. Furthermore, Widdowson (1978) claims that the process of simplifying vocabulary and syntax might actually complicate the message of a text. Another problem with simplification, especially lexical simplification, is that the simpler and more common words in the English lexicon are likely to have more than one meaning, thus displaying high degrees of polysemy (Crossley, Louwse, McCarthy, & McNamara, 2007). In addition, the use of simplified texts to assist L2 learners may actually be counterproductive because these texts may not allow the learners to graduate to more advanced texts that have sentences of natural length, more complex structural patterns, and more deeply embedded linguistic

cues different from those of simplified texts (Honeyfield, 1977). Y. Kim (2006) argues that “text elaboration enriches native speaker text by providing meanings of unknown words in the form of paraphrases and by making thematic or anaphoric relationships in a text more transparent” (p. 344). Authentic foreign language materials unaltered have been proven to be effective and interesting in enhancing students’ learning (Gilmore, 2007; W. Y. Lee, 1995; Peacock, 1997). Gilmore (2007) claims that the language presented to L2 learners in coursebooks is poorly represented from the real thing and that most of the reading texts used in language institutes are un-authentic or simplified. Today, it is emphasized that teachers use authentic texts in the classroom instead of simplified ones, because it is believed that they can expose the students to real language (Berado, 2006).

## 2. Input Modification and L2 Learning

Studies so far have focused on specific types of input modification for better understanding, whether the modification procedure assists the learner’s understanding or language acquisition is something else. On the whole, research findings revealed some effects favoring a simplified text over an unmodified one (Ali, 2017; Crossley, Yang, & McNamara, 2014; Y. Park & Warschauer, 2016). Similarly, some advantages were found for comprehension in texts with more complex syntax over ones with simpler syntax (Blau, 1982). However, Blau (1982) claims that the use of limited vocabulary and short, simple sentences in simplified texts is likely to be an obstacle to comprehension for the beginning L2 learners, due to choppy and unnatural sentences that are hard to read and to the loss of the relationships and meaning revealed by the formation of complex sentences. Yano and his colleagues (1994) and Crossley and his colleagues (2007) further argue that any type of modification can negatively affect learner output and language acquisition. In a similar vein, Aebersold and Field (1997) define a competent L2 learner as one being able to read authentic texts produced by writers who make no adjustment for immature readers. Furthermore, S. Y. Oh (2001) suggests that input modification should be made toward elaboration rather than by artificial simplification, because elaboration retains more native-like qualities than and is at least equally successful as simplification in improving comprehension. Instruction with elaborated input should accelerate the progression to fluent reading of unmodified materials, which is the ultimate goal of foreign language reading instruction.

Another major issue is whether we can possibly deal with literature in terms of comprehensible input. Lazar (1993) once stated clearly that the meaning of a literary text is never to be fixed. Instead, the reader of the text plays a crucial role in assigning meaning to the text. The question is whether it is meaningful or even possible to modify literary texts to be more comprehensible. If input modification is unavoidable for the learners’ language acquisition, is it all for good? To this concern, Camp (2000)

insists that the learners can comprehend the literary text better with an assistance from its non-fiction counterpart on the same topic. Rather than using the modified version, these twin texts can work together to enhance enjoyment and comprehensibility of reading at the same time.

### III. METHOD

#### 1. Materials

Four literary texts printed in the 2009 National Curriculum English textbooks were selected for the present study. This is because those textbooks reflect the National English Curriculum and are supposedly the most reliable material that shows a guideline of English language education in Korea. The four literary texts are (a) *After Twenty Years* written in 1906 by O. Henry from High School Advanced English Reading I (YBM), (b) *My Watch* written in about 1870 by Mark Twain from High School English II (Visang), (c) *The King and His Hawk* (unknown) retold by James Baldwin in High School Practical English I (Chunjae), and (d) *The Image of the Lost Soul* written in 1889 by Hector. H. Munro in High School English I (Kumsung) (see Appendix).

#### 2. Text Modification Instrument

The text modification rubric for the present study was constructed based on the previous studies. First, the modification types are divided into simplification and elaboration. The distinction between simplification and elaboration was taken from Parker and Chaudron’s study (1987). Although their study attempted to combine and compromise each of the theories, the borderline between simplification and elaboration is not always clear. For instance, Chaudron (1983) categorizes repetitions and paraphrases as elaborative simplification, while Parker and Chaudron (1987) categorize them as elaboration. In Chaudron’s earlier study, he defines elaborative simplification as an increase in surface forms for the sake of elaboration or clarification. This, in effect, adopts the Chaudron’s classification, as restrictive simplification vs. elaborative simplification becomes simplification vs. elaboration. Another example of this is in Yano et al.’s (1994) labelling the use of noun phrases over pronouns and concrete verbs over dummy verbs as linguistic simplification. However, later on they call it as elaboration adding redundancy through the use of repetition, paraphrase, and the retention of full noun phrases that would be unnecessary for a competent native speaking reader. Thus, the present study categorizes it as elaboration, which, by definition, refers to any process that makes the text longer.

The final section of modification types is inspired by Honeyfield’s (1977) content simplification. This refers to Hudson’s (2007) study where he summarizes the common features of the narrative text: setting, episode, point of

view, and tone. Content adaptation, however, is not applicable in this study. This is because only short stories were selected and analyzed since longer texts were abridged to a great extent to meet the limited pages. Each modification type under simplification and elaboration consists of language and content. Language modification consists of lexis including words and expressions and syntax, which deals with sentence length, word order, and sentence type. Earlier studies (Blau, 1982; Chaudron, 1983; Parker & Chaudron, 1987) focus more on morphological and syntactic modifications, while lexical and semantic modifications come into the spotlight later (Lucas, 1991; Yano et al., 1994). However, as explained above, rewritten or abridged texts are not applicable in the present study. “Content” is, rather, more of an intra-sentential meaning. Content modification is subdivided according to its purpose, either for redundancy or for cohesion.

In terms of redundancy, some details, either sentential or textual, can be deleted or added. While enhancing redundancy through the repetition of constituents and paraphrasing, the adapter can elaborate the authentic text. The markers of grammatical and semantic relations such as relative pronouns, adjunction words, and adverbial phrases can also be omitted or complemented. Some criteria and terminology have been changed in the process of compromising the conflicting views. Firstly, repetitions, paraphrases and the use of noun phrases over pronouns and concrete over dummy verbs are all labeled as elaboration. Secondly, deleting cohesive devices is labeled as simplification, while their addition is elaboration. This is because the former makes surface form shorter and the latter makes it longer. Lastly, text elaboration through the reconstruction the sentence and paragraph order is not mentioned in any of the previous research but in this study it is dealt with because a few examples were found in the selected texts. The outcome of the integration of the previous studies on modification type can be seen in Table 2.

**TABLE 2**  
Literary Text Modification Rubric

Levels	Modification type	
	Simplification	
Lexis	(a)	Idiomatic expressions replace
	(b)	Dialectal or obsolete expressions replaced
	(c)	Noun phrases replaced with pronouns
	(d)	Concrete verbs replaced with dummy verbs
Language	(e)	Complex sentences broken down
	(f)	Optional constituents deleted
	(g)	Canonical word order
	(h)	Sentence type variation removed
Content	Redundancy	(i) Details (sentential level) deleted (j) Details (textual level) deleted
	Cohesion	(k) Marking of grammatical/semantic relations deleted

Levels	Elaboration
Lexis	(a) Use of synonym
	(b) Pronouns replaced with noun phrases
	(c) Dummy verbs replaced with concrete verbs
Language	(d) Simple sentences combined
	(e) Optional constituents retained
	(f) Non-canonical word order
Syntax	(g) Sentence type changed
	(h) Repetition of constituents
	(i) Paraphrase
Redundancy	(j) Details (sentential level) added
	(k) Details (textual level) added
	(l) Marking of grammatical/semantic relations deleted
Content	(m) Sentence/ paragraph order reconstructed

### 3. Data Analysis

The present study took rather traditional methods to compare the authentic and modified literary texts. Each pair of the texts were compared and contrasted line by line and then word by word. Whenever lexical, syntactic, or content change took place, the reason and its impact on the adapted text were examined. The definition of words was found using Merriam-Webster Dictionary 4.8 (2011).

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### 1. Quantitative Findings About Text Modification

Table 3 summarizes the frequency of text modification types - simplification or elaboration, and their levels, either lexical, syntactic, or content. The texts used in this study were: (a) *After Twenty Years*, (b) *My Watch*, (c) *The King and His Hawk*, and (d) *The Image of the Lost Soul*. As indicated in Table 3, in total, 129 cases of simplification and 118 cases of elaboration were found among the four texts. Examined by text, it was found that there were 53 cases of simplification and 46 cases of elaboration in *The King and His Hawk*, and 33 examples of simplification versus 28 of elaboration in *The Image of the Lost Soul*. Although there was a difference between the frequency of modification type for both of these texts, it was not a big difference. In *After Twenty Years*, 16 cases of elaboration occurred, which was just as many as simplification. In *My Watch*, the cases of elaboration and simplification were found to be almost the same. In input elaboration, lexical modification was the most frequent, followed by content and syntactic modification. In input simplification, however, content modification was almost twice as frequent as the other two. For input simplification, content simplification through the reduction of sentential and textual details happened the most.

TABLE 3

Frequency of Each Modification Type

Text	Simplification			Total	Elaboration			Total
	Lexis	Syntax	Content		Lexis	Syntax	Content	
(a)	6	0	10	16	11	1	4	16
(b)	3	9	15	27	15	1	12	28
(c)	18	18	17	53	18	11	17	46
(d)	4	6	23	33	13	1	14	28
Total	31	33	65	129	57	14	47	118

For example, in *The King and His Hawk*, the original text says, "In those days hawks were trained to hunt. *At a word from their masters* they would fly high up into the air, and look around for prey," the modified text is changed into "In those days hawks were trained to hunt. (omitted). They would fly high up into the air to look around for prey." Here, the prepositional phrase "*At a word from their masters*" is deleted only to get rid of a contextual clue for the meaning of "trained." This was followed by syntactic simplification through shortening of long and complex sentences, deletion of optional constituents, and normalization of word orders and sentence types. Another example in *My Watch* was, the original text "the comprehension came upon me that all solitary and alone I was" was modified into "I realized that I was all alone." Here, the contextual meaning slightly changes as the modification process shifts the sentential focus from "the comprehension" and "all solitary and alone" to "I."

Lastly, syntactic simplification was followed by lexical simplification through replacement of unfamiliar, dialectal, written, and obsolete expressions. In *After Twenty Years*, the original text "*chilly* gusts of wind with a taste of rain in them had well *nigh, depeopled* the streets" was adapted into "cold gusts of wind with a taste of rain in them had well deserted the streets." Here, "chilly" and "depeopled" were replaced with the familiar synonyms "cold" and "deserted," respectively and the word "nigh" was deleted since it is not in use any more today. In terms of lexical modification, many vocabulary items in the original text were deleted or replaced, assumingly since they are out of use and sound rather odd. Another example in *After Twenty Years*, the words such as "nigh," "adown," "thoroughfare," "plodder," and "stalwart" were all deleted or replaced with modern language.

As for input elaboration, lexical elaboration using synonyms, noun phrases over pronouns, and concrete verbs over dummy verbs occurred with the highest frequency. In *The Image of the Lost Soul*, this refers to changes like "the Figure of the Lost Soul had *toppled from its cornice*" in the original being rewritten as "the Figure of the Lost Soul had *fallen forward*." In the adapted text, the meaning of "toppled from its cornice" is both contracted and distorted by saying "fallen forward." Also, elaboration in content through paraphrasing, repetition, additional details, and

reconstruction of sentences and paragraphs occurred. For example, in *My Watch*, the original text “I began to be left by trains, I failed all appointments” was changed into “I used to show up for meetings on time, but now I began to be left by trains, I failed to show up for appointments.” In the adapted text, some sentential details such as “I used to show up for meetings on time” and “to show up for (appointments)” were added for redundancy.

Finally, syntactic elaboration was found to occur the least. Interestingly, unlike the findings of syntactic simplification (Blau, 1982; Chaudron, 1983; Honeyfield, 1977), syntactic simplification did not happen that often in the texts for this study; in text elaboration, in fact, syntactic modification happened the least. In addition, in contrast to the previous efforts to investigate techniques for lexical modification (Lucas, 1991; Parker & Chaudron, 1987; Yano et al., 1994), content modification happened a lot more often. This suggests that adapters try to make the written input comprehensible by controlling the content details as well as lessening lexical or syntactic difficulty.

## 2. Qualitative Findings About Text Modification

As hard as one tries to avoid it, modification forces a change in form and definition. This tends to obscure some important features of the unmodified text, allowing for distortion (Honeyfield, 1977; Lucas, 1991). Whether positive or negative, the change causes a slight change in meaning compared to the meaning in the original story. While analyzing the adapted versions, the modification process negatively affected the adapted text in multifaceted manners (see Figure 1). For instance, it is mainly content reduction and paraphrasing that result in this decrease in the flavor and contextual clues of the original text. Shortened sentences, paraphrasing, and additional details disrupt the natural flow of the original sentences, while synonyms and

paraphrasing tend to change, contract, and add vagueness to meaning. Synonyms and paraphrasing are also likely to homogenize the text, while the removal of sentence variation results in less diversity in sentences.

Although adapted texts are created with good intentions, certain outcomes seem discouraging as these adaptations seem to distort readers’ comprehension. One of the typical examples of an adaptation impeding comprehension can be seen in *My Watch* when “the watch was four minutes slow, and the regulator must be pushed up a little” was changed into “the watch was four minutes slow, and he had to have the regulator pushed up a little.” The passive voice of the original is removed and “he” becomes the subject in the adapted text; the original version reads better since “the watch” and “the regulator” agree. Another representative example of distorting comprehension can be seen in *After twenty Years* in which “Trying doors as he went, twirling his club with many intricate and artful movements” was changed into “Trying doors as he went, twirling his club with many puzzling and artful movements.” Here, the adjective “puzzling” replaces “intricate.” While “intricate” describes that the movement has many small parts and details in a clever and skillful way, the word “puzzling” makes it seem like it is something confusing or hard to understand. This fails to deliver the same meaning and makes it even more difficult for a reader to fully understand the literary work, which is, in theory, exactly the opposite of what the material developers intend to do when modifying a text.

## V. CONCLUSION

As aforementioned, the present study provides several findings. For input simplification, content simplification through the reduction of details happened the most, fol-

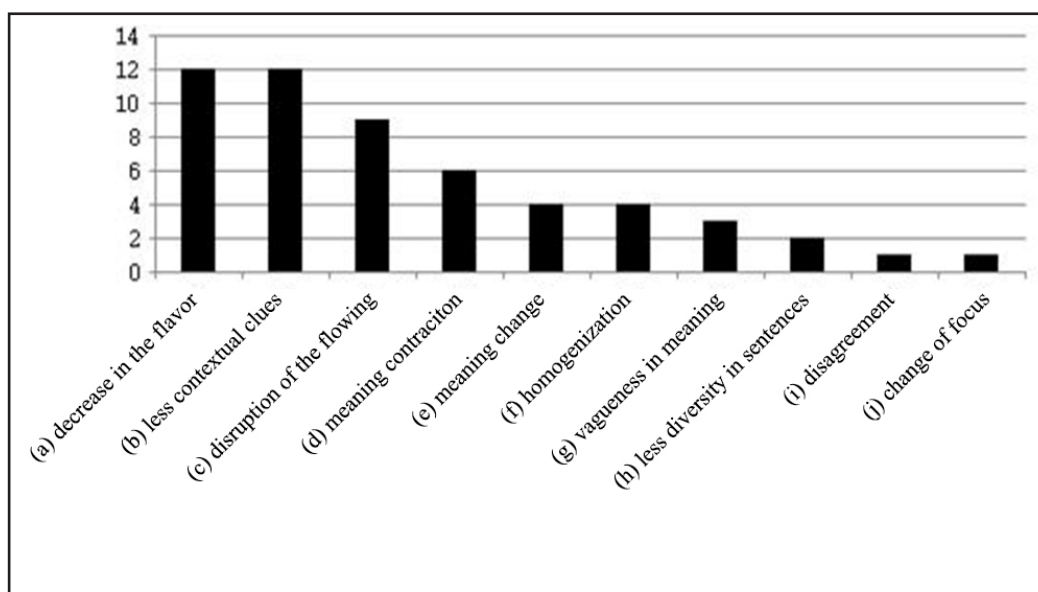


FIGURE 1 Negative Effects of Literary Text Modification

lowed by lexical simplification through the replacement of unfamiliar expressions and syntactic simplification, for instance, shortening of the sentence length, deletion of optional constituents, and normalization of word order and sentence type. For input elaboration, lexical elaboration using synonyms happened most frequently. Also, elaboration in content through paraphrasing, repetition, additional details, and reconstruction of paragraphs occurred, while syntactic elaboration was used the least. Some noticeable side effects of the modified literary text found in this research were that it provided less contextual clues for comprehension and failed to deliver the flavor of the original text. Additionally, modified literary texts may discourage the reader's comprehension by getting rid of the contextual clues and disrupting the flow, and they may distort the reader's comprehension by contracting and changing the meaning.

Modification does not merely affect the adapted text itself in a negative way, but it also discourages and even distorts reading comprehension. Especially when it comes to literary texts, even slight modification in lexis, syntax, and content may bring about a significant change and distortion in context. This occurs mostly by deleting some sentential and textual details and less commonly by replacing dialectal, written, and obsolete expressions, deleting optional constituents, changing sentences into canonical word order (simplification), and reconstructing the sentence and paragraph order (elaboration). All of these modifications create a modified text that is deprived of a unique flavor of authentic text.

As Crossley et al. (2007) point out, text simplification unavoidably brings about poorer cohesion and, in turn, less readability. According to the findings of the present study, syntactic simplification through the breakdown of complex sentences, deletion of optional constituents, and the changing of sentences into canonical word order resulted in less contextual clues, disruption of flow, and disagreement among the sentence elements. All of these are cohesion issues which cause the modified text to contain less cohesive passages overall. Blau (1982) also warns that too much syntactic simplification may impede the readers' comprehension rather than facilitate it. Rather than complex sentence structure, he added, vocabulary is a more significant problem. The present study, however, indicated that impetuous modification in vocabulary and expressions can bring severe distortion. And the present study revealed that the adapters decreased redundancy by deleting sentential and textual details and reduced cohesion by deleting markings of grammatical and semantic relations.

However, the reality of the EFL contexts in Korea taken into consideration, text modification to adopt literary texts in regular textbooks is often unavoidable. For the sake of practicality, lengthy literary works usually have to be abridged. Also, authentic literary language may be too difficult and discouraging for students to really appreciate the literature. Given that input modification is inevitable, more research should be conducted on the modification process and the modified texts. In light of the findings of

this study, English textbook developers and English educators need to take a closer look at the adaptation process of literary texts. It is extremely hard, if not pointless, to say that only authentic materials are acceptable, as input modification is indeed necessary to make it more comprehensible. Lastly, the use of authentic texts in teaching to EFL students may be more effective than the use of un-authentic texts or simplified texts. Thus, EFL teachers and EFL textbooks designers are advised to be very cautious of the revision of literary texts so as not to distort the meanings of original texts. In particular, teachers of English are advised to provide their students with authentic materials to increase their interest and motivation because authentic texts are closer to real-life than non-authentic texts.

This research had limitations. This study examined only short stories since they were more suitable for analyzing line by line, but in reality English textbooks often contain many literary texts that have been adapted from longer authentic materials such as essays, novels, plays, and dramas. With these kinds of works, the original texts are shortened to the extent that microscopic analysis is much more complicated. A few adapted short stories could make another limitation in generalizing the findings of the study. A different kind of rubric should be established to analyze more thoroughly abridged texts and this would be an interesting topic for further research.

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## APPENDIX

### High School English Textbooks

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