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DICTIONARY USE VERSUS TEACHER'S ASSISTANCE AND THEIR EFFECT ON VOCABULARY UNDERSTANDING IN READING COMPREHENSION

(Case study of 1^{st,} and 3rd year EFL Students at ENS Bouzareah, Algiers)

Dissertation submitted for the degree of Doctorate in English Linguistics and Didactics

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation is entirely the result of my investigation and that reference or acknowledgment is made, whenever necessary, to the work of other researchers.

I am duly informed that any person practicing plagiarism will be subject to disciplinary sanctions issued by university authorities under the rules and regulations in force.

Date:

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Dedication

To the light of my life, my parents

To Nora, Mounir and Ramy for their endless love, sacrifice and support

To my brothers and sisters for their endless love,

To the memory of Si Ahmed Ben Omar

To all my friends,

To the memory of the one and a half million martyrs who gave their lives for our
independence and gave us the opportunity to study in our country with dignity

Acknowledgement

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Finally, I would like to express my thanks and gratitude to any person who helped me, encouraged me, guided me, shared my dreams and believed in me from the beginning of this work until its completion.

Abstract

This thesis investigates the use of the dictionary versus0teacher's help and the effect of both on vocabulary understanding during reading classes as well as the opinions of both teachers and EFL students regarding dictionary use. The study is carried on 1st and 3rd year EFL students at Ecole Normale Superieure de Bouzareah (ENSB), Algiers to test whether there is any change through time.Several aspects of dictionary use such as dictionary skills and the types of dictionaries preferred and usedare examined as part of this study.The researcher used a mixed method research design for a better understanding of the research problem. Tocollect data from students and teachers, the researcherused instrumentssuch as questionnaires and interviews as well as a reading for vocabulary field test that comprised 2 courses and 2quizzes for both 1st and 3rd year EFL students. The results of the study reveal thatthe majority of the teachersallow their students to use a dictionary during Reading Comprehension classes and that most of the teachers and students favorthe monolingual dictionary.Furthermore, the results of the field test indicate clearly that the dictionary groups scored better than the groups helped by the teachers. The study also shows that students do not have the necessary skills to use a dictionary and struggle with selecting the right meaning.Based on the results of the research, the researcher has formulated a number of recommendations in an effort to help the students and the teachers find more efficient ways and strategies to use a dictionary in an efficient way to help students better understand vocabulary.

Keywords: Dictionary use - Vocabulary Learning Strategies –Reading Comprehension- Dictionary Strategies

List of Abbreviations

- BD: Bilingual Dictionary (English-Arabic or English-French)
- DE: Department of English
- EFL: English as a Foreign Language
- ELT: English Language Teaching
- ENSB: École Normale Supérieure de Bouzaréah
- EFL:English as a Foreign language
- FLL: Foreign Language Learner
- L1: Mother Tongue
- L2: Second Language
- LLS: Language Learning Strategies
- ME :Middle English
- NA: No Answer /Not Applicable
- OE Old English
- OL: Old Latin
- RS: Reading Strategies
- SL Second Language
- SLL: Second Language Learner
- VLS: Vocabulary Learning Strategies

List of Tables

List of Histograms

List of Figures

Table of Appendices

Appendix 1:Student QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix 2 :Teachers Questionnaire

Appendix 3: Teachers' Interview

Appendix 4: Reading for vocabulary Field Test 1st year text

Appendix 5: Test 1st Year

Appendix 6: Reading for vocabulary Field Test 3rd year text

Appendix 7: Test 3rd Year

Table of Contents

General introduction

Vocabulary is a central component and a cornerstone of any language learning or teaching process. People with poor vocabulary cannot understand others or express their thoughts, feelings or ideas.For Wilkins (1972), *"without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed"* (Wilkins, 1972. 112).Both students and teachers of English as a Foreign Language regard English vocabulary as one of the most important priorities in the process of EFL learning.Therefore, EFL students need to be aware of the significance of building a solid vocabulary knowledge to improve their English language proficiency.

However, learning and acquiring the vocabularyof English is a very complex process. Itinvolves not only the ability to recognize a word with its form andto memorize its definition that can be found in the dictionary, but it also includes the knowledge of using it correctly and appropriately in oral communication and in writing (Nation, 1990). Moreover, Nation believes that a large amount of vocabulary can be acquired by using vocabulary learning strategies and thatthe latterenable the learners to take more responsibility for their own learning (Nation 1990).

Consequently, students need toknow and use a variety of vocabulary learning strategies to overcome difficulties and learn English vocabulary. They should learn how to find the meaning (s) of new words and how to use themthrough the use of these strategies. Once a student is familiar with the different strategies, he/she can then choose the one(s) that suit(s) better his/her needs to acquire new words in the target language and consolidate them.

Dictionary use is one of the main VLS used by most of EFL students. It is a pedagogical tool that helps to step forward towards the mastery of the English vocabulary. Luppescu and Day (1993) found that the use of a dictionary largely improves students' performance on vocabulary tests. Furthermore, students who

get used to dictionary use will refrain asking the teacher for every difficult word. They will start relying on themselves as they get more and more used to the dictionary and as a result, the teacher's assistance will be needed only when they cannot find the explanation of the target word in the dictionary.

The English monolingual dictionary is a tool that promotes the learner's proficiency inEFL through the variousdefinitions, explanations and examples that it offers with new words in English. It is more beneficial for EFLstudents to learn the meaning of new words explained by English words and not in the words of another language.Bilingual dictionaries lack the information on how words are used, and they encourage the use of translation which is harmful for the EFL learners in a long-term perspective (Nation 2001). However, the monolingual dictionary will help them develop their language proficiency and thus be able to attain communicative competence in English and think in English without trying to translate from Arabic or French to English or vice versa.

Another crucial activity that has a great impact on the vocabulary learning process is reading. The importance of wide reading in the growth of the students' vocabulary knowledge is critical (Nagy and Anderson, 1985). The relationship between vocabulary and reading has always been very strong and complex at the same time. Do we read to build vocabulary, or do we build vocabulary to make our reading an enjoyable and easy activity? Here is one of the very important questions often posited by EFL learners. Reading to acquire vocabulary is one of theimportant skills constituting the basis for learning, developing and using any language be it the mother tongue or a second or a foreign language. ForKrashen (1993), FL learners can acquire vocabulary through reading. He believes that exposing the learners to comprehensible input that is slightly beyond their current level can result in successful language acquisition.Krashen (1993).

Moreover, the reader's motivation, cognitive abilities as well as his degree of vocabulary mastery have a great impact on his reading. For instance, learners who rarely read or read with difficulty often struggle in their reading and give up reading as soon as they encounter a difficulty with words. On the contrary, highly

motivated readers use a variety of reading techniques and strategies to comprehend vocabulary easily.

Another important player in the vocabulary learning process is the teacher. He is a very important link in the chain of the vocabulary learning process. He is the central point through which all the information transits. His role in facilitating and disambiguating new lexicon for the learner is crucial. Teachers need to be familiar with the various VLS and reading techniques such as using dictionaries, translation, guessing the meaning from context and inferencingto help their students to use them in their vocabulary learning process. Therefore, the role of the teacher in the reading and the vocabulary acquisition process is very significant.

Significance and objectives of the study

This study highlights the importance of vocabulary learning strategies with a specific focus on two main VLSs namely dictionary use and the teacher'sassistance as well as their impact on the process of vocabulary understanding. It draws a picture of the plight of vocabulary teaching and learning in general and more specifically the use of the dictionary as a VLS by theEFL students of the Department of English at ENS Bouzareah in Algiers. Another main objective of the study is to get an insight from both the students and the teachers in the Department on the problems hampering vocabulary learning.

Moreover, this researchattempts to raise the teachers' and the students' awareness of the importance of vocabulary learning and the various VLS, especially the dictionary. It is also a step towards more studies in the field of vocabulary learning in the ENSB Department of English in order to seek the best methods and ways to make the vocabulary learning process easier to allowthe students learn the maximum of words during the four or five years that they spend in the Department to graduate as Teachers of EFL.

Therefore, the main objectives of this dissertation are to investigate the:

- role of the dictionary and the teacher in helping learners understand vocabulary

- teachers' and students' attitudes towards using the dictionary during reading comprehension classes and the extent to which both students and teachers in the Department of English at ENS BouzareahAlgiers are aware of dictionary use as a vocabulary learning strategy.

- students'dictionary skills and the use of vocabulary learning strategies in the Department of English of ENSB.

- role of the teacher in encouraging the students to use the dictionary to learn vocabulary.

Research problem

There is a controversy about dictionary use during reading classes among the teachers of Reading Comprehension in the Department of English at ENSB Algiers. Some of them regard the dictionary as a very useful tool that their students need to use during reading classes to understand vocabulary and some others have a different opinion in this regard and do not allow their students to use it. For them, students have to use other strategies or simply ask the teacher.

Therefore, the problematic of this dissertation is to investigate the efficiency and the impact of two important vocabulary learning strategies that is to say dictionary use and the teacher's assistanceto understand vocabulary during reading classes.

Research Questions and hypotheses

To support the main research question of this dissertation, we have set up the following research questions:

- Do students of the Department of English at ENSB use the dictionary for vocabulary comprehension during reading classes?

- Do students have the necessary skills to use the dictionary in an effective way?

- What type of information do students mostly look up in thedictionary and what kind of difficulties do they face when consulting a dictionary?
- What reading strategies do students use to learn vocabulary?
- What vocabulary learning strategies do teachers use to helptheir students better understand vocabulary?
- What strategies do both teachers and students suggest for a better learning of vocabulary?

The researcher has put forward the following hypotheses:

- Hypothesis 1:

Both EFL teachers and students of the English department at ENS Bouzareah have a positive attitude with regard to the use of the dictionary during reading classes to understand vocabulary.

- Hypothesis 2:

Both EFLstudents and teachers of the department of English at ENS Bouzareah prefer and favor the use monolingual dictionaries.

- Hypothesis 3

Students who use the dictionary during their reading understand better than those who rely on the teacher.

In order to conduct this descriptive and quasi-experimental study and for the sake of a better understanding of the research problem, the researcher used a mixed-method design where both qualitative and quantitative methods are used. A qualitative method is adequate to this study as it is exploratory and provides insights into the problems under investigation. It helps to understand opinions and motivations of both students and teachers aboutthe research problem. A quantitative methodis required for this study as it is used to explain the problem by collecting numerical data and analyzing them statistically. The researcher used percentages, frequencies and standard correlation to analyze data.

To collect data for the present study, the researcher used a variety of research instruments. Therefore, an interview was administered to the teachers of reading comprehension along with a questionnaire. A student questionnaire was administered to 1st and 3rd year EFL students. The researcher also used a field vocabulary test for both 1st and 3rd year EFL students to see if the students understand vocabulary better when they use the dictionary or when they are assisted by their teachers only.

Structure of the thesis:

This dissertation consists of two main parts: a theoretical part and a field work part. It is made up of eight (8) chapters:

The dissertation opens by a general introduction in which are included the background to the study, the significance of the study, the research problem, the research questions as well as the research methods and instruments.

Chapter I of the study deals with aspects relating to vocabulary knowledge such as *vocabulary* definitions and importance, high and low frequency words, definitions of the concept '*a word*' from various perspectives and opinions. It also deals with vocabulary incidental learning and vocabulary explicit instruction.

Chapter II sheds light on the theoretical framework of language learning strategies and vocabulary learning strategies. It includes a review of the various vocabulary learning strategies, their definitions, importance and taxonomies according to different researchers and scholars.

Chapter III deals with the different definitions of the word *dictionary*, the dictionary as a vocabulary learning strategy, the importance of using a dictionary as well as the different types of dictionaries, the attitudes of scholars regarding dictionary use in foreign language classroom, dictionary structures, entry component as well as the history of the dictionary.

Chapter IV revolves around *reading* as a skill, its various definitions and types. It includes a section on the differences between good and bad readers, the importance of reading and its impact on vocabulary learning as well as the various taxonomies of reading strategies suggested by some scholars and experts in the field.

Chapter V introduces the research methodology used to complete the field work. It deals with the description of the study procedure, the research design, the participants, the setting, the data collection instruments as well as the ways they were administered to the participants.

Chapter VI is devoted to report the results of the data gathered from the students' questionnaires and the teacher's questionnaires. The results are presented in terms of percentages and frequencies.

Chapter VII introduces the results of the teacher's interview as well as the results of the reading for vocabulary field test. The results are presented in terms of frequencies, percentages and in terms of central tendency (mean and standard deviation).

Chapter VIII deals with the discussion and analysis of the results of the students' questionnaires, the teacher's questionnaire, the interview and the reading for vocabulary field test. It includes the comparison and correlation of the results of the different instruments.

The last part of the dissertation, Chapter IV, includes a few recommendations that are based on the results of the study. Finally, a general conclusion sums up the main stages of the dissertation and highlights the main findings of the study. The dissertation also includes as appendices the bibliography used to complete the study, the samples of the questionnaires, the interview as well as the reading for vocabulary texts and quizzes.

Chapter 1

Vocabulary

Introduction

Being totally convinced that vocabulary is the cornerstone of any foreign language learning/teaching process, it is of high significance to make the students of the Department of English aware of this fact. Whenit comes to any language, nothing can be done without vocabulary, especially inthe case of Foreign Languages. Therefore, this chapter will introduce a number of concepts and definitions relating to vocabulary learning. It comprises a section dealing with the different meanings and definition of the word *vocabulary* and gives a brief history of research in the field of EFL Vocabulary Learning and teaching. This chapter will also discuss the *importance of vocabulary* in the process of learning English as a foreign language and its impact on receptive and productive communication.

Furthermore, in this chapter, it will be dealt with the concept of the '*mental dictionary*' or '*words in the mind*' as well as the different views of various scholars and researchers with regard to the meaning of a *word* and *word knowledge*, *high* and *low frequency* words as well as *incidental vocabulary learning*. We will also devote a section to vocabulary instruction and its importance. In discussing these important aspects of vocabulary, we will review various definitions and standpoints of a variety of major researchers in the field.

1.1 Defining '*Vocabulary*'

To begin with, it would be worth to open this chapter by defining the word *vocabulary*. There is no doubt that the word *vocabulary*has different definitions among learners, teachers and researchers. I think the simplest and most common definition of the word vocabulary is that it consists of all the words of a language. It includes all the words we hear or read and understand (receptive vocabulary) and all the words we speak or write in a meaningful way (productive

vocabulary). However, *vocabulary* is not simply a matter of single words; it includes all single or multiple–unit words such as man, street, work, carry-out, take-off, mother-in-law etc.

According to Barcroft, Sunderman& Schmitt (2011),the term '*Lexis*', which stands for '*word*' in Greek, in English "*refers to all the words in a language, the entire vocabulary of a language*" (Barcroft,Sunderman& Schmitt, 2011:571). Furthermore, '*vocabulary*' can be defined as all the words of a language, including single words and phrases or chunks of several words which convey a particularmeaning. Diamond &Gutlohn (2006) suggest that vocabulary is the knowledge of words and their meanings.

Hiebert&Kamil (2005) state that "*More specifically, we use vocabulary to refer to the kind of words that students must know to read increasingly demanding text with comprehension*" *(*Hiebert&Kamil,2005.*3)*. For Richards (2002), "*vocabulary is the core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read, and write.*"*(*Richards, 2002*:255).*Nunan (1999) also states that vocabulary is a list of target language words. For Richards and Schmidt (2002), vocabulary is a set of lexemes, including single words, compound words, and idioms. On their part, Lehr, Osborn, and Hiebert define vocabulary as: "*knowledge of words and words meaning in both oral and print language and in productive and receptive forms*'' (Hierbert and Kamil, 2005: 2-3)

Nunan (1999) states that vocabulary is a list of target language words. To Jackson and Amvela (2000), the terms of vocabulary, lexis, and lexicon are synonymous. Furthermore, Hornby (1995) states that vocabulary is the total number of words in a language; all the words known to a person or used in a particular book, subject, etc.; a list of words with their meaning, especially one that accompanies a textbook.

From the above definitions, we can conclude that the word *vocabulary* has multiple definitions because of its complexity and its various components. That is why different researchers, teachers, learners and linguists provide different

definitions. A significant feature of vocabulary is that it always changes and grows up because of the changing needs and because of usage and people's activities. People create new words, borrow words from other languages and let die words from their language. Finally, the size of a learner's vocabulary varies through time based on the frequency of his exposure to language.

1.2 Research on vocabulary

It is agreed among a great number of linguists and researchers (Folse, 2004, Maera 1980, Carter and McCarty, 1988; Taylor, 1990; Schmitt, 2000) that ESL vocabulary research didn't benefit from enough investigation before the 1980s. Despite the fact that most learners identify the acquisition of vocabulary as their greatest single source of problems hampering their learning progress, the amount of research in this field is not significant. Maera (1980) states that *"this neglect is all the more striking in that learners themselves readily admit that they experience considerable difficulty with vocabulary"*(Maera,1980: 4).

Before the 1980s, grammar studies were the dominating subjects of second and foreign language acquisition research. The main teaching method was the grammar-translation one. Further, vocabulary was a neglected area due to the dominating linguistic currents such as the schools of Structuralism and the Generativist. None of these schools considered vocabulary as an important key element in learning a foreign language. The significance of vocabulary knowledge in foreign language learning has been recognized by researchers in the field of language learning and teaching thanks to the advent of the communicative approach. The latter put a great emphasis on meaningful interactive activities.

Nevertheless, according to Maera (1980), there were a number of works on vocabulary such as Dale and Razik(1963), Galisson(1970) and Twomey (1979). However, he states that "*the principal impression that emerges from these works is that research in vocabulary acquisition has been largely atheoretical and unsystematic"(*Maera,1980:*4).* He considers that there are no

clear theories of vocabulary acquisition, and the level of research activity is in general fairly low. For him, the level of these researches was low because they didn't move away from basic aspects regarding vocabulary such as the work of Twomey (1979) which contained a large number of references which were short articles aiming at providing practical tips for teachers concerned with particular items of vocabulary for a particular target audience.

However, as of the 1980s, vocabulary knowledge research has flourished and became a major subject of linguistic research. It even became at the heart of theories such as the Lexical Learning Hypothesis according to which *"vocabulary knowledge is indispensable to acquire grammar"*(Malvern et al, 2008: 270). Furthermore, Folse(*2004)* states that *"Since the mid-1990s there has been a mini-explosion of research on second language vocabulary issues such as student needs, teaching techniques, learner strategies, and incidental learning"*(Folse, *2004: v).*

Therefore, students as well as teachers in general in the Department of English at ENSB need to be aware of the significance of vocabulary learning and teaching and consider it a priority to achieve progress in other aspects of language learning such as Grammar and pronunciation.

1.3 On the importance of vocabulary

Vocabulary is fundamental in learning any aspect of language and it is one of the most important challenges facing any Foreign Language learner. Lewis Michael (2000)said:*"The single most important task facing language learners is acquiring a sufficiently large vocabulary."*(Lewis Michael, 2000: 8). In fact, vocabulary knowledge helps students with language comprehension and we can even say it is the core of language comprehension and use.

Decades of research have confirmed the important role vocabulary plays in reading comprehension and in students' overall academic success (Hiebert&Kamil, (2005). It is evident that *"If you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will not improve very much. You will see most*

improvement if you learn more words and expressions. You can say very little with grammar, but you can say almost anything with words!" (Thornbury,2008: 13). Therefore, in order to comprehend a text successfully students need to have sufficient word knowledge.

The comprehension of a language depends to a great extent on the amount of words one masters in that language. Without the knowledge of the meaning of the words, a reader will not be able to understand what he or she reads. There is no communication without words. According to Nation (2001), readers need to know at least 97% of the vocabulary in a text for an adequate understanding of it.

Weak vocabulary knowledge results in difficulties both in oral and written communication. If a learner doesn't know the meaning of the key vocabulary in a text, he might face a great difficulty to understand the message. Thus, vocabulary mastery is very important for the reading comprehension process and its progress.

Not only the knowledge of vocabulary has an impact on reading comprehension and understanding, but it also impacts the student's language production. If a student has a poor vocabulary, he will not be able to communicate be it orally or in writing. He would neither be able to name things, nor express his ideas and feelings. Hubbard (1983) states that the more words a student knows the more precisely that student can express the exact meaning he/she wants to. The limits of one's language are the limits of his mind; all he knows is what he has words for.

It is recognized by all researchers that vocabulary learning is a very complicated and complex task that requires tremendous efforts and study. We never start learning a foreign language by learning its grammar or syntax but by learning its words and their meaning.

The amount of research carried out on the issue of vocabulary learning is not significant in comparison with the one dealing with other aspects of language learning such as grammar, syntax or any other aspect. Therefore, given the importance of vocabulary as a key element to learn any language, the need for

more research on the various components of vocabulary learning is getting greater.

One of the biggest learning obstacles most students in the department of English face is vocabulary learning. English comes in the third place for most students after Arabic, the mother tongue, and French which is the first foreign language most of them start learning as of the primary school. Therefore, students have difficulty to communicate in English orally and in writing because of their poor English vocabulary. Especially that the students do not have real situations where they can practice their English and enrich their vocabulary. The only opportunities for them to practice and learn are in class with their teachers or when reading books in English.

From the above, we can say that in learning any language, vocabulary should be the focal point. For McCarthy (1992),*"without words, communication cannot take place in a meaningful way. It is clear that knowingwordsis the key to understanding and being understood"(*McCarthy,1992:3).

A foreign language learner automatically starts learning any new language by acquiring its vocabulary because without words no progress can be made in the learning process. According to McCarthy: *No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a widerrange of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way"* (McCarthy,1990: viii).

Vocabulary is the first step towards proficiency in a foreign language. According to Laufer(1998), the main difference between language learners and native speakers of the target language was precisely their lexical competence.

In fact, putting a great emphasis on vocabulary learning as a key element in receptive and productive communication doesn't mean to neglect the other aspects of language learning such as grammar, pronunciation, morphology etc.…. It is crucial to make the students aware that vocabulary richness is a strong basis to build the other aspects of language. Strong vocabulary knowledge

improves and facilitates the acquisition of language proficiency as a whole. For Nation (1994), vocabulary is not an end in itself. A rich vocabulary makes the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing easier to perform.

If a learner doesn't stop at each word to look for the meaning, he can surely progress in any other aspect of language learning. If he doesn't have the mastery of the meaning of the words in a sentence, he will certainly waste his time first to look for the meaning and then go to the main task which might be syntax, morphology, grammar or any other aspect of language learning. Thus, in our view, it would be more beneficial and judicious to consider vocabulary learning as the first layer or foundation for the rest of other aspects of language learning.

Another major advantage of vocabulary is that it allows learning more vocabulary i.e. students must have a strong vocabulary knowledge to be able to learn new words from context or from any other learning source. Even incidental learning cannot happen easily if the learner has poor vocabulary; Learners who know more words are able to use those known words to learn more.(Folse, Keith S, 2004).
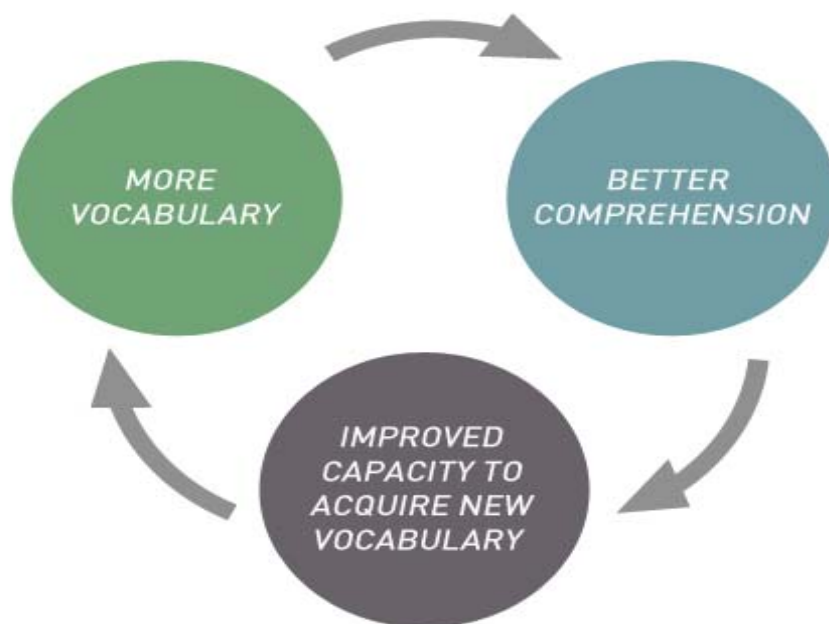
Figure1: Impact of vocabulary on Comprehension

Thus, vocabulary component should be considered as the cornerstone of any EFL learning process and words as the blocks to build language. The more the vocabulary amount is big, the more communication in both ways, reception and production, is easier. The amount of words one has determines his language proficiency, his ability to communicate and his capacity to learn more. It is very significant to raise awareness among the ENSB English Department Students about the significance of focusing on learning vocabulary and consider it as a key to the mastery of English which is the basis of their studies.

1.4 Words in the mind

One of the big questions that has always been posited by researchers, teachers and learners in the field of vocabulary teaching/learning is how words are stored in the mind and how do they form that kind of mental dictionary? They focused on the way words «settle» in the mind according to particular sets of

semantic relations. In fact, understanding how words are grouped in the human mind makes the vocabulary learning process easier, namely for EFL students.

Elman (2004) states that the knowledge of the word is usually thought to reside in the mental lexicon, a kind of a dictionary that contains information regarding a word's knowledge. We mean by mental lexicon, a virtual dictionary in the brain of people where all words are stored to be used both in receptive and productive use of vocabulary.

Some researchers such as Read J. (2000), MacCarthyM. (1997) andHuckinT. (1997), developed the theory of the Mental Dictionary and its implications for vocabulary teaching. For Elman (2004), *"an essential aspect of knowing language is knowing the words of that language. This knowledge is usually thought to reside in the mental lexicon, a kind of a dictionary that contains information regarding a word's pronunciation, syntactic characteristics, and so on."*(Elman, 2004: 33)

Moreover, Stuart Redman states that lexical relations such as Synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, converseness and reverseness, should be taken into account when teaching vocabulary to make it easy for the EFL Learner (Stuart Redman cited in Cruse, 1986: 89). Thus, it's always beneficial to a student to base his vocabulary learning on a given relationship between words to help him retain them and retrieve them for later use.

Likewise, Aitchinson (1996) investigated the mental dictionary and its implications on learning vocabulary. She based her researches on word association in order to find the different connections between words. Among the most important ones she found: Co-ordination, Collocation, Super-ordination and Synonymy. Co-ordination is the strongest link between words as Aitchinson(1996) puts it: *"When looking for an elusive word, people frequently fumble around not only in the same general semantic area but often within a group of coordinates..." (Aitchinson,1996:76).*

Bright and McGregor (1970) also pointed out the importance of the grouping of words round a super-ordinate term and then lowering to different levels of generality as an efficient technique when teaching vocabulary. They

provided the following example: *"vehiclesbuses, lorries, cars, motorcycles, bicycles, vans saloons, sports cars, coupés, taxis, Mercedes, Ford, Volkswagen, PeugeotMercedes Benz 190D saloon, Ford Anglia saloon, etc."* (Bright and McGregor,1970:*38)*

As can be concluded from the above, the concept of mental lexicon is a kind of mental dictionary that learners build through time wherein they store words according to a set of relationships or techniques such as synonymy, collocation, word families relations and so on. Each learner constructs his mental dictionary based on the techniques and methods that suit his learning.

1.5 What is a '*Word*'?

Given the high significance of vocabulary in learning a foreign language, it is important to define what aEFL learner needs to know about a word in order to be able to use it receptively and productively, i.e. to understand the word when hearing or reading it and to know how to use it orally or in writing. As Schmitt (2000) puts it: *"Being able to understand a word is known as receptive knowledge and is normally connected with listening and reading. If we are able to produce a word of our own accord when speaking or writing, then that is considered productive knowledge (passive/active are alternative terms"* (Schmitt, 2000: *4)*

So, what does it mean to know a word? Or when do we or can we say that we know a word? The answer to this question is far from being simple. On the contrary, it's very complicated and complex. Any EFL learner may say that knowing a word for him is simply being able to understand it when hearing or reading it and of course being able to use it either in spoken or in writing. Further, it's widely believed among teachers, learners and researchers that people learn words receptively first and later achieve productive knowledge (Schmitt 2000).

However, saying that we know a word when we are able to use it receptively and productively is not a sufficient answer to the question what does

it mean to know a word? Word knowledge involves more than just the link between meaning and form (Laufer et al. 2004). A word is not just a form and a meaning. There are many components that need to be considered in defining the knowledge of a word. Schmitt (2000) suggests the following list of the different kinds of knowledge that a person has to master in order to know a word:

- *The meaning of the word*
- *The written form of a word*
- *The spoken form of the word*
- *The grammatical behavior of the word*
- *The collocations of the word*
- *The register of the word*
- *The associations of the word*
- *The frequency of the word*

(Schmitt, 2000: 5)

According to (Schmitt, 2000), the simple form–meaning connection does not provide an accurate picture of the types of word knowledge we all learn. We do not acquire the knowledge of a word in one block in one time. For Schmitt (2000):

> *"The mechanics of vocabulary learning are still*
>
> *something of a mystery, but one thing we can*
>
> *be sure of is that words are not instantaneously*
>
> *acquired, at least not for adult second*
>
> *language learners. Rather, they are gradually*
>
> *learned over a period of time from numerous exposures."*
>
> (Schmitt, 2000: 4)

Wilkins (1972) also summarizes very concisely what knowing a word means and says that: *«Learning vocabulary is learning how words relate to external reality and how they relate to one another»* (Wilkins, 1972:133). Therefore, there are two relationships a learner needs to understand to know a word: the first resides in the link between the word and the reality it refers to and the second is the link between a word and the other words such as collocation, syntax etc.

Moreover, in the view of Carter (1998), in some sense, everyone knows what a word is. He argues that: "*the most accurate definition of a word would be to describe it as the minimum meaningful unit in a language. In this sense, a word is a word which can stand on its own as a reply to any question or statement*" (Carter,1998: 5)

Richards' (1976) eight assumptions in relation to lexical competence are listed in Carter and McCarthy (1988). For him, native speakers continue to expand their vocabulary in adulthood and little is known about the average language-user's vocabulary but anything from 20,000 - l00, 000 words could be within a person's receptive vocabulary. Therefore, for Richards cited in Carter and McCarthy (*1988),* the eight components of knowing a word come as follows:

- *"Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering it and the sorts of words most likely to be found Associated with it (frequency and collocability).*
- *Knowing a word means knowing its limitations of use according to function and situation (temporal, social, geographical; field, mode, etc).*
- *Knowing a word means knowing its syntactic behavior (e.g. transitivity patterns, cases).*
- *Knowing a word means knowing its underlying forms and derivations.*
- *Knowing a word means knowing its place in a network of associations with other words in the language.*
- *Knowing a word means knowing its semantic value (its composition).*

- *Knowing a word means knowing its different meanings (polysemy)."*(Richards cited in Carter and McCarthy, *1988:3)*

Further, according to Nation (2001), when we say we know a word well, nine components of word knowledge are involved. These components include orthography (spelling), morphology (word-family relations), parts of speech, and pronunciation, meanings (referential range, variant meanings, and homophones), collocations (what words very commonly go with a word), meaning associations (topical links, synonyms, antonyms, and hyponyms), specific uses (technical, common) and register (power, politeness, disciplinary domain, formality, slang, dialect form)

Moreover, for Nation (2001), meaning encompasses the way that form and meaning work together, in other words, the concept and what items it refers to, and the associations that come to mind when people think about a specific word or expression. He explains in a chart what knowing a word means, both for receptive and productive knowledge. According to him, the following are the questions that a person «knowing» a word should be able to answer:

Aspect	Component	Receptive knowledge	Productive knowledge
Form	Spoken	What does the word sound like?	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	What does the word look like?	How is the word written and spelled?
	word parts	What parts are recognizable in this word?	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	form and meaning	What meaning does this word form signal?	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	concepts and referents	What is included in this concept?	What items can the concept refer to?
	associations	What other words does this make people think of?	What other words could people use instead of this one?
Use	grammatical functions	In what patterns does the word occur?	In what patterns must people use this word?
	collocations	What words or types of words occur with this one?	What words or types of words must people use with this one?
	constraints on use (register, frequency . . .)	Where, when, and how often would people expect to meet this word?	Where, when, and how often can people use this word?

Table1- What is involved in knowing a Word? Nation (2001, p. 27).

Linda Taylor (1990) also mentions a set of components that are essential in knowing a word. For her, the frequency of occurrence, style, register, dialect, collocation, morphology, semantics, polysemy, translation, spelling and pronunciation of the word are important knowledge components that the learner builds through time. For Linda Taylor, it is the teacher's job to create the best learning conditions for the learner in order to facilitate the acquisition of these types or elements of word knowledge.

To Henriksen (1999), vocabulary knowledge occurs in three dimensions:

- partial-precise,

- depth,

- receptive-productive

For him, precise knowledge is exemplified by tests requiring the ability to translate the lexical item into the L1, to find the right definition in a multiple-choice task, or to paraphrase in the target language. Depth of knowledge is the ability to know the multiple meanings and senses of a word as well as its relationships with the other words, the collocational features and factors related to when a word is used. The receptive-productive dimension refers to, "the ability to use the words in comprehension and production" (ibid.p.307).

Further, in relations to the notion of depth, learners may pass through a set of stages of knowledge on the way to acquisition. (Wesche and Paribakht,1996 cited in Maera,1999) use a set of tests with a scale of five stages progressing from no knowledge of the word up to productive ability:

1: I don't remember having seen this word before;

2: I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means;

3: I have seen this word before and I think it means _____;

4: I know this word. It means _____;

5: I can use this word in a sentence. eg: _____.

According to Maera (1999), these stages should not be viewed as progressive since, for instance, it is possible to produce a sentence without knowing what a word means and that knowledge at the different stages is unstable and may change over time.

Therefore, based on the diversity of views cited above, we can gather that there is no consensus among the different opinions of EFL learners, teachers as well as researchers and linguists on the concept of word knowledge. All that we can say on this point is that the knowledge of any given item is a complex task and a "*word*" is a multifaceted concept comprising a number of components - various meanings, orthography, synonymy, spelling, pronunciation, semantic

features, collocation, appropriateness, underlying form etc. - and it is characterized by an incremental nature through time. Every time we interact with a word we already have in our mental lexicon, we enrich it with new information. So, the knowledge of a word is the result of multiple encounters with that word in different contexts and each encounter is an opportunity to add a component to the knowledge of that word, in this way vocabulary expands and deepens over time.

1.6 High frequency versus low frequency words

Words in a text or in a speech differ in frequency and type. When we read, speak or listen to a speech or text, there are words that we encounter several times and there are others that we encounter very rarely.

According to Nation (2001), there are four kinds of vocabulary in the text:

1) *High frequency words. These words are almost 80% of the running words in the text;*

2) *Academic words. Typically, these words make up about 9% of the running words in the text;*

3) *Technical words. These words make up about 5% of the running words in the text;*

4) *Low frequency words. These are the words of moderate frequency that did not manage to get into the high frequency list. They make up over5% of the words in an academic text.*(Nation,2001: 15)

Words that occur very often in any text and constitute the highest percentage of its running words are called high-frequency words. The importance of knowing high frequency words lies in the fact that these words represent a very high percentage or proportion of the running words in spoken and written texts. High frequency words are the words that constitute the bulk of any

communication be it oral or written. Words such as: *available*, *bread*, *create*, *drive*, *function*, *identified*, *income* and *indicate* are high frequency words.

Nations cites the classic list of high frequency words, *General Service List* of English Words of Michal West (1953a) which contains 2000word-families. According to Nation, usually the 2000-word list has been set as the most suitable limit for high frequency words. This doesn't mean that the number is a fixed one, i.e. nothing more or less than 2000 words; different researchers might get to a slightly different number of words which make a very small difference. For Nation (2001), *"if the research is based on a well-designed corpus, there is generally about 80% agreement about what particular words should be included."*(Nation, 2001:15).

From the above, we can say that a special attention should be paid to this class of words. For Nation (2001), *"The high frequency words of the language are clearly so important that considerable time should be spent on them by teachers and learners."*(Nation, 2001: *16). He* even suggests learning through "*direct teaching, direct learning, incidental learning and planned meetings with the words.*" (Nation, 2001: *16).* We can conclude that without knowing these high frequency words, learners will undoubtedly face obstacles to progress in their learning, hence the necessity to learn them as a priority.

To Nation (2001), "*there is a very large group of words that occur very infrequently and cover only a small proportion of any text.*"(Nation, 2001: *16).* Low frequency words belong to a class made up of several thousand words. Thus, the low frequency word list is significantly bigger than the high frequency word list. Low frequency words are words that we rarely meet in our use of language and occur in specific domains such as geographic regions, technology and sciences. Examples of low frequency words are: *photolithography*, *isotope*, *asphalt* and *diffraction*.

Therefore, it is crucial to make the students of the English Department aware of the importance of differentiating between high frequency words and low frequency words and of course paying a big attention to the first category of

words and learn them as a priority given their importance as a key component to gain proficiency in English language without losing sight of low frequency ones.

1.7 Incidental vocabulary learning

Incidental vocabulary learning is one of the widespread ways of learning vocabulary. It consists in a process of learning new words without having the intention of doing it. It might also be defined as learning new words while intending to learn another thing. Incidental vocabulary learning is an effective way of learning vocabulary from context. According to Nagy (1985), in the long run, most words in both first and second languages are probably learned incidentally, through extensive reading and listening (Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985). Learning vocabulary is understood to be a gradual process (Deighton, 1959), because of the incremental nature of learning a word. It takes time to learn, memorize and use a word in a meaningful way.

People learn vocabulary in both their native and foreign languages in a continuous way. They use different methods to learn the new vocabulary. This process takes place in two ways: incidental learning and intentional learning. They also use various techniques to disambiguate meaning of new words such as using context, word splitting, dictionary use, etc. Nation defines learning from context as:

> '…the incidental learning of vocabulary from reading or listening to normal language use while the main focus of the learners' attention is on the message of the text. Learning from context thus includes learning from extensive reading, learning from taking part in conversations, and learning from listening. Learning from context does not include deliberately learning words and their definitions or translations even if these words are presented in isolated sentence contexts.' (Nation, 2001: 232-33)

This is consistent with Krashen(1993) who equates incidental learning with his Input Hypothesis where language is subconsciously acquired while the conscious focus is on message and intentional learning and with his Monitor Hypothesis where conscious focus is on form. Moreover, for Krashen(1993), there are, "*severe limits on how much can be learned [from intentional learning]*" (Krashen,1993:440) and "vocabulary size of native speakers and the mastery of the complex properties of the vocabulary are too great to be accounted for by conscious learning" (ibid.: 452-3). Therefore, Krashen recommends that vocabulary learning should take place through, "*massive quantities of pleasure reading*" (ibid: 455).

Further, learning a new word for aEFL Learner requires many exposures to the word in context and extensive reading to understand its meaning and be able to use it. Several studies focused on incidental vocabulary learning from extensive reading (Krashen, 1993; Pigada& Schmitt, 2006; Grabe&Stoller, 1997). For Horst, M., Cobb, T., &Meara, P. (1998), extensive reading allows learners to: "*enrich their knowledge of the words they already know, increase lexical access speeds, build network linkages between words, and…a few words will be acquired*" (Horst, M., Cobb, T., &Meara, P, 1998*: 221)*

Furthermore, for Ellis (1999), the distinction between incidental and intentional learning is based on the distinction between

> "*focal and peripheral attention. Intentional learning requires focal attention to be placed deliberately on the linguistic code (i.e., on form or form-meaning connections), while incidental learning requires focal attention to be placed on meaning (i.e., message content) but allows peripheral attention to be directed at form*" (Ellis,1999. *45-46).*

Read (2004) says that "*There is no doubt that incidental learning occurs, particularly through extensive reading in input-rich environments, albeit at a rather slow rate*" (Read, 2004:7). Incidental vocabulary acquisition research has

verified the assumption that exposure to texts can contribute to L2, (L1) vocabulary growth. Webb (2008) states that:

> *"because learners incidentally gain knowledge of words in small increments,*
>
> *building upon their previous gains through repeated encounters until a word*
>
> *is known, incidental vocabulary learning can be a relatively slow process*
>
> *when there are long gaps between encounters"*. (Webb ,2008: 1)

However, there is no general agreement on the number of encounters necessary to learn a word incidentally. Some researchers suggest 6 encounters, other suggests 8, others 10 and some others even suggested 20 encounters. And even the gaps between the different encounters have a significant impact on the process of learning i.e. if the gap is too long the learner might forget that he already met the word. Thus, there is still a great need for more research on this point in order to better understand at least the number of encounters as well as the length of the gaps between them in order to learn a word incidentally.

Furthermore, recent studies focusing on reading tasks showed that incidental learning of words was influenced by the readers' purpose as well as his level of reading ability. Therefore, readers with low reading capacities have fewer chances to acquire vocabulary incidentally, or at least they require more exposure and more encounters with the words in order to acquire them.

As stated previously in this dissertation, student of the Department of English do not have enough opportunities to encounter English words because outside the classroom and the library, there is really little chance to read something in English or listen to conversations in English which would constitute real opportunities for incidental learning to happen. Hence, the necessity for the English students to create themselves such opportunities by spending more time reading books, magazines in English, watching movies in English and of course take the most advantage of surfing on the net in English. Students need to be

aware that the big percentage of communication in all fields on the net is in English; therefore, they have to seize every opportunity.

In the early stages of foreign language acquisition, students mainly learn a few thousands of high frequency words. Such words occur so frequently in the teaching materials to which they are exposed that many are easily acquired. However, a vocabulary of a size, say 2,000 words, is inadequate for functional language proficiency. To take reading as an example, estimates of the number of words required for understanding specialized texts vary but there is general consensus that 5,000 base words is a minimal requirement (Laufer, 1997;Nation 1990) while for non-specialized, academic reading a wider range of vocabulary is considered necessary (Groot, 1994; Hazenberg&Hulstijn, 1996). Incidental acquisition of these words is only possible to a point, because they do not occur often enough in the foreign language learning material.

There is no doubt that virtually all second language learners and their teachers are well aware of the fact that learning a second language (L2) involves the learning of large numbers of words (Laufer&Hulstijn, 2001), but how to accomplish this task is often of great concern to them. How vocabulary is acquired and what are the most efficient means to promote effective acquisition have been worthwhile lines of unease in the field of second language acquisition (De La Fuente, 2006). In sum, they all place emphasis on the fact that the mastery of vocabulary is an essential component of second language acquisition.

Moreover, most researches to date underline high correlations between measures of reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge and indicate that gains in one relate to gains in the other (Beck, McKeown&Omanson, 1987). Reading is seen as the major vehicle for vocabulary acquisition and related L2 research confirms that introducing a reading "*flood*" where learners are motivated and focused on meaning leads to measurable gains in vocabulary knowledge. A good deal of vocabulary learning through reading is apparently "incidental", in the sense, that normally there is neither instructional manipulation nor an intention to learn words on the part of the learner (Krashen, 1989).

1.8 Vocabulary instruction

Vocabulary instruction plays a significant role in building students' vocabulary and allows them to gain more proficiency in English as a foreign language. Teaching vocabulary is a prerequisite to achieve communicative competence in English as a foreign language orally and in writing. The majority of students with vocabulary difficulties are unable to communicate in English. Vocabulary learning is essential for reading, writing, listening and speaking. No one can develop these skills without words!

We have already stated in the previous sections that without knowing a large proportion of the running words in a text, a reader will inevitably struggle to understand it. Thus, it is essential to seek the best ways, methods and strategies to ensure a successful vocabulary instruction to the students in order to help them in their reading process.

However, is it possible to teach students all the words they need in order to gain proficiency in English? The answer is certainly no. Although explicit instruction of vocabulary is supported by most researchers in the field, there still is a problem regarding the best approaches or models of instruction to teach vocabulary. Direct instruction means teaching words and studying word roots and affixes. But the problem is that we cannot teach students all of the words they need to learn. Teachers must provide the students with ways or strategies to gain vocabulary knowledge other than direct instruction.

A reader might have never read or heard a word, have a general idea about it, know the word but doesn't know how to use it or simply have a full knowledge of the word, its meaning (s) and use(s). Beck et al (2002) suggest the following levels or stages of knowing a word:

- Never heard or saw the word before.

- Heard or saw the word and know that it is related to a particular topic or concept.

- Heard or saw the word and have a general sense of what it means

- Have a narrow contextual understanding of a word.

- Can define a word in context but not use it in appropriate situations.

- Can recall or use a word in specific contexts.

- Know of multiple meanings of a word.

- Can apply a word correctly and recognize inappropriate use.

- Use the word naturally in thinking, writing, and talking.

- Has a rich knowledge of a word's meaning and how it relates to other words with similar meanings, roots, or affixes.

- Has deep knowledge of a word. Can conjugate forms and use it appropriately in figures of speech, such as puns, metaphors, and understand its use in idiomatic expressions.(Beck et al, 2002 :10).

Most vocabulary instruction specialists recommend a multi-component approach to developing vocabulary knowledge. Graves (2000) has advocated a four-part program that includes wide reading, teaching individual words, teaching word learning strategies, and fostering word consciousness. Stahl's model (1999) sees vocabulary instruction as an ongoing process that involves using different approaches that can be summed up as follows:

1. *Include both definitional information and contextual information about each word's meaning*
2. *Involve children more actively in word learning*
3. *Provide multiple exposures to meaningful information about the word.*

In 1998, Hunt and Beglar proposed seven principles to ensure a very good start of a principled approach to vocabulary learning:

Principle 1: Provide opportunities for the incidental learning of vocabulary.

Principle 2: Diagnose which of the 3000 most common words learners need to study.

Principle 3: Provide opportunities for the intentional learning of vocabulary.

Principle 4: Provide opportunities for elaborating word knowledge.

Principle 5: Provide opportunities for developing fluency with known vocabulary.

Principle 6: Experiment with guessing from context.

Principle 7: Examine different types of dictionaries and teach students how to use them.

To Blachowicz & Fisher (2006), learning a new word requires the student to know what it means (definition), how it is used (context), and how it relates to what he or she already knows (background experience). It's clear that this view is closer to Graves' (2000) in the sense that it stresses the importance of defining the word and putting it in its context, besides the use of the student's background information or experience.

In order to ensure the success of a vocabulary instruction that promotes the students' word knowledge and of course language proficiency, Graves (2006) suggests an instructional program based on a four-part approach: *"(1) Provide rich and varied language experiences, (2) teach individual words, (3) teach word-learning strategies, and (4) foster word consciousness''*(Graves,2006: 4).

Brown and Payne (1994) identified five steps in the process of learning vocabulary in a foreign language:

1- *having sources for encountering new words*

2- *getting a clear image, either visual or auditory or both, of the forms of the new words*

3- *learning the meaning of thewords*

4- *making a strong memory connection between the forms and the meanings of the words*

5- *using the words*

Nash and Snowling (2006) consider that using a contextual approach to instruction provides greater vocabulary gains compared with lessons that emphasize learning word definitions. Their findings also

indicated that recalling the pronunciation of the unfamiliar words proved more difficult than learning their definitions.

Schmitt (2008) suggests the following factors that he considers critical in facilitating vocabulary learning:

• increased frequency of exposure;

• increased attention focused on the lexical item;

• increased noticing of the lexical item;

• increased intention to learn the lexical item;

• a requirement to learn the lexical item (by teacher, test, syllabus);

• a need to learn/use the lexical item (for task or for a personal goal);

• increased manipulation of the lexical item and its properties;

• increased amount of time spent engaging with the lexical item;

• amount of interaction spent on the lexical item

The National Reading Panel (2000) identified eight specific requirements that can provide a scientifically based foundation for the design of rich, multifaceted vocabulary instruction. These conclusions of the National Reading Panel are summarized below:

1. *There is a need for direct instruction of vocabulary items required for a specific text.*

2. *Repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items are important. Students should be given items that will be likely to appear in many contexts.*

3. *Learning in rich contexts is valuable for vocabulary learning. Vocabulary words should be those that the learner will find useful in many contexts. When vocabulary items are derived from content learning materials, the learner will be better equipped to deal with specific reading matter in content areas.*

4. *Vocabulary tasks should be restructured as necessary. It is important to be certain that students fully understand what is asked of them in the context of reading, rather than focusing only on the*

words to be learned. Restructuring seems to be most effective for low-achieving or at-risk students.

5. Vocabulary learning is effective when it entails active engagement in learning tasks.

6. Computer technology can be used effectively to help teach vocabulary.

7. Vocabulary can be acquired through incidental learning. Much of a student's vocabulary will have to be learned in the course of doing things other than explicit vocabulary learning. Repetition, richness of context, and motivation may also add to the efficacy of incidental learning of vocabulary.

8. Dependence on a single vocabulary instruction method will not result in optimal learning. A variety of methods was used effectively with emphasis on multimedia aspects of learning, richness of context in which words are to be learned, and the number of exposures to words that learners receive.(NRP,2000:4)

In the viewpoint of Nagy (2005), effective vocabulary instruction must be multifaceted, encompassing: teaching individual words; extensive exposure to rich language, both oral and written; and building generative word knowledge. Moreover, Graves and Watts-Taffe (2008) suggest that teachers:

"(1) create a word-rich environment,

(2) recognize and promote adept diction,

(3) promote word play,

(4) foster word consciousness through writing,

(5) involve students in original investigations, and

(6) teach students about words" (Graves and Watts-Taffe,2008:*186)*

In his books *Building Background Knowledge* and *Building Academic Vocabulary*: *Teachers Manual*, Marzano(2004) lists eight research-based guidelines for teachers implementing direct vocabulary instruction:

- o Effective vocabulary instruction does not rely on definitions alone. Words should be written in a conversational manner rather than in the more formal dictionary format. If prior exposures to or experiences with a word are lacking, teachers can build the background knowledge through field trips, videos, guest speakers, stories, or current events

- o Students must represent their knowledge of words in linguistic and/or nonlinguistic ways. Students can draw a picture, create a symbol, or dramatize the word.

- o Effective vocabulary instruction involves the gradual shaping of word meanings through multiple exposures. These include comparing and contrasting, classifying, and creating metaphors and analogies

- o Teaching word parts (prefixes, root words, suffixes) enhances student understanding of the word.

- o Different types of words require different types of instruction.

- o Students should discuss the terms they are learning through cooperative learning activities.

- o Students should play with words using challenging and engaging vocabulary games

- o Instruction should focus on terms that have a high probability of enhancing academic success.

However, according to the National Reading Panel (2000),*"Dependence on a single vocabulary instruction method will not result in optimal learning"* (National Reading Panel, 2000:4) Therefore, if students are to acquire new words and increase the depth of their word knowledge, educators need to design various multi-faceted classroom experiences. Teachers have to seek the best means,

methods and techniques of instructing vocabulary in order to allow their students attain language proficiency.

It becomes clear from the above that most specialists and experts in the field of teaching and learning *vocabulary (Graves*, 2000; Nagy, 1988, Kamil 2005, the National Reading panel 2000, Nation 2001, Snow ling 2006; Schmitt 2008) agree on a number of effective ways to teach vocabulary that can be summed-up as follows:

- Providing multiple exposures to a new word orally and/or in writing with review and practice and encouraging wide reading.
- Providing rich and varied language experiences in order to allow incidental learning take place
- Providing word definition and explicit instruction of specific words and their meaning
- Teaching words in various contexts and teaching individual words
- Having students actively relate similarities and differences of a new word to words and concepts they already know and practice using the word in various situations.
- Teaching word learning strategies (such as the context of the surrounding words or sentences to infer the meaning of a word, using meaningful word parts to make sense out of the unknown word and using the dictionary effectively to help define an unknown word)
- Dedicate enough time to learn words
- Developing and fostering word consciousness (knowledge of and interest in words) within students and maintaining their interest in words
- Engaging students in communicative tasks demanding interactions
- Teaching word parts: prefixes, suffixes, roots, and compounds.
- Teaching students how to use dictionaries efficiently.

- Understanding the fact that vocabulary learning and expansion extends across a lifetime.

Conclusion

From the above, we can gather that vocabulary is a central element in EFL learning and teaching and without it nothing can be done. The literature reviewed in this chapter shows that despite the differences in views of scholars, researchers and teachers with regard to the definitions of the ter8ms *vocabulary*, *word* and other concepts, they all agree on the importance of vocabulary mastery as a prerequisite to progress in the mastery of EFL.

Further, important notions relating to the field of vocabulary learning such as low and high frequency were introduced in this chapter to clarify the difference between the two types of words. The chapter also shed light on the various definitions of the major concept of incidental vocabulary learning and stressed its importance, bearing in mind that incidental learning through intensive reading is one of the main ways at the disposal of the students of the Department of English to learn and build up a maximum of vocabulary items.

Furthermore, a section of this chapter was devoted to the review of vocabulary instruction and the different viewpoints of some of the famous scholars with regard to its importance and how it should be carried out in order to help the students in their learning process.

Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to familiarize the students, the teachers as well as the EFL readers in general with the major factors, elements and concepts relating to the vocabulary teaching and learning process.

Chapter 2
Vocabulary learning strategies

Introduction

Vocabulary is the cornerstone of language. It's the building blocks of language. Learning the vocabulary of a foreign language is a complex task that requires, planning, guidance, assistance, determination and the use of a variety of strategies. Learning is more fruitful, successful and enjoyable if it is well planned and done according to specific methods, needs and strategies. Students need to know about the best ways and methods to make vocabulary learning easy and attainable. They need to be aware of the various strategies of learning EFL to help them in their undertaking.

There exists a variety of vocabulary learning strategies that can meet the needs of different EFL learners at different levels and with different English language proficiencies. The purpose of this chapter is to introduce these LLS and VLS in order to familiarize the students of ENSB Department of English with them so that they can use them in their learning.

Therefore, in this chapter, we will review the various LLS and VLS and stress their importance. For a better understanding of the latter, we will first review the various language learning strategies. Thus, the first part of this chapter is devoted to LLS, to provide their different definitions, utility, importance and taxonomies. The second part will deal with vocabulary learning strategies in a more detailed way; it will provide their definitions, importance, instruction, taxonomies as well as the studies that have been conducted on VLS by prominent scholars.

2.1 Language learning strategies

An excellent way to accelerate the learning of a second or a foreign language is to teach learners how to learn more in efficient and effective ways. During the last four decades, there has been a great advancement in the field of

language learning and teaching research. In fact, as of the beginning of 1970s, the attention of linguists and pedagogy researchers shifted from the old vision which concentrated more on the teacher and teaching methods to the new vision which set as its focal point the learner as well as his individual abilities, skills and ways to learn. Therefore, the learner and the learning process became the center of all debates and research in the field of language learning and teaching.

Researchers started to concentrate on the learner himself and his motivation, interest, differences and individual learning skills and abilities. They started to investigate the ways successful learners behave in order to overcome their learning problems and attain language proficiency. This led to great interest in how individual learners approached and controlled their own learning and their use of language.

Moreover, another main goal behind this new vision is to help those in difficulty of learning. To attain this objective, many researchers (Rubin, 1975; Naiman et al., 1978; O'Malley et al., 1985) tried to identify the strategies that 'good learners' use to succeed in their learning. Indeed, a deep understanding of students' learning strategies provides researchers with insights not only into the processes of second language learning but also into strategies of successful and unsuccessful learners.

This revolution in the field of language learning and teaching gave birth to an interest in the field of vocabulary learning strategies. According to (Nation, 2001), vocabulary learning strategies are a sub class of language learning strategies which in turn are a part of general learning strategies. Therefore, understanding and defining these strategies as well as teaching them to learners were major challenges for linguists, teachers and psychologists. As a consequence, various learning strategies have been identified and a number of taxonomies of learning strategies have been proposed.

2.2 Defining language learning strategies

There have been several attempts to define language learning strategies. Each definition reflects the way its proponent sees LLS and their purpose. For

instance, Naiman et al (1978) defines LLS as general, more or less deliberate approaches to learning. To Cohen (1984), they are mental operations used to accomplish learning tasks. Rubin (1987) states that LLS consist in a set of operations, steps, plans and routines of what learners do in order to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information to regulate learning.

Furthermore, Chamot (1987) defines LLS as techniques, approaches or deliberate actions used to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information. Scarcella& Oxford (1992) define learning strategies as: *"specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques - such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task - used by students to enhance their own learning''* (Scarcella& Oxford,1992:*63*).

On her side, Oxford (1993) sees LLS as specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques that students intentionally use in order to improve their progress in developing second language skills. It is worth noting that Oxford evokes the intentional use of LLS to learn language.

From the various definitions cited above, we can say that LLS are a set of actions, steps, techniques, behaviors, ways of doing, mental operations, plans and routines that EFL learners intentionally and deliberately use in order to make their foreign language learning process easy and enjoyable.

2.3 Importance of language learning strategies

LLS corner an important place in the world of education and teaching. Their importance lies in the fact that they facilitate learning and encourage learners' autonomy and foster learner-centeredness. Learners who are aware of the processes underlying the learning activity in which they are involved will undoubtedly learn more effectively and easily. Knowing the different strategies became a must for learners. It is evident that most of the students are not aware of LLS and this is one of the big reasons of their failure. Therefore, it is necessary to give every student the opportunity to study LLS to allow him/her to

select the best one(s) to fit his learning as it has been proved that those who have been explicitly taught LLS developed more self -confidence and autonomy.

Further, strategies are important because they represent a very important learning tool that helps learners tackle their language learning with more confidence; the learner sees in them a kind of guidance or source of light he can use in the dark paths of language. As Oxford (1990) states, strategies are important for two reasons. In the first place, strategies are: "*tools for active, self – directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Secondly, learners who have developed appropriate learning strategies have greater self – confidence and learn more effectively.*"(Oxford, 1990:1)

Moreover, Oxford (1990) summed-up her opinion in twelve key points on the utility of language learning strategies. According to her LLS:

1. *Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.*

2. *Allow learners to become more self-directed.*

3. *Expand the role of teachers.*

4. *Are problem-oriented.*

5. *Are specific actions taken by the learner*

6. *Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.*

7. *Support learning both directly and indirectly.*

8. *Are not always observable.*

9. *Are often conscious.*

10. *Can be taught.*

11. *Are flexible.*

12. *Are influenced by a variety of factors (Oxford,1990: 9)*

In an attempt to describe the major attributes of learning strategies, Wenden (1987) proposed a list of six characteristics of language learning strategies:

1. Learning strategies refer to specific actions or techniques, but they are not features which describe a student's broad language learning approach.

2. Some of the learning strategies will be observable and others will not be observable.

3. Learning strategies are problem-oriented, that is, learners use them to respond to a learning need.

4. Learning strategies can contribute directly or indirectly to learning.

5. Although these strategies may be consciously employed, they can become automatized after a long period.

6. Learning strategies are behaviors which are amenable to change.

From the above, we can say it is important to stress the necessity to make the students of the Department of English aware of the importance of LLS as learning tools to learn and then use them in their learning. Teachers, on the other hand, should understand the significance of LLS and place them as a priority in their teaching to ensure the students' progress and success in their learning of English.

2.4 Taxonomies of language learning strategies

There have been several attempts to classify Language Learning Strategies based on the various empirical researches that were carried out in the field by different scholars and language learning experts. In this section, we will present some of them.

2.4.1 Rubin's taxonomy of LLS

Based on his research, Rubin (1987) classified LLS into two groups containing six direct strategies and two indirect strategies:

Direct strategies	Indirect strategies
- Clarification/verification	- Creating opportunities for practice
- Guessing/inductive monitoring	- Production tricks
- Memorization	
- Inferencing	
- Deductive reasoning	
- Practice	

Table 2- Taxonomy of LLS - Rubin (1981)

Oxford &Crookall (1989) suggested a list of six Language Learning Strategies:

1. *Memory strategies- techniques specifically tailored to help the learner store new information in memory and retrieve it later.*

2. *Cognitive strategies- skills that involve manipulation or transformation of the language in some direct way, e.g., through reasoning, analysis, note taking, functional practice in naturalistic settings, formal practice with structures and sounds, etc.*

3. *Compensation strategies- behaviors used to compensate for missing knowledge of some kind, e.g., inferencing (guessing), while listening or reading, or using synonyms or circumlocution while speaking or writing.*

4. *Metacognitive strategies- behaviors used for centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating one's learning. These "beyond-the-cognitive" strategies are used to provide "executive control" over the learning process.*

5. *Affective strategies- techniques like self-reinforcement and positive self-talk which help learners gain better control over their emotions, attitudes, and motivations related to language learning.*

6. Social strategies- actions involving other people in the language learning process. Examples are questioning, cooperating with peers, and developing empathy. (Oxford &Crookall, 1989:404)

2.4.2 O'Malley and Chamot (1990)

Based on the works of O'Malley and Chamot (1990) there are three major types of language learning strategies – which in turn contain sub-strategies- that come as follows:

- metacognitive (strategies for overviewing the processes of language use and learning, and for taking steps to efficiently plan and regulate those processes),

- cognitive (strategies which involve the manipulation of information in an immediate task for the purpose of acquiring or retaining that information)

- social/affective (strategies dealing with interpersonal relationships and those which deal with controlling one's emotional constraints)

2.4.3 Oxford's Taxonomy of LLS

Oxford (1990) also proposed a classification of LLS. According to her, there are two main classes or categories of language-learning strategies: direct and indirect learning strategies. The latter can be divided into six major strategy categories: Memory strategies Cognitive strategies, Metacognitive strategies, Compensation strategies, Affective strategies and Social strategies. Direct strategies involve EFL/ESL in a direct way however the indirect strategies do not involve the subject matter directly but are, nonetheless, essential for language learning. The table below illustrates LLS categories according to Oxford:

Direct strategies	Indirect strategies
Memory strategies	Social strategies
Cognitive strategies	Affective strategies
Metacognitive strategies	Compensation strategies

Table 3-*Learning strategies Oxford (1990)*

2.5 Vocabulary learning strategies

As stressed earlier, in the context of a foreign language, vocabulary knowledge is an essential and crucial component of communicative competence for both production and comprehension. It plays a critical role in the success of the EFL learning process. As Chamot (1999) stated, the teaching and learning of vocabulary learning strategies help "*EFL learners become better learners. In addition, skills in using   learning strategies assist students in becoming independent and confident learners*"(Chamot,1999:1).

Moreover, Schmitt (1997) declared that:

> "*One approach of facilitating vocabulary learning that has attracted increasing attention is vocabulary-learning strategies. Interest in vocabulary learning strategies has paralleled a movement away from a predominantly teaching- oriented perspective to one that includes interests in how the actions of the learners might affect their acquisition of language.*" (Chamot,1999: 215)

Cameron (2001) defines vocabulary learning strategies as actions that learners take to help themselves understand and remember vocabulary. Catalan (2003) on her side states that VLS are knowledge about the mechanisms (processes, strategies) used in order to learn vocabulary as well as steps or actions taken by students (a) to find out the meaning of unknown words, (b) to retain them in long-term memory, (c) to recall them at will, and (d) to use them in oral or written mode. Moreover, according to Sökmen (1997), "*vocabulary learning strategies are basically actions made by the learner in order to help them to understand the meaning of a word, learning 0them and to remember them later.*"(Sökmen,1997:237)

Based on the above definitions, VLS can be defined as techniques, ways or methods that students use in order to disambiguate the meaning of words they learn, consolidate and enrich the meaning of words they already know. The relationship between strategy use and success in second or foreign language learning has been proved by research in the field. Many researchers

(Sanaoui1995; Cohen and Aphek 1981) investigated this relationship and found a strong link between strategy direct teaching and learning progress. This means that the awareness of vocabulary learning strategies and the need for them are growing more and more among researchers, teachers as well as students.

2.6 Importance of VLS

As part of the fast-growing field of research in the field of language learning and teaching in English as foreign language, the teaching and the learning of vocabulary learning strategies require more attention for many reasons:

Firstly, because learners' knowledge and ability to use vocabulary is believed to be partially conditioned by the way the learner has been taught and partially by the way new words are learnt as well as the fact that the learning strategies adopted may radically affect the way in which learners learn new word.

Secondly, the importance of lexis for the development of second language learning has been highlighted by many theoretical and pedagogical researches on second language education (Richards 1976)

Thirdly, it's significant to identify the strategies adopted by learners in their vocabulary learning to understand the acquisition of lexis because these strategies as (Sanaoui 1995) states are " *an important aspect of lexical learning ...[and can) contribute to a better understanding of how [second language learners] come to learn the lexis of the target language.*"(Sanaoui, 1995: 25)

Fourthly, individuals can learn and expand their vocabulary knowledge independently. It is "*incremental, potentially limitless, and heavily constrained by the individual's experience*" (Swain &Carrol 1987: 193).

Furthermore, the foreign language learner often needs a large amount of vocabulary, and teachers cannot teach students all the vocabulary they need, as stated by Graves (1987): *"Regardless of how much instruction we do in schools, students will actually do most of their word learning independently ... Thus, information on the approaches students will and will not use would be helpful."* (Graves, 1987: 177)

Therefore, it becomes clear that students should take the responsibility of enlarging their vocabulary by learning and using various vocabulary learning strategies. Students should try a large number of strategies and select the ones that suit better their needs and learning styles.

2.7 Studies on vocabulary strategies

Several studies were carried out in the field of Vocabulary learning strategies. Therefore, in the following section, we will introduce some of the most important ones:

Ahmed's study (1988)

Ahmed's (1988) carried out a study on the vocabulary learning strategies employed by 300 Sudanese students of English as a foreign language. Those students were from two age groups: school-age (intermediate and secondary school students) and young adults (university level students). The main aim of this study was to identify the vocabulary learning strategies used by these groups of Sudanese learners of English. The study also aimed at discovering if there were any differences between good and poor (underachieving) learners in strategy use. In addition, Ahmed investigated the relationship between strategy use and four factors:

> (*1*) the level of overall language achievement,
>
> (2) the use of English as a medium of instruction for other school or university subjects,
>
> (3) the number of years learning English, and
>
> (4) the level of vocabulary learning achievement.

The researcher used three instruments: a think-aloud task, direct observation while students were thinking aloud, and an interview using a questionnaire. He identified 5 macro strategies and 38 micro strategies. Ahmed defines macro-strategies as general learning behaviors such as practice and dictionary use, whereas micro-strategies as specific examples for carrying out the former type such as making use of a newly learnt word by writing a letter for

practice. The five macro strategies included: information sources, dictionary use, memorization, practice and note-taking.

The study findings indicated that that there is little evidence for a distinction between good and poor learners at the macro-strategy level. Almost all of the students used macro-strategies; however, the noticeable difference between the learners was the choice of specific micro-strategies within each macro-strategy. The study also revealed that three macro-strategies were used by all students: using sources to find out about difficult words, memorization, and note-taking.

The study revealed that practice strategy was the only macro-strategy that distinguished good learners from poor ones and this confirmed the results of Bialystok (1981) and Naerssen (1987). Moreover, Ahmed found that good learners used L2-based strategies more than LI-based strategies. L2-based strategies involved English in the activities which students performed. For instance, subjects included synonyms and English paraphrase when taking notes about new words. On the contrary, poor learners relied heavily on L1-based strategies, such as asking about Arabic equivalents for new words. Good learners also seemed to move gradually from L1 -based strategies to more L2-based strategies. They suggest that in the initial stages of learning, new words are strongly linked to their LI equivalents, and a shift to L2 occurs after some time.

The results of Ahmed's study indicated that contrary to poor learners, good learners used more vocabulary learning strategies and relied more heavily on various strategies. They also appeared to be more aware of what they can learn about new words and the importance of context in learning vocabulary. However, poor learners showed little awareness of what they can learn regarding new words and expressed no interest in learning words in context.

All in all, Ahmed's study remains one of the most important landmarks in the history of vocabulary learning strategies and Ahmed is regarded as one of the pioneers of research in this field. As a result of his study, Ahmed proposed a VLS classification which comprised six (6) macro strategies which are divided into 38 micro strategies:

Macro-strategies	Micro-strategies
Information sources	ask classmates -guessing -ask teacher -overlook -ask for L2 paraphrases - ask for L1 equivalent - ask for example of use group work – use a dictionary
Dictionary use	monolingual dictionary -bilingual dictionary look up meaning -look up derivation look up word class -look for example of use
Memorization	write and repeat aloud -repeat aloud write, repeat and L2 synonym -write, repeat and L1 equivalent
Practice	new word in real situation -new word in imaginary situation ask for test -ask others to verify knowledge use written source to verify knowledge -self-test
Preferred source of information	asking somebody -group work- dictionary
Note-taking	take notes at all - notes in margin -vocabulary book- ordering new words sequentially organizing words by meaning - spelling info -L1 equivalent - L2 synonym L1 equivalent and L2 synonym -word derivations -grammatical info

Table 4- Macro- and micro-strategies identified by Ahmed (1989, pp. 10-11).

Sanaoui's (1992) diary study

Sanaoui (1992, 1995) conducted a research study investigating foreign students' behaviors concerning vocabulary learning. The research consisted of two phases. The initial one investigated two questions: how do adult second language learners approach the task of vocabulary learning? And what mnemonic procedures do they use to help themselves retain the lexical items they were learning? Sanaoui carried the study on 50 beginner and advanced level ESL students; 4 case studies of ESL learners; and 8 case studies of learners of French as a second language. He used diaries to collect data on vocabulary learning approaches. The students were asked to monitor and document the approaches they adopted for learning lexical items on a daily basis and discuss their approaches with the other participants. After that, the participants were interviewed based on the information recorded in diaries.

This phase identified two distinctive approaches to L2 vocabulary learning: a structured approach and an unstructured approach and the two approaches differed in 5 aspects:

-learners' opportunities for vocabulary learning (i.e. independent study vs. reliance on course)

-their range of self-initiated vocabulary learning (i.e. extensive vs. restricted)

-their records of lexical items they were learning (i.e. extensive/systematic vs. minimal/ad hoc)

-how much learners reviewed such words/records (i.e. extensive vs. little or none)

-whether they practiced such lexical items (created opportunities in/out of class vs. relied on class)

Based on the above, Sanaoui found that some adult students were clearly capable of independently and actively managing their own learning and that others were much more in need of assistance in order to develop adequate learning strategies and increase their self- awareness. With regard to mnemonic procedures, the study's subjects reported that they used the following techniques:
- contextual associations,
- imagery associations,
- writing the lexical items,
- immediate repetition,
- spaced repetition,
- drawing a pictorial representation of the word,
- using the word,
- linguistic associations and talking about the lexical item with someone.

Using a questionnaire on students' approaches to vocabulary learning, the second phase of Sanaoui's research aimed at answering the question to what

extent does vocabulary learning by adult learners of French as a second language during lessons in French vary with:

(1) the learners' level of proficiency in French,

(2) the learners' approaches to vocabulary study, and

(3) the methodology of classroom instruction they receive?

The finding of this phase revealed that vocabulary learning which was measured by a vocabulary achievement test was a good indicator of the influence of learners' approaches to vocabulary study. The performance of the group of learners taking a structured approach was higher on the vocabulary test than the group of learners taking an unstructured approach. This led Sanaoui to conclude that learners' approaches to vocabulary study were an important factor in predicting the results of their vocabulary learning. However, learners' levels of proficiency and the type of instruction they had received did not affect their performance.

Finally, we can say that the results of both phases are of great importance in revealing the significance of the approach that learners adopt for vocabulary learning and in providing additional evidence for the notion that vocabulary knowledge is an area which is strongly influenced by the personal actions students take sometimes regardless of situational factors such as teaching techniques as well as the pedagogical material used.

Stoffer's (1995) questionnaire study

Stoffer (1995) conducted a study that involved 707 students at the University of Alabama. The participants enrolled in French, German, Japanese, Russian and Spanish classes. She developed a questionnaire which contained 53 items designed to measure specifically vocabulary learning strategies. Her aim was to assess foreign language learners' use of vocabulary learning strategies in relation to their individual difference variables such as course level, previous instruction in vocabulary learning strategies, age, previous language learning experience and gender. Stoffer was able to develop a vocabulary learning

strategy inventory which consisted of nine categories by factor analysis as follows:

(1) Strategies involving authentic language use.

 (2) Strategies involving creative activities.

(3) Strategies used for self-motivation.

(4) Strategies used to create mental linkages.

(5) Memory strategies.

(6) Visual/auditory strategies.

(7) Strategies involving physical action.

(8) Strategies used to overcome anxiety.

(9) Strategies used to organize words.

Stoffer based her inventory on one of the most well-known classification systems of learning strategies, that is the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning or SILL and the results revealed that the most important factor influencing strategy use was previous instruction in how to use vocabulary learning strategies.

Gu& Johnson's (1996) questionnaire study

The study of Gu& Johnson involved 850 university students and the aim of the research was to establish the vocabulary learning strategies used by Chinese university learners of English and the relationship between their strategies and outcomes in learning English. To collect data they used a questionnaire and two tests - one to measure vocabulary size and the other to measure general proficiency in English. The questionnaire included 91 vocabulary learning strategies grouped as strategies for meta-cognitive regulation, guessing, dictionary use, note taking, rehearsal, encoding and activation.

The results revealed two VLS, self-initiation and selective attention, as positive predictors of their participants' proficiency, measured by their college English test scores. They also found that the strategies of contextual guessing,

skillful dictionary use, paying attention to word formation, contextual encoding, and using newly learnt words had a positive correlation with participants' test scores. Furthermore, the study revealed the use of a wide range of vocabulary learning strategies. The most common strategies used were metacognitive regulation, guessing, dictionary work, and note taking.

The results also indicated that learners rarely used one single strategy but used strategy combinations in their learning, and this fact resulted in learning differences. One thing to be noted is that, the study didn't report the patterns of strategy combination used by the students and did not specify which combinations are to be considered as more effective than others.

Finally, the study of Gu& Johnson's (1996)is considered as a landmark in the field of vocabulary learning strategies and it served as a model and reference for many researches. The study resulted in the classification of VLSs into seven categories:

1- Metacognitive regulation

Self- attention

Self – initiation

2 Guessing strategies

Using background knowledge / wider context

Using linguistic cues/ immediate context

3- Dictionary strategies

Dictionary strategies for comprehension

Extended dictionary strategies

Looking up strategies

4- Note-taking strategies

Meaning-oriented note-taking strategies

Usage –oriented note-taking strategies

5- Rehearsal strategies

Using word lists

Oral repetition

Visual repetition

6- Encoding strategies

Association /elaboration

Imagery

Visual encoding

Auditory encoding

Using word structure

Semantic encoding

Contextual encoding

7-Activation strategies

Schmitt's (1997) questionnaire study

Another important research in the VLS field is the one of Schmitt (1997). In fact, Schmitt (1997) has made a very influential contribution to the field of vocabulary learning- strategies by providing the first comprehensive taxonomy of lexically focused strategies. Schmitt surveyed 600 Japanese EFL students from different age groups (school-age, young adults and adults) in order to explore changes in the use and perceived effectiveness of strategies with relation to age and educational level of the subjects, in which students were asked to respond to the questionnaire items as to how frequently they used a given strategy and how effective they thought the strategy was or would be.

The results revealed that bilingual dictionary use, guessing from textual context, and asking classmates for meaning were the most-used discovery strategies. As far as consolidation strategies, the results indicated that the most used ones were verbal repetition, studying the sound of a word, written repetition, saying the new word aloud, studying the spelling, taking notes in class and making word lists. The least-used included: using cognates in study, checking for an LI cognate, using physical action, using semantic maps, teacher checks and flash cards for accuracy.

Furthermore, Schmitt found that the patterns of students' strategy use and their perceived effectiveness can change over time because of the learner

advancement in age and his proficiency in the foreign language. Schmitt also noticed that young learners used mechanical repetition strategies such as written repetition and word lists, while adult learners used analytical strategies such as guessing from textual context

Schmitt (1997) developed a comprehensive inventory of vocabulary learning strategies where he made a distinction between two groups of strategies: Strategies used to determine the meaning of new words when encountered for the first time and they include determination and social strategies, and strategies used to consolidate meaning when encountered again and they include cognitive, metacognitive, memory and social strategies.

According to Schmitt, the learner uses determination strategies to understand the meaning of a new word without the help of another person's experience such as the teacher or a schoolmate. Instead, he guesses the meaning for instance from context or from the structural knowledge of language. On the other hand, learners use a variety of social, memory, cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies to consolidate their vocabulary knowledge.

Schmitt (1997) divided VLS into five categories including a set of 58 strategies as follows:

1. Determination strategies used by an individual when faced with discovering a new word's meaning without recourse to another person's expertise.

> *• Analyze any available pictures or gestures*
>
> *• Guess meaning from textual context*
>
> *• Use a dictionary (bilingual or monolingual)*
>
> *2. Social strategies involve interaction with other people to improve language learning.*
>
> > *• Ask the teacher for a synonym, paraphrase, or L1 translation of new word*
> >
> > *• Learn and practice new words with a study group*

• Interact with native-speakers

3. Memory strategies (traditionally known as mnemonics) involve relating new words to previously learned knowledge, using some form of imagery or grouping.8

> *• Use semantic maps*
>
> *• Use the keyword method*
>
> *• Associate a new word with its already known synonyms and antonyms*

4. Cognitive strategies entail manipulation or transformation of information about words to be learned, although they are not so specifically focused on mental processing as memory strategies.

> *• Written repetition*
>
> *• Keep a vocabulary notebook*
>
> *• Put English labels on physical objects*

5. Meta-cognitive strategies involve a conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best ways to study.

> *• Use spaced word practice (expanding rehearsal)*
>
> *• Test oneself with word tests*
>
> *• Continue to study word over time(Schmitt,1997: 207-8)*

Nation (1990)

Nation (2001) is considered a one of the prominent specialists in the field of VLS. He produced a VLS classification in which he tried to separate aspects of vocabulary knowledge from the learning processes. According to him, vocabulary learning strategies are divided into three general classes:

1-Planning 2-Source 3-Processes.

These three classes are in their turn divided into sub classes of strategies such as choosing words, planning repetition, using context etc. The table below sums up the VLS classification suggested by Nation (2001):

General Class of Strategies	Types of Strategies
Planning: choosing what to focus on and when to focus on it	Choosing words -Choosing the aspects of word knowledge -Choosing strategies-Planning repetition
Sources: finding information about words	Analyzing the word -Using context Consulting a reference source in L1 and L2 Using parallels in L1 and L2
Processes: establishing knowledge	Noticing - Retrieving - Generating

Table 5- Taxonomy of VLS- Nation (2001)

Cook (2001)

Cook (2001) divided vocabulary learning strategies into two groups. The first group regarded understanding the meaning of words and the second group included strategies regarding acquiring words.

> a) *Strategies for understanding the meaning of words*

> 1. *Guessing from the situation or context*
> 2. *Using a dictionary*
> 3. *Making deductions from the word from*
> 4. *Linking to cognates (finding similarities in words of two different languages)*
> *(Cook 2001:p66–67)*

> b) *Strategies for acquiring words*)

> 1. *Repetition and rote learning*
> 2. *Organizing words in the mind*

3. Linking to existing knowledge

(Cook, 2001:69–70)

It is clear from the above that the classifications of VLS differ from one researcher to another. However, the most important thing is that each taxonomy provides the learner with a variety of precious vocabulary learning strategies from which he can choose the most suitable ones to promote and develop his vocabulary learning. Teachers on the other hand, have a large number of VLS they can teach their students to lead them towards more autonomy and self-control. The fact that a student feels comfortable with a VLS makes him save time in his learning process and allows him to learn more words in a short time.

Same thing applies for our students in the Department of English. In fact, they need to learn these strategies as a matter of priority and select the most suitable ones for them to make their learning easy and enjoyable. Especially that their opportunities to communicate in English in real situations are very rare. Thus, I do encourage teachers in the department to teach VLS for all students especially during the first year so that students will make the most advantages of them in following years.

Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the concepts of language learning strategies and vocabulary learning strategies. The main definitions of these two concepts were reviewed with a special emphasis on their importance in helping the students in their vocabulary learning activities. Despite the great variety of strategies proposed by different scholars, the main common point is to highlight their importance and the necessity to use them appropriately.

The chapter also reviewed a number of studies that were carried out in the field by major scholars such as Ahmed (1989), Schmitt (1997), Nation (1990) and others. The purpose of this chapter is to familiarize the students as well as

the teachers at the DE with the different types of LLS and VLS, their importance and their utility.

Moreover, based on the results of the different studies reviewed above, this chapter stressed the point that LLS and VLS choice and appropriateness differ from a learner to another based on a variety of factors such as cultural background, proficiency level, learning styles as well as individual learners' differences.

Chapter 3

Dictionary Use

Introduction

Dictionary use is one of the main vocabulary learning strategies and tools. It constitutes a fundamental strategy helping students in learning vocabulary. Therefore, in this chapter, we will shed light on the importance of the dictionary as an authentic source of knowledge, a vocabulary learning strategy and an effective pedagogical tool of language learning. Therefore, a section will be devoted to the various definitions of the word '*dictionary*', its utility and importance as well as the different types of dictionaries. The chapter will also review the different contrasting views and opinions with regard to the use of the dictionary as well as the arguments of their proponents.

A section of this chapter will deal with the historical evolution of English dictionaries from the old Latin glosses to 20th century dictionaries as we know them now. In this section, we will trace the different eras of dictionaries compilations in England and the United States of America and the evolution of their content and form. The chapter also offers a wide variety of dictionary classifications proposed by different lexicographers and scholars.

Dictionary structures and entry components constitute one of the main issues confronting dictionary users. As seen 0in the previous chapter, most students lack the necessary knowledge and skills of dictionary use. Thus, this chapter will review the various parts composing a dictionary such as the components of its structures and entries so that students of the Department of English would be familiarized with0 them. Moreover, this chapter devotes a section to the comparison between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, their advantages and disadvantages, as well as the learner's dictionary and the bilingualized one.

Further, the chapter will discuss various dictionary use strategies suggested by some of the major experts to enable the students to choose the best ones to facilitate vocabulary learning. Finally, in the last section of the chapter

we will review some of the main studies carried out on dictionary use by different scholars in order to have a clear idea on the main areas of research in the field for the benefit of the students as well as the teachers of the DE.

4.1 The Dictionary and Foreign Language learning

The need for English as an international language is growing more and more and faster around the globe. For non-native English speakers, the mastery of this language is increasingly pressing to cope with the world events and meet globalization requirements. Indeed, the world is becoming as small community in terms of communication in English. Consequently, during the last decades, learning and teaching English vocabulary has been an important area of research.

Further, as of the late 1970s, researchers' interest in aspects promoting autonomous learning increased considerably. Learning English is no longer an ordinary matter that can be completed only in the classroom. English is present wherever one goes, in shopping malls, airports, TV channels, advertisements, etc. Therefore, learners are required to learn new words on a continuous basis; however, teachers are not available outside the classroom. Hence, promoting self-learning becomes a necessity.

As part of this global movement, dictionary use is perceived as one of the many tools and strategies promoting autonomous vocabulary learning. In fact, the dictionary has always been considered as a precious pedagogical tool promoting vocabulary learning, especially in foreign languages. It is also considered as an important strategy used by both EFL teachers and EFL learners in comprehension, production and learning of a foreign language. Indeed, a dictionary is the first thing an EFL student buys (Baxter, 1980).

Therefore, through time, this precious learning tool gained more and more interest of many researchers who studied the dictionary from several perspectives such as its use, history, effects on vocabulary learning and comprehension as well as its different types and their effectiveness in language learning. For instance, some researchers, such as Knight (1994) discovered that using a

dictionary while reading a text in the target language improved both the learning of vocabulary and the comprehension of the text.

However, it is not always easy for all learners to use a dictionary. In fact, many learners struggle while using dictionaries and some of them even give up reading when they are unable to find the meaning of difficult words in a dictionary. Worse than this, some learners even make mistakes while using a dictionary and miss the appropriate meaning of the words they looked up.

Thus, dictionaries provide learners with valuable information about words and their usage provided that they know how to use them. Learners using a dictionary can have the opportunity to find a variety of information covering different aspects of a word such as its spelling, pronunciation, collocations, etymology etc. However, as stated above, learners require adequate training to be able to use a dictionary in the most effective and advantageous way. If not, it would be a mere boring and fruitless activity.

Students of ENSB Department of English, whose vocabulary learning process is continuous, should be aware of all the benefits they can make from dictionary use. It is an indispensable language learning tool in their hands and they should know how to use it. They have to realize that learning English is a continuous process and thus should be done wherever they are and at any time; they should not rely only on their teachers in classrooms. Both teachers and students in the department should be aware that dictionaries are invaluable sources for learning English. For Scholfield (1997), *"the teaching and learning of English not only can be done through different grammatical studies, but also a large range of dictionaries can be used."*(Scholfield,1997:20)

4.2 Defining '*Dictionary'*

If we ask the question "*what's a dictionary*?" to any learner or teacher, he would certainly say that a dictionary is a book of words of a language or a book that lists words of a language in alphabetical order and provides the description of their meaning. A dictionary contains hundreds of thousands of words. Experts estimate that there are more than a million English words today. For instance, the

revised Oxford English Dictionary lists about 615,000 words. We can also say that a dictionary is a reference book containing words, usually arranged in alphabetical order, and it gives information about their meaning, pronunciation, etymology, and uses.

Etymologically speaking, the term *'dictionary'* originates from the Medieval Latin word "*dictionarium*" or '*dictionarius'* which properly means "a book of sayings" (Hartmann, 1992 cited in Ahmed, 2013). The word *dictionarium* also meant a *collection of words*. John Garland, an English scholar, poet and grammarian was the first to use the word '*dictionary*' as *'dictionarius'* in 1225 A.D. as it is used in present sense of '*dictionary*' (Bejoint 2000: p 6). He used it as a title for a manuscript of Latin words to be learned by memory. For medieval scholars, a dictionary was a collection of diction or phrases put together for the use of pupils studying Latin. Moreover, the dictionary in medieval times aimed at glossing texts and employing synonyms for them to help Latin learners.

Nowadays, the word "*dictionary*" refers to a book containing lists of words with information about them. According to (Crystal (1981: p108), "*a dictionary is considered as a reference book that lists words in alphabetical order*." Crystal(ibid) also differentiates between the two meanings of the word "*dictionary*": the first is the known reference book that we can buy or find in a library, and an inbuilt dictionary which every native speaker of a language carries with him as part of his mental equipment.

Different scholars have attempted to define '*dictionary*' as a book containing words of a language with their meaning in a stated order mostly in alphabetical. For instance, according to the Concise Oxford Dictionary for Current English, a dictionary is:

> a book that deals with the individual words of a language (or certain specified class of them) so as to set forth their orthography, pronunciation, signification and use, their synonyms, derivation and history, or at least some of these facts; for convenience of reference the words are arranged in some stated order, now in most languages

alphabetical, and in larger dictionaries the information given is illustrated by quotations from literature.

Zgusta (1971) also defines dictionary in his Manual of Lexicography as follows:

"*A dictionary is a systematically arranged list of socialized linguistic forms compiled from the speech- habits of a given speech community and* commented on by the author *in such a way that the qualified reader understands the meaning of each separate form and is informed of the relevant facts concerning the function of that form in its community* ".(Zgusta,1971:197)

Moreover, the online *dictionary.reference.com* defines the dictionary as:

a book, optical disc, mobile device, or online lexical resource (such as Dictionary.com) containing a selection of the words of a language, giving information about their meanings, pronunciations, etymologies, inflected forms, derived forms, etc., expressed in either the same or another language; lexicon; glossary. Print dictionaries of various sizes, ranging from small pocket dictionaries to multivolume books, usually sort entries alphabetically, as do typical CD or DVD dictionary applications, allowing one to browse through the terms in sequence.

According to the online Encyclopedia Britannica, the word '*dictionary*' is a reference book that lists words in order—usually, for Western languages, alphabetical—and gives their meanings. In addition to its basic function of defining words, a dictionary may provide information about their pronunciation, grammatical forms and functions, etymologies, syntactic peculiarities, variant spellings, and antonyms. A dictionary may also provide quotations illustrating a

word's use, and these may be dated to show the earliest known uses of the word in specified senses.

Further, dictionaries are reference works designed to provide lexically relevant information for the arranged lexical units of a language. It can include all or some of the information in its microstructure like spelling, pronunciation, morphology, grammar, etymology, meaning, connotation, definition, domain etc. in one or more languages. Dictionaries can also refer to books giving information on particular subjects or on a particular class of words, sciences, names, or facts, usually arranged alphabetically such as: biographical dictionaries; dictionaries of medical sciences or of mathematics, etc.

Therefore, based on the above definitions, we can say that a dictionary is a book containing "*all*" the words of a language and providing various valuable details on them such as: etymology, pronunciation, meaning, synonyms, opposites, collocation, etc. Dictionaries are also characterized by their changing nature; they grow up through time as new words come to existence in language through borrowing, science, technology and so on.

4.3 On the utility of the Dictionary

The dictionary is an important and indispensable language learning tool. Thornbury (2008) endorsed that the dictionary is unequalled in that it is a source of words and of information about words. It can be used for different purposes such as meaning, phonetic, orthography, grammar or usage. Dictionaries are regarded by many as the repository of final linguistic authority (Wright, 2001). More than this, a dictionary is a valuable source of information about life and about different societies. For example, a learner can look up for the meaning of the word *Halloween* in a dictionary; he will find the meaning of the word, its history, celebration date, communities celebrating it and so on.

Another benefit of dictionary use is incidental vocabulary learning. Research has shown that students learn many words accidentally while looking up other words in the dictionary. Hong (2010) claimed that incidental vocabulary learning was regarded as an integral part of L2 vocabulary learning because it

includes three vocabulary learning strategies – glossing, guessing from context and using a dictionary. This learning can happen while students review the different meanings of a word on one hand and when they go through the different sentences which, as we stated before, use examples from real life and native English-speaking society on the other hand.

Moreover, the dictionary use plays a significant role in building the student's knowledge in terms of formal and informal language and provides the student with an invaluable opportunity to learn refined vocabulary.

The dictionary plays a significant role in preserving the history, the culture as well as the traditions of society. According to Bejoint (2000), it is regarded as "*thesaurus of all the collective knowledge of the society*" (Bejoint,2000:115). Indeed, it offers explanations of different events that different societies lived. For instance, if a learner meets the word *Enlightenment*, he can easily find its meaning and what it refers to in time within the society where this concept appeared. It even gives its history and evolution in meaning.

Unlike the teacher, a unique and significant feature of the dictionary is that EFL students can always have it with them wherever they go and use it in any given situation. They can carry a pocket dictionary in the train, while waiting for the bus, while traveling abroad and access the meaning of any word at any time.

Based on the works of Nation (2006) and Harvey &Yuill (1997) we can sum-up the purposes of dictionary use in the following points:

1. confirm the meaning and see example sentences.

2. check spelling, inflection, and derived form.

3. find out about grammar of the word and check grammatical correctness.

4. consider pronunciation.

5. find collocation and expression.

6. check etymology and word parts.

7. confirm guessing from context.

8. check the constraints or register of the word.

9. look for related word.

10. look up frequency information.

Nation (2008) points out that the dictionary can help the learners in three major ways:

> 1) They can help learners understand words that they meet in reading and listening.
>
> 2) They can help learners find words that they need for speaking and writing.
>
> 3) They can help learners remember words.

In addition, he also suggested that a good dictionary should contain:

- plenty of words
- clear understandable definitions
- many example-sentences
- information about grammar and collocations of the word
- the pronunciation of the word
- the spelling of inflected and derived forms
- information about constraints on the use of the word
- frequency information
- information about related words and word parts

From the above, we can gather that the dictionary should be regarded as a valuable pedagogical tool that plays a significant role in learning a foreign language. Therefore, students should learn how to use and take advantage of this tool in order to gain EFL proficiency.

4.4 Arguments against the dictionary

In spite of its utility, the dictionary is not seen by all teachers and researchers as a perfect tool of learning language. In fact, many EFL teachers are against the use of dictionaries, both monolingual and bilingual, because they think that the dictionary cannot help their students understand vocabulary in context. They consider dictionary use as detrimental to vocabulary learning process because of the fact that it makes the learner dependent on the dictionary.

Furthermore, they think that students who rely on the dictionary do not develop other strategies and techniques such as guessing from context to understand new words. For them, using the dictionary also develops a lack of self-confidence and autonomy; the more students use the dictionary, the more they become dictionary-addict and refer to it for any word without using any other comprehension strategy.

Another argument against dictionary use is that when a learner misuses the dictionary, he will waste time and resources which is most of the time due to the fact that he ignores the conventions, strategies and the methods of using the dictionary. In many cases, it happened to teachers to see their students struggling with the dictionary. Some learners have difficulty even to choose the appropriate entry and thus make mistakes when looking up for the information in the dictionary by mixing the parts of speech. In doing so, they cannot get the relevant information; thus, they end up with the wrong one. This problem is due most of the time to the fact that dictionary user probably paid attention to only certain parts of the definition (Nesi&Meara, 1994) instead of reading all the definitions to get the appropriate and required meaning based on the context of the word he is looking for. Therefore, plainly, the reason behind this misuse is the lack of dictionary skills and not the dictionary itself.

Furthermore, for some EFL teachers, EFL students should be discouraged from using dictionaries because they think that extensive dictionary consulting can lead to word for word reading (Chin, 1999, p. 3) and this of course can mislead students in their understanding. Another argument used by the dictionary opponents is that dictionary consultations interrupt the reading process and thus results in wasting time and efforts to restart and recover the meaning.

4.5 Historical review of Lexicography

The history of English lexicography goes back to the 13th century and dictionary compilation and publication went through different stages and had various purposes. In fact, the word *'dictionary'* was first used as '*Dictionarius'* in

this sense in the 13th century by an English man named John Garland. The first book published under the English title Dictionary was *Latin-English Dictionary* by Sir Thomas Elyot in 1538. The signification of a *'dictionary'* for a medieval scholar was a set or a collection of diction or phrases put together for the use of pupils studying Latin. One of the main purposes of the dictionary in medieval times was glossing- making marginal or interlinear explanation notes- texts and employing synonyms for them.

The first lexicographers in Britain and in other European countries such as France, Germany, Spain or Italy apparently were monks, men who lived in religious brotherhoods. These monks played an important role in the beginnings of dictionary making. In fact, before the printing press was invented, they worked in church libraries making notes in the margins of their hand-lettered books which were written in Latin, the language used in the Roman Catholic Church and in universities. Thus, the monks took the responsibility to gloss the different Latin words to make their understanding easy for other monks and Latin learners. At that time the common people; such as, farmers, tradesmen or children didn't have books of their own and education was limited to very few people.

Moreover, the early *dictionarum* was written in Latin and intended to the teacher's work in teaching Latin and contained no English words except for a few interlined or marginal glosses. The glosses were a kind of translation of single Latin words which learners were supposed to learn by heart. Latin was the essential element in all these compilations, either as 'source' or 'target' language. Further, *dictionarum* didn't obey any alphabetical order but contained words grouped according to the different subjects.

As of the 15th century, dictionaries started including English words, but still to serve in the study of Latin, as in the case of *Promptorium Parvulorum, sive Clericorum,* (Storehouse for the Little Ones or Storeroom, or Repository, for Children and Clerics.) of Geoffrey the Grammarian. This dictionary was printed in 1499 and contained about 12,000 entries with their Latin equivalents.

Although the word *dictionarius* was applied as early as 1225, as mentioned above, to mean a list of Latin words, Sir Thomas Elyot was the first

scholar to compile a dictionary in 1538 and adopt the word '*dictionary*' in his title, *Latin-English Dictionary*. In 1552, Richard Huloet marked the birth of the first English dictionary by publishing his *Abecedarium Anglico-Latinum*. In this book, Richard Huloet started each entry by an English word, followed by its explanation or definition in English and then the Latin equivalent or translation. Because of this order in the design of entries this book is regarded as the first real English dictionary. The book contained around 26,000 entries but it was very expensive to the poor to afford it. It is worth also to mention that in those days, dictionary compilers were mostly interested in including hard words only in their books.

There were many other dictionaries such as John Withals's*Shorte Dictionarie for Yonge Begynners* of 1553, for instance, a popular English-Latin work of the sixteenth century and Henry Cockeram's *The English Dictionarie* printed in 1623, in which there were separate parts devoted to both difficult and ordinary words. The ordinary words were explained by their hard equivalents.

The developments in arts, medicine, and science during the 16th century led to the appearance of a vast number of new words in the English language. Further the establishment of the English printing press was a significant event in the Renaissance period with huge ramifications on Early Modern English. This made the printing of the Bible as well as other valuable manuscripts permanent and books were made available to more people; thus, more people were offered the opportunity to develop the ability to read at a time when literacy rates were very low. During that period, many foreign words were being added to English and this led scholars such as Thomas Elyot, John Checke, and Thomas Wilson to argue for the English language to remain pure by using more native and simple Anglo-Saxon words and reject words of a foreign origin.

Within this movement came the first monolingual dictionary of English language, *A Table Alphabetical, Containing and Teaching the True Writing and Understanding of Hard Usual English Words, Borrowed from the Hebrew, Greek, Latin, or French & c, printed* in 1604. It was compiled by the schoolmaster Robert Cawdrey. It is also considered as the first monolingual

English learners' dictionary; a small book, considered as modest, containing about 2,500 headwords or entries each provided with a concise definition. The entries were arranged in alphabetical order and this is stressed even in the title of the book.

According to the author, this dictionary contained the definitions of the hard andusual English words, borrowed from the Hebrew, Greek, Latin, or French languages, with the interpretation thereof by plain English words. The book also included the spelling and meaning of words. Cawdrey aimed to teach the true writing and understanding of hard usual English words. By the term 'hard' he meant words of a foreign origin that were prominent in Early Modern English. These words had a bad influence on English and gained prominence over the native language. Moreover, Cawdrey's audience was specified by him as the "Ladies, Gentlewomen, and any other unskillful persons". This is because this class of society didn't have the chance to study Latin, Greek or French. Thus, he had a didactic thinking to teach them these languages and Plain English.

Just like many other lexicographers of his period or before, Cawdrey relied on the works of other compilers in completing his dictionary. As we mentioned above, the first centuries of the dictionary production were characterized by the predominance of Latin either as a source or as a target language. It's not possible to find a dictionary that doesn't contain Latin at that time.

Another feature of dictionary compilation was that lexicographers used to copy integral parts from works published before them and Cawdrey was no exception; he copied from Coote's*English Schoole-Maister (1596)* and Thomas Wilson's *Arte of Rhetoricke (1533)*. Cawdrey's dictionary strongly reflects the influence of Coote's and Thomas' dictionaries as Noyes &Starnes (1991; p18) claim that some 92% of Cawdrey's words and definitions derive from Coote's and Thomas' works. Cawdrey did indeed borrow many definitions from Coote's, but he often enhanced and expanded the information through his own means (Noyes &Starnes,0 1991:15).

All in all, Cawdrey's dictionary was an important work and a landmark of English lexicography. It's a book that paved the way to more interesting lexicography works that followed after the 16th century.

From the above, it becomes clear that until the 17th century, the main concern of dictionaries was only explaining Latin words and English hard words. It is only in second half of the 17th century that the idea of covering the entire English vocabulary came to existence. Therefore, in 1665 a Committee of the Royal Society set up for improving the English language considered a proposal from the diarist John Evelyn for a Lexicon or Collection of all the pure English Words by themselves, to be gathered in several dictionaries, all to be compiled from actual usage (Riddell 1979).

In 1702, John Kersey published his '*A New English Dictionary*' where he attempted to cover in a systematic way all the English words. However, the book didn't cover anglicized words and specialist terms. Unlike the previous works which targeted only learned people, this dictionary was intended to young beginners and unlearned persons. This characteristic is seen as a novelty in comparison with previous dictionaries.

A few years later, Nathan Bailey published his *Universal Etymological English Dictionary* in 1721. The aim of this dictionary was broader than its predecessors; In fact, it aimed at including all words on one hand and adding explanations regarding derivation on the other. Further, the *Universal Etymological English Dictionary* included dialect words and proverbs. It is the first dictionary to mark stress position.

By the mid-18th century, the literate society felt the need for normative dictionaries. The objective now is to compile dictionaries which preserve the English language by providing examples from the best English authors and present models of pure English language for speech and writing. Thus, in 1747, Dr. Samuel Johnson started the dictionary project after Lord Philip Chesterfield had negotiated with him to write a new dictionary that could be used by all of the people, a dictionary that could serve as a model of pure English. Finally, Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language* was published in 1755. One third

of all quotations came from four authors: Shakespeare, Dryden, Milton and Addison (Osselton 1983). Johnson inserted some quotations from Bailey's Dictionary whenever no quotation is available from his four authors.

Johnson, extremely confident of his literary and linguistic knowledge, committed to compile the dictionary in three years; however, it took him eight years to complete his outstanding work. To complete his book, he read widely in the literature up to his time and gathered the central word-stock of the English language and he was assisted by six amanuenses to copy the quotations. Bailey's *Dictionarium Britannicum* which was published in 1730 is considered as the basis of Johnson's dictionary. On the other hand, after eight years of hard work, Johnson realized that it was not possible to attain the stabilization of the language. Finally, we can say that Johnson's dictionary is a landmark in the history of dictionary making that set basic guides for the craft of dictionary making and many of the principles he established in his book were followed by lexicographers for the next two centuries.

There were many dictionary publications after Johnson's dictionary; however, the major concern after Johnson was to produce a thorough work that would be based on historical fullness. Charles Richardson published *the New Dictionary of the English Language in 1837*. This dictionary is also considered as a significant work in foreshadowing the large-scale gathering of quotations that was the essential groundwork to the compilation of the Oxford English Dictionary.

The last quarter of the 19th century marked the beginning of the Golden Age of English lexicography when the English Philological Society started work on compiling The Oxford English Dictionary (OED), which was originally named New English Dictionary on Historical Principles (NED). It is still referred to as either OED or NED. The objective of OED was and still is to trace the development of English words from their form in Old English, and to contain the origin and successive changes of form and meaning of every English word by means of citations arranged in chronological order as well as the record of all

words that had been in the language since the middle of the twelfth century in order to provide a full perspective of their changing forms and meanings.

Of course, this huge work had to be achieved by means of quotations. This goal was finally achieved by one of the most brilliant and talented lexicographers in the history of England, James Murray. The latter succeeded to publish *The Oxford English Dictionary*. The OED was very rich of illustrations from great English language sources such as Shakespeare's works, G.Chaucer, George Eliot's and the Bible. The completion of the work required more than 75 years. The OED remains a landmark in the history of Dictionary making in England and in the world and as a monument to Victorian scholarship.

The First part of the OED appeared in 1884 and the last followed in 1928. This colossal work was published in twelve volumes and in order to hold new words a three volume Supplement was issued in 1933. During the seventies, these volumes were revised. Nearly all the material of the original Supplement was retained and a large body of the most recent accessions to the English language added. In 1911 the Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English was first published. It is not a historical dictionary but one of current usage. Another shorter form of the OED is The Pocket Oxford Dictionary. The latest edition of OED was undertaken in 1905 and a new enlarged version was issued in 22 volumes 1994.

After the publications of the OED, other important dictionaries appeared in England and in America. For instance, Joseph Wright's "English Dialect Dictionary" which was the result of a thorough study of English dialects. It's worth to note here that the English Dialect Society was founded in 1873 by W.W. Skeat who published the "Etymological English Dictionary". The Society issued 80 publications. Furthermore, dialects were very importance for the historical study of the English language.

By the end of the 18th century, the population of the English-speaking people living in the United States became very important. Huge efforts were made to make education affordable for the population. Among the demands of education in the US at that time was to design a dictionary for the primary

grades. Samuel Johnson, a well-known school master from Connecticut published the first dictionary in 1798 entitled A School Dictionary. This was followed by the publication of another dictionary by Caleb Alexander of Massachusetts in 1800, *The Columbian Dictionary.* In this dictionary, Alexander inserted some new American words.

However, the most important figure and true father of American Dictionary-making craft is Noah Webster,a brilliant student of Yale College who published in 1783 Blue-Back Speller, America's first speller, grammar, and reader. Noah Webster was well known for his spelling books and political essays. He heralded a program of compiling three different dictionaries in which he inserted Americanisms or American words that didn't exist in English before. Therefore, he *published A Dictionary of the American Language in 1800* and in 1806 he published *Compendious,* a small dictionary for schools.Finally, in 1828, he published his most important dictionary, *An American Dictionary of the English Language.* This book came in two thick volumes. Webster is considered as a great figure of lexicography both in the US and in England.

Based on the above, we can say that English dictionary compilation has more than a four-hundred-year-long history. It went through different periods; each period brought new advancements in dictionary art and compilation. According to Lin and Liu (2006), the history of English dictionaries can be divided into five periods:

> 1) The first period: from the Middle Ages to the end of the 16th century. It is a period of glossary-making.
>
> 2) The second period: the beginning of the 17th century. It is a period of glossary dealing with hard words.
>
> 3) The third period: from the middle 17th century to the end of the century. It is a period when etymology of words is added to the meaning.
>
> 4) The fourth period: the whole 18th century. It is a period of now called English dictionaries when dictionaries had established the standards of spelling, meaning and usage of English words.

5) The fifth period: from the 19th century to the 20th century. It is a period when English dictionaries saw much improvement and maturity.

Today, English pedagogical lexicography has undergone a considerable change. It is now a flourishing field that has gathered momentum in the last three decades for many reasons, among these, according to many researchers (Cowie 1999, Nation 2001) the renewed interest in the nature of the lexicon and vocabulary acquisition features invariably linked to dictionaries. Further, simultaneously with the interest in vocabulary, there has been a huge advance in compilation and analysis of written and spoken corpora through the tools of computational linguistics which has eased the tools of traditional lexicographers and enabled them to produce dictionaries based on new insights. All this resulted in an explosion in dictionary-making and publishing industry, mainly of the British type.

Another key reason as has been convincingly demonstrated by Crystal (1997) is that English has become a truly international language, and that in our interdependent, shrinking, global village there is no escaping English as being the lingua-franca of written and oral communication. Therefore, everyone is trying to learn English and, obviously, EFL dictionaries come in the picture, as they provide the most explicit description of the meaning and use of words of English.

Moreover, during the last four decades, two major factors played a key role in developing lexicography in Europe and beyond: the first factor is the computer which offered great possibilities for the electronic storage and retrieval of massive amounts of language data. The second key element is the theoretical lexicography, or dictionary research rapid development as an academic discipline with its own specialist periodicals and monograph series, conferences, and professional associations, as well as its postgraduate courses and degree or diploma programs.

According to Cowie (1999), "*since the early 1980s, there has been a rapid development of a new field of dictionary-related research which focuses on*

*dictionary users and uses" (*Cowie,1999:*176). Many researchers (Cowie 1999; Tono 2001) have produced valuable references in the field.

As stated in the first sections of this study, due to the place of English as the leading language of international communication and due to the key roles of Britain and the United States of America in world politics and commerce, the production of new dictionaries in Britain as well as in the USA has seen an explosion in the last decades. Moreover, the economic, military, cultural and political business of Britain and the USA overseas created a merciless competition between big dictionary compilers and publishers.

4.6 Monolingual or Bilingual Dictionaries?

One of the main issues facing foreign language learners is the choice of the dictionary, that is to say monolingual or bilingual. There is no type of dictionary better than another, all dictionaries respond to specific needs of specific users; thus, they are all good and important. Both bilingual and monolingual dictionaries have their unique strengths and weaknesses for developing vocabulary knowledge. However, it is always useful to underline some of the general ideas about monolingual and bilingual dictionaries.

In their language activities, learners use various types of dictionaries, monolingual and bilingual; however, it appears that the bilingual dictionary is often the first dictionary that a foreign language learner resorts to in order to find solutions to his/her learning difficulties. This is true especially in the first stages of foreign language learning.

Various studies (Bejoint (2000) conducted on both types showed that both are appropriate tools, depending on the target user groups for whom the dictionaries are intended. According to Hunt and Beglar, (2005), apart from short and easy-to-understand definitions they provide, the strengths of bilingual dictionaries are:

> a) they can improve the reading comprehension of lower proficiency L2 learners;

b) they assist vocabulary learning at all levels of proficiency;

c) they encourage translation, and

d) they foster one-to-one precise correspondence at word level between two languages.

Functionally, monolingual dictionaries '*define'* lexical items of the target language most typically by way of *paraphrase*, whereas the primary function of the bilinguals is to serve as an aid to the translation. Moreover, bilinguals only provide translations; the users constantly switch from the mother tongue to the foreign language, thus furthering their beliefs that languages are simply nomenclatures and hiding meaning discriminations. For Zgusta (1971), bilingual dictionaries also create a translation barrier by concentrating on isolated words and internalizing L2 items against the social and cultural L1 items; thus, veiling the anamorphic nature of language.

Thanks to its reliance on target language and capacity for paraphrases of many meanings, the monolingual dictionary is a wealth of semantic, grammatical and stylistic information that encourages production language activities. Moreover, monolingual dictionaries help students think in the target language and get out of the translation rut, so promoting their confidence in dealing with another language and hence are led to formulate questions and look for answers on their own. Hartmann (1992) considers the very fact of using a monolingual dictionary as a useful search experience that might yield more learning fruit than the student had originally intended. The monolingual dictionary is a quarry of all sorts of information on the word in all aspects, therefore, a user who is looking for specific information, might certainly access other precious information that he didn't target originally.

Therefore, monolingual dictionaries can be useful to build and elaborate learner's vocabulary knowledge using up-to-date and reliable sentence examples drawn from corpus data rich in information relating to meaning and grammar. The entries of monolingual dictionaries can also provide the reader with more

detailed and precise information about idiomatic usage, common collocations and connotations from the culture of the language.

Finally, we can say that to argue for strictly one type of dictionaries is a major misjudgment given that both have their strengths and weaknesses, though it would seem that the natural progression is from a bilingual to a monolingual which is unquestionably richer in information. We can say that each type is used by the learner in performing different activities at different stages and that both types are not mutually exclusive, as the main purpose is the same, to disambiguate meaning.

4.8 The Dictionary as a Strategy

Using a dictionary is a complex process that requires various mental efforts and an in-depth investigation from various perspectives. Users should be well trained in dictionary usage so that the process of looking up words in the dictionary wouldn't be a chore for them. To do so, learners need to be aware of the different necessary skills and strategies to use the dictionary. In the late decades, specialists have been focusing their efforts on this major aspect of EFL learning and teaching; this gave birth, among other things, to a new area of knowledge which is coined as applied lexicography.

Applied lexicography comprises different topics including the study of the dictionary and its use. As part of this field we have a variety of research topics such as aspects and ways or strategies of dictionary use, purposes of dictionary use and users' attitudes towards the dictionary as well as the teaching of dictionary use. In recent decades, there has been an increasing interest of many scholars (Schofield 1982; Nation 1990; Wingate, 2004) in investigating the different strategies used by dictionary users in the look-up process. Moreover, researchers investigated and conceptualized how students use dictionaries for the two functions of decoding and encoding.

Moreover, the nature of the text and language used in the text has an impact on the choice of the dictionary strategy. Teachers can always suggest

strategies but the role of the context as well as the learners' preferences play a key role in the consultation.

Another key point having a great impact on dictionary consultation success is the skills instruction. It is necessary for teachers to instruct effective strategies of using the dictionary. In fact, learners need to learn the different strategies and how to use them in reading and in writing. Wingate (2004) states that "...*learners do not just know the necessary strategies by themselves but need instruction and repeated practice to acquire them...*"(Wingate, 2004: 11)

Language learners should be able to discover the most effective strategies for themselves with dictionary-use skills instruction and practice and should also understand and be aware of the importance of dictionary strategies. The learners' positive view of dictionary use and good dictionary-use skills might enhance their dictionary use in their language learning.

4.8Types of dictionaries

Dictionary typology is one of the many important aspects of the world of dictionaries. The classification obeys several criteria including, without being limited to, the nature of the lexical entry as well as the prospective user of the dictionary. A main criterion governing the classification of dictionaries is the prospective user. This has to do with the nature of the user. The dictionary maker bears in mind whether his dictionary is meant for the general reader to find out general linguistic information or for special users to know some special aspects of the lexical unit such as, pronunciation, register, etymology etc.

Dictionary makers also pay attention to the nature of the entries - whether lexical only or also encyclopedic; the degree of concentration on strictly lexical data - and the density of the entries - whether the word list is general or restricted and special. Whether or not, it extends to regional and social dialects, jargons, slangs and archaisms. Further, the arrangement of entries in alphabetical, semantic or causal arrangement is a major criterion in classifying dictionaries.

The number of languages involved in a dictionary – monolingual, bilingual, etc. - is also a major factor to account for in classifying dictionaries.

Moreover, classifying dictionaries implies the necessity of differentiating between what is called " *dictionary proper*" and "*dictionary- like works*". According to Zgusta (1971), there are ̋linguistic̋ and "non-linguistic" dictionaries. Linguistic dictionaries are concerned with words or lexical units of languages and they are called "word books" while non-linguistic dictionaries are concerned with realia or denotata (things) and they are called encyclopedias, or "thing books." Thus, non-linguistic dictionaries are similar to dictionaries only in their alphabetical order of words denoting the realia.

Many scholars (Malkiel 1980; Zgusta 1971; Svensen 1993;) attempted to classify the different types of dictionaries. As stated above, these classifications were based on various approaches. The main classification parameters are range, perspective and presentation, external or internal features or simply on the number of the languages dealt with. In this section we will review some of the main typologies.

The main aim of such typologies is to provide prospective dictionary users with a classification of existing dictionaries based on a set of distinctive features that provide a systematic overview of the various categories and subcategories of dictionaries that are distinguishe dandindicate what the most distinctive feature(s) of each main category and each subcategory is/are.

Moreover, according to Hartman (1998), practical lexicographic work involves several activities, and the compilation of really crafted dictionaries requires careful consideration of all or some of the following aspects:

- Profiling the intended users (i.e. linguistic and non-linguistic competences) and identifying their needs,
- Defining the communicative and cognitive functions of the dictionary,
- Selecting and organizing the components of the dictionary,

- Choosing the appropriate structures for presenting the data in the dictionary (i.e. frame structure, distribution structure, macro-structure, micro-structure and cross-reference structure),
- Selecting words and affixes for systematization as entries,
- Selecting collocations, phrases and examples,
- Choosing lemma forms for each word or part of word to be lemmatized,
- Defining words,
- Organizing definitions,
- Specifying pronunciations of words,
- Labeling definitions and pronunciations for register and dialect, where appropriate.

(Hartman,1998: 0000029)

Therefore, we have selected some of the main typologies propose by a number of researchers in the field.

One of the most important dictionary typologies is the one proposed by Malkiel (1962). In *A Typological Classification of Dictionaries on the Basis of Distinctive Features (1962)* Malkiel proposed a typology based on three main features:

I- range,

II- perspective and

III-presentation.

I-   **Classification by range**

Malkiel (1962) classified dictionaries based on:

(a) the density of articles, which may be measured by the breadth of coverage(how much of the total lexicon of the language is covered) and by the depth of coverage (how many senses are listed under each lemma; are contextual connotations and idioms covered);

(b) the number of languages involved, according to which there are mono, bi-,tri-, quadri- and pluri- or multilingual dictionaries; and

(c) the extent of concentration on lexical data. Malkiel distinguishes encyclopaedic data by the inclusion of proper names and by a prodigality of comments, which are more than a sober definition needs. Range distinguishes between dictionaries according to the number of lemmas, the number of languages used and the percentage of exclusively linguistic information.

II-Classification by perspective

This type of classification is based on:

(a) the fundamental dimension: the dictionary is either synchronic or diachronic;

(b) three contrasting patterns of arrangements: alphabetic, semantic or casual (non-systematic); and

(c) three contrasting levels of tone: the tone of the dictionary may be detached (reporting facts objectively), prescriptive (normative and didactic) or facetious

The perspective parameter differentiates between historical dictionaries and synchronic dictionaries. Historical dictionaries describe the evolution of the language over a certain period of time: they contain obsolete words and archaic words, as well as information on the history of every lemma. Synchronic dictionaries only describe the language as it is used at a given period, usually the present. Malkiel also distinguishes between prescriptive and descriptive dictionaries. For him a dictionary can be detached, prescriptive, or facetious, though facetiousness is hardly compatible with modern lexicography.

II- **Classification by presentation**

Here dictionaries are classified in the light of their:

(a) definitions,

(b) exemplifications,

(c) graphic illustrations (including maps), and

(d) special features (localization in territorial terms on the social scale).

In Malkiel's typology, presentation is a measure of the precision of the definitions, the nature of the examples, the presence of the pictures and certain pieces of information, such as phonetic transcription and usage labels. Many other authors have presented a dictionary typology. Some have based them on the type of linguistic approach used by the lexicographer.

Another main important dictionary classification is the one proposed by (Scherba, 1940cited in Al-Kasimi, 1977:30). Scherba, classified dictionaries based on the structural characteristics of possible dictionary types. He used a series of six contrasts between these types:

(1) A normative dictionary, which dictates norms vs. a reference dictionary which adopts a descriptive approach.

(2) An encyclopaedia vs. a dictionary; the contrast here is based on the function of proper names in a language, which should not be excluded from the dictionary because they are part of the language.

(3) An ordinary dictionary (such as a defining dictionary or translating dictionary) vs. a general concordance in which all the words are listed along with all the quotations that can be found in texts, as is the case in a concordance of a dead language.

(4) A dictionary (such as a defining dictionary or a translating dictionary) vs. an 'ideological' dictionary, which groups ideas or subjects (such as Roget's Thesaurus).

(5) A defining dictionary (e.g. monolingual dictionary) vs. a translating dictionary such as bilingual or multilingual dictionary)

(6) An historical dictionary vs. a non-historical dictionary.

For him, the purpose of a historical dictionary isto give all the meanings of all the words that belong, and have belonged, to a given national language during all of its existence. He points out that a historical dictionary would be an historical one in the true sense of the word if it gave the history of all words during a given period … which would show not only the birth of new words and new meanings, but also their gradual disappearance and their change.

Further, (Guilbert, 1969 cited in Bejoint, 2000: p35) also proposed a typology in which he distinguishes five types of dictionaries:

- the encyclopaedia,
- the scientific and technical dictionary,
- the 'linguistic' andencyclopaedic dictionary,
- the Dictionnaires de langue (no equivalent in English)and
- the linguistic-type dictionary.

Likewise, Al-Kasimi (1977) proposed his typology of bilingual dictionaries. To him, the new typology serves as an aid to lexicographers in order to help them understand linguistic theoretical solutions. It is also meant to guide the user in choosing and selecting the dictionary that satisfies his/her needs. Al-Kasimi presents in his typology of bilingual dictionaries three criteria: source, scope and purpose.

His scope is linguists' views on lexicography and their criticisms of the existing dictionaries. Then the discussion is limited to bilingual dictionaries and finally the purpose is "to assist the lexicographer in digesting linguistic theories to produce better bilingual dictionaries". This classification is based on seven contrasts:

- Dictionaries for the speakers of the source language vs. dictionaries for the speakers of the target language.
- Dictionaries of the literary language vs. dictionaries of the spoken language.
- Dictionaries for production vs. dictionaries for comprehension.
- Dictionaries for human users vs. dictionaries for machine translation.
- Historical dictionaries vs. descriptive dictionaries.
- Lexical dictionaries vs. encyclopaedic dictionaries.
- General dictionaries vs. special dictionaries.

Another important classification is the one proposed by (Li and Zhon, 2001 cited in Jenpattarakul,2012) in which they classified dictionaries in a different way as follows:

1. Contents: philological dictionary, encyclopedic dictionary, and special dictionary.

2. Scope of words collected and the information of the vocabulary provided: general- purposes dictionary and specialized dictionary.

3. Language involved: monolingual dictionary, bilingual dictionary, and multi-lingual dictionary.

4. History periods involved: diachronic dictionary and synchronic dictionary.

5. Size: unabridged dictionary, desk dictionary, and pocket dictionary.

6. Service objects: for foreigners and for natives.

7. Arrangement of entries: systematic dictionary and alphabetical dictionary.

8. Medium: paper dictionary and electronic dictionary.

Furthermore, the electronic dictionary can be divided intothree kinds: pocket dictionary, CD-ROM dictionary, and online dictionary. The paper dictionary and electronic dictionary(pocket dictionary) are most commonly used by the students in the classroom.

Landau (1984) proposed a more elaborate classification based on 11 criteria,

(1) the languages covered;

(2) the manner of financing;

(3) the age of users;

(4) size;

(5) the scope in terms of subject range;

(6) the scope in terms of lexical coverage;

(7) the complexity of the lemma;

(8) the primary language of the market;

(9) the period of time covered;

(10) the linguistic approach; and

(11) means of access.

Zgusta, in his Manual of Lexicography (1971), distinguished the most important types of dictionaries, using a handful of parameters, such as linguistic and encyclopedic data (e.g., linguistic versus encyclopedic dictionaries); the time span (e.g., synchronic versus diachronic dictionaries); the degree of completeness (e.g., general versus restricted dictionaries); the number of languages represented (e.g., monolingual versus bilingual dictionaries); dictionary aims; and dictionary size (big, medium and small dictionaries).

Thus, according to Zgusta(1971; pp198-213),dictionary classification gives the following types:

1) Encyclopedic dictionaries

2) Linguistic dictionaries

a) Diachronic dictionaries

b) Synchronic dictionaries

c) Restricted dictionaries

3) General dictionaries

a) Standard-descriptive dictionaries

b) Over-all-descriptive dictionaries

4) Monolingual dictionaries

5) Bilingual dictionaries

6) Pedagogical dictionaries

a) Prescriptive/prohibitive

b) Orthographical and orthoepical dictionaries

7) Reverse dictionaries

8) Glossaries

Devapala (2004) suggests a new classification based on contrast between features, i.e. "internal features" and "external features."

I- Internal features:

The internal features classification includes the following types of dictionaries:

1- Paradigmatic versus syntagmatic dictionaries

2- Form meaning complex versus Either form or meaning

3- Time particular, point of time versus Passage of Time

4- Area of vocabulary covered which comprises:

- General Dictionaries

- Restricted /special dictionaries

- Variation in Language

- Text dictionaries

- Special lexical limits dictionaries

II- External Features

The external features classification includes the following types of Dictionaries:

1- Number of languages covered

2- Target group of users

3- Purpose

4- Size, and this category of dictionaries comprise:

- Comprehensive, Academic or School dictionaries

- Big or Unabridged dictionaries

- Medium

- Small

- Pocket

5- Arrangement of Entries, which includes:

- Alphabetic

- Semantic (Conceptual or Systematic)

- Arbitrary

Finally, nowadays, dictionaries can be classified into two categories: printed and electronic dictionaries. It's worth noting that computer science brought about a revolution in the field of dictionaries. Just like printed dictionaries, electronic ones also come into a variety including scientific, technical, general and specialized dictionaries. It is also worth noting that

electronic dictionaries made life easier for people as they can consult them at any time and in any place especially on their cell phones.

Based on the above, we can conclude that classifying the different types of dictionaries is a very complex and uneasy task. The developments that took place in the field of lexicography in the recent decades led to an explosion in the field of dictionaries; thus, the field witnessed the birth of numerous types of dictionaries each serving a specific need. The most important thing in all this movement is that the main purpose is that different users from different disciplines are provided with dictionaries each in his very specific field.

4.9 The structure of a Dictionary

Dictionaries have always been designed to respond to the users' needs. All dictionaries contain guidelines and directions intended to the target users. Therefore, any dictionary user should at least touch on the first pages of the dictionary to be able to use it. However, in spite of all the information provided in the front matter of the dictionary, the gap is still wide between how the lexicographers would like their dictionaries to be used and the way they are really used by the users. We can even say that sometime the user feels helpless in retrieving the information needed from the dictionary. Thus, dictionary users need to be trained to increase their competence on one hand and lexicographers need to produce dictionaries that are easier to use.

The purpose of considering the needs and skills of the users should be regarded as a crucial element to count for in producing more user-friendly dictionaries. Users who have a clear understanding of the structure of a dictionary and how it should be used will find the information rapidly and accurately.

Dictionary structure is the set of its component parts; it's the overall design of the dictionary. Three key terms are commonly used to present or describe the structure of a dictionary in meta-lexicography. These are megastructure, macrostructure and microstructure (Hartman & Gregory 1998; Bejoint 2000).

The mega-structure of a dictionary is its entire structure and it is composed of two parts: The Main body and the Outside Matter. The main body comprises the macrostructure and the microstructure. The outside matter of the dictionary is made up of two parts: the front matter and the back matter. Of course, all these dictionary components differ and vary in size from a dictionary to another based on the lexicographers' choices.

4.9.1 **Front Matter:**

The front matter of a dictionary indicates in the clearest manner what the author(s) is (are) trying to achieve. It contains most importantly a user's guide or a key to the dictionary. This key is considered as very essential to optimize the use of the dictionary, though, as we mentioned before it is often ignored by the users. Its importance lies in the fact that it explains the style, the structure and the content of the dictionary and how it should be used. The front matter of the dictionary may include some or all of the following information and directions:

- •Introduction to the dictionary outlining and the editorial principles followed in the work.
- • General information about the language
- • Production of the title page with the information regarding the editor(s), publication and publisher
- • Introduction or preface, explaining the innovations and characteristics of the edition concerned.
- • Selection of cover design
- • Table of contents.
- • Brief note on the orthography because dictionary will be a powerful influence on standardizing the orthography.
- • If it is a dialect dictionary it should contain the map of the dialect to locate the area.
- • Information about the convention made and followed in the dictionary.
- • List of abbreviations used in the compilation of the dictionary.

- Explanation of the transcription system used. The manner and method used for giving pronunciation must be introduced (Phonetic key)

4.9.2 Main Body:

The main body constitutes the middle part of the dictionary and it's made up of two structures: the macrostructure and the microstructure. The way the material is structured must be clearly indicated in the front matter by means of instructions or guidelines to help the users in the look-up process. The instruction should include an explanatory description of the microstructure and macrostructure of the dictionary.

Further, it is the responsibility of the lexicographer to decide beforehand which pieces of information will be included in the macrostructure and which piece of information should go into the microstructure. In other words, the lexicographer will decide on the information to place right within the lemma and the information he will include in the front matter or in the back matter of the dictionary.

4.9.3 Back Matter:

The back matter of a dictionary is dedicated to provide linguistic and encyclopedic information on the dictionary depending on its size and scope. Therefore, it may include some or all of the following:

- The tables for the numbers, days of the week, months of the year, seasons etc.
- List of prefixes and suffixes.
- Information regarding the system of weights and measures, military ranks, chemical elements, technical terms, legal and constitutional term etc.
- Special appendixes for special sets of words, including list of semantic domains, list of irregular words.
- Tables of proper nouns, personal names, family names, names of places.

- A comprehensive dictionary may provide the list of frequent proverbs and quotations.

- An erratum, in case some errors are detected after compiling the dictionary

- The bibliography.

- The list of previously published dictionaries, especially if it cited or incorporated them in the dictionary.

4.9.4 Macrostructure:

The term macrostructure refers to the list and organization of the lexical items entered in the entire dictionary, the lemmas or headwords. The macrostructure is an overall word list structure that allows the compiler and the user to locate information in a dictionary. It is the macrostructure that determines under which lemma the lexicographical item is to be found. The macrostructure of a dictionary includes the page layout, graphics, macro-structural word organization, the organization of the lexical entries in the body of the dictionary, that is whether the lexemes are sorted alphabetically or by concept etc.

Furthermore, to Bejoint (2000: p11), the macrostructure is an equivalent of the English word list. The dictionary entries must be arranged in a particular order and in a layout that is in accordance with the aims and usage of the dictionary. The organization of the macro-structure deals with the questions like what is the order set of a dictionary? How are the homographs arranged? What is the structure of sub entries? And how the compounds and phrases are arranged?

As we have already mentioned before, words are arranged in several ways in a dictionary and dictionaries differ greatly in their entry policies. The commonest and most frequent way of arranging entries in a dictionary is the alphabetic arrangement; they can also be arranged in a systematic order (conceptual grouping) or in some cases a combination of both.

In the macrostructure, lexicographers determine on what grounds main lemmas are distinguished from sub-lemmas, the ways they are grouped or organized in nests or niches, and whether all or some of the sub-lemmas are

supplied with a full or partial range of lexicographic information or whether they are simply listed as run-ons.

The ordering of homographic lemmas and the typography of the different types of lemma are also stated in the macrostructure. In order to allow the user find the words quickly and easily, the macro-structural criterion must be user-friendly. The headwords represent the particular selection of vocabulary items that the editor considers worth to be included based on the size, the nature and the purpose of the dictionary. They can range from reasonably comprehensive, as in large unabridged dictionaries to highly selective as in small pocket dictionaries. Therefore, the macrostructure of a dictionary exposes the organization of the dictionary and the justification of the choices of the author.

4.9.5 Microstructure:

Whereas macrostructure deals with what should be included in a dictionary as a whole, microstructure is concerned exclusively with all that has to do with the structure of the lemma itself, i.e. word organization, pronunciation transcription, and the meta-language of a dictionary. Macrostructure concerns the global organization of the dictionary and microstructure is concerned with the organization of the lemma.

The microstructure of a dictionary is the internal structure of its entries. It refers to the arrangement of the information within the lexical entry (Jackson 2002: p26). The microstructure provides "*information about the headword with comments on its formal and semantic properties (spelling, pronunciation, grammar, definition, usage, etymology)*" (Hartmann and James, 1998: p30). It is the way that the content of each entry is organized and it involves not only the order of appearance of various information categories but also their typographical form such as typeface and type size, punctuation and lexicographical symbols etc. (Svensen 1993: p7). Various information categories are arranged in a suitable manner. Zgusta (1971: p248) states that all modern dictionaries are characterized by the uniformity of the entries, both in terms of their content and their layout.

The range and the type of information given for a lexical entry vary according the type, size, purpose and user of the dictionary. Typically, under the microstructure of a lexical entry, a dictionary provides some or all of the following information: spelling, pronunciation, transliteration, tone and intonation, grammatical categories, inflections and derivations, etymology, meaning definitions, sense or different shades of meaning, record of the changes at the level of form and meaning as well, synonyms, antonyms, super-ordinate term or hyponym, phrases, supporting or related idioms and proverbs, citations, examples, different usages, semantic domain, usage levels, and pictorial information.

In the microstructure of the dictionary, users customarily find information on the form, meaning and use of the lemma. Formal information may include spelling and pronunciation, base and inflected forms and syntactic category. In the semantic information we find definitions or explanations of literal and figurative, denotative and connotative meanings in the forms of synonyms or near-synonyms, paraphrases or formulae. They are usually supplemented by paradigmatic information on lexical fields involving synonyms, antonyms, or hyponyms; by syntagmatic information on lexical collocation, grammatical colligation and complementation, and on use in idioms, proverbs, and other fixed phrases and chunks; and by pragmatic information marking on register, frequency, currency, style, status, and subject area. They may be complemented by pictorial illustrations, authentic, adapted and constructed textual examples and usage notes.

4.10 Entry Components

One of the most difficult tasks for most students is deciphering a dictionary entry. Dictionary entries can appear to be written in a different language other than the language we use. Thus, understanding and knowing how to read a dictionary entry can be of a great help for dictionary users. Moreover, students should be aware that in addition to a word's definition or meaning, they can access a wealth of information about a word's part of speech, pronunciation,

etymology, usage, etc. Thus, the purpose of this section is to familiarize the students of ENSB Department of English with the dictionary entry and its content.

In order to ensure an efficient use of the dictionary, students should be equipped with the right skills and strategies. One of the big issues confronting students while referring to a dictionary is its entries. In fact, many teachers noticed that their students were not familiar with entries and; thus, often make mistakes while looking up words in a dictionary.

In her study on international students' dictionary-using habits, Nesi (2002) concluded that some errors were caused by the learners' lack of dictionary-using skills. Likewise, other researchers who investigated dictionary users' behaviors emphasized the need to teach language learners dictionary-use skills (Atkins &Varantola, 1998; Laufer & Kimmel 1997). It is easy to assume that language learners are equipped with the necessary skills to use dictionaries if they own one as we tend to assume that a person who owns a book has all the skills needed to read. However, this might not be true in all cases. Unfortunately, dictionary-use skills, among many other language learning skills, have often been neglected in language classrooms and excluded from official curricula. In my opinion, students of the Department of English need to be familiarized with the different required skills to be able to use dictionaries without any obstacles. Deciphering the puzzle of a dictionary entry is a very complicated task for a student who has weak or no knowledge of dictionary skills.

In this section we will give a detailed presentation of how dictionary entries are made and provide examples so that students will be familiarized with them and find no issues in using them. We will present the different language aspects that a student can find while looking up a word in a dictionary.

First, as we mentioned previously, a student needs to know that dictionary entries are arranged according to the alphabetical order of the particular language. However, they can also come under other types of arrangements such as the chronological order, the classified order, the semantic or thematic order or

simply in a "mixed" arrangement in which two or more of these are combined (Hybrid). Then the next crucial step is to know what makes an entry and what type of information we can find in an entry.

- **Guide Words or Running Heads**

At the top of each page of a dictionary, we find two GUIDE WORDS or *running heads*, printed in large dark type and sometimes in bigger font size than the lemmas. The first is the same as the first word at the top of that page i.e. the first item to be explained or defined; the second one is the same as the last word on the page. Using alphabetical order, in the same page are found all the words that naturally fit between these two guide words. For example, page 506 in the Canadian Oxford Dictionary shows the guide words, "Ferdinand III" and "fertile" and also lists these words: ferment, fern bar, ferocity, and ferry.

- **Headwords**

The headwords are the words or items we look up in a dictionary page and they are printed in bold type. Usually, there are black dots included within the word:

e.g.   u·ni·ver·si·ty   u·su·al

The purpose of the black dots is to separate the syllables of the word and thus partially indicate the pronunciation of the word.

- **Syllabication**

In many dictionaries, words are divided into syllables, or sound units, often by placing a dot (•) or slash (\) between them. It is important and useful for the user to know where to split a word correctly when for instance the whole word cannot fit on a line and must be hyphenated onto the next line.

E.g.   au·to·mo·bile;   u·ni·ver·sal·i·ty

- Phonetic Symbols

The second part of the dictionary entry is the pronunciation transcription. Usually the phonetic transcription of the words come inserted within a pair of forward slashes (//) or within parenthesis. These symbols are **phonetic symbols**. They are not as mysterious as they look given that their purpose is just to show the user how to pronounce words correctly, even if he or she has never heard or

seen them before. The pronunciation will either be in the American Heritage Dictionary (AHD) form or International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) form.

Every dictionary includes a list, either at its beginning or at its end, entitled "Pronunciation Symbols" or "Pronunciation Key". The Table of Contents usually indicates where to find it. The key explains how each character is pronounced and identifies the form being used. Further, a summary of the phonetic symbols is included at the bottom of each page. Most consonants are pronounced only one way, however, there are a few exceptions and generally dictionaries provide the pronunciation of the most common exceptions.

- **Accent Marks**

If we look carefully at the phonetic symbols used with any word, we will notice the presence of the mark (´) on one of the word's syllables**.** This symbol is called an **accent mark** and it indicates the necessity to put a little more stress on the syllable that follows the accent mark than on the other syllables.

E.g. /kənˈtɛmpəˌrɛri/

The stress (the little effort) in this example should be put on the second syllable.

- **Parts of Speech**

Dictionaries provide users with precious information about a word with regard to its **parts of speech**. There are 8 parts of speech: adjective, adverb, conjunction, interjection, noun, preposition, pronoun, and verb. These are abbreviated as follows:

Adjective	*adj.*
Adverb	*adv.*
Conjunction	*conj.*
Interjection	*injer.*
Noun	*n.*
Preposition	*prep.*
Pronoun	*pron.*
Verb	*v.*

Table 6: Parts of speech

If the word is the plural form of a singular word, the abbreviation *pl.* will be included before the part of speech abbreviation (i.e. *pl. n.*).

In the definition, words are identified first as an *n.*, meaning *noun*.

It is important for users to be aware of the meaning and the importance of the short forms printed in *italics* to be able to use the dictionary. Some words like "*light*" can be used in several different places in a sentence.

- *The **light** is not bright enough. (noun-naming a thing)*
- *I always **light** the oil lamp when power goes off. (verb-shows an action)*
- *Mary usually decorates in a **light**, airy style. (adjective- describes something)*

Sometimes the word is followed by the letters "*n&v*". This means that the word can be used as a noun, a word that names a person, place, or thing, or it can be used as a verb describe an action.

E.g. the word *Contact* can be:

- A *noun* meaning: the act or state of touching
- A *verb* meaning: to communicate with

- **Special forms**

In English, some words are inflected. When a word has some special forms, the latter are listed after the part of speech. For example, the plural of "ox", "tomato", or "formula" or the past tense of verbs such as "rise", or "spell".

Moreover, if a word has more than one acceptable spelling, it is also listed in the entry under special forms and usually the preferred spelling is given first.

- **Conjugation**

When the word is a verb, the conjugation (the inflectional endings identify the tense) is included. Example: The inflectional endings of ***walk*** are included in bold: ***-ked***, ***-king***. The hyphen indicates these are ending variations.

- **Definitions**

Definitions are probably the most important part of the entry as it is the part that attracts most users to a dictionary in the first place. Many words have

several or multiple meanings, and most dictionaries list the oldest meaning first. Multiple definitions are numbered. If the word is more than one part of speech, for example a noun and a verb, the definitions are grouped according to the part of speech they apply to. Definitions tend to be ordered according to their use or prevalence.

The first symbol in this part of the entry is "*n*". This means that the first definition shows how the word is used to name a person, place or thing (noun):

The next symbol (*v)* means that the definitions which follow show how to use the word to talk about an action (verb). The abbreviation *tr.* means that the verb must be followed by a noun. The abbreviation *"intr''* means that the verb should not be followed by a noun.

- The old man has hidden *the money* behind the barn for weeks.(*tr*)
- The old man has been *hiding* behind the barn since lunch. (*intr*)

- **Illustrative quotations**

As we have already mentioned in the dictionary history section, quotations are very important in dictionaries. Thus, each entry includes quotations from a wide range of sources in order to illustrate the uses being defined. Generally, the first quotation of the illustrative quotations is always the earliest example that was available to editors when the entry was prepared. An entry may contain as many as possible quotations for the sake of illustrating the meaning of the word. The quotations are chosen on the basis of the period of time over which the meaning is evidenced (and if relevant when it fell out of use), the geographical spread of the term, the types of sources (genre, etc.) in which it occurs and the typical registers of use. It is not possible to use all the quotations relevant to the entry, but the importance is to give an idea of the extent of use in order to help the user understand the different meanings of the word and of course choose the appropriate to his context.

- **Etymology**

Another very interesting piece of information provided in the dictionary entry is the etymology of the word. It is presented in square brackets, or in some dictionaries, parentheses. In order to understand this part, you will have to refer frequently to the Abbreviations page. The abbreviations can be worked out to tell you that the word was used in Middle English (ME) or in Old French (OF) and so on. In this part also, it gives the way the word was written under each period. It traces the different alterations which came from the various languages such as Latin, Late Latin and so on till the present time.

- **Level of Formality**

Some dictionaries give the word's level of usage (i.e. slang, archaic, rare, regional, etc.) when applicable. These labels are not abbreviated and are fully explained in the dictionary guide included at the beginning of the dictionary. Some dictionaries, like the Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, actually explain the usage with a paragraph rather than a label.

- **Field of Relevance**

Words have different definitions in different contexts or fields. For example, in general, *complement* refers to something that completes. However, *complement* has a more specific definition in mathematics, grammar, music, medicine, and even navigation. Generally, dictionaries communicate the field by including it as a label in full capitalization. It is always advised to refer to the dictionary guide included at the beginning of the dictionary for any question regarding the entry components.

Finally, it is important for the dictionary user to know that **e**ntries differ in shape and in content from a dictionary to another. The amount of entry information also differs from a dictionary to another. In order to fully understand and use an entry, it's always advised to read well the dictionary guide at the beginning of the dictionary, namely the parts explaining how entries are made and how the user is invited to use them.

4.11Studies on The Dictionary

The use of dictionaries has drawn relatively little interest for second and foreign language researchers and educators (Scholfield, 1997). This negative view explains partially why the research in the field of dictionary use suffered neglect for many decades. Indeed, many researchers and educators discourage the use of dictionaries because they believe that it encourages second and foreign language learners to pay too much attention to individual words at the expense of comprehensive understanding of texts. They prefer using other techniques such as guessing from context than the dictionary lookup. For them, consulting a dictionary slows down reading and discourages learners from reading as much as possible.

For instance, Rainsbury (1976: p199) says: '*I do not ban dictionaries, but I discourage their use and try to persuade the student that, in class at least, he can do better without one.*' Moreover, Rainsbury considers that'*Bilingual dictionaries are the place where the players of synonyms games get their ammunition. Dictionaries with definition in the target language are often written with such exquisite care that it takes one who already knows the meaning of the word to understand the definition*' (1976; p 199 – 200)

Furthermore, arguing against the use of dictionaries, both monolingual and bilingual, (Broadhurst, 1978 cited in Bensoussan et al, 1984:264) states that '*Students will use their English /Arabic dictionariesas crutches, looking up every word they do not know. We have seen our students rely on the dictionary when they should be guessing from context*'.

From the above, the studies that have been conducted on dictionary use are not only few in number but also methodologically and thematically limited. A small body of studies investigated learners' general patterns of dictionary use through a survey (Bėjoint, 1981) and more recent studies focused on learners' use of dictionaries and the relationship of dictionary usage with learning results (Laufer& Hill, 2000). During the recent decades, many researchers have attempted to classify the variety of dictionary types but found the task impossible (Bėjoint, 2000; Hartmann1998). In fact, Atkins (1998) points out that, out of the

four EFL dictionary research areas, namely history, typology, criticism and users, the last has only begun to be addressed.

Based on Hartmann's (1998) and Hulstijn and Atkins's (1998) summaries, Tono (2001) makes a more comprehensive list of research areas:

> (*1*) *History of dictionary use*
>
> *(2) The functions of the dictionary*
>
> *(3) Dictionary typology*
>
> *(4) The image of the dictionary*
>
> *(5) The attitudes, needs, habits and preferences of dictionary users*
>
> *(6) Variations in use*
>
>> *(i) comprehension*
>>
>> *(ii) production*
>>
>> *(iii) other test performance*
>>
>> *(iv) vocabulary learning*
>
> *(7) Reference skills*
>
>> *(i) comprehension*
>>
>> *(ii) production*
>>
>> *(iii) other test performance*
>>
>> *(iv) Vocabulary learning*
>
> *(8) Teaching dictionary skills*
>
> *(9) Critical comparisons and reviews of dictionaries*
>
> *(Tono, 2001: 61)*

Likewise, Dolezal and McCreary1996 cited in McCreary and Dolezal, (1999) made an annotated bibliography of the 178 studies on dictionary use in the last thirty-seven years, and divided them into five categories:

> (1) Experiential studies (73 in total); both professional and anecdotal, which have sought to understand the shortcomings of currently available dictionaries and how to improve them; these are generally intuitive in content and are usually written by practicing lexicographers...

(2) Comparative studies (29); which have looked at the relative advantages and disadvantages of certain types of dictionaries, e.g., monolingual versus bilingual learners' dictionaries; these are also anecdotal and contain both practical and sometimes impractical information relative to the publishers' size restrictions on dictionaries ...

(3) Users' needs and skills surveys (26); that categorize the learners' specific needs, goals, and reference skills; the majority are articles accompanied by questionnaires or surveys (19) that are often not very illuminating.

(4) Cultural articles (12); which address "extra-lexicographical factors", such as social and cultural considerations, such as stylistic, register, and usage notes.

(5) Experimental research (36). composed of a small number of articles reporting controlled studies (14), including articles elucidating the relationship between dictionary use and reading comprehension, often experimental in design with large numbers of subjects, e.g., Kharma (1985) with 284 subjects, Luppescu and Day (1993) with 295 and Bensoussan's (1983) research with 700 subjects. These studies are generally controlled with independent variables and a dependent variable and have statistically significant results.

For Dolezal and McCreary (1999), rather than producing empirical studies, most of the research published by practicing lexicographers and linguists interested in the dictionary has been either anecdotal reports or opinion surveys based on survey-questionnaires given to college students. Out of the 178 studies they

reviewed, only fourteen research articles that were empirical and controlled with independent and dependent variables. While McCreary and Dolezal's categorization is mainly on the methods, Hartmann (1987) concentrated on the subject: the users, and classified the studies by theme, including:

    (1) the most important types of linguistic information sought by dictionary users ("dictionary typology");

    (2) their assumptions and expectations in resorting to the dictionary ("user typology");

    (3) the reference needs of the users ("needs typology") ; and

    (4) the training of the users' reference skills ("skills typology"). (Hartmann, 1987: 12)

These four themes could be subsumed under "users' needs and skills" in McCreary and Dolezal's categorization.

Thumb(2004) also summarized 32 empirical studies on dictionary use, and came up with the following findings on the bilingualized learner's dictionary:

  - (1) *Many dictionary users are not aware of the wealth of information that their dictionaries contain.*

  - *(2) Most foreign learners prefer using bilingual dictionaries to monolingual dictionaries because of the comprehensibility of definitions.*

  - *(3) Foreign learners may benefit from the bilingualized learner's dictionary, because bilingualized studies reported high success rate in dictionary use.*

- (4) Users generally appreciate the juxtaposition of Second Language definitions and First Language translation equivalents in a bilingualized dictionary's entry. The dictionary elicits a variety of look-up patterns which could be a reflection of the users' language preference.

*- (5) Subjects appear to focus more on the Language One part than the Language Two part in the entry. (*Thumb,2004:32)

However, a number of interesting research projects has been conducted in the last decades. These studies investigated users' reference skills and needs, as well as users' habits in the field of dictionary use. The conference Dictionaries and their Users, which was organized by R. Hartmann in the late 1970s, initiated a period of more intensive dictionary testing. According to Cowie (1999), Tomaszczyk (1979) was the first to study the foreign users of dictionaries more thoroughly and was soon followed by Béjoint (1981), who based his investigation partly on Tomasczczyk's (Cowie,1999, 175–98). Later in the 1980s and 1990s, more studies were conducted on different aspects of dictionary needs, skills and use, definitions, illustrative examples, labels, grammatical information, and inclusion of phrase logical units (Béjoint 1981; Hartmann 1989; Nesi 1994; Atkins and Varantola 1998; McCreary and Dolezal1999; Cowie 1999; Tono 2001; Wingate 2002).

Despite the fact that some language educators as well as researchers claim that using a dictionary while reading can lead to inefficient learning (Bensoussan et al., 1984), this is not the prevailing view for all scholars who dealt with this subject as we shall see in the following pages.

One of the first studies on the dictionary was carried out in Britain by (Quirk's1974; cited in Hartmann, 1987). In this study Quirk investigated the attitudes of University students with regard to their dictionaries. This study used the questionnaire as a tool to collect data from the students. The questionnaire was made up of 30 items and administered to 220 undergraduate students in London. The results revealed that meaning and spelling were the most important

elements students looked up in a dictionary; whereas, etymology and pronunciation were not appreciated at all by the students concerned by the study. One of the merits of this study is that it could help lexicographers decide what to include in dictionaries.

A pioneer study of foreign language dictionary users was carried out by (Tomaszczyk 1979; cited in Cowie, 1999: 179). Using a questionnaire survey to better recognize the dictionary needs of learners and translators, Tomaszczyk compared the use of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries by two groups: students and translators. 450 subjects participated in the study. The results revealed that a higher proportion of subjects who owned bilingual dictionaries referred to them for meaning than did owners of monolingual dictionaries. However, it was the monolingual dictionary owners who registered the highest level of satisfaction with the information provided.

Similarly to the results of Quirk's study, Tomaszczyk's results indicated that meaning and spelling were of greater importance as motives for the dictionary search than etymology. The findings also revealed the respondents' preference for bilingual dictionaries over monolingual ones. The study also revealed that students had a very limited understanding of dictionaries, especially at the elementary and intermediate levels, and consequently used them badly (Tomaszczyk, 1979 cited in Cowie, 1999:188).

One of the important studies investigating the relationship between performance errors and dictionary skills was carried out by Tono(1984). In fact, in order to find out if performance errors are the result of inadequate skills rather than deficiencies in the dictionaries used, (Tono,1984; cited in Cowie, 1999:188 - 189) carried out a study with 402 Japanese university students in an English-Japanese translation exercise. The texts of the exercise contained a number of invented words which appeared in specially prepared bilingual dictionaries for the subjects to use. It was evident from the results of the study that poor retrieval standards were largely attributable to poor skills.

Bensoussan, Sim and Weiss (1984) examined the effect of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries and no dictionary on reading comprehension of Israeli

EFL university students with multiple choice questions in a variety of text passages. The study didn't find any significant differences in reading comprehension or the time required between the control groups and the dictionary groups. The majority of students did refer to the dictionary for many words. The study concluded that "*less proficient students lack the language skills to benefit from a dictionary, whereas more proficient students know enough to do without it*' (Bensoussan, Sim and Weiss 1984 p. 271). The research showed that the extra time used to look up words was used inefficiently.

Atkins, Lewis, Summers and Whitcut (1987) conducted a large-scale research project with 1,140 English-learning French, German and Spanish students. The purpose of the study was to discover how effective a learner of English as a foreign language was when using a bilingual and/or a monolingual dictionary. Participants were administered a User Profile Questionnaire to complete in their own language (1987: 31 - 32), and to complete two sets of tests. This study revealed that 60.4% of the participants had never received any instruction in dictionary use, while only 12.9% had been given systematic training in reference skills (Atkins, Lewis, Summers and (Whitcut, 1987 cited in Cowie, 1999:191).

Luppescu and Day (1993) conducted a study on 293 Japanese EFL university students using no dictionaries or printed bilingual dictionaries and compared vocabulary acquisition and time taken to read a five-page narrative edited to contain enhanced content and multiple occurrences of target words to assist students in guessing. The study revealed that L2 learners using dictionaries took twice as long to complete the reading task compared to control groups who were not allowed to use dictionaries. The dictionary group acquired a 50% greater mean score on a multiple-choice vocabulary quiz. However, the no dictionary group performed better than the dictionary group for some items with multiple dictionary definitions. Similarly, to the opinions of Tono (1984), learners with access to dictionaries sometimes locate the wrong dictionary entry, and thus are led to miscomprehension.

Knight (1994) conducted an experiment that compared incidental receptive and productive vocabulary learning and reading comprehension of second year Spanish as a foreign language in a U.S University. The students were given an authentic text with 95% known words on a computer with access to the dictionary. After that, students were asked to write a recall summary in order to check their comprehension. An important result of the study is that the dictionary group attained significantly higher scores than the no dictionary group. The study also revealed that the dictionary group was found to require roughly 42% more time to read than the no dictionary group. Moreover, Knight, (1994) stated that 'the time it takes to look up words in the dictionary interferes with readers' short-term memory and thus prevents them from focusing on the text as a whole. Therefore, we can gather from this study that dictionary use is benefic but has an impact on reading time.

Atkins and Varantola(1998) used a database to record details of 1,000 dictionary look-ups made by 103 people in a translation exercise from various language communities. The objective was to focus on the strategies of dictionary use, and not on the users' dictionary skills in translation. The participants were simply asked to look up any expressions that they felt necessary to allow them to translate the passage rather than producing a written translation. One of the most significant results of the study is that the users gave more weight to the use of bilingual dictionaries than monolingual dictionaries for translation purposes (1997: p32). Subjects tended to go to the bilingual dictionary to look for primary information, whereas the monolingual dictionary came into play as their need for secondary information grew (1997: p33). Another important result of the study is that advanced level users used more often the monolingual dictionary. Therefore, dictionary skills have to be taught to allow dictionary users to use their dictionaries effectively.

Fraser (1999) conducted a large-scale study on three vocabulary learning strategies which include: ignoring, consulting (dictionaries or experts), and inferring. In reading a text, the participants could choose to look up unknown words in the dictionary, neglect or make an inference about its meaning. At the

first stage the three strategies were first introduced to the participants to establish what they were, how they worked as well as their high importance in dealing with unknown words. The second stage consisted in a phase of practice using these strategies. Think-aloud protocol data were collected by interviewing individual learners.

The result of the data analysis revealed that reading comprehension increased as a result of successful determination of word meanings using the strategies of consulting and lexical inference. The participants could retain higher proportion of word meanings particularly when they first used inference technique and subsequently consulted a dictionary. Based on the results, Fraser recommended the use of guessing the meaning of unknown words before using a dictionary, then verifying the inferred meaning by consulting a dictionary, and then repeating the word and elaborating their meaning to create a deeper trace in memory. (Fraser, 1999: p 236).

Nesi (2000) carried out a series of studies in which students accessed dictionary entries during reading or sentence writing. The results revealed that the comprehension scores were not affected by dictionary look-up. Moreover, Nesi found that there was no measurable effect of the particular defining style used by a dictionary or the inclusion of examples in a dictionary entry on the learners' ability to produce acceptable sentences with the target word. Nationality was considered as a significant variable in successful dictionary use. Learners in Portugal performed much better than a comparable group in Malaysia. Nesi explained this by the fact that the Portuguese learners had studied English as a foreign language and; thus, had more experience of using dictionaries, whereas the Malaysians had acquired their much more extensive knowledge of English vocabulary through informal exposure in a second language environment.

Nesi and Haill (2002) conducted a study where they analyzed how successfully international students at a British university were able to identify the correct meaning of unfamiliar words in a self-selected reading text when they looked them up in a dictionary. The results showed that more than half of the students failed in the task at least once, most commonly because they chose the

wrong dictionary entry or the wrong meaning of a polysemous word. This suggested the significance of the teacher's guidance to help the user to make full use of the word information contained in a dictionary

In a large-scale study conducted on dictionary usage in seven European countries, including over 1,100 learners of English revealed that (75%) of the language learners who identified themselves as dictionary users utilized bilingual dictionaries. However, several studies (e.g., Atkins &Varantola, 1997) found that the monolingual dictionary was said to be effective in helping learners find relevant information. Moreover, the bilingualized dictionary which has features of the learners' monolingual dictionary and a translation of each entry is becoming more and more used by language learners and teachers. Studies investigating the effectiveness of the bilingualized dictionary showed that it was the most effective of the three types (Laufer&Hadar, 1997).

Albus, Thurlow, Liu, and Bielinski (2005) conducted a study using a monolingual English dictionary and compared the effects on comprehension of a newspaper article for Hmong ESL learners and native speaker Junior High Students. No significant differences in scores were found between no dictionary control and dictionary groups. However, they reported that 59% of students in the ESL group did not use their dictionary or used it only for a few words. Moreover, of the high, intermediate, and low- level students in the dictionary group that did report using dictionaries, only the intermediate group showed a significant score difference. Thus, similarly to the results of the study of Bensoussan, Sim, and Weiss (1984), many students did not extensively use their dictionaries and high and low -level students did not benefit from the dictionary.

From the above, it becomes clear that research on dictionary use and reading comprehension shows that dictionary look up is not an easy task; it is even more complex than one can imagine and think. Scholars' views and opinions significantly differ on the utility of dictionary look up and on the reasons of the consultation itself. Moreover, the user's linguistic abilities and competencies as well as his dictionary skills also seem to have an important role to play in the success of the look up process. Some tests used to measure

comprehension may simply be inadequate for the task while the texts may be too easy or too difficult for the ability and competency level of the readers for dictionary use to make a difference in comprehension.

Conclusion

From the literature above, we can conclude that the dictionary is first of all an important pedagogical tool. Students can refer to dictionaries without any time or space constraints; they can consult them at home, at school or in any other place. Second, there is no general agreement on the use and the utility of the dictionary as shown in the different standpoints reviewed above. Some scholars encourage its use but other stand firmly against it. Third, there is no single standard typology of dictionaries; different typologies have been proposed based on the nature, the form and the content of the dictionary.

The fourth important point of this chapter is the comparison between the monolingual and the bilingual dictionaries. In fact, it appears that one cannot say that one type is better than the other. Both have their strengths and weaknesses, and each addresses the needs of specific learners with specific abilities and competencies.

Finally, the chapter introduced the different parts of the dictionary, namely its structures and entry components. It also reviewed the different dictionary instruction views and stressed the importance of teaching dictionary skills as it appeared clearly from the various studies reviewed in this chapter that dictionary skills seem to be the most important challenge for dictionary users.

Chapter 4

Reading

Introduction

One cannot deal with vocabulary learning without dealing with reading. The two processes are tightly linked and have a strong mutual influence and impact. We cannot read well if we don't have strong vocabulary knowledge and we cannot have wide vocabulary knowledge without reading. That is why the researcher elected to dedicate a chapter to reading given its crucial role in developing vocabulary.

Nowadays, reading in English is becoming more important than any time before. In the light of the global changes in the fields of communication, science and technology, it has become critical for anyone wherever he is in the globe to develop reading skills of English. This is because a great percentage of world communication in all fields is being conveyed in English through, Internet, TV networks, newspapers and other means of communication and entertainment.

Moreover, it has become a must to read in English to know what is going on in the world, in scientific and technological advancement, in politics and even in entertainment. To make EFL reading more efficient and effective, proper teaching materials, reading strategies as well as appropriate teaching approaches should be adopted. A student with strong and developed reading skills will have no obstacles to progress and attain greater development in all academic areas and reach a high level of communication competency.

Reading is a process that engages many cognitive as well as meta-cognitive processes; it requires deep thinking as well as solid skills. In fact, many studies conducted in education, linguistics, and psychology proved that the human mind must process information from various sources in order to read the words and make meaning of them. A reader needs to construct meaning by using different strategies and select the most important ones to disambiguate the text.

Reading is a complex process requiring mental abilities, motivation as well as psychological readiness; if a person shows no interest in reading, has no purpose to read, lacks motivation for reading and has gaps in his/her reading skills, there is no doubt that reading will be a hard and stressful task for him/her. To construct meaning from a text, a reader must have the ability and the required tools and techniques to link the printed matter – letters, words and sentences - to the implied meaning.

Students of English in the department of English of ENSB should be aware of the importance of reading and of the significance of knowing the different reading skills as well as reading strategies in order to cope with the changes that the globalized world is undergoing and imposing. There have been significant developments in the theories and practices of reading in the world during the last four decades; this brought a great advancement in the understanding and the practices of reading, consequently, every student in the department should know about that.

3.1 Defining '*Reading*'

Defining reading is not an easy task. Various definitions have been suggested through time by different researchers, teachers and even readers, each according to his or her experience with the act of reading. To define *reading,* one should take into account many components having a direct relation with reading such as motivation, background knowledge, as well as the reading objectives. There is no doubt that all these differ from one person to another because every experience and interaction with reading is different from the other.

Furthermore, reading capacities and faculties differ from one person to another, because of the differences in the reader's background, motivation, readiness and purpose. The reading material also plays an important role in defining reading; thus, the nature of the text - literary texts, administrative texts, technical texts, legal and political texts - has a direct impact on the reading process. Thus, defining reading depend, to a great extent on the purpose of the

reader, the text, the attitude of the readers towards the text, the reading materials and on the experience and schemata of the reader.

Carrell (1984) states that *"for many students, reading is by far the most important of the four macro skills, particularly in English as a second or a foreign language"* (Carrel,1984:1).Shaw(1959) sees that reading is the communication of thoughts, moods, and emotions through which one receives from others, their ideas and feelings. Moreover, according to Moynihan (1969), reading *"frequently uses chronology, comparison-contrast, causality, and analogy."* (Moynihan,1969:267). In addition, Williams (1996) considers that reading as a process through which one looks at and understands a written text.

Widdowson (1979) considers that reading is the process of getting linguistic information via print. To Anderson (1999), *"reading is not a passive process but an active fluent process which involves the reader and the reading material in building meaning."*(Anderson,1999: 1). Other researchers such as Ransom (1978) consider reading as 'a conversation' between the writer and the Reader and Nuttall (1996) regards reading as the process of getting out of the text as nearly as possible the message the writer put into it.

Moreover, Goodman (1967) sees reading as a sort of 'psychological guessing game'. Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) define reading as an 'interactive process' where readers employ their background knowledge and past experience to make sense of the text. Reading can also be defined as a process of decoding a printed text, recognizing its words and reconstructing their meaning. In the view of Spink (1989), the reading process involves the perception of words, the comprehension of text, a reaction to what is read and a fusion of old and new ideas. Moreover, Reading can be seen as a dynamic interaction involving the reader's existing knowledge, the information suggested by the text being read as well as the context of the reading situation.

Thus, in an effort to illustrate the difficulty of defining reading and to show to what extent this can vary from one person to another, Urquhart andWeir (1998) said:

"We all know what reading is. And many of us have suffered, at some time or the other, from the type of bore who stops any argument or discussion with 'Ah, it depends on what you mean by...'. So, it is with some reluctance that we begin this part with an attempt to define reading, to say what we mean by the term. Our excuse is that people do use the term in different ways, and that while this may be permissible when everybody is conscious of the differences, on occasions it can cause real confusion and difficulty. » (Urquhart andWeir,1998: 13)

From the above, we can conclude that defining reading is not easy task and every definition differs from the other definitions due to the fact that the reading experience differs from one person to another and every definition reflects the individual experience of its proponent and his/her way of thinking of the reading process.

3.2 Vocabulary knowledge and Wide Reading

The relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension is strong and complex and one of the main goals of vocabulary instruction is to help students improve their reading comprehension. Indeed, we learn words to understand what they stand for in the world around us. However, if one doesn't know the meaning of a word, he wouldn't be able to access what it stands for be it a concrete object or an abstract concept.

Further, vocabulary knowledge is involved in a reciprocal relationship with reading ability; vocabulary development works for reading fluency and reading in return works for building a strong vocabulary through time. A student needs a rich vocabulary to read easily, and the best way to develop a rich vocabulary is to read widely. Thus, vocabulary size is both a requirement of and a consequence of reading success.
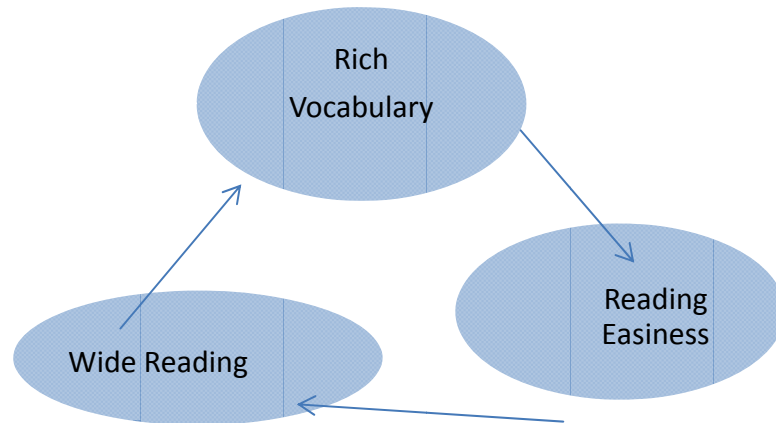
Figure 2: Vocabulary and Wide Reading

Moreover, vocabulary knowledge is considered as a strong predictor of good reading comprehension and consequently language proficiency. To Anderson and Freebody (1981), the proportion of difficult words in a text is the single most powerful predictor of text difficulty, and a reader's general vocabulary knowledge is the single best predictor of how well that reader can understand a text. Thus, word knowledge is crucial to reading comprehension and determines how well students will be able to comprehend the texts they read

If a student does not know the meaning of a sufficient proportion of the running words of a text, comprehension will not be possible. Adequate reading comprehension depends on a person already knowing between 90 and 95 percent of the words in a text, Hirsch (2003). Knowing at least 90 percent of the running words enables the reader to get the main idea from the reading and guess correctly what many of the remaining unfamiliar words mean, which will help him learn new words. Moreover, if a reader doesn't recognize at least 90 percent of the words, he will not only face difficulties to understand the text but will also miss out the opportunity to learn new words.

In his review of research on vocabulary development, Bromley (2007) concludes that vocabulary knowledge promotes reading fluency, boosts reading comprehension, improves academic achievement, and enhances thinking and communication. Therefore, it is crystal clear that vocabulary knowledge is

fundamental to reading comprehension and vice versa. One cannot comprehend without knowing the meaning of the words and cannot learn words and enrich their meaning without reading.

3.3 Reading purposes

People read for many reasons and for a variety of purposes. The purposes of reading differ from one person to another due to their different opinions, backgrounds and experiences as well as their schemata. Thus, the purpose can be simply to comprehend a text and answer comprehension questions as part of study activities, to solve language problems, to improve language ability, to achieve pleasure and information. One can also read to know how to use a device, to get information about a country, a culture etc. Each time we start reading something, we have a purpose behind reading. According to Doff (1997), "*We usually have a purpose in reading: there is something we want to find out, some information we want to check or clarify, some opinion we want to match against our own etc*." (Doff,1997: p170)

Therefore, the same book or article may be read by different readers for different reasons or purposes based on their diverse interests in what they read. People read for pleasure, for information or simply for meaning. For instance, Grellet (1996) suggested two types of non-academic reading:

- **Reading for pleasure**

It is known that people seek pleasure in their reading. According to Strong (1945: 41) '*the only sensible reason for reading anything is because we enjoy it or hope to enjoy it*'. If not forced, one never reads if he doesn't enjoy what s/he reads. Reading takes the reader to other worlds to live other experiences. Eagleton (1996) thinks that people read books of poems, novels etc. because they find them pleasurable, and it is truly appropriate as far as the foreign language is concerned. Therefore, the intention of seeking pleasure from a text makes readers read more and more and this leads them to better learn and understand the vocabulary of the foreign language.

If the text or the book doesn't provide any pleasure, the reader will simply stop reading. Therefore, as Nuttall (1996) stated, reading programs should be designed "*to enable students to enjoy (or at least feel comfortable with) reading in the foreign language.*"(Nuttall,1996: 31). If the EFL reading content does not provide a source of enjoyment to the foreign language learner, the reading process would certainly be unsuccessful.

- **Reading for information**.

The search for information is a very important reason or purpose of reading. Many people read to collect information from written text. According to Grellet (1996) people read books "*in order to find out something or in order to do something with the information [they] get*"(Grellet,1996: p4). We live in an era where information is important and the means to acquire it are very sophisticated. We read to get news of the current world, business information, culture and politics, news of foreign affairs. Information is collected from newspaper, magazines, and especially the Internet. In this context, it is worth reminding that the language of international media and Internet is English.

- Reading for meaning

Understanding meaning is another main reason of reading. Nuttall's (1996) opinion is that, students… need to learn how to read for meaning, because, according to her, language improvement is a natural by-product of reading. One of the basic aims of any reader is to construct meaning from what s/he reads. For Nuttall (1996) ,meaning starts from the 'single morpheme' of a text, and it gradually develops up to the text as a whole conveying a full message to the reader. Nuttall (1996) suggests four categories of the meaning:

a) **Conceptual meaning**: a meaning embedded in 'a word'. Every lexical item embodies a concept, simple or complex, and "the whole books are written on complex concepts" (op. cit.).

b) **Propositional meaning:** It is the meaning a sentence can have of its own. For example, 'running' as a single word in isolation may have conceptual but not propositional meaning.

c) Contextual meaning: Contextual meaning occurs when 'a sentence' or 'proposition' or even a word is used in a context. The use indicates the writer's intention and reason for using it. The value of its use in a text becomes explicit from its relationship with the other sentences or elements before and after it in the same text. For an effective reading it is crucial to interpret contextual meaning.

d) Pragmatic meaning: Pragmatic meaning is the product of the unified whole text, and it offers variations in interpreting the meaning because of the fact that every reader comes to the text with his/her individual concepts and experiences that largely affect the meaning of the text. It is the meaning which "*a sentence has only as a part of the interaction between writer and reader*" (op. cit.). It reflects the writer's feelings, attitude, purpose, tone and so on. Grellet (1996) states that each reader "*brings his own meaning to what he reads based on what he expects from the text and his previous knowledge.*" Grellet (1996: p9).

3.4 Schemata and Reading

Schema theory states that all knowledge is organized into units or mental frameworks and information is stored within these units of knowledge. Schemata, plural of schema, represent knowledge about concepts and objects as well as the relationships they have with other objects, situations, events, sequences of events, actions, and sequences of actions. Linguists and cognitive psychologists have used the concept of schema to understand the interaction of key factors affecting the comprehension process. Initially the concept of schemata was introduced into the fields of psychology and education by the British psychologist Sir Frederic Bartlett (1886–1969).

The schema concept may be defined in several ways. Schema may be defined as a mental codification of experience that includes a particular

organized way of perceiving cognitively and responding to a complex situation or set of stimuli; it can also be defined as unconscious mental structures that represent an individual's generic knowledge about the world.

According to Piaget (1928), a schema is both the category of knowledge as well as the process of acquiring that knowledge. Barnett (1988) defines schema as *"an interactive process in which the author's perspective, point of view, allusions or arguments are all interpreted through the reader's experiences, perspectives, cultural orientation and bases" (Barnett, 1989: 42).* Children start building their schemata at an early age before coming to school. They acquire experiences about everything they interact with in their external world and organize every single experience in units of knowledge in their brain. Their Schemata will build in a form of theoretical or virtual representation of the realities they live. These schemata will have a significant effect on the way new information will be is interpreted and will continue to develop through new experiences.

Rumelhart (1980) states that:

"*schemata can represent knowledge at all levels-from ideologies and cultural truths to knowledge about the meaning of a particular word, to knowledge about what patterns of excitations are associated with what letters of the alphabet. We have schemata to represent all levels of our experience, at all levels of abstraction. Finally, our schemata are our knowledge. All of our generic knowledge is embedded in schemata.*" (Rumelhart,1980: 41)

Therefore, the schemata are kinds of virtual storages of our knowledge and represent all experiences representing both abstract as well as concrete situations and experiences we live from childhood to adulthood and each new experience incorporates more information into our schemata.

Regarding the relationships between reading and schemata, it goes without saying that the schemata of any reader play a crucial role in his understanding.

During the reading process, a reader integrates new information from the text to his/her pre-existing schemata. But if the new information contained in the text does not fit into his/her preexisting schemata, he/she will not understand the meaning of the text and consequently she/he will either ignore it or try to update the existing schemata to incorporate the new information.

For Anderson (1977), *"every act of comprehension involves one's knowledge of the world as well"* (Anderson, 01977: 369); therefore, schemata are directly related to the meaningful reading, reading speed and reading pleasure. If a student has a poor schema, he will not be able to link what he reads to his previous experiences and knowledge, thus his reading speed will be slowed down, if not stopped completely. Any ambiguous information in the text creates an obstacle for him; thus, if he is not well motivated and has important objectives behind reading, he will certainly end by giving up reading as it becomes a hard, stressful and boring task for him.

Schemata are not static but rather as active, developing, and ever changing through reading and everyday experiences. As experiences happen and new information is presented, new schemas are developed, and old schemas are changed or modified. It is through schemata that old knowledge influences new information. Therefore, readers with wide reading develop strong schemata. In return, their schemata help them progress more in their reading. A reader may have serious problems in understanding a text because of his poor schemata. Then, after a certain time he can go back to read the same text and will not face the same problems as his schema would have developed to include realities and experiences relating to the same text, as the same text takes on different meanings in transactions with different readers or even with the same reader in different contexts or times.

Within the field of reading, we can divide schemata into two types: Content/background schemata which are schemata relating to the topic or the

content of the text and formal schemata which have to do with the structure of the texts or their rhetorical organization.

However, these mental frameworks do not have only positive impacts on a person's behavior or learning. Sometimes existing schemata can actually hinder his/her learning of new information. They also might cause him/her to exclude or reject pertinent information to instead focus only on things that confirm his/her pre-existing beliefs and ideas. Schemata may create stereotypes and thus make it difficult to receive new information that does not conform to one's established ideas and experiences about the world. By holding certain beliefs regarding a particular subject, a group of people or a religion the existing schemata may lead to a false interpretation. Sometimes, when a person is confronted to a new information or experience that challenges the existing schema, she/he may come up with alternative explanations because of the fact that he/she would refuse to adapt the existing schema.

3.5 What is a *"good reader"*?

It is important to examine the behavior of good readers in order to find out the reasons that make them good readers and see what strategies and techniques they use to be successful in their reading. The purpose of this is to make the poor readers aware of the practices of the good readers to help them acquire good reading techniques and habits to overcome their reading difficulties.

Contrary to poor readers, good readers are persons who read much and thus have strong vocabulary knowledge. The more they read the more they gain more words; they learn new words and enrich the words they already know. A good reader understands how to handle the reading process and how to solve his reading problems. In fact, an effective reader needs an understanding of the reading process and an understanding of how to go about reading different types of printed information.

Moreover, Research in reading comprehension has found that effective readers are aware of the various reading strategies they use and that they use these strategies in a flexible and efficient way; therefore, a good reader has no

problem selecting the best ones suiting his/her reading. Another key characteristic of a good reader is that he/she shows great interest in reading and he/she is highly motivated to read. Good readers know when they understand and when they don't. According to Duffy (1987), good readers can identify when and why the meaning of the text is unclear to them by using a variety of strategies to solve comprehension problems or to deepen their understanding of the text.

Autonomy is also a key feature of successful readers. Most of the good readers do not rely on others in reading and in looking for solutions to their reading problems. They know how to change or adapt their reading habits to progress in their reading.

Keene and Zimmerman, (1997), summed up what good readers do to make their reading successful:

- *Using prior knowledge (schemas)*
- *Making connections (which requires prior knowledge/schemas)*
- *Drawing inferences (includes predicting, speculating, hypothesizing)*
- *Asking questions (of text and its connections to author, self, other texts, world)*
- *Determining importance in text (requires valuing, evaluating)*
- *Evoking images (visual and other sensory/mental images)*
- *Monitoring meaning and comprehension (for example, by paraphrasing)*
- *Employing fix-up strategies*
- *Synthesizing (requires analyzing and evaluating; may involve drawing analogies)*
- *Becoming metacognitively aware of the other strategies and determining when to use them*

(Keene and Zimmerman, 1997: 22-23)

Moreover, according to Rubin and Thomson (1982), good language learners:

1. find their own way and take charge of their learning. They determine the methods that are best for them as individual learners. They learn from others and experiment with different methods.

2. organize their study of the language, and they organize information about the language they study.

3. are creative. They understand that language is creative. They experiment with the language and play with grammar, words, and sounds.

4. make their own opportunities for practicing the language inside and outside of the classroom.

5. learn to live with uncertainty by focusing on the meaning of what they can understand, by not getting flustered, and by continuing to talk or listen without necessarily understanding every word.

6. use mnemonics and other memory strategies to recall what they are learning.

7. make errors work for them and not against them.

8. use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language, in learning a second language.

9. use contextual clues to aid their comprehension of the language. They maximize use of all potential contexts around the language attended to for enhancing comprehension.

10. learn to make intelligent guesses.

11. learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform beyond their competence. For example, they may learn idioms, proverbs, or other phrases knowing what the whole phrase means without necessarily understanding each individual part.

12. learn certain tricks that keep conversations going.

13. learn certain production techniques that also fill in the gaps in their own competence.

14. learn differently to the formality of the situation.

It becomes clear from the above that good learners use a variety of strategies and express high interest to experiment new strategies contrary to the poor learners who use only a few strategies, if ever, and heavily rely on the assistance of the teacher. Poor readers give up reading whenever they encounter a difficulty. Therefore, poor readers need to follow in the good readers' footsteps in their reading habits to solve their reading problems.

3.6 Problems hampering reading

Students often are confronted to various issues which hamper their reading activity. Depending on the students' motivation, willingness and reading objective, these problems often lead poor students to give up reading as soon as they start struggling with words in the text. Therefore, issues like poor reading skills, structural complexities, language inaccessibility, lack of schemata and lack of interest constitute major causes of failure in reading.

Dechant (1982) stated that achievement in reading is dependent *"upon the pupil's motivational readiness, and poor reading or reading failure may be caused by lack of interest."* (Dechant,1982: 73). Furthermore, students who lack interest and motivation to read consider reading as a passive and boring activity. On the other hand, poor teacher-student relationships and lack of parents' or family encouragement along with negative attitudes of parents to learning all lead inevitably to failure.

We can cite many other causes of reading failure such as the lack of masteryofidiomatic expressions and figurative language, complex syntactic structures, cultural differences – this applies especially for students of ENSB Department of English- as well as the absence of reading techniques and strategies. However, the major cause of failure is poor vocabulary. Students with

poor vocabulary read with difficulty as they struggle with unknown words in every single sentence. Consequently, they progress very slowly from sentence to sentence and most of the time get bored and give up reading.

Vocabulary knowledge may be considered as one of the most important factors affecting reading comprehension. According to Alderson (2004), in studies of readability, most indices of vocabulary difficulty account for about 80% of the predicted variance. However, despite its importance, vocabulary knowledge is not the only factor affecting comprehension. Many other factors play a significant role on and affect the reading process. Alderson (Alderson 2004) surveyed some of the factors or variables that affect reading and divided them into two classes: the reader and text variables.

The reader's variables include for instance the reader's lexical, syntactic, rhetorical, meta-linguistic knowledge, his L1 vs L2 knowledge, his skills and strategies such as scanning, skimming, memorizing as well as his stable characteristics such as sex, age, personality and his physical characteristics such as eye movement, speed of recognition and automaticity of processing. Text variables include topic and content, genre, organization, linguistic variables, readability, typographical features, verbal vs. nonverbal information and medium of text presentation. All these variables have a crucial impact on the success of the reading process.

Cultural background and differences for instance are big obstacles for students of the department of English at ENSB. Most students arrive to the department with an extremely poor knowledge with respect to the culture of English-speaking countries such as the UK or the USA. They choose to study English because of the worldwide reputation of English and because a degree in English, in their eyes, opens many perspectives for future jobs. Therefore, once they start their courses, they find themselves confronted to a new culture, a new literature and a new civilization. Their schemata in this field are very poor. To overcome this issue, students have to work hard and one of the most important ways to overcome the problems of cultural differences is reading authentic

material in English. Thus, their needs for reading strategies and wide reading become more pressing.

3.7 Reading strategies

Reading strategies can be defined as techniques, methods or processes that a reader uses to be able to read and understand what he/she is reading. They play a significant role in the interaction between the reader and the text. They guide the operations of the various mental activities of the reader during reading to help him/her construct meaning. Many scholars attempted to provide various definitions to these strategies.

For instance, Pritchard (1990) defines a strategy as "*a deliberate action that readers take voluntarily to develop an understanding of what they read*" (Pritchard , 1990:275) and according to Davies (1995) a strategy is considered as "*a physical or mental action used consciously or unconsciously with the intention of facilitating text comprehension and or learning*" (Davies, 1995: 50). Moreover, in the viewpoint of Cohen (1986), reading strategies refer to *those "mental processes that readers consciously choose to use in accomplishing reading tasks" (*Cohen ,1986:7). Brantmeier (2002) defined reading strategies as the comprehension processes that readers use in order to make sense of what they read.

According to Urquhart and Weir (1998), reading strategies are ways of getting around difficulties encountered while reading. Barnett's (1989) states that the word *strategy* refers to "*the mental operations involved when readers purposefully approach a text to make sense of what they read. They may be either conscious techniques controlled by the reader or unconscious processes applied automatically.*" (Urquhart and Weir,1998: 66). Furthermore, Carrell (1998) views reading strategies as any of a wide array of tactics that readers use to engage and comprehend texts. Singhal (2001) regards reading strategies as

"*processes used by learners to enhance reading and overcome comprehension failure". (*Singhal, 2001:*1)*

Based on the above definitions, it is clear that there is no agreement between the various researchers with regard to the types and numbers of reading strategies. However, they all agree that reading strategies play a significant role in the process of reading and help learners develop their autonomy. Thus, when learners pick up the appropriate strategies that fit their learning styles, these strategies become a useful toolkit for active, conscious, and purposeful learning. For Keene and Zimmerman (1997), if reading is about mind journeys, teaching reading is about outfitting the travelers, modeling how to use the map, demonstrating the key and the legend, supporting the travelers as they lose their way and take circuitous routes.

3.8 Related studies

Many studies have been conducted to investigate the reading process and the various reading strategies used by the reader as well as their effect on the learning process. In this section we will review some of them. The purpose of this section is to try to gather the maximum of information on the different experiences and studies carried out and select the most important among them to make the teacher as well as the students of the Department of English aware of them and of their advantages.

Hosenfeld (1977) conducted a study on high school students in the U.S. The students were studying French, German, or Spanish. She examined successful and unsuccessful readers to see the types of cognitive operations they used to process written texts. Before conducting the study, Hosenfeld classified the participants based on their scores on a test of L1 reading. She selected twenty native English-speaking students who scored high on the MLA-Cooperative Test of Reading Proficiency, a standard test of native language reading, and twenty unsuccessful students with low scores on the same test. She asked her participants to read a text and do think-aloud reports i.e., she asked them to say in

their first language whatever comes to their mind while processing each sentence in the text. According to the results of the study, "successful" readers:

(1) kept the meaning of the passage in mind during reading,

(2) used context to determine word meaning

(2) read in what she termed "broad phrases,"

(3) skipped words unimportant to total phrase meaning, and

(4) had a positive self-concept as a reader.

However, poor or "unsuccessful" readers:

(1) lost the meaning of sentences as soon as they were decoded or translated

(2) looked up unknown words in a glossary

(3) read in short phrases,

(4) seldom skipped words as unimportant and viewed words as equal in their contribution to total phrase meaning

(5) had a negative self-concept as a reader.

Block's (1986) conducted a study comparing the reading comprehension strategies used by native English speakers and ESL students who were enrolled in a remedial reading course at university level, and she connected these behaviors to comprehension. The participants were all non-proficient readers as they failed a college reading proficiency test before the study. They read two expository passages selected from an introductory psychology textbook and were asked to do a think-aloud while reading (they reported after each sentence). After reading and retelling each passage, the participants answered twenty multiple choice comprehension questions. They were allowed to consult the passages while answering the comprehension questions. Block developed a coding scheme in order to classify strategies into two types as follows:

- **General strategies** including the following behaviors: anticipate content, recognize text structure, integrate information, question information, distinguish main ideas, interpret the text, use general knowledge and associations to background, comment on behavior or process, monitor comprehension, correct behavior, focus on textual meaning as a whole, and react to the text.

- **Local strategies**: paraphrase, reread, question meaning of a clause or sentence, question meaning of a word, and solve a vocabulary problem.

The results of the study indicated that language background didn't have any connection with the use of particular strategies. On the one hand, out of the nine ESL participants, those with higher comprehension scores on the retellings and the multiple-choice questions were able to integrate new information in the text with old information, they distinguished main ideas from details, referred to their background, and focused on the textual meaning as a whole, all classified as "general strategies." On the other hand, readers with low comprehension scores could rarely distinguish the main ideas from details; they rarely referred to their background, infrequently focused on textual meaning, and seldom integrated information.

Sarig (1987) conducted a research on 10 female native Hebrew readers who were studying English as a foreign language. Her aim was to investigate the contribution of L1 reading strategies and L2 language proficiency to L2 reading. She also wanted to find out the relationship between L1 and L2 reading strategies. The participants were given academic texts to read in L1 and L2 and were asked to self-report their reading behaviors. Then, the results of the think aloud reports were classified into four types of behavior:

(1) technical aid including strategies such as such as skimming, scanning, skipping, marking the text and using glossary

(2) clarification and simplification strategies such decoding meanings of words and groups of words and paraphrasing

(3) coherence detection included techniques such as use of prior content schemata, identification of the text type, identification of people and key information in the text and reliance on textual schemata

(4) monitoring moves strategies such as conscious identification of misunderstanding, mistake correction and slowing down

The study revealed that the subjects transferred strategies from L1 reading into L2 reading and that the same reading strategy types accounted for success and failure in both languages to almost the same extent.

Moreover, Sarig found that the two language dependent strategies, the clarification and simplification strategies, contributed to unsuccessful reading comprehension in both L1 and L2. The study also showed that most of the strategies used during the reading comprehension process were particular to each reader, or that each individual reads differently and used different combinations of strategies.

Barnett (1988) 00conducted a study on the reading strategies used by students learning French. Participants of the study were two different groups of university level students: one group was taught reading strategies and the other was not. The main concern of the research was to examine real and perceived strategy use among the students and how this affects their comprehension. She used a "text-level" and "word-level" coding scheme. The text-level is the processes, or strategies, used to read the passage as a whole, such as the use of background knowledge, predicting, reading the title,

skimming, etc. Whereas, Word-level strategies refer to the use of context to guess word meanings, identifying grammatical categories of words, using reference words, and identifying word families. Prior to reading the text, subjects answered questions on background knowledge. Both groups were asked to read an unfamiliar passage in French and to write a recall in English. After that, they completed a multiple-choice comprehension questionnaire where they chose the best continuing sentence. The last task was to answer 17 questions about the types of reading strategies that they used. The questions related to many effective and less effective text-level and word-level strategies. Based on the answers, Barnett made a list of the effective and less effective strategies as follows:

Effective Strategies

1. reader pays most attention to what the reading passage means

2. reader pays most attention to what the form or grammatical function of the words are

3. reader reads the whole passage once and then rereads it

4. reader finds the topic interesting

5. reader thinks about what s/he knows about the topic of the passage

6. reader often hypothesizes about what might come text

7. reader reads the title first and imagines what the passage might be about

8. reader guesses what some words mean.

Less Effective Strategies:

1. reader pays most attention to what individual words mean

2. reader pays most attention to what the structure of the passage is

3. reader rereads only the difficult sections

4. reader reads only because it has been assigned

5. reader never hypothesizes about what comes next

6. reader reads each paragraph by itself

7. reader reads the title but does not think much about it

8. reader thinks that it is a mistake to skip any words.

Based on the results of the study, Barnett concluded that students who were taught strategy use showed a greater ability to read through context than did their more traditionally taught peers. Furthermore, "*students who think that they use those strategies considered most productive actually do read through context better and understand more than do those who do not think they use such strategies*" (Barnett, 1988: 156). The study indicated that there was a strong link between strategy use and reading comprehension level and students who classified considering context while reading as an effective strategy comprehended more than those who did not.

Carrell (1989) conducted a study investigating meta-cognitive awareness of L2 reader strategies in their native language and second language and the link between this awareness and their comprehension. The participants were two groups: the first group was made up of native Spanish speakers studying English as a second language at a University-level institute. The second group consisted of native English speakers learning Spanish as a foreign language. Subjects were first asked to read two texts, one in L1 and one in L2. Then they were asked to answer multiple-choice comprehension questions about the text and finally to fill out a strategy use questionnaire. The questions of the questionnaire targeted the reading strategies used by the students. Subjects were asked to express their level of agreement or disagreement (strongly agree to strongly disagree) on a scale from one to five on each item. The questionnaire included items concerning (1) confidence, (2) repair, (3)

effectiveness, and (4) difficulty. Based on the results of the study and the correlation between strategy use and comprehension, Carrell concluded that the ESL readers of more advanced proficiency levels perceived "global" or top-down strategies as more effective. With the Spanish as a L2 group, she found that at the lower proficiency levels subjects used more bottom-up or "local" strategies.

Pritchard (1990) carried out a study to examine the process of how a reader activates and utilizes the relevant schema to facilitate comprehension. Two different reading passages were used: a culturally familiar and culturally unfamiliar. The aim of the study was to identify the strategies proficient readers employed to develop their understanding of culturally familiar and culturally unfamiliar passages. The study was conducted on American and Palauan students and the two texts consisted in a letter from a woman to her sister describing the events surrounding a typical funeral in each of the two cultures. The results of the study showed that the American students used a wider variety of strategies than the Palauan students. American students also reported using the strategies more often. In both cultural groups, significantly more idea units were recalled from the culturally familiar text. Therefore, Pritchard stated that the strategy use results were related to cross-cultural differences. Results also showed a greater number of distortions reported in the subjects' retellings of the unfamiliar text and subjects made more appropriate elaborations when recalling the familiar text. Therefore, Pritchard suggested that "*reading is a content-specific activity; that is, when the content of reading materials changes, processing behavior changes as well*" (Pritchard, 1990: 291).

Schueller (1999) tested the effects of top-down and bottom-up reading strategies instruction on the comprehension of two different literary texts. Participants of the study were 128 female and male second year university-level students of German. Both written recall and multiple-choice questions were used In order to assess comprehension. Results revealed a higher degree of reading comprehension among females. She reported that every female group outperformed the male groups regardless of strategic training and comprehension

assessment task with only one exception: only males with top-down strategy training did better than females on multiple choice (but not on recall). This study was the first to investigate whether males and females profit in similar ways from bottom-up and top-down strategy training. Based on the results, Schueller (1999) argued that if SL teachers cannot teach both top-down and bottom-up strategies because of time constraints, they should focus on top-down strategy training given that this would help both men and women.

Another study was conducted by Liang et al (1998) on reading problems and strategies from teacher's perspective. The aim of the study was to find out what one experienced teacher thought were the main reading problems among her primary school pupils and how she helped them cope with their reading problems. They wanted to find out whether the in-service teacher was aware of the types of reading strategies she could use to resolve her pupils' reading problems as well as the reasons behind the use of certain approaches and strategies to solve the problems she had identified. The researchers indicated the presence of a link between one's academic and social background and the strategies employed to teach and handle reading in the classroom.

Thus, the findings of this study prove that the teachers' qualities and competences have a strong impact on the way teachers teach reading comprehension and the choice of the strategies to carry out the teaching and the methods used to resolve the teaching issues. It is not easy for teachers who have no knowledge of teaching methods and no knowledge of their students' learning styles and strategies to succeed in their mission.

Foertsch (1998) collected the qualitative data from a local evaluative study about teachers' beliefs regarding reading and reading instruction. The study was conducted on teachers from primary school to middle school levels. The results of the study showed that elementary teachers believed that they should emphasize decoding within the context of a story. For middle school level, the study indicated that teachers believed that good readers used different strategies and were able to monitor their own comprehension. It was also found that no

single approach works for everyone; therefore, students should be able to respond personally and critically and make connections with a variety of texts.

Another important study that investigated the link between readers' gender, passage content, comprehension and strategy use was conducted by Brantmeier (2000). The study findings provided evidence that gender differences do not account for difference in strategy use when reading a second language and there were no significant gender differences in the overall number of global and local strategies that subjects used to process the texts in the study. The results are similar to the outcomes of a study carried out by Oxford (1997) with regard to differences between men and women in the strategy use. Unlike the results of a study by Barnett's (1988), subjects' strategy use (global and local) in Brantmeier's (2000) study did not affect comprehension. Brantmeier's (2000) results echo some of Sarigs' (1987) findings in that the use of global strategies led to both successful and unsuccessful reading comprehension. Furthermore, the results revealed no positive correlation between subjects' global and local strategy use and their comprehension scores.

Conclusion

It goes without saying that Reading and vocabulary learning have a reciprocal impact. The more we read, the more our vocabulary becomes stronger; and the more our vocabulary is large, the more we read and comprehend what we read easily. Thus, the above literature reviewed the concepts of reading from different angles and perspectives. It introduced various definitions of reading as suggested by different scholars and researchers.

The chapter also reviewed the different types of reading as well as the different purposes of reading which differ from a reader to another. Furthermore, some of the main obstacles hampering the reading process were introduced. The chapter also shed light on the qualities and characteristics of the good or successful reader in order to allow a close investigation of his/her behavior.

Finally, the last section of the chapter was devoted to the review of some of the most important studies on reading, reading strategies and the various classification and taxonomies of Reading Strategies suggested by prominent researchers.

Chapter 5

Research Methodology

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the methodology used by the researcher to carry out this study. Therefore, as mentioned before, this descriptive study uses a field investigation in order to seek answers to the research questions regarding the use of the dictionary as a pedagogical tool and as a VLS as opposed to teacher's help in the process of vocabulary learning and comprehension in the Department of English of ENSB. It depicts the current situation of the use of the dictionary by ENSB EFL students during reading classes to understand vocabulary.

The study also comprises a quasi-experimental part where the researcher conducted a field experiment with the 1st and 3^{rd}EFL students. The sample was selected randomly and divided into two groups: the teacher group (control group) and the dictionary group (experimental group). The aim of the experiment is to confirm the relationship between the use of the dictionary and understanding vocabulary. Details regarding the experiment will be dealt with in the section regarding the field test in this chapter.

It deals with the design, the procedure and the data collection tools used to gather and analyze the data. It gives a presentation of the participants concerned by the study namely 1st and 3rd year groups of students and reading comprehension teachers of the Department of English.

It also deals with the definitions as well as the advantages and drawbacks of the questionnaire and the interview and the justification of their use. The chapter also reviews in detail the design as well as the implementation of the reading for vocabulary test.

5.1 Participants:

The participants to this study are teachers and students of the Department of English, Ecole Normale Supérieure de Bouzareah (ENSB). The study concerned teachers who teach reading comprehension and vocabulary in the first- and third -year levels. The students also belonged to groups from first and third -year groups. All participant students belonged to the department of English at ENS Bouzareah University.

- **Teachers**

A total of nine (10) teachers of the department of English of ENS Bouzareah accepted to participate in the study by filling the teachers' questionnaire and answering the interview questions. One teacher could nt attend the Interview appointment as she had an emergency on the due date. All interviewed teachers teach Reading comprehension in the department of English at ENS, some them teach 1s year students and some others 3rd year.

- **Students**

The student population concerned by the present study is made up of six groups of approximately 40 students per group: three groups of 1st year and three groups of 3rd year. The groups were chosen randomly without any specific consideration of good/poor achievers, gender, age or any other consideration. Both male and female students participated in the study. It's worth noting that the six groups were administered the questionnaire, but just two groups of each level participated in the reading for vocabulary field test.

5.2 Setting

Originally, the study was supposed to take place in the department of English of Alger 2 University; however, due to the fact that the reading comprehension module doesn't exist in 3rd year, the researcher elected, with the approval of the supervisor, to complete the field study at the Department of English of Ecole Normale Supérieure de Bouzareah (ENSB). ENSB is the

Algerian University training future teachers in all stages, primary, middle and high schools.

5.3 Rationale behind choosing the 1st and 3rd year students:

The reason behind the choice of the topic of dictionary use versus teachers' help and the impact of both on vocabulary comprehension in the 1st and 3rd year ENSB English department students in the present study is to investigate on one hand the use of the dictionary, the way it is used and its impact on vocabulary comprehension and, on the other hand, to see if and how this pedagogical tool is being used by students at the two levels, to see if students keep using the dictionary through time or they refrain from using it through time and replace it by other strategies.

Moreover, one of the main reasons of choosing 1st and 3rd levels is to see if 3rd year students keep using the same reading strategies or they improve them or simply replace them by other strategies through time. Further, the research focused on the ways students use the dictionary and see if they use it in the same way in the 3rd year as they used to do in the 1st year, i.e. to see if their dictionary skills improve through time.

English department of ENSB is one of the most important departments of the country as it prepares the students to be future teachers of English in all levels, i.e. Middle and secondary schools. Therefore, as the students will have the responsibility of teaching the English language to the Algerian pupils, it's highly important for them to have a high proficiency in English vocabulary. Thus, this study is meant to investigate one of the many important aspects of building a storing knowledge of English, that is to say, vocabulary comprehension.

5.4 Research Design

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in the study. The aim of a mixed research method in the context of the present study is to give an in depth and insightful understanding of vocabulary understanding and mainly to

investigate the use of the dictionary as well as various VLS and reading strategies by the students at the ENSB Department of English to learn vocabulary.

The study can be classified as a descriptive survey in which data was collected by means of questionnaires, interviews and a field test. The interviews aimed at providing a deeper insight by giving more information with regard to dictionary use during reading comprehension classes in the department.

- **Qualitative research**

This type of method is used to broaden the scope of understanding of phenomena by employing more naturalistic and less structured data collection procedures. The aim behind this method is to explore and describe constructs by collecting rich and in-depth data, taking full account of individuals. It therefore tends to be closely associated with relatively open and less structured strategies for data collection, such as the use of participant observation and in-depth interviews, in order to generate a detailed account of human behavior (Larsen-Freeman Long 1991)

- **Quantitative research**

This method assumes a stable reality and thus seeks causal relationships between different constructs through controlled and objective instruments. In this type there is little emphasis on the individual's state of mind. It is, therefore, closely associated with surveyor experimental data collection procedures by which a specified causal connection can be verified or rejected (Larsen-Freeman Long 1991).

Although the two approaches are different, many researchers combine both in the same research. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), qualitative and quantitative research methods are complementary.

5.5 Data collection

For the sake of satisfying the triangulation criterion, the data of the present study were collected from students and teachers in the department of English of ENSB by means of three tools: two questionnaires, an interview as well as a reading for vocabulary field activity followed by a test.

The students were asked to fill the questionnaires and hand them over to their teachers who in their turn handed them over to the secretariat of the department of English where I picked them up myself.

Regarding the interviews with teachers, I completed them myself with the teachers during their spare time in different places at the department and at different hours according to the availability of the teachers. Some of them were completed in classrooms, others in the offices or in the staff room of the department and one of the teachers answered my questions in the corridor.

5.6 Instruments of the study

The study used three types of instruments to collect data: a field test, a teacher interview and two questionnaires – a student questionnaire and a teachers' questionnaire.

5.6.1 The Questionnaire as a Research Technique

The questionnaire is one of the most reliable methods of collecting data regarding attitudes and opinions from a relatively large group of participants. Researchers often use it in foreign/second language researches. A questionnaire allows the researcher to gather information from participants such as learners, teachers and course designers regarding their beliefs, qualifications, skills as well as their motivations and interests.

There are different types of questionnaires. Each type is used for a specific purpose. All questionnaires generally include two types of questions: closed and open ended. In the first type of questions, the researcher determines the possible answers. In the second type, the open-ended questions, allows respondents to answer without restrictions; the respondent has more freedom to answer in the way he wants.

It is believed that closed-item questions typically involve a greater uniformity of measurement and therefore greater reliability. This type of questions gives answers that are easy to be quantified and analyzed. However, open-ended questions grant respondents more freedom to answer in their own

way thus presenting their ideas more freely which of course results in a more relevant, rich and insightful data.

Another key point to take into account is that questions in a research are strongly related to the study research questions. Moreover, there is no rule imposing on the researcher to choose only one of the two types in a research. The researcher is free to choose one or the other or simply mix the two types provided that this meets the objective of the study by providing the maximum of required information. Questionnaires also are more economical and practical than many other research techniques. They can elicit longitudinal information from participants in a short period of time. They can be administered by e-mail, mail or simply in person. Depending on how they are structured they can provide both qualitative and quantitative data,

However, for the sake of a more thorough data, questionnaires alone are not sufficient data gathering tools and they need to be accompanied by other research methods especially if the research is complex. Just like any other technique, questionnaires have some limitations despite their wide spread use, hence the importance of evaluating their advantages and disadvantages.

CCAdvantages:

Low cost in time and money

Easy to get information from a lot of people very quickly

Respondents have adequate time to complete the questionnaire

Analysis of answers to closed questions is straight forward

Less pressure for an immediate response

Respondent's anonymity

Free from interviewer bias

Remote respondents can be easily approached

Can provide suggestive data for testing a hypothesis

Disadvantages:

Problems of motivating respondents

Typically low response rate unless sample 'captive'

The need for brevity and relatively simple questions

Misunderstandings cannot be corrected

Seeks information just by asking questions

Question wording can have major effect on answers.

Respondent literacy problems

People talk more easily than they write.

Impossible to check the seriousness or honesty of the answers

Respondent uncertainty as to what happens to data.(Gillham, 2007:6-8).

In short, it is important to know that questionnaires are useful research means but most often need to be used with another research technique. It is also important to pilot them and then refine the final version on the light of any noticed limitations. The piloting stage is a determinant one along the process of questionnaire design. It serves as a test which shows the efficiency of questionnaire as a technique to gather particularly targeted data.

5.6.2 Teachers' Interview

An interview is a live face-to-face situation where the interviewer attempts to collect reliable and valid information in the form of verbal responses from one or more respondents. Interviews have been extensively used for eliciting language learning strategies (Naiman el aL 1978; Wenden 1987) and to provide the most detailed information about learning strategies (Naiman et al. 1978). They can be used to provide in-depth information about the use of strategies with individual tasks (O'Malley &Chamot 1990). In interviews, informants are asked to describe verbally learning experiences that have occurred sometime before (Cohen 1984). The aim of the interview is to get a maximum of information from the informants and give their personal views in their own words and this allows the researcher to gain more insights and a clear understanding of the topic. Interviews are generally divided into three types:

Structured interview: This type of interview is organized around a set of prearranged short and direct questions which require immediate answers, mostly 'yes" or 'no' type of responses. In such situations, both the interviewer and the informants have little freedom. Furthermore, this type of interview is very similar to the questionnaire in both its form and the assumptions underlying its use (Hitchcock & Hughes 1989).

Unstructured interview: This type of interview offers an open situation where both interviewer and informant have more flexibility and freedom with respect to the organization, implementations and the content of the questions. Furthermore, in some instances, the information is obtained in such a casual manner that the respondents are not aware they are being interviewed. This type of interviews may sometimes redirect the inquiry into more fruitful channels and encourage informants to express their thoughts freely. In this type of interviews, Open-ended Questions are flexible and target a number of advantages such as allowing the interviewer to probe to go into more depth in the topic. Open-ended questions can also result in unexpected or unanticipated answers which may suggest hitherto unthought-of relationships or hypotheses (Cohen& NIanion1 994:2 77).

Semi-structured interview: This type may be considered a much more flexible version of the structured interview. The use of this type requires the preparation of a basic checklist in order to cover all the important points and topics of the research. According to Hitchcock & Hughes (1989), this type of interview "*allows depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand the interviewee's responses*"(Hitchcock & Hughes, 1989: *83*).

Finally, we can say that all types of interviews have a number of advantages and disadvantages. We can cite below, the most important of them in our view:

Advantages:

-Allows the interviewer to clarify questions

- Useful for gaining insight and context into a topic.
- Allows the respondent to describe what is important to her or him
-Can be used with young children and illiterates
-Allows the informants to respond in any manner they see fit.
-Allows the interviewers to observe verbal and non-verbal behavior of the respondents
- Reduces anxiety so that potentially threatening topics can be studied
- Means of obtaining personal information, attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs

Disadvantages:
-Susceptible to interview bias.
-Time consuming and expensive compared to other data collection methods
-May seem intrusive to the respondent.
-Unstructured interviews often yield data too difficult to summarize or evaluate.
-Training interviewers, sending them to meet and interview their informants, and evaluating their effectiveness all add to the cost of the study

-Informants may not report the information accurately or may forget to mention some significant points

5.7 Construction of the Instruments

The instruments used to collect the data were constructed and used based on the needs and purpose of the study, i.e. the study of the impact of dictionary use versus teacher's assistance on vocabulary comprehension. In designing the students' questionnaire and selecting the texts and tests of the study, the students' intelligibility and level of vocabulary have been considered. The texts and the

wording of the questions were discussed with the teachers as they are the only persons who know the real level of their students.

The questions in the teachers' questionnaire are similar to a great extent to those in the students' questionnaire with a view to comparing the results and correlating them.

Moreover, the researcher has chosen a language in the student questionnaire with due care so that the respondents can understand easily the questions and thus provide answers to all questions. Both questionnaires were not too long as it is known that generally, students and teachers do not fill questionnaires easily and often get bored very quickly when questionnaires contain a lot of questions.

Questionnaire wording is of paramount importance; therefore, in constructing the questionnaires of the present study, the researcher took due care about making the questions as clear as possible in order to ensure he can get the appropriate information. Question wording helps:

> (i) remove ambiguity to achieve the degree of precision necessary to ensure that subjects understand exactly what the researcher is asking,

> (ii) check that your language is jargon free,

> (iii) decide which question type to use,

> (iv) and ensure that the researcher will be able to classify and analyze responses.   (Bell, 1999: 119)

Johnson (1992) adds that:

> (i) Items should be written in clear, non-technical language that is easy to understand.

> (ii) Items should not contain negative phrasing that is difficult to process (For example: Which one of these is not a disadvantage?).

(iii) They should contain only one idea per item. For potentially confusing items, it is important to give the respondents an example that illustrates how they should answer the question.(Johnson ,1992:113)

Moreover, the researcher elected to ask short questions in order not to overwhelm the respondents and discourage them to answer the maximum of questions. Burns (1999) stresses the importance of keeping the questionnaires relatively short and uncluttered. Thus, for him, additional care should be taken of: (i) the language level of the students; (ii) the brevity and clarity of the questions; (iii) the extent to which learners have the knowledge required to answer the questions.

For the sake of encouraging the respondents to complete the questionnaires and get the maximum of information, the researcher also chose to vary the types of questions. Thus, he used closed questions, open-ended questions, scale questions and multiple-choice questions.

• **Closed questions**: questions in which the respondents are asked to select one form among a limited range of responses such as Yes/No. And in some cases, another choice such as *Don't know* is added.

The advantage of such questions is to make the make the questionnaire easier and quicker to fill in. They are used to gather quantitative information and are easy to analyze.

• **Open-ended questions**: questions allowing respondents to answer in their own words, they help to explore the respondent's perceptions, beliefs or opinions. They are easy to prepare but more difficult to analyze. They can be useful for obtaining qualitative information and for discovering new variables in responses. For Wallace (1998), "*Open questions are good for exploratory research where you have difficulty in anticipating the range of responses. They are also more likely to yield more unexpected (and therefore, perhaps, more interesting) data*".(Wallace,1998:135)

• **Scale questions**: Questions is which respondents are provided with a set of fixed alternatives representing degrees of agreement or disagreement (for example, Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly disagree) from which they choose one answer. In such type of questions, respondents also can be requested to rank preferences from a number of fixed options.

5.7.1 Construction of the students' Questionnaire

Based on the above, the student questionnaire is made up of 14 questions divided into two parts. Part one, the dictionary part, seeks answers with regard to dictionary use during reading comprehension classes, the types of dictionaries used, dictionary skills, students' attitudes and opinions with regard to dictionary use in learning vocabulary. Part one also investigates the type of information students generally look for in dictionaries, their knowledge of the dictionary constituents and the type of difficulties they face when consulting a dictionary.

Part two, the teacher's part, investigates teachers' attitudes and opinions with regard to dictionary use during reading comprehension classes. It aims at investigating the role of the teacher in the process of learning comprehension, the types of dictionaries they encourage or discourage their students to use and the various types of vocabulary learning strategies used by the teachers to help students learn vocabulary.

5.7.2   Construction of the Teachers' questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire is built on the same logic and principles as the one adopted for the students' questionnaire. It's made up of two parts. The first part investigates whether or not teachers allow their students to use the dictionary during reading comprehension classes, the types of dictionaries they are allowed to use, the reasons, if any, why teachers do not allow students use dictionaries, teachers' attitudes towards the idea that the dictionary promotes student's autonomy in learning vocabulary, the importance of dictionary use skills for students, the reasons for which students consult a dictionary as well as the difficulties facing students when consulting a dictionary.

Part two investigates the attitudes and opinions of teachers with regard to their role in facilitating vocabulary items to their students, whether they give activities where students use a dictionary to learn vocabulary, if they teach students how to use a dictionary, the vocabulary learning strategies they use to teach vocabulary, the strategies their students use to learn vocabulary according to them and their opinion on the best strategies teachers can use to ensure a good teaching of vocabulary.

5.7.3 Construction of the Interview:

In the present study, the interview consisted of six questions based on the questionnaire questions in order to extract the maximum of information from the teachers of reading comprehension in the Department of English of ENSB with regard to the questions raised in the study, namely, dictionary use by the students and its impact on students' vocabulary comprehension, teachers' attitudes and opinions with regard to dictionary use in class, the reading and vocabulary strategies used to learn vocabulary, dictionary use as a strategy as well as the teacher' role as a facilitator of vocabulary instruction

5.7.4 Construction of the Field Test

The field tests consisted in two reading comprehension courses followed by two short tests to measure the extent to which students learn, understand and retain new vocabulary items with the help of a dictionary only or with the help of the teacher only. The test was designed for a group of 58 first-year students and a second group of 53 third-year students. Bothtexts were selected based on recommendations of the teachers in charge of reading comprehension module for the randomly selected groups. Students were informed that the course had no incidence on their marks. Furthermore, no student was forced to attend the course or sit for the exam.

The first stage consisted of reading sessions where the students were given the texts to read and look for the meaning of 10 difficult words chosen by the teacher. The sessions lasted about 45 minutes each as follows.

Both 1st and the 3rd year groups were chosen randomly. Firstyear students were divided into two groups, a control group (teacher group) and an experimental group (dictionary group). Same thing was done with the 3rd year groups. The same text was distributed to the participants of the experimental and the control group by their teachers in order to make sure that the course would be natural, and the students would not behave in any way if they knew it was for a study. The teacher's group was asked not to use the dictionary but to rely only on the teacher's help to disambiguate the underlined words. The dictionary group was asked to use a dictionary to find the meaning of the underlined words.

At the end of the activity the teacher would review with the participants their answers and correct the wrong answers to make sure all participants get the right meaning of all the words. A week after, the dictionary groups and the teacher groups were invited to sit for a quiz of 30 minutes to test their vocabulary. The same text that was studied was administered by their teachers in natural conditions. During the test both groups were not allowed to use the dictionary or teacher's assistance.

5.8 Administration of the Students' questionnaire

The students' questionnaire was printed and administered to the students at the end of the year during the revision period, the first week of May 2015. During that period, there were no lectures. Students were just revising for the end-of the year exams. The questionnaire copies were given to teachers of first and third-year students to distribute them to students and explain their content in case students find difficulties to understand the meaning of any question. Students were asked to fill the questionnaires and give them back to their teachers within a week time.

5.9 Administration of the Teachers' questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire was printed and administered to the teachers at the end of the year, in May 2015. During that period, teachers were preparing the exams of the end of the year.

Therefore, teachers were handed out the questionnaire copies by the secretary of the department of English and were asked to fill them and give them back to the department office. Teachers also were given a week to fill and return the questionnaires.

5.10 Conduction of the Teachers' Interview

The interviews were administered to the teachers by the researcher himself in April 2015 in the department of English according to the availability of the teachers. Some of the interviews were done in classrooms, some in the office of the head of the department and some even in the corridors depending on the teachers' availability. It's worth noting that all the teachers who participated in the interview were teaching the module of reading comprehension in the first and the third year. All of them showed a great interest and willingness to provide their feedback as the subject interested them and liked the fact that there were not many questions in the interview.

5.11 Administration of the Reading for vocabulary Field Test

The reading for Vocabulary tests were administered with the help of the two teachers of the department, the teacher of the first year and the one of the third year. It was administered during their normal reading comprehension courses. The Reading for vocabulary test was carried out in two stages: the first stage was the course administration and the second stage consisted in the test to check for understanding. No student was forced to participate. All of the students were made aware that the course was part of an experiment to study vocabulary comprehension and it had no impact on their marks.

- **First Year Group**

The first-year group which was randomly chosen was split into two sections. **The first section** – the teacher section- was given the text to read and then go through the 10 difficult words with the help of the teacher and no dictionary use was allowed. The course lasted for 45 minutes where the students

had about 10 minutes to read the test. After that, the teacher went through the explanation of each word with the students by providing definitions and/or synonyms. The teacher repeated the explanation several times to make sure that all students understood the meaning of the target words.

The second section – the dictionary section - was given the same text to read and to look for the meaning of the 10 difficult words with the help of a dictionary. Therefore, the teacher gave the students the text to read for about 10 minutes, and then asked them to find the meaning of the underlined words in the dictionary. Students were allowed about 15 minutes to find the meaning of the target words in the dictionary. Students were given 15 minutes to find the meaning of every word. After that, the students went through the correction step, i.e. they gave the meaning of every word and checked if they found the same appropriate meaning. The role of the teacher was limited to make sure that all students understood the exact meaning of each of the 10 words. The course ended after 45 minutes.

Quiz

A week later, both sections were invited to take a quiz of 30 minutes to check their understanding of the text. The test was administered by the teacher for both groups. The students were given the same text and asked to provide the definitions or the synonyms of the 10 underlined words.

Both sections were not allowed to use the dictionary and the teacher made sure that no student helped others or received help from them. All students were asked to work individually under the supervision of their teacher in order for the researcher to see if they really understood the meaning of the target wordsor not and test the effect of dictionary use on students' understanding

After 30 minutes, the teacher collected the copies with the answers of the students of both the dictionary section and the teacher section. The teacher then put the copies of both sections each in an envelope and handed them to me.

- **Third Year Group**

The third-year group was randomly chosen and split into two sections. **The first section** – the teacher section (control group) - was given the text to read and then go through the 10 difficult words with the help of the teacher - no dictionary use allowed. Just like the first-year course, the third year course lasted for 45 minutes where the students had about 10 minutes to read the test. After that, the teacher went through the explanation of each word with the students by providing definitions and/or synonyms. The teacher repeated the explanation several times to make sure that all students understood the meaning of the target words.

The second section – the dictionary section (experimental group)- was given the same text to read and to look for the definitions or synonyms of the ten difficult words. The only source of help for the second section was the dictionary. Therefore, the students were given the text to read for about 10 minutes, and after that they were asked to find the meaning of the underlined words in the dictionary. Students were allowed about 15 minutes to find the meaning of the target words in the dictionary. Just like the first section, we decided to give 15 minutes in order to give each student the opportunity to find the meaning of every word. After that, the students went through the correction, i.e. they gave the meaning of every word and checked if they found the same appropriate meaning. The teacher's role was limited to make sure that all students understood the exact meaning of each of the 10 words. The course ended after 45 minutes.

Quiz

A week later, both sections – the dictionary and the teacher sections- were invited to take a quiz of 30 minutes to check their understanding of the text. The test was administered by the teacher of the group. The students were given the same text and asked to provide the definitions or the synonyms of the 10 underlined words. At this stage also, no student was forced to sit for the quiz.

During the quiz, both sections were not allowed to use dictionaries and the teacher made sure that no student helped others or received help from them. All students were asked to work individually in order for the researcher to see if they really understood or not the meaning of the target words, whether with the dictionary or with the help of the teacher.

After 30 minutes, the teacher collected the copies with the answers of the students, both the dictionary section and the teacher section. The teacher then put the copies of both sections each in an envelope and handed them to me.

5.12 Limitations of the study

The study was carried out in the Department of English of Ecole Normale Supérieure de Bouzareah (ENSB) on 1st and 3rd year students. Thus, the results and findings apply only to the students and teachers of the department. Further, the study included only four groups of students: 1 group belonging to the first year and the other group belonging to the 3rd year. There was no connection with any other students or teachers from any other Department of English from other universities in the country.

5.13 Procedures of the Study

In order to achieve the aims of the study, the researcher employed the following procedures:

1. Review of literature.

2. Identifying the population of the study.

3. Designing the instruments of the study;

4. Administration of the instruments and collecting the data;

5. Analyzing the data and discussing the results;

6. Closing the study with recommendations and a conclusion.

Conclusion

The aim of this chapter is the description of the methodology followed by the researcher to complete the present study. It reviewed design of the study, the population and sample, the study instruments, the statistical analysis as well as the procedures followed in the study.

The study's main aim is to investigate the impact of dictionary look up versus the teacher's help and the impact of both on students' vocabulary understanding. The study concerned the 1st and 3rd year students and teachers of Reading comprehension module at the Department of English of ENS Bouzareah.

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in this study and the researcher used instruments such as questionnaires, interviews and a field test activity. The use of these instruments is to investigate the problem from multiple perspectives and to provide, through triangulation, reliable results of the study as a whole.

Chapter 6

Results of the Teachers'and the students' questionnaires

Introduction

This chapter will introduce the results and the analysis of the findings of the different instruments used in this study. It is divided into four sections. Section one deals with the results and analysis of the students' questionnaire. Section two describes and analyzes the results of the teachers' questionnaire. Section three is devoted to the interview's results and analysis and the last section describes the results and the analysis of the Reading for comprehension field test.

The results of the above instruments will help us to draw a clear picture of the use of the dictionary by the students in the Department of English, their opinions and their teachers' attitudes towards the use of this tool. To carry out the analysis of the results of the different instruments, the researcher used descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentages.

6.1 Results of the students' questionnaire: 1st and 3rd year

This part is divided into two subsections: 1st year questionnaire results and 3rd year questionnaire results.

6.1.1 First-Year Questionnaire results:

Part one- The Dictionary

Q1- Do you use the dictionary in the classroom during reading comprehension courses?

a- Yes   b- No

All respondents (65) answered this question. From the results of Histogram 1, we understand that the great majority of the 1st year respondents (80%) use the dictionary during reading comprehension classes and only 20 % do not use it.
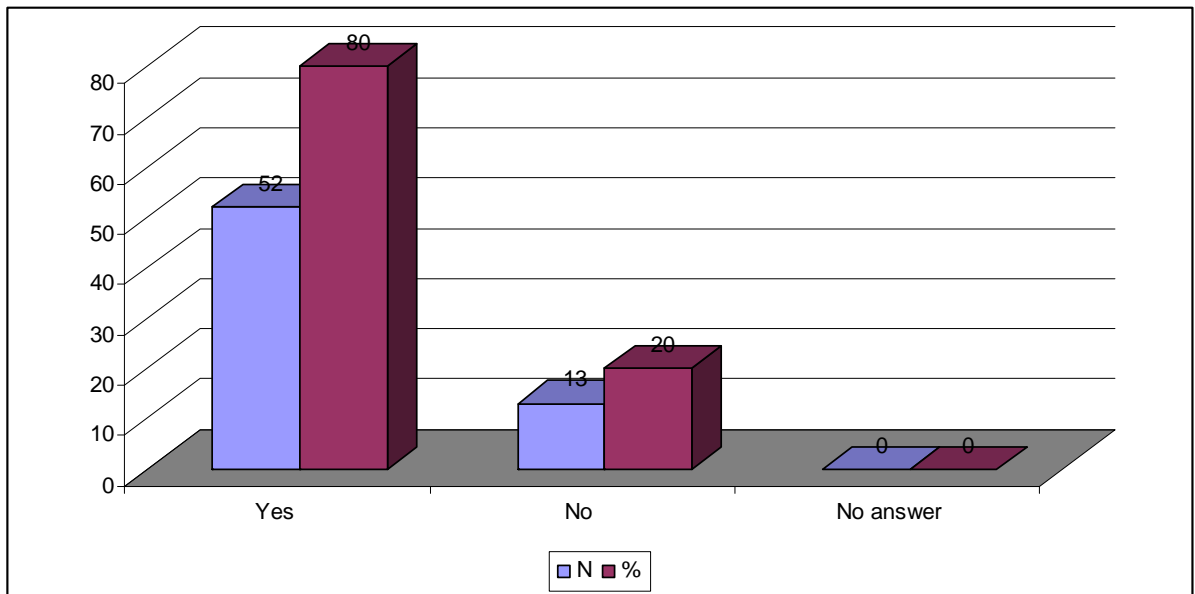
Histogram 1– Dictionary use during Reading Comp Classes

Q 2- If yes, which type of dictionary do you use?

a) The monolingual dictionary
b) The bilingual dictionary
c) Both

Histogram 2 shows that 51 out of 65 respondents (78.46%) answered this question and 14 respondents (21.53%) didn't provide any answer. Moreover, of the 51 respondents who answered the question, 24 respondents (47.05%) use both types of dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual dictionaries), 20 respondents (39.21%) use the monolingual dictionary and a small number, 7 respondents (13.72%) use the bilingual one.

157
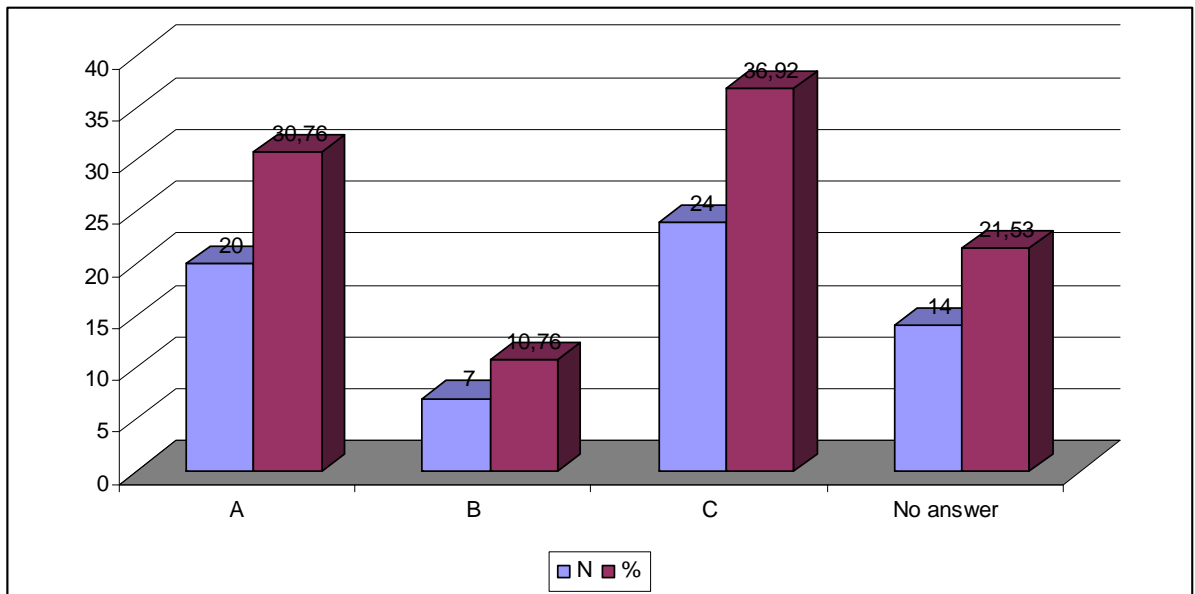
Histogram 2- Types of dictionaries used by the students

Therefore, we can understand that nearly half of the respondents use both types of dictionaries and implicitly we can see that the monolingual dictionary is used more than the bilingual one.

Q3- If no, could you please explain why?

Those who do not use the dictionary in the classroom during reading comprehension courses gave a variety of reasons that can be summed up in the following histogram:
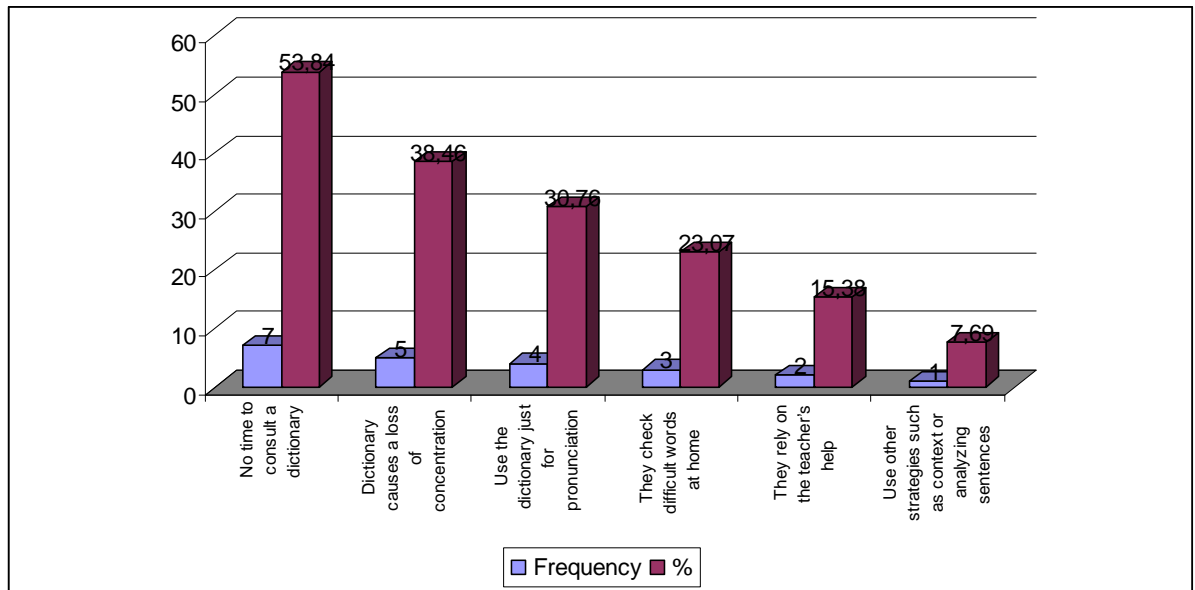
Histogram 3- Reasons for not using the dictionary

The above histogram shows that 7 out of 13 respondents (53.84%), more than half of the respondents to this question, say they have no time to consult the dictionary, 5 respondents (38.46%) consider that the dictionary disturbs learning and causes a loss of concentration. Four (4) respondents (30.76%) said they don't use it and if they ever use it, it would be strictly for pronunciation. Also, three (3) respondents (23.07%) prefer to use it at home to check difficult words and prefer to rely on the text and the teacher in the classroom. Only one (1) respondent (7.69%) said he preferred using other strategies in the classroom such as context and sentence analysis.

Q4- I understand words better when I get their meaning from the dictionary

   a) Strongly agree,   b) Agree,   c) Disagree, d) Strongly disagree

From histogram 4, we can conclude that 96.92% of the respondents agree that they understand words better when they get their meaning from the dictionary. 27.69% even strongly agree on this point. No respondents out of the 65 expressed disagreement on this point. Therefore, it's clear from the results that the dictionary is very important for students to get the meaning of the words.
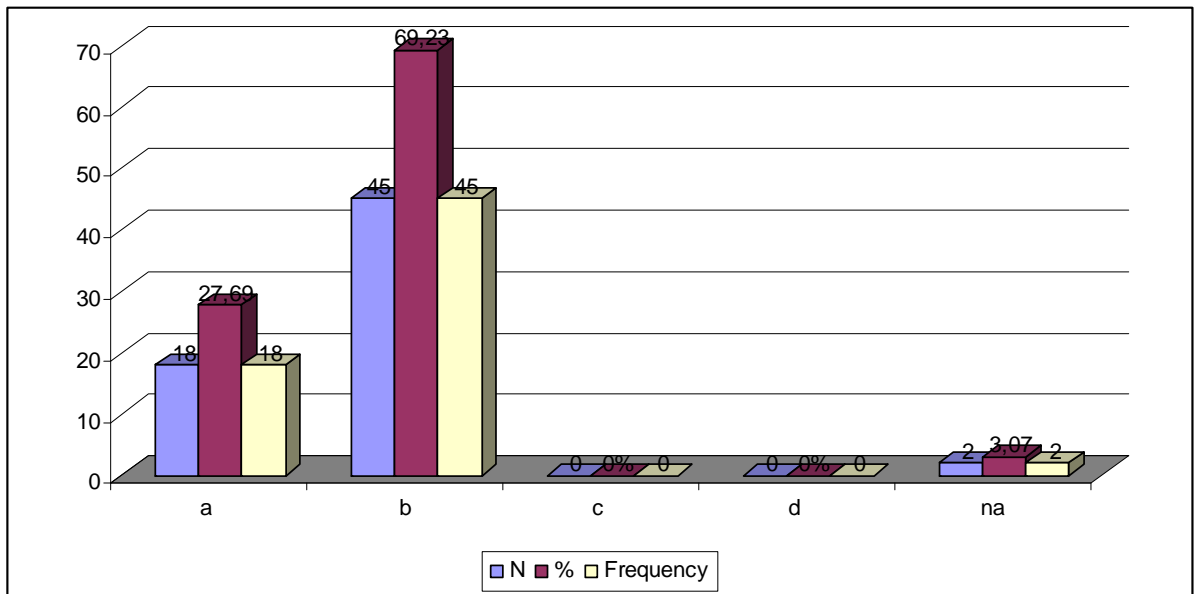
Histogram 4- Understanding from a dictionary

Q5- Do you know how to use the dictionary?

   a- Yes   b- No

The results of Histogram 5 below show that 65 of the respondents (100%)answered this question and 96.92% said yes they know how to use the dictionary. A very small percentage of 3.07% (2 respondents) does not know how to use the dictionary.
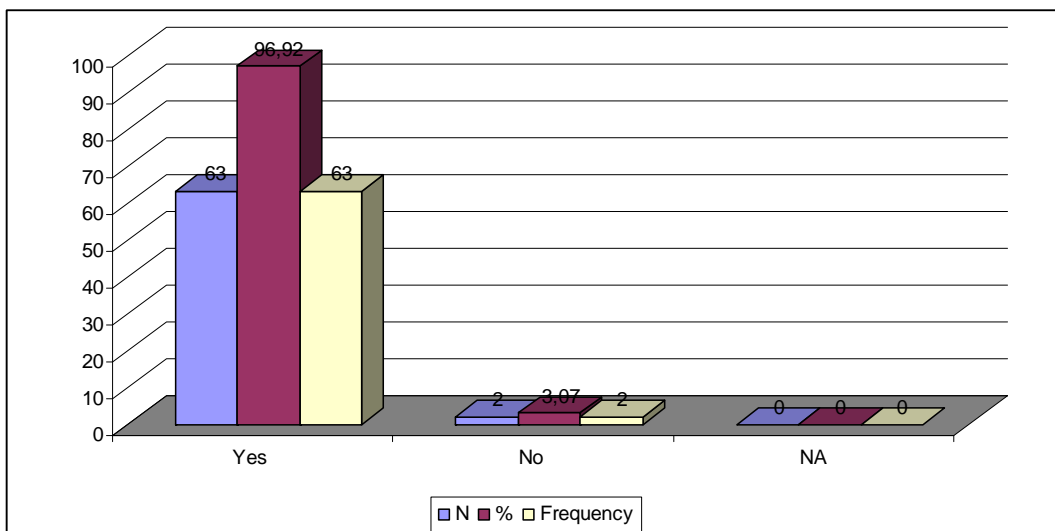
Histogram 5- Dictionary Skills

Q6 - Have you ever read the instructions on dictionary use (user's guide) included in the dictionary?

        a- Yes   b- No

64 Students answered this question. Only one (1) respondent didn't answer this question. From the results in the histogram below, it's clear that 50% (32 respondents) read the dictionary user guide and 50% don't. Therefore; the percentage of the respondents who do not read the dictionary user's guide is important.
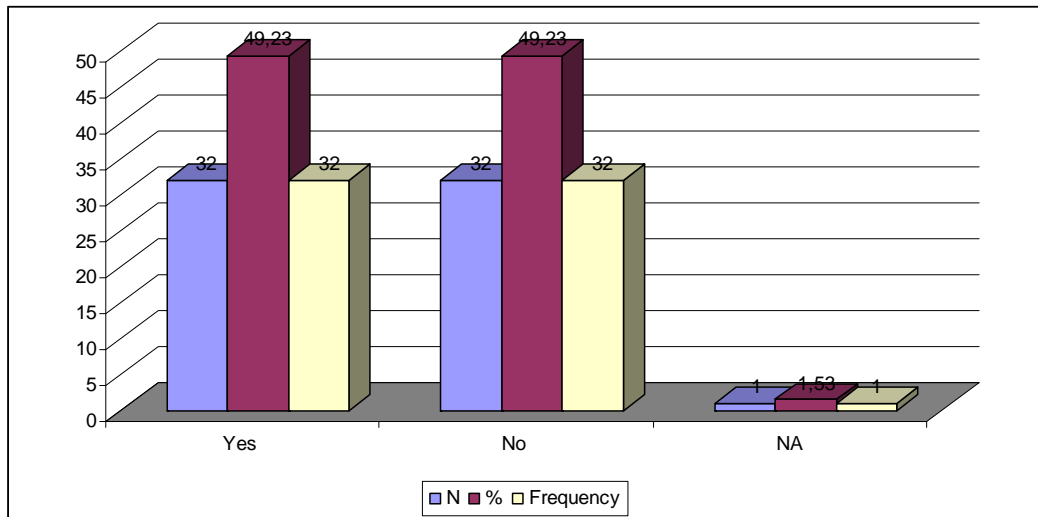
Histogram 6- Reading the User's Guide

Q7- What do you generally look up in a dictionary?

> a- Definitions
>
> b- Grammar.
>
> c- Usage of the English words.
>
> d- Examples.
>
> e- Cultural information related to the word.
>
> f- Pronunciation
>
> g- other, specify:
>
> ---
>
> -------

From the result shown in histogram 7, the researcher noticed the following:

- The majority of the respondents 93.84% consult the dictionary for

definitions.

- 70.76% of the respondents refer to the dictionary for pronunciation reasons
- 41.53% of the 65 respondents said they consult a dictionary for examples in order to understand the use of the words.
- 16.92% look up grammatical items in the dictionary
- 9.23% look for Cultural information related to the word in the dictionary
- No respondent suggested any other reason for using the dictionary.
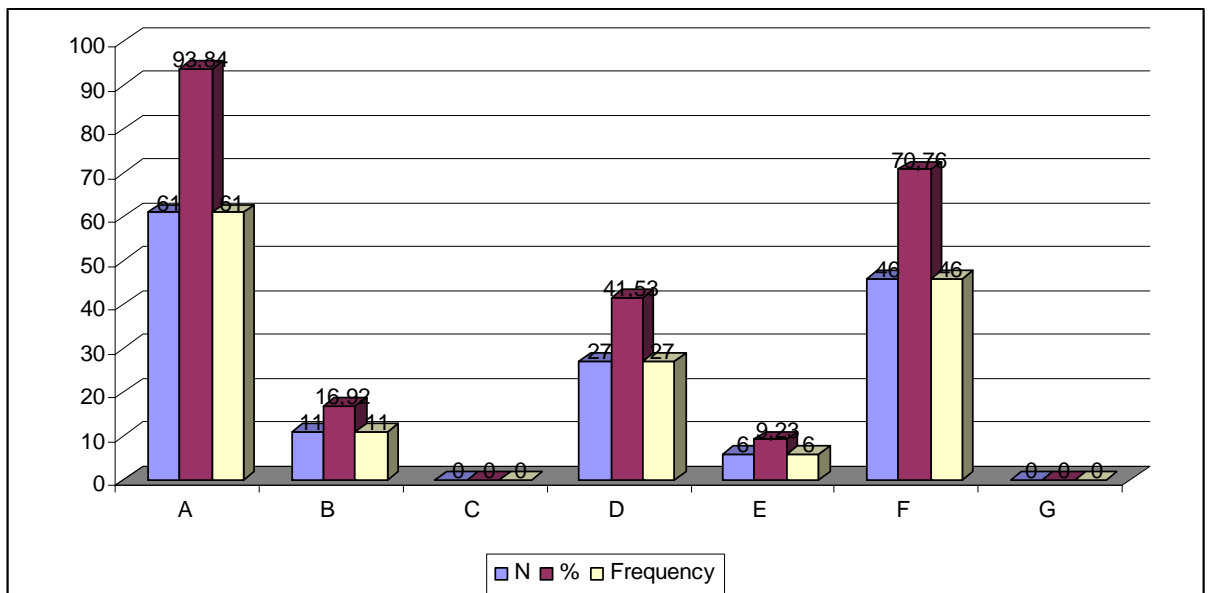
Histogram 7: Type of Information looked up for in a dictionary

As we can see from the results, definitions constitute the major reason for a dictionary consultation followed by pronunciation and examples.

Q8- What do you find difficult when using the dictionary?

This question was answered by 60 respondents out of 65. Out of the 60 respondents, 10 said they had no difficulty using the dictionary. The remaining 50 respondents have listed a variety of difficulties they face when using the dictionary. Most of them said they had difficulties with *meaning*, they didn't know which meaning to pick up from the dictionary. For a large number of these respondents consulting a dictionary is *time* consuming. When a word has

different *definitions*, it's not easy for them to choose the relevant one to the context of the text they deal with. Further, *transcriptions* constituted a big source of difficulty for the respondents. Most of the respondents said that they found difficulties with definitions containing difficult words and complicated definitions.

From the above, we can conclude that picking up the right meaning is the major problem for most of the respondents. Complicated and long definitions containing difficult words also constituted a challenge for our respondents.

Part II- the teacher

Q9 - My teacher favors dictionary use to learn vocabulary in the classroom.

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Disagree d) Strongly disagree

From histogram 8, we can see that only 5 respondents out of 65 (7.69%) didn't answer this question. The results show that more than half of the respondents (69.22%) agree that their teacher favors dictionary use to learn vocabulary in the classroom to learn vocabulary. 20% of the respondents disagree and consider that their teacher doesn't favor dictionary use in the classroom and only 3.07% strongly disagree on this point.
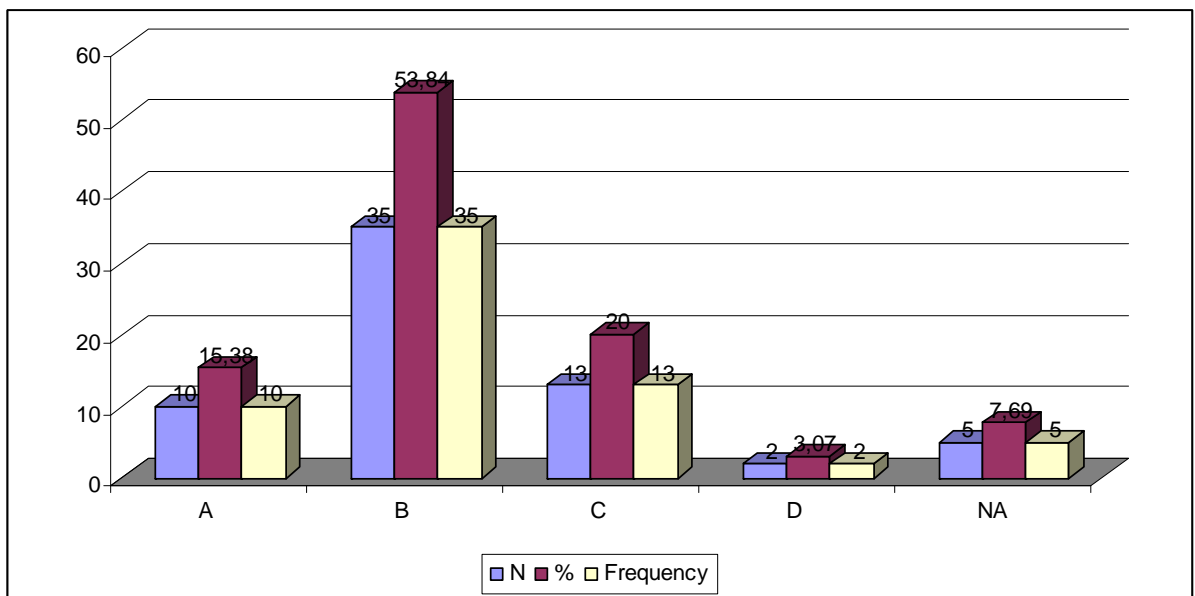
Histogram 8: Teacher's attitude towards a Dictionary

Q10- I understand better the meaning of unfamiliar words when I get their explanation from:

     a- the teacher

     b- the dictionary

    Histogram 9 shows that 42 out of 65 respondents (64.61%) understand better the meaning of unfamiliar words when they get the explanation from the teacher against 27.69% of the respondents who understand better when they use the dictionary. A small percentage (7.69%) didn't provide any answer to this question. The results of this question are somehow in contradiction with the results of question 4 where 96.92% of the respondents agree that they understand words better when they get their meaning from the dictionary!
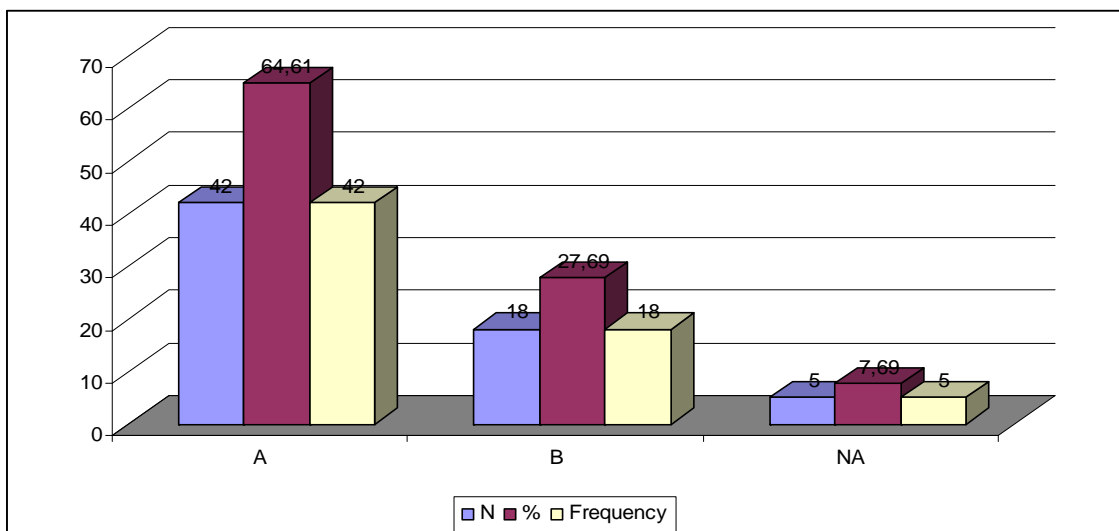
Histogram 9- Dictionary vs Teacher's explanation

Q11- My teacher favors the use of:

     a- The monolingual dictionary

     b- The bilingual dictionary

     c- Both

     d- None

As shown in histogram 10, nearly half of the respondents (46.15%) consider that their teacher favors the monolingual dictionary and for 32.30% of them, the teacher favors the use of both types of dictionaries. Only 4 respondents (4.61%) see that that their teacher favors the bilingual dictionary. Only two (2) respondents (3.07%) didn't answer this question. Therefore, it's clear that the monolingual dictionary is well favored by the teachers. This result agrees with the results of the teachers' interview where most of the teachers stressed their preference for the monolingual dictionary.
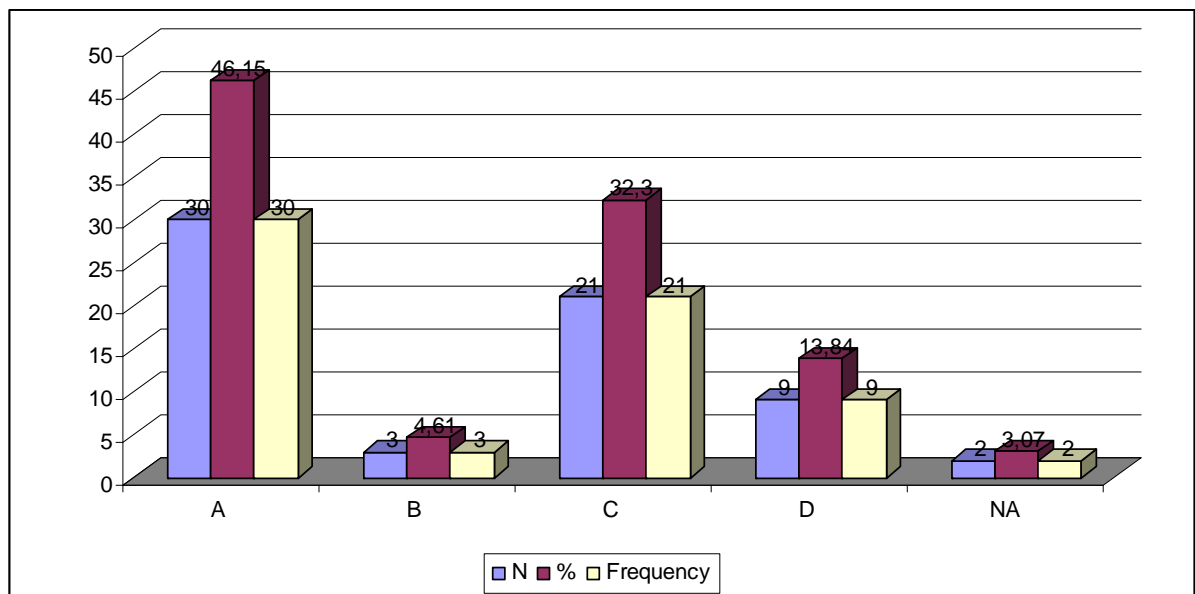
Histogram 10- Type of dictionary favored by Teachers

Q12- My teacher encourages me to use techniques other than the dictionary to learn vocabulary.

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Disagree   d)Strongly disagree

As illustrated in histogram 11below, a high percentage of respondents, 73.84%, agree that their teacher encourages them to use other techniques than the dictionary to learn vocabulary. Only 24.60% of the respondents disagree with the idea that their teacher encourages them to use other techniques than the dictionary to learn vocabulary. Only 1 out of the 65 respondents didn't answer this question. Therefore, from this result, we can see that teachers encourage the use of other strategies to learn vocabulary.
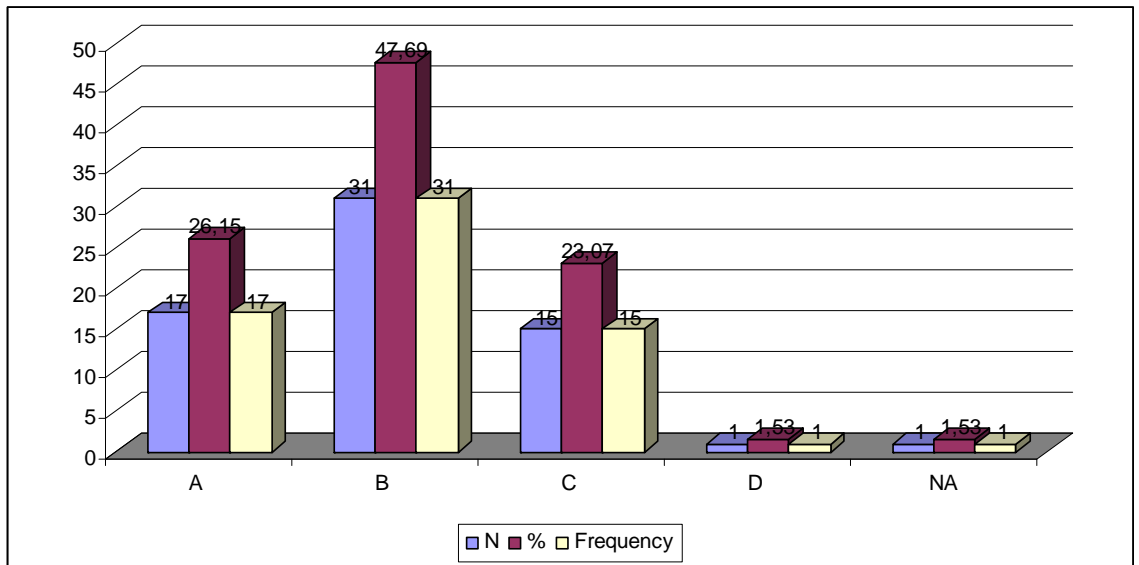
Histogram 11: Teachers' attitude towards other strategies

Q13- My teacher uses a variety of vocabulary learning strategies in the classroom.

  a) Always   b) Sometimes c) Rarely   d) Never   e)   No answer

The results of the Histogram 12 above show that 75.38% of the respondents think that their teacher uses a variety of vocabulary learning strategies in the classroom against 12.30% who disagree with this idea. 8 respondents (12.30%) didn't express their opinion with regard to this point.
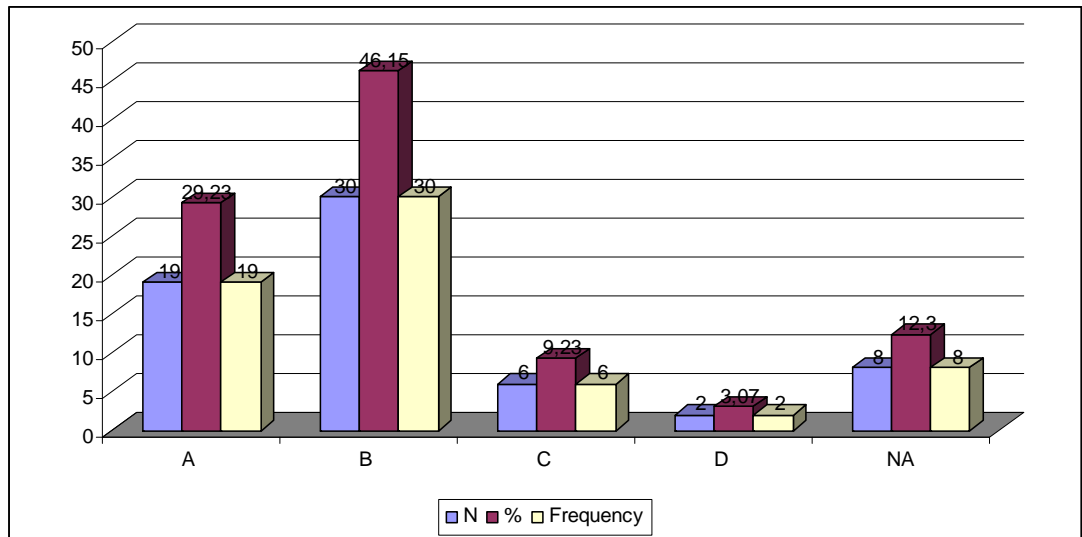
Histogram 12- Teachers' use of various VLS

Q14- According to you, what should your teacher do to help you understand new vocabulary?

Sixty (60) respondents answered this question and 5 didn't. According to the answers, to help students understand vocabulary, teachers should do the following:

- Use the difficult words in examples
- Encourage reading
- Give definitions
- Write words and explain them
- Use words in sentences
- Motivate and encourage students to read interesting stories and books
- Vary VLS
- Give vocabulary exercises
- Consider the level of the students
- Use proverbs, music, videos and idioms and illustrations
- Use the dictionary
- Use games and pictures
- Expose students to native speakers
- Use new vocabulary

167

- Repeat to allow memorization
- Give paragraph writing
- Provide resources
- Explain
- Use cultural subjects
- Use synonyms and opposites
- Vary words and expressions
- Use technology

As shown in the above list of students' suggestions, the major points that most of the students think that their teacher should use the difficult words in examples, encourage reading, give definitions, write words and explain them, give more vocabulary exercises and use words in sentences to explain them.

Moreover, students say the teacher should motivate and encourage students to read interesting stories and books, vary VLSs, use proverbs, music, videos, idioms and illustrations to make it easy for students to learn new vocabulary. Students highlighted the necessity for teachers to consider the level of the students.

6.1.2 Third Year Questionnaire Results

Part I- The dictionary

Q1- Do you use the dictionary in the classroom during reading comprehension courses?

a-   Yes   b- No

This question was answered by 132 (99.24%) respondents. Only 1 respondent didn't provide an answer. According to Histogram 13, 98 respondents (73%) said that they used the dictionary during reading classes against 34 respondents (25%) who said they didn't. These results agree with the same question of 1st year students and teachers' questionnaires.
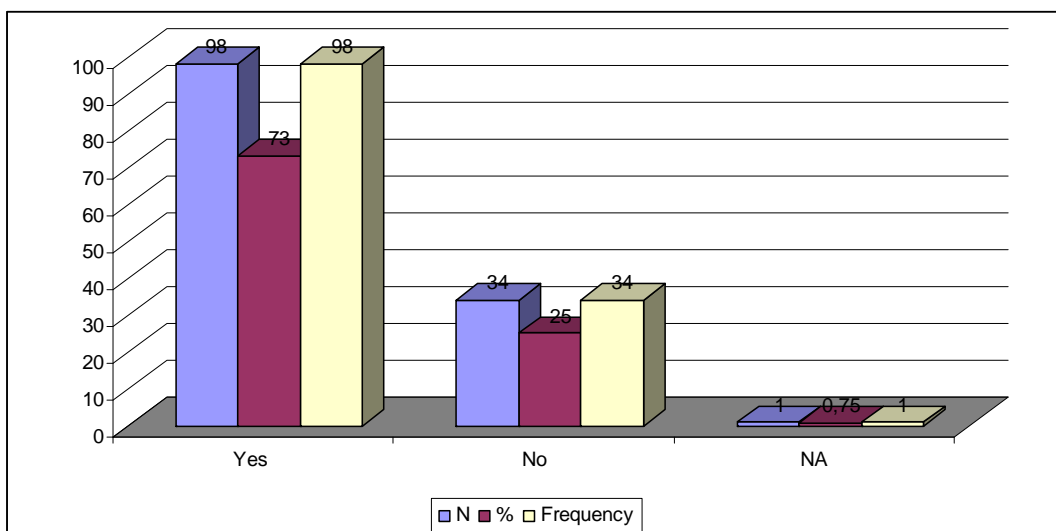
Histogram 13- Dictionary use during Reading classes

Q 2- If yes, which type of dictionary do you use?

      a) The monolingual dictionary

      b) The bilingual dictionary

      c) Both

From the results in histogram 14, we can understand that 35.33% of the respondents use the monolingual dictionary and 29.32% use both types of dictionaries. Only 11.27% of the respondents use the bilingual dictionary and 24.06% don't use any type of dictionary. If we consider the results of this question, we can conclude that the monolingual dictionary is the most used by the respondents. The results of this question show that the types of dictionaries used or preferred by the 3rd year students are different from those of the 1st year.

169
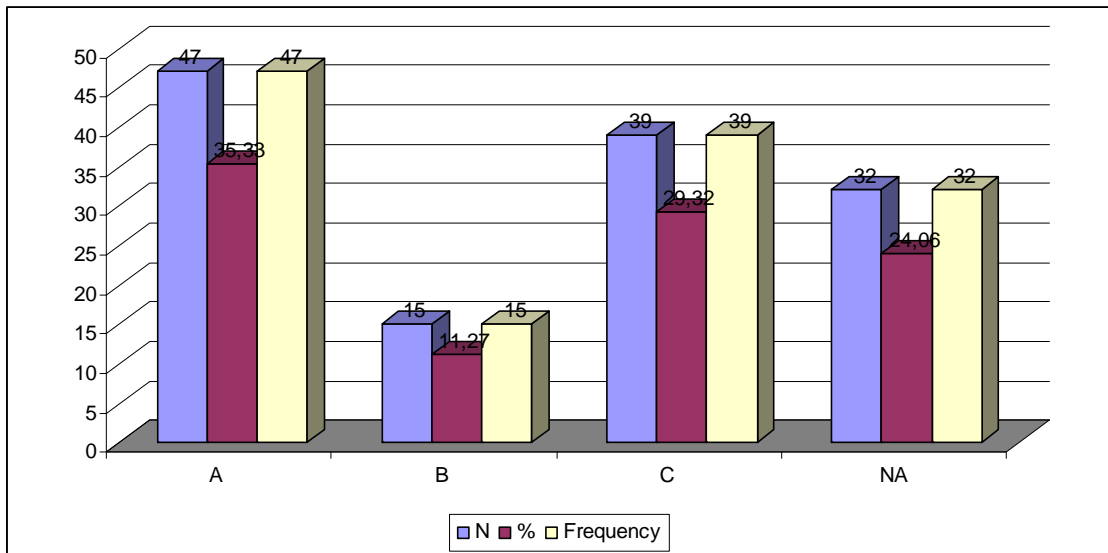
Histogram 14- Type of dictionary used by the students

The percentage of respondents using the monolingual dictionary remains somehow steady, 39.21% for the first year and 35.33%. While the percentage of respondents using both types decreased from 47.05% in the first-yeart 29.32% in the third year. This is a significant decrease. We also noticed that only 11% of the third-year students used the bilingual dictionary against 13.72%.

Q 3- If no, please explain why?

This question was answered by 32 Students out of 133.

Reasons given by students are illustrated in Table 9 below:

Reasons	f
Better use context	27
No time	26
Teacher's help better	25
Teacher is against	18
Use other VLS	17
Reading strategies	16
Ask a classmate	12
A Dictionary is the last resort	9
Use it at home	5
A Dictionary hampers learning	4
No challenging texts	3
Laziness	2
No need	1

Table 7: Students' reasons for not using dictionary

As can be seen in the Table 0, the major reasons given by the respondents who do not use the dictionary in the classroom during reading comprehension courses are: better use context, no time, teacher's help is better; teacher is against, use of other VLSs, use of reading strategies and asking classmates. Nine respondents stated that the dictionary should be the last resort if they are unable to find the meaning of a word. Five (5) respondents said they used the dictionary at home; for four (4) respondents, the dictionary hampers learning, and for three (3) respondents, there are no challenging texts that require using the dictionary. Finally, 2 respondents say that laziness prevents them from using the dictionary and only one (1) respondent stated that there was no need for using the dictionary.

Q4- I understand words when I get their meaning from the dictionary

b) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Disagree d) Strongly disagree

This question was answered by 131 respondents i.e. 98.49% of the total number of participants. Histogram 15 shows that if we add up results of *a* and *b*, we can say that 121 respondents (90.97%) agree that they understand the

meaning of words when they get it from the dictionary. Only 10 respondents do not understand from the dictionary.
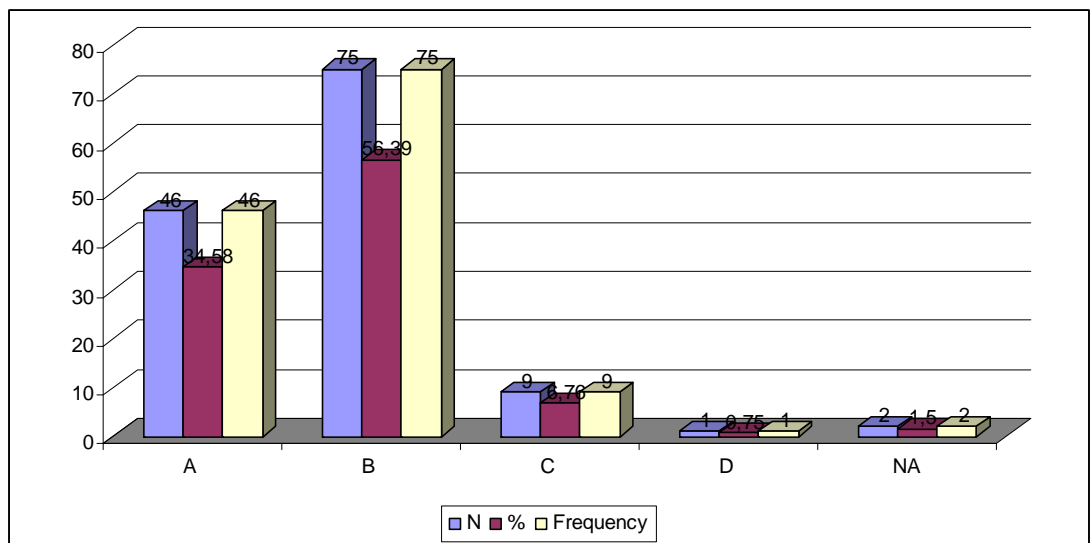
Histogram 15- Understanding from dictionary

Q5- Do you know how to use a dictionary?

      b- Yes   b- No

According to the results of histogram 16, nearly all the respondents (99.20%) know how to use the dictionary. Only 1 respondent out of 133 didn't answer the question.
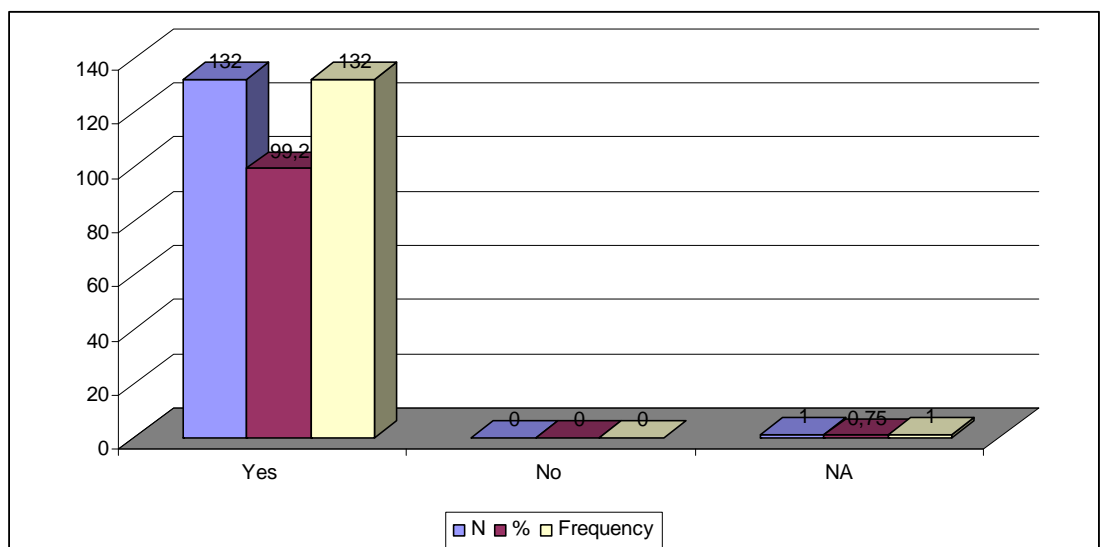
Histogram 16: Dictionary skills

Q6 - Have you ever read the instructions on dictionary use (user's guide) included in the dictionary?

              b- Yes   b- No

The results of this question show that 70 respondents, 52.63%, have never read the dictionary user's guide against 44.36% who say they have read the user's guide. A very small percentage of the respondents, 3.07% didn't answer this question. The percentage of students who have never read the user's guide is very important if we consider that the latter has an important impact on the efficiency of getting the right meaning or information from the dictionary.
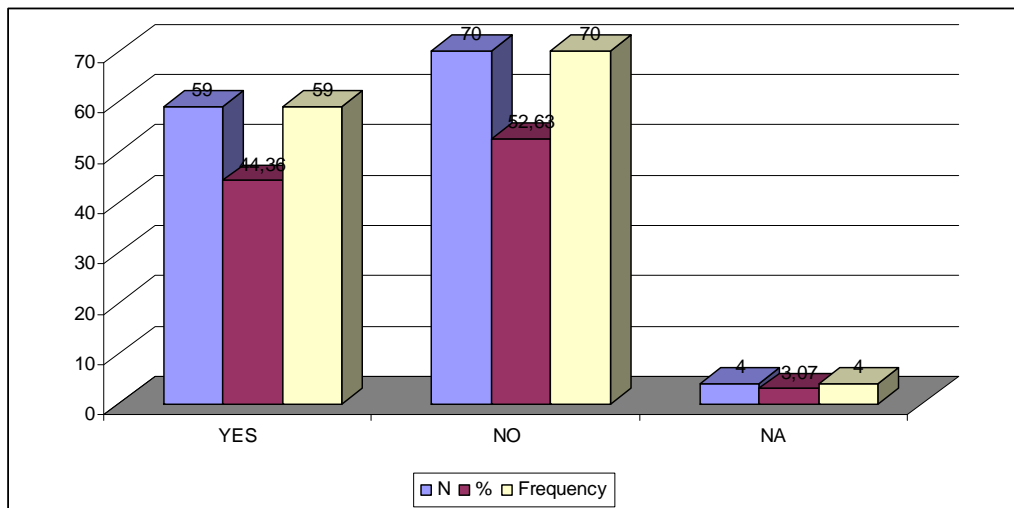
Histogram 17: Dictionary User's guide

Q7- What do you generally look up in a dictionary?

                     a- Definitions

                     b- Grammar.

                     c- Usage of the English words.

                     d- Examples.

                     e- Cultural information related to the word.

                     f- Pronunciation

                     g- other, specify:

This question was answered by all students. The results of Histogram 18 show that definitions and pronunciation took the lion's share in the percentages of the items students consult the dictionary for respectively 85.71% and 82.70% of all participants. Examples also have a high score 35.33% of the respondents. Low percentages of respondents consult the dictionary for grammatical items and usage of words. It's worth noting that no respondent suggested any other reason for a dictionary consultation.
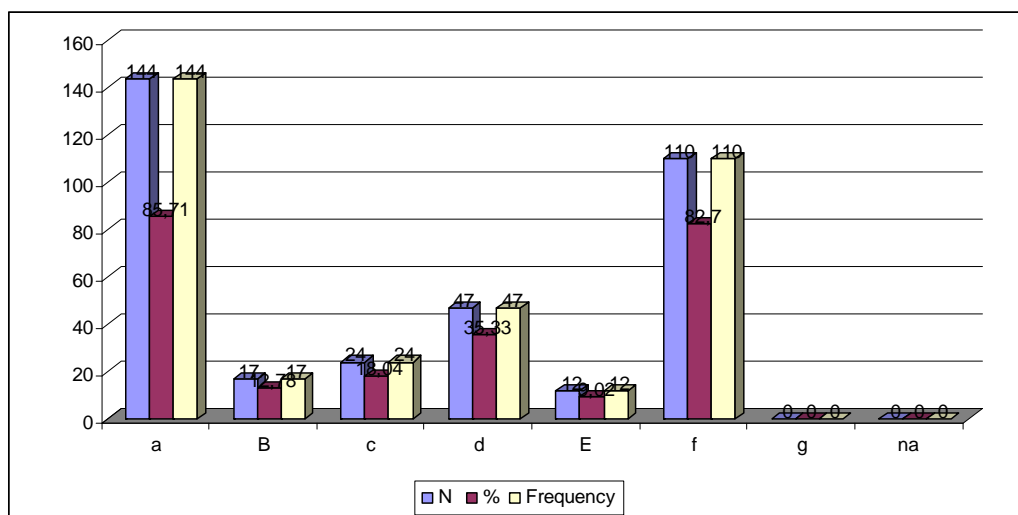
Histogram 18: **Type of Information looked up for in dictionary**

Q 8- What do you find difficult when using the dictionary?

Twenty-five (25) respondents didn't answer this question; thirty-two (32) respondents say they have no difficulty when they consult a dictionary. The remaining seventy-five (75) respondents have answered and listed different kinds of difficulties.

These difficulties are listed in order of recurrence as follows:

Difficulties	f
Difficulty to pick up the right meaning from the dictionary	61
Hard definitions (sometimes confusing)	52
Time	50
Explanation containing more difficult words	47
Lack of examples relevant to the context	43
Abbreviations	43
Old English	32
Scientific words	30
Technical words	30
Different contexts	29
Abstract words	28
Difficulty to find the word	25
Unfamiliar words	9
To find specific information	5

Table 8- Difficulties in using dictionary

From the results of table 9, it is clear that meaning, definitions, time, difficult words in the explanation, examples, abbreviations and different types of English (old, technical, etc.) constitute the main challenges for the students.

Part II- Teacher

Q9 - My teacher favors dictionary use to learn vocabulary in the classroom.

a) Strongly agree, b) Agree, c) Disagree d)Strongly disagree

The results of Histogram 19 show that 58.64% of the respondents agree that their teacher favors dictionary use to learn vocabulary in the classroom and 36.08% disagree on this. Only 5.26% of the respondents didn't provide an answer to this question. Thus, the percentage of respondents who agree with the fact that the teacher favors the use of the dictionary is clearly higher than the one of those who disagrees.
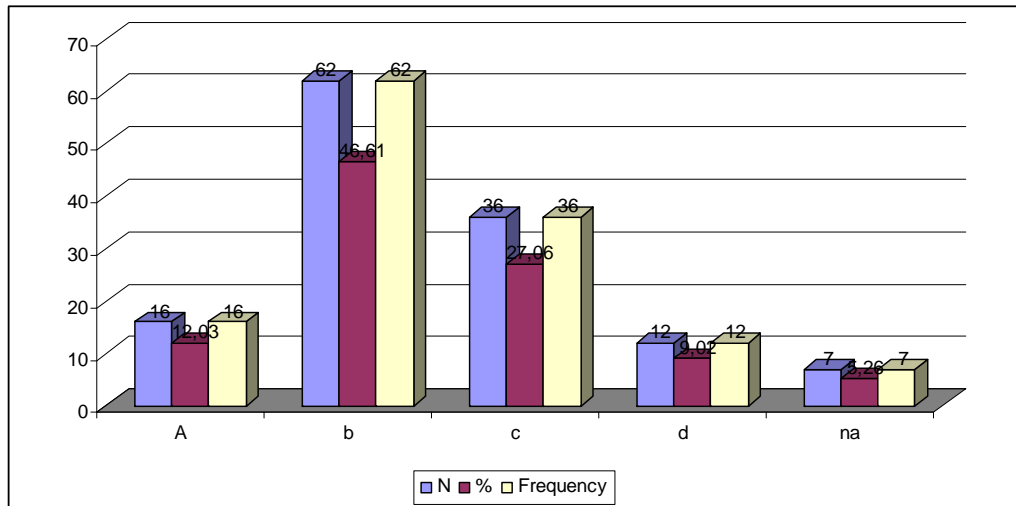
Histogram 19- Teachers' attitude towards Dictionary use in the classroom

Q10- I understand better the meaning of unfamiliar words when I get their explanation from

      a) the teacher

      b) the dictionary

Histogram 20 below shows that 5.25% (7) respondents out of 133 didn't answer this question. Of the remaining number, we have more than half, 55.63% who say they understand better the meaning of unfamiliar words when they get their explanation from the teacher versus 39.09% who say they understand better the meaning of unfamiliar words when they get their explanation from the dictionary.
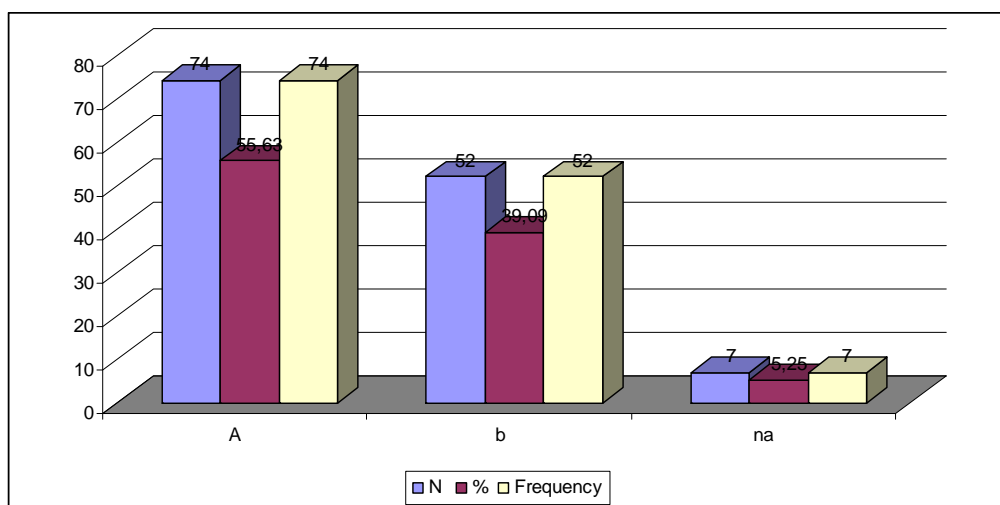
Histogram 20- Best Source of Understanding words

Q11- My teacher favors the use of:

   a) The monolingual dictionary
   b) The bilingual dictionary
   c) Both
   d) None

Histogram 21 clearly reveals that more than half of the respondents 60.15% consider that their teacher favors the use of the monolingual dictionary. 15.03% said their teacher favors the use of both mono and bilingual dictionaries and only 9.02% of the respondents see that their teacher favors the use of the bilingual dictionary. For 13.53%, the teacher doesn't favor any type of dictionary and 2.25% didn't provide any answer to this question. From the results above, we can understand that the monolingual dictionary is very appreciated among the teachers.
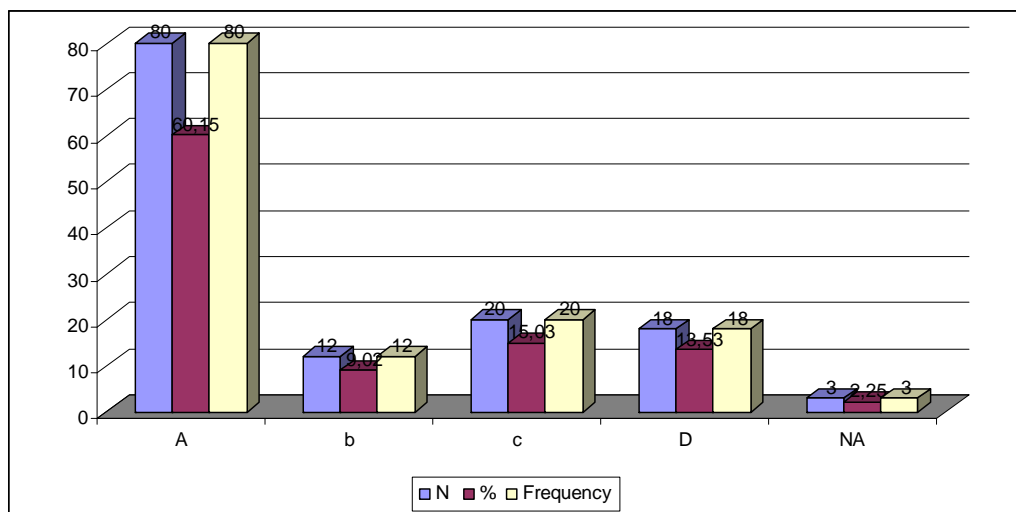
Histogram 21- Types of Dictionaries favored by teachers

Q12- My teacher encourages me to use techniques other than the dictionary to learn vocabulary.

   a) Strongly agree   b) Agree c) Disagree d) Strongly disagree

From Histogram 22below, it's clear that the majority (87.21%) of the respondents think that their teacher encourages them to use other techniques to earn vocabulary instead of using the dictionary. Only 12.77% of the respondents

see that their teacher doesn't encourage them to use other techniques to learn vocabulary. Only one respondent didn't answer this question. Therefore, we can understand that teachers encourage the students to use other techniques or strategies to learn vocabulary instead of the dictionary.
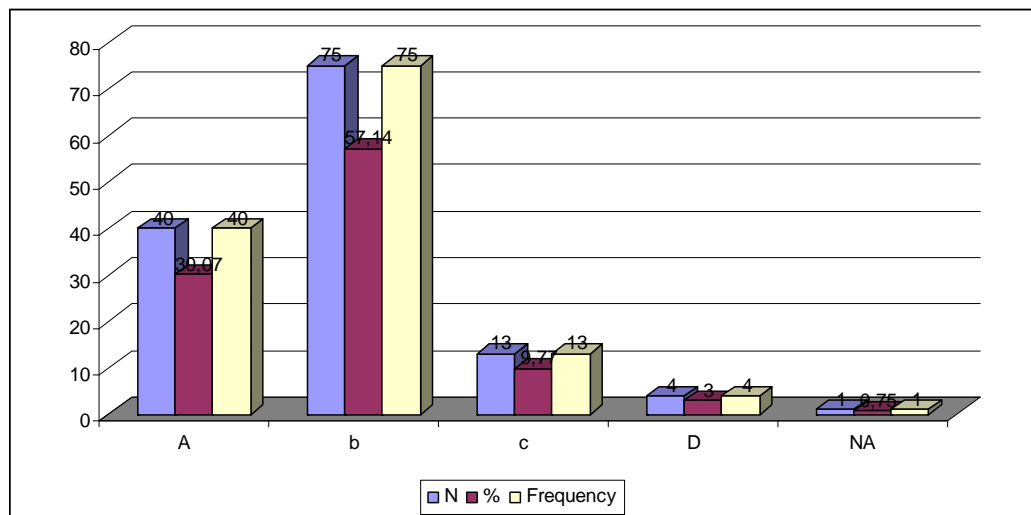
Histogram 22 – Use of Other techniques to learn vocabulary

Q13- My teacher uses a variety of vocabulary learning strategies in the classroom.

      b) Always b) Sometimes c) Rarely   d) Never   e) No answer

It's worth noticing that 22 respondents (16.54%) didn't answer this question. From the results in Histogram 23, we can understand that teachers do not always use a variety of vocabulary learning strategies in the classroom as only 8.2% of the respondents selected *always* to answer this question; whereas, 47.36% say their teacher *sometimes* uses a variety of vocabulary learning strategies in the classroom and for 21.05% of the respondents, the teacher *rarely* uses a variety of vocabulary learning strategies in the classroom. 6.76% of the respondents say their teacher *never* uses a variety of VLS in the classroom.
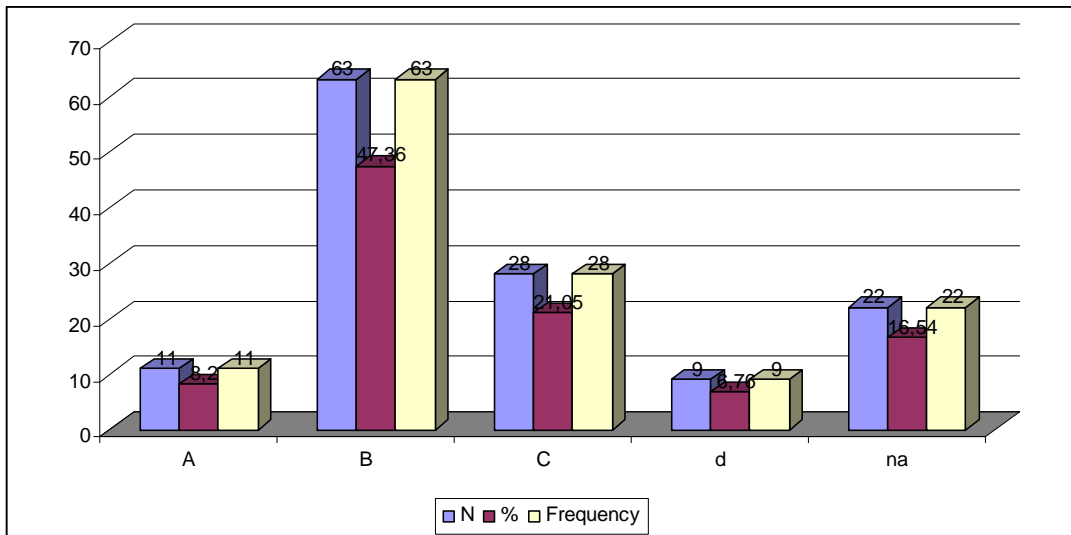
Histogram 23-Teacher's use of varieties of VLS

From the above results, we can conclude that teachers do not always use a variety of vocabulary learning strategies in the classroom. If we add up the percentages of those who selected *c*, *d* and *e,* we get a percentage of 44.35% of the total number of participants, nearly half of the participants, who do not think their teacher uses a variety of VLSs.

Q14- According to you, what should your teacher do to help you understand new vocabulary?

Twenty-three (23) students didn't answer this question. The 110 respondents who answered this question provided a long list of suggestions to their teachers in order to improve the student's capacity and help him learn and understand new vocabulary items. The suggestions are listed below in frequencies of appearance and percentages:

Suggestions	f	%
1-Teachers should use simple and comprehensible definitions and should not use difficult words.	80	72.72
2-Teachers should use examples	75	68.18
3-Encourage more reading and vary reading in different fields	85	77.27
4-Use words in sentences and context and help students to guess from context	60	54.54
5-Create interesting activities where students can learn new vocabulary	40	36.36
6-Use a variety of vocabulary	35	31.81
7-Encourage students to vary VLS	10	9.09
8-Motivate students and involve them in vocabulary learning	45	40.90
9-Group work, dictionaries and translation	63	57.27
10-Write vocabulary items on the BB and make the students write them, revise them and repeat them to memorize them.	5	4.54
11-Use words in conversations.	34	30.90
12-Use songs, movies, images, videos and documentaries and visual aids, pictures, games and gestures	75	68.18
13-Use synonyms, opposites and drawings	29	26.36
14-Explain with fun to interest the learner	45	40.90
15-Do not blame or embarrass the students who do not know the meaning of the words.	25	22.72
16-Encourage the students to use the new words	36	32.72
17-Use a list of words every week	15	13.63
18-Encourage sharing the words and their meaning with the class	32	29.09

Table 9- Students' suggestions

From Table 10, we can gather that students listed a great number of items that their teacher should consider in order to help them understand new vocabulary. The most important ones are: using simple definitions, using examples, encouraging more reading and varying reading in different fields, using words in sentences and context and helping students to guess from context, creating interesting activities where students can learn new vocabulary, motivating students and involve them in vocabulary learning and group work, dictionaries and translation activities.

The use of songs, movies, images, videos, documentaries, visual aids, pictures, games and gestures is also an important suggestion of the participants.

Other important points suggested by the students also are teaching with fun and avoiding blaming and embarrassing students who do not know the meaning of words.

6.1.3 Results of the Teacher's Questionnaire

Part One- The dictionary

Q1: Do you allow your students to look up words in the dictionary during reading courses?

This question aims at investigating the attitude of the teacher towards the use of the dictionary by the students during the reading comprehension classes.

It is clear from the results in Histogram 24below that all of the respondents answered this question and that the majority (70%) of them allow their students to use the dictionary during reading comprehension classes. Only three (3) respondents 30% do not allow the use of the dictionary. This result agrees to a great extent with the result of the 1st year students where 80% of the respondents said they do consult the dictionary during reading classes.
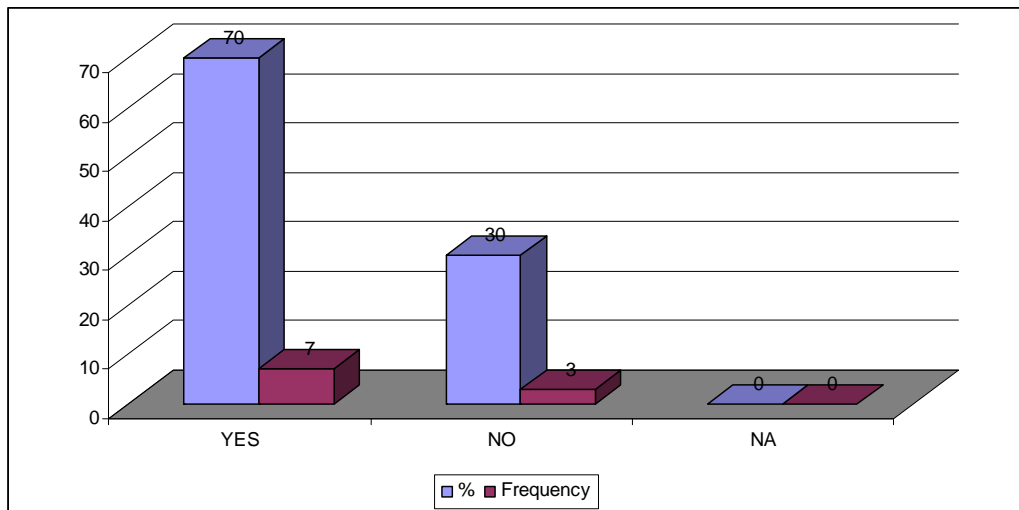
Histogram 24: Teachers' attitude towards the use of dictionary in class

Q2: If yes, what type of dictionary do you encourage them to use and why?

Histogram 25 shows that 5 teachers out of 10 (50%) prefer monolingual dictionaries, while no one of the respondents (0%) selected the bilingual dictionary. 30% of the respondents prefer both types of dictionaries and only 2 respondents (20%) have no preference for any of the two types.
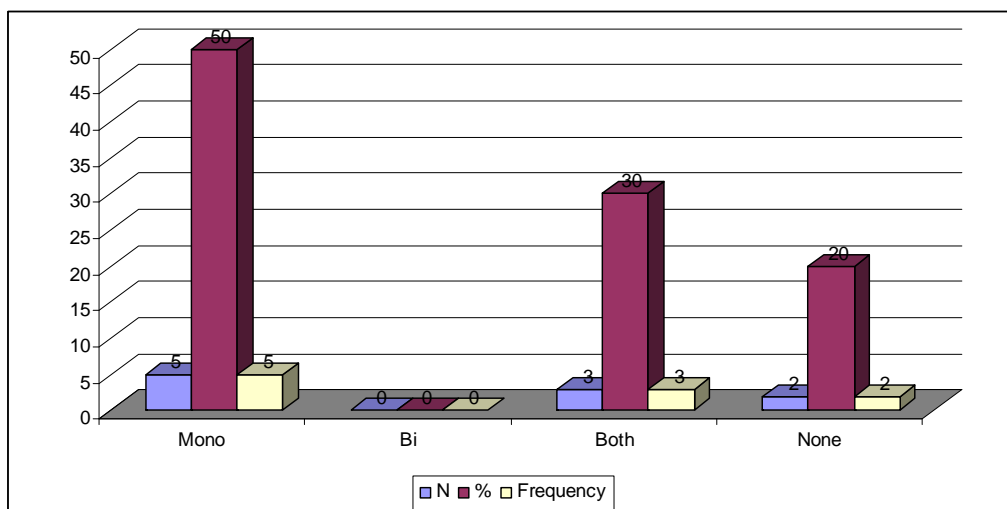
Histogram 25: Types of dictionaries preferred by Teachers

Only seven (7) respondents gave the reasons of their choice as follows:

The three respondents who prefer both dictionaries gave the following reasons:

Teacher	Reasons
T1	*"I prefer both types but with more emphasis on the monolingual dictionary."*
T2	*"I prefer the monolingual to push the students to learn English, but I encourage bilingual dictionary to help some students with specific needs, especially 1st year students."*
T3	*"I encourage my students to use at first monolingual dictionaries to recognize the meaning, identify the context and collocations, etc. and then use bilingual dictionaries to translate to recognize the concept."*

Table 10- Teachers' reasons for preferring both types of dictionaries

Therefore, from the three arguments, we notice that even if they prefer both types, still the 3 respondents have a preference for the monolingual one as they see in it a means to learn and comprehend English vocabulary.

The five respondents who prefer monolingual dictionaries put forward the following arguments:

Teacher	Reasons
T1	*"To encourage them to **think in English** and **enhance their capacity** to define words or express things in English"*
T2	*"The m**onolingual dictionary is better** in a way that the student is more **exposed to the target language** and **learns in the target language**"*
T3	*"To give them the **opportunity to gather more English vocabulary**, to **understand and think in English**"*
T4	*"They are **English teachers** to be and **not future translators**"*
T5	*"It's important to **enrich their English**"*

Table 11- Teachers Reasons for the monolingual dictionary preference

The above arguments show that according to the five (5) respondents, monolingual dictionaries help students to develop English vocabulary, to think in English, to express their ideas in English and to be more exposed to the target language (English).

Q 3: If no, please explain why?

This question aims at finding the reasons why the respondents do not allow their students to use the dictionary during reading comprehension classes. Only two (2) of the three respondents who answered by *No* gave the following reasons:

Teachers	Reasons
T1	"I don't allow them to use the dictionary because I want them to practice **"guessing from context"** strategy which I consider extremely important but from time to time I do allow them to use the <u>monolingual</u> dictionary."
T2	"They have to apply cognition efforts to figure out the complicated words."

Table 12- Teachers' reasons against a dictionary

From the two arguments cited above, we can see that the two (2) respondents want their students to use other strategies such as guessing from context and other cognitive strategies in order to get the meaning of the words. The first argument shows that the respondent might allow the use of the monolingual dictionary from time to time.

Q 4: Dictionary consultation promotes students' autonomy in learning vocabulary.

-a) Strongly agree b)Agree c) Disagree d) Strongly disagree

The aim of this question is to investigate the attitudes and opinion of the teachers with regard to the relationship between a dictionary consultation and the development of students' autonomy in learning vocabulary.
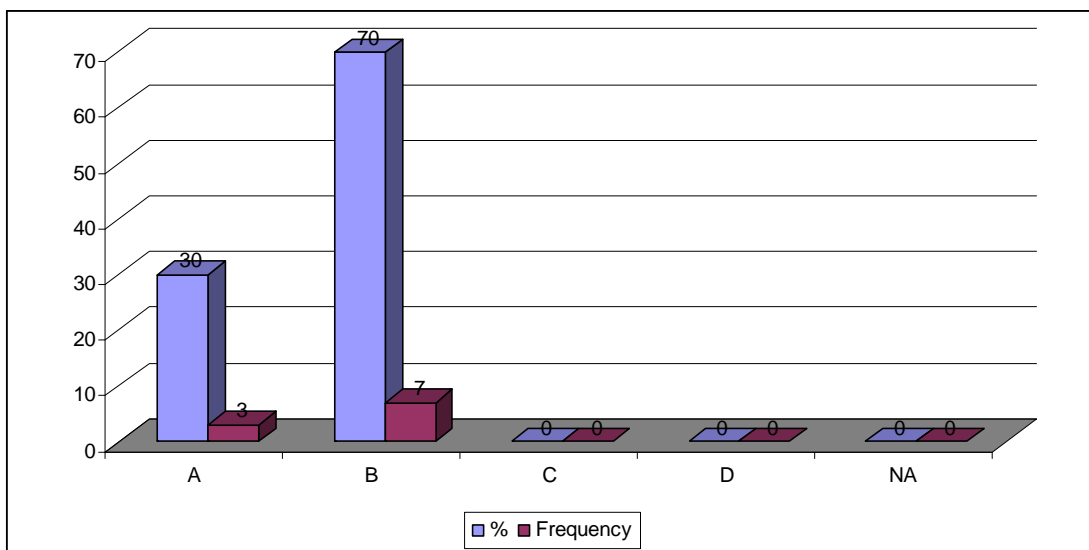
Histogram 26- Te0000achers' attitude regarding the dictionary and autonomy

The above histogram shows that the 10 respondents (100%) agree that a dictionary consultation promotes the students' autonomy in learning vocabulary. No respondent disagreed or strongly disagreed on this idea. This shows the importance of the dictionary for teachers in promoting the students' autonomy in learning and understanding new vocabulary.

Q5: Dictionary skills are very important for students to learn vocabulary.

a) Strongly agree b)Agree c) Disagree   d) Strongly disagree

This question was answered by all of the respondents. As illustrated in the Histogram below, the results of this question confirm that 100% of the respondents agree on the importance of dictionary skills in the process of vocabulary learning. Students with weak skills cannot learn and understand vocabulary as those with high skills.
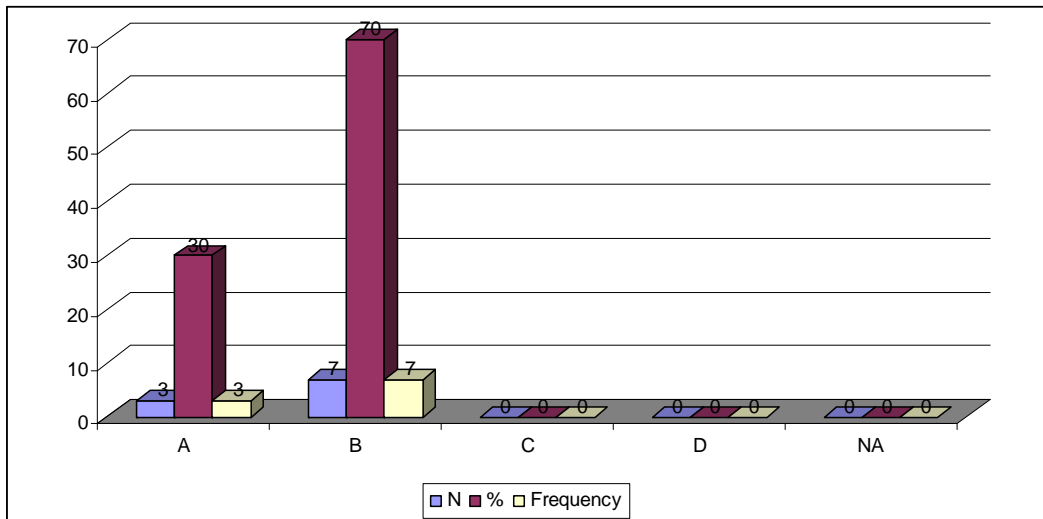
Histogram 27: Importance of dictionary skills

Q6: My students have the necessary skills to use the dictionary in an effective way.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Disagree   d) Strongly disagree

The results of histogram 28 indicate that all respondents (100%) answered this question. Only half of the respondents, five, agree that their students have the necessary skills to use the dictionary in an effective way. Four (4) respondents (40%) disagree and even one (1) respondent strongly disagrees that his students are well skilled to use the dictionary effectively. Therefore, it becomes clear from the above results that the opinions of the respondents on this question, contrary to the previous ones, are completely different.
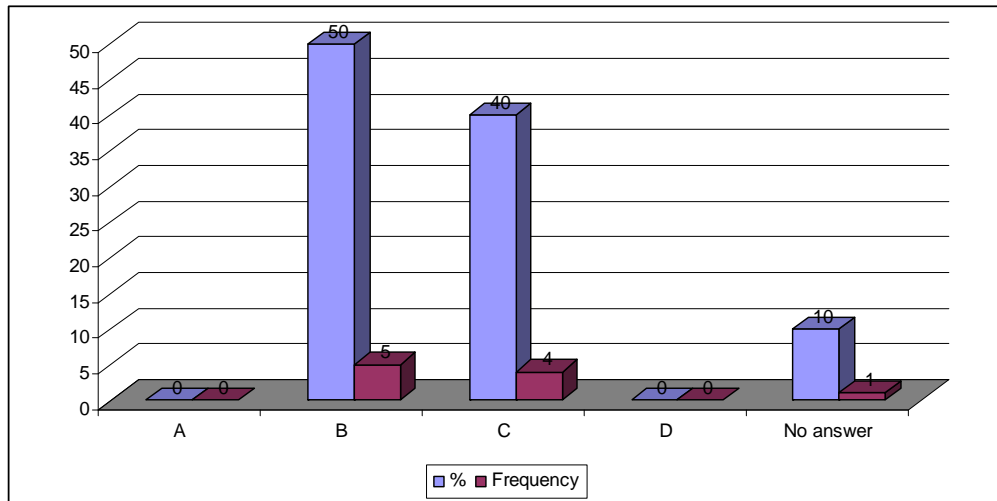
Histogram 28- Students dictionary skills

Q7: My students consult the dictionary for:

> a-Definitions
>
> b-Etymology
>
> c-Grammar
>
> d-Examples
>
> e-Other, please specify

The results of this questions as shown in Histogram 29 indicate that all of the respondents (100%) answered this question. All of them (100%) consider that their students refer to the dictionary for definitions. Six (6) respondents (60%) indicated that their students use the dictionary to look for examples, 3 respondents said their students use the dictionary for grammatical questions and 2 respondents indicated that their students use it for etymology. It's worth to notice that 3 respondents indicated that their students use the dictionary for pronunciation purposes.
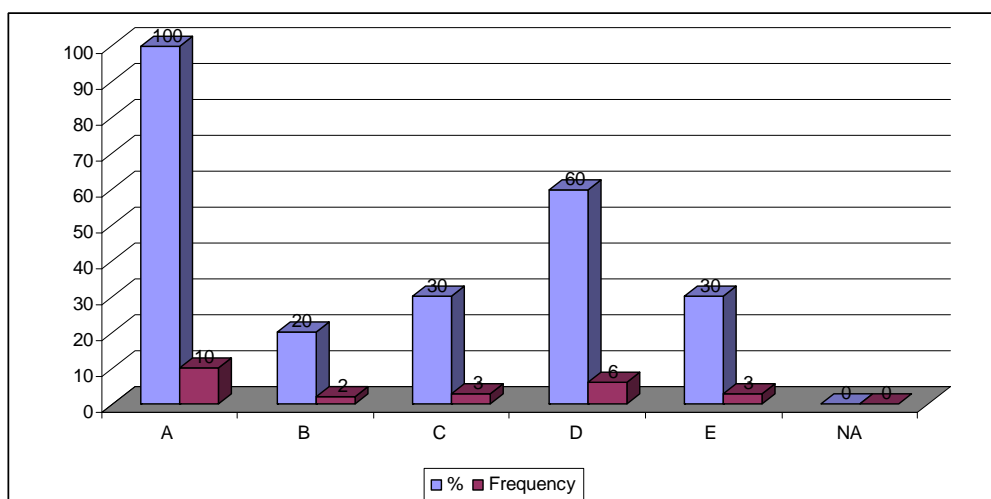
Histogram 29- Reasons for consulting a dictionary

Q8: According to you, what do your students find difficult when consulting a dictionary?

The researcher asked this question to find out the kids of difficulties students find when consulting a dictionary from the point of view of their teachers. The results show that only eight (8) respondents answered this question. The researcher noticed that according to the respondents, most students find difficulties in selecting the appropriate meaning from the dictionary especially with polysemic words. Moreover, students do not understand definitions and examples. All in all, the answers of the respondents are as shown in Table 0 below:

Difficulties	f
1-Selecting the right meaning (polysemic words)	5
2-Collocations	1
3-Decoding Abbreviations	3
4-Understanding definitions	4
5-Understanding Idioms	3
6-Finding miss-pelt words	2
7-Waste of Time	3

Table 13- Students' difficulties in consulting a dictionary

The results of this question explain that according to the respondents, students lack dictionary skills and thus struggle 0with finding the relevant information in a dictionary. These results tally with the results of question 6 regarding the students' necessary skills for an effective dictionary consultation

187

where 50% of the respondents declared that their students lacked the required skills.

Part Two- The teacher

Part II of this questionnaire investigates the attitudes, behaviors and views of teachers with regard to the use of the dictionary by their students in the classroom during reading comprehension courses. It also aims at investigating their attitudes and opinions with regard to their role in the process of vocabulary learning, if they give dictionary activities where their students use dictionaries, the VLS they use to teach vocabulary and the strategies used by their students. The last question of this part invites the teachers to list the best VLS teachers should use for an effective teaching of vocabulary.

Q9: Do you think your students learn better when you explain vocabulary items yourself?

Histogram 30 shows that all of the respondents, ten (10), answered this question and that 60% of the them indicated that their students do not learn vocabulary when they explain it to them themselves against 40% who answered that their students understand better when they get the explanation from the teacher.
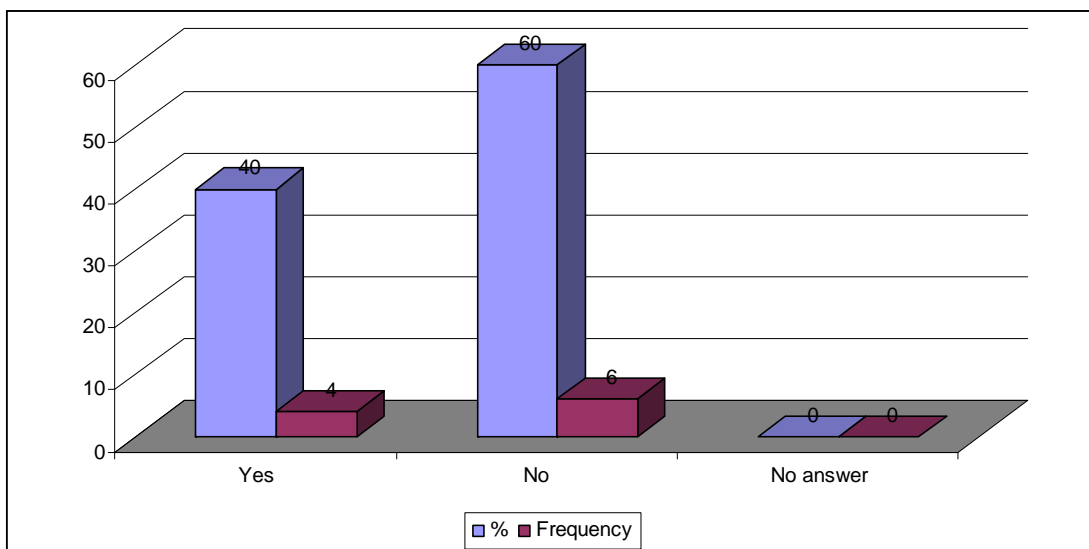
H*istogram 30- Teachers' attitude towards their explanation*

Q10: Do you give your students vocabulary activities where they practice using a dictionary?

According to the results shown in Histogram 31, 50% of the teachers give their students vocabulary activities where they practice using a dictionary and 50% don't. This fact shows to what extent dictionary usage activities are neglected by the teachers and consequently, students with poor dictionary skills do not have any opportunity to learn how to use a dictionary efficiently.
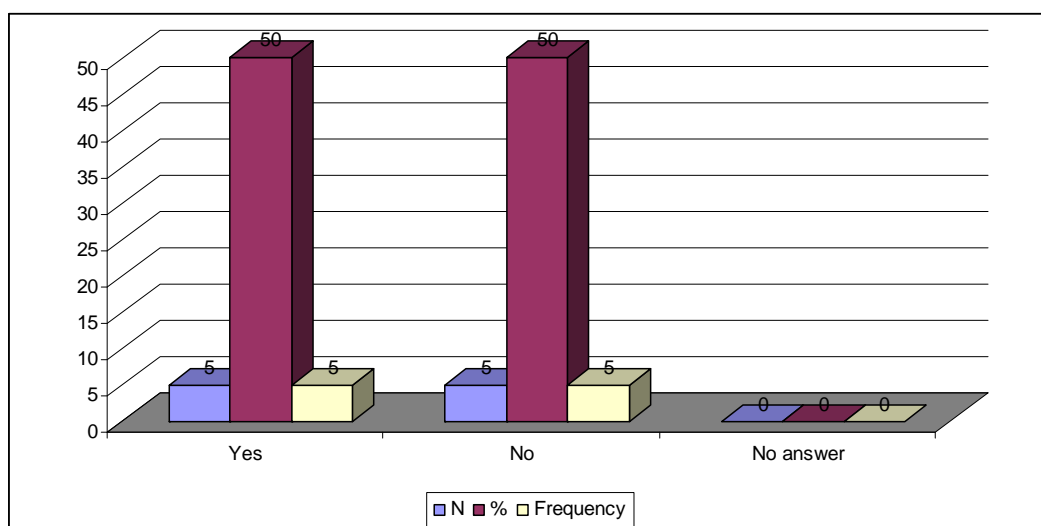
Histogram 31: Dictionary use activities

Q11: Have you ever taught your students how to use a dictionary?

The results of Histogram 32 show that all respondents, ten (10), answered the question and that half of them, five (5) respondents, answered by saying that they give their students activities where they practice dictionary use while the second half don't.
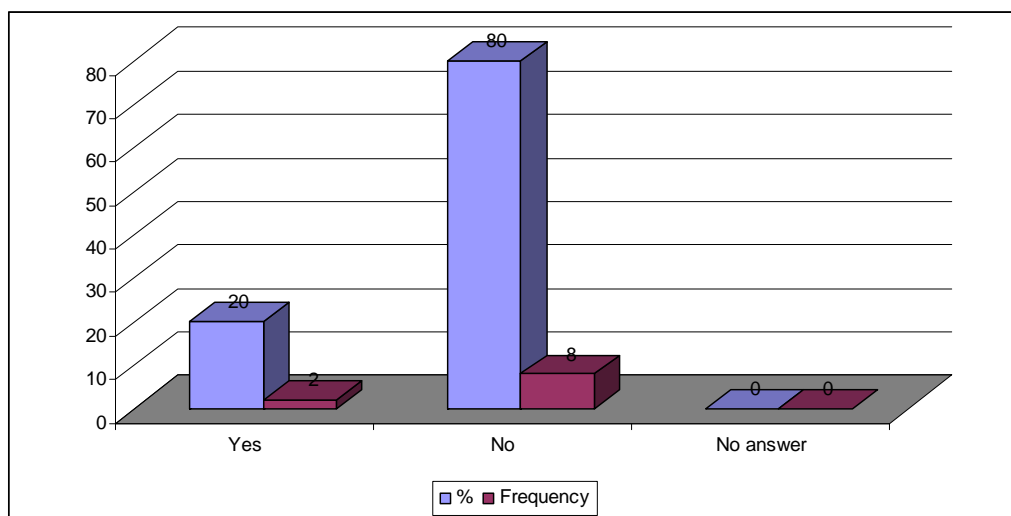
Histogram 32: Teaching dictionary use

It's clear from the results of histogram 32 that the majority of the respondents (80%) does not teach or have never taught dictionary use to their students. This shows that the students use the dictionary based on what they learnt previously in high schools or based on their personal efforts. This explains why most of respondents noticed that their students face problems when using the dictionary.

Q12: What vocabulary learning strategies do you use in the classroom?

The aim of this question is to draw a list of the different vocabulary learning strategies used by teachers in the classroom to facilitate vocabulary learning and comprehension.

It is worth noting that only 8 teachers provided the VLS they use while the remaining 2 teachers didn't provide any VLS. The VLS cited by the respondents are as follows:

VLS	f
1-Using context	6
2-Dictionaries	3
3-Mapping	2
4-Learning by actions	1
5-Translation	1
6-Communication strategies	1
7-Inference	1
8-Contextualizing words for memorization	1
9-Matching words with their synonyms	1
10-Brainstorming	1
11-Visual aids such as pictures	1
12-Examples	1
13-Affixation	1

Table14: VLS used by teachers in class

Therefore, it's clear that using context is the main VLS used by the majority of the respondents, as this VLS was cited by 6 respondents. Dictionary look-up was selected by 3 respondents and mapping by 2 respondents. Respondents cited various other VLS such as affixation, brainstorming, the use of visual aids as well as the use of examples.

It's worth noting that with the exception of using context, the dictionary and mapping, each respondent cited VLS he or she uses that are different from the ones cited by the other respondents. Therefore, the results of this question revealed that there is no consensus between the respondent with regard to the use of VLSs.

Q13: According to you, what strategies do your students use to learn vocabulary?

The researcher asked this question to see if teachers know what strategies their students use to learn and understand vocabulary. This question was answered by 8 respondents only. The strategies used by the students according to their teachers are shown in Histogram 33:
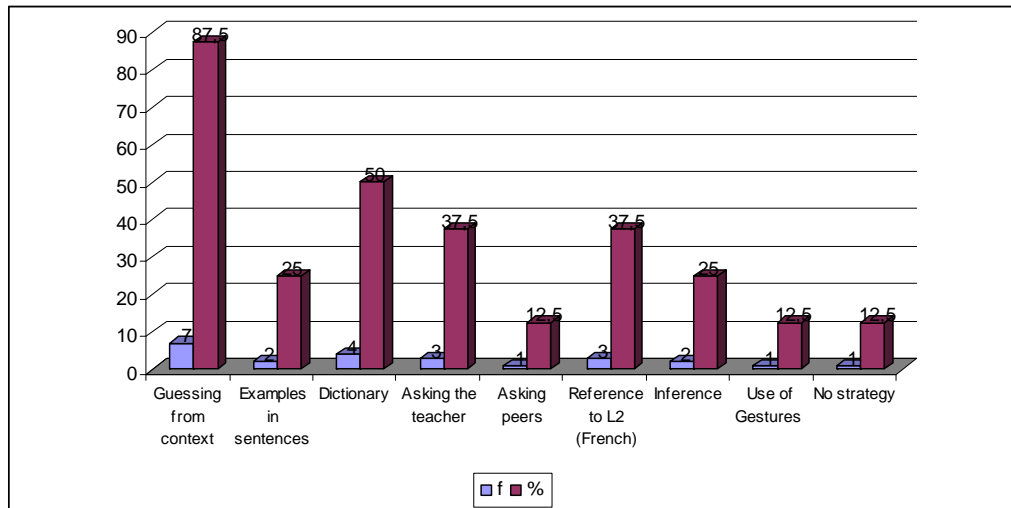
Histogram 33: Strategies used by students

The researcher noticed that seven (7) respondents 87.50% listed context as an important strategy used by the students and four (4) respondents 50% cited the dictionary as an important source of vocabulary learning. Asking the teacher and Reference to L2 (French) were listed by 3 respondents 37.50%. Only 2 respondents said that their students used examples in sentences. Asking peers and use of gestures were cited by one respondent each and only one (1) respondent also said that his students do not use any VLS.

Q14: Based on your experience, what are the best vocabulary learning strategies teachers should use to teach vocabulary in an effective way?
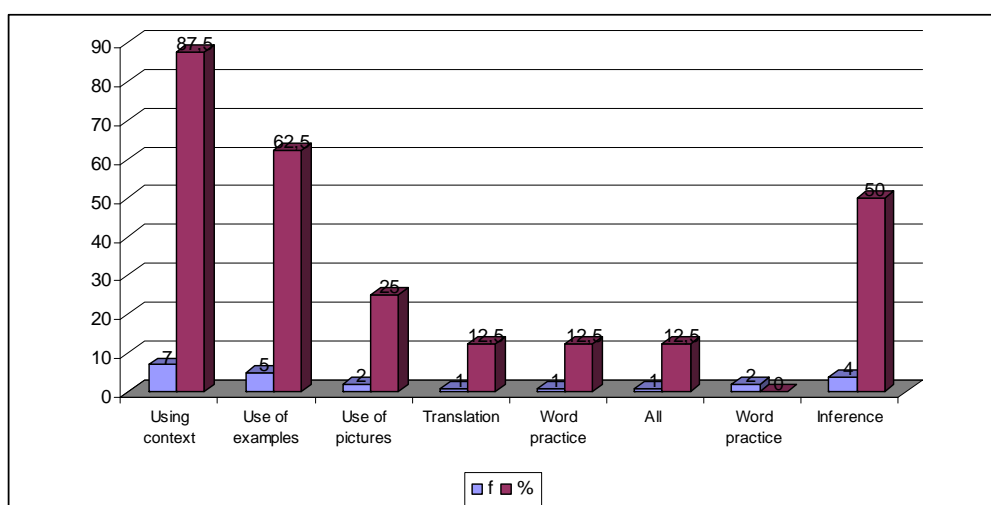
Histogram 34- Best and effective VLS

Eight (8) respondents only provided an answer to this question. The major vocabulary learning strategy that was suggested by most of the respondents (7) is the use of contextual clues. The second major VLS listed by 5 respondents is the use of examples and the third important VLS is inference. The latter was listed by 4 respondents. Moreover, the researcher noticed that three (3) respondents highlighted the importance of the level of the students, their age and their language proficiency as key elements to consider in the choice of the strategies. The strategies are listed in Histogram24.

Further, one respondent said that all strategies were considered good and another respondent said that all strategies were good except translation. The researcher noticed that no teacher cited the use of a dictionary as an effective VLS.

Conclusion

This chapter introduced the results of the students' and the teachers' questionnaires. The results provided important elements of information regarding the problem under investigation, i.e., the use of a dictionary in learning vocabulary by students of ENSB English department. The students and the teachers' answers to the questions of the questionnaires provided a clear idea regarding the situation of dictionary use by the students as well as the teachers' attitudes in this regard. This will be confirmed by the results of the teachers' interview and the field text results that we will see in the next chapter.

Chapter 7

Results OF the Teachers' Interview & Field test

Introduction

This chapter is empirical and introduces the results of the teachers' interview and the reading for vocabulary field test. It aims at shedding light on the attitudes and practices of the teachers as well as the students with regard to the main subject of this study namely the use of the dictionary by the students of ENSB Department of English to learn and understand vocabulary. The results of the interview questions are presented in terms of percentages and frequencies. The field test results are presented in terms of percentages, frequencies and central tendency – Mean and standard deviation.

7.1 Teachers' interview results

Nine (9) teachers, males and females, accepted to participate in the study and answer the questions of the interview. All teachers work at the Department of English of ENSB. They teach both first and third-year students reading comprehension subject. The teachers' results were analyzed in terms of percentages and frequencies.

Questions 1: What do you think of dictionary use in class duringreadingclasses?

The results of this question are presented in the table below:

Teachers	For	Against	Neutral
T1	+		
T2		+	
T3			+
T4			+
T5	+		
T6	+		
T7		+	
T8	+		
T9	+		
%	55.55%	22.22%	22.22%

Table 15: Teachers' attitude towards Dictionary use in class

As shown by the results in Table 16 above, 5 teachers (55.55%) have a positive attitude towards using the dictionary in class during reading classes, i.e., they are for its use. Only 2 teachers (22.22%) are against the use of the dictionary during reading classes and the remaining 2 (22.22%) have a neutral opinion. Therefore, more than half of the interviewed teachers are not against the use of the dictionary in class.

In answering this question, interviewees gave their different arguments to justify their opinions and attitudes towards the use of the dictionary by the students during the reading class. The teachers' arguments are:

Teachers	Arguments
Teacher1	*"Vey essential- a kind of aid- it helps learners to advance in learning''*
Teacher2	*"a **dictionary disturbs comprehension**"*
Teacher3	*"**Not always- depending on the situation**"*
Teacher 4	*"**Students can use the dictionary if they know how to use it**"*
Teacher5	*"It's important''*
Teacher6	*"Very Important to understand unfamiliar vocabulary''*
Teacher7	*"**Not useful- students should use guessing from context**''*
Teacher8	*"**If it is necessary for the task**''*
Teacher9	*"it's a good idea, it's practical''*

Table 16- Teachers' arguments on dictionary use in classroom

From the arguments in Table 17, we can say that those who are not against the use of the dictionary consider it as essential, practical, necessary, important and a kind of aid to help the students to understand vocabulary. However, those who are against consider that dictionary disturbs comprehension and for them students should better use guessing from context instead of using the dictionary. The respondents who have a neutral attitude towards the use of the dictionary during reading classes consider that the use of the dictionary depends on the situation and students can use it if it is necessary for the task.

Question 2: Do your students understand better the meaning of new vocabulary when they use the dictionary?

Yes   No

Teachers	Yes	No	Neutral
T1	+		
T2	+		
T3	+		
T4		+	
T5		+	
T6		+	
T7		+	
T8		+	
T9		+	
%	33.33%	66.66%	0%

Table 17: Students understanding from a dictionary

Table 18 shows that only 3 out of 9 teachers (33.33%) think that their students understand better the meaning of new vocabulary when they use the dictionary. However, 6 out of 9 teachers (66.66%) have a different opinion and see that their students do not understand better the meaning of new vocabulary when they use the dictionary. Therefore, the percentage of the second category of teachers is clearly more important (double).

Table 19 below shows the teachers' arguments with regard to vocabulary understanding and dictionary use by their students:

Teachers	Arguments
T 1	*"a dictionary is very **helpful**"*
T 2	*"They **understand better when** they use the dictionary"*
T 3	*"No argument"*
T 4	*"They always seek examples from the teacher. They still ignore that a word in a dictionary **has several contexts"***
T 5	*"It depends on the words; sometimes they understand directly the right meaning and sometimes they get **confused** when the word for example has **different meanings"***
T 6	*"Unless if you introduce the vocabulary in **context, in sentences** first, and then if it's not yet clear, they can search in the dictionary to know the meaning of the words"*
T 7	*"It is better for them to understand from the context and classroom discussion rather than using dictionary"*
T 8	*"It depends on the level of students (good students vs bad students)"*
T 9	*"It depends on words. Sometimes they need pictures."*

Table 18:-Teachers' Argument regarding Students' Understanding from the Dictionary

Therefore, the arguments in Table 19 reveal that the teachers who think their students understand better when they use the dictionary consider that the dictionary is very helpful and that their students understand better when they use it. However, the teachers who do not share this opinion think that their students always seek examples from the teacher and for example they still ignore that a word in a dictionary has several contexts (meanings). Moreover, some of them think that their students understand better from context, class discussions, use of pictures and even according to one of the opponents of dictionary use, understanding from the dictionary depends on the level of the students themselves, meaning good versus bad students.

Therefore, from the above comments, we can gather that more than half of the teachers consider that their students do not understand vocabulary better from the dictionary, but they need to use other sources such as the context, teacher's help, visual aids and other sources to understand.

Question 3: Do your students have the necessary skills to use the dictionary?

Yes   No

Table below shows the results of the teachers' opinion regarding their students' necessary skills to use the dictionary.

Teachers	Yes	No	Neutral
T1	+		
T2	+		
T3	+		
T4	+		
T5			+
T6	+		
T7		+	
T8			+
T9			+
%	55.55%	11.11%	33.33%

Table 19: Skills of Dictionary Use

The results of Table 20 above show that 5 teachers (55.55%) consider that their students have the necessary skills to use the dictionary against 1 teacher (11.11%) who think the contrary and 3 teachers (33.33%) who had a neutral opinion on this question. Though the number of teachers who agree that their students are well skilled is more than half of the interviewees still the number of those who have a different opinion or didn't express their view on this matter is important. Table 20 show the arguments of each part on this question.

Teachers	Arguments
T 1	*No argument*
T 2	*No Argument*
T 3	*"Maybe not all of them, but the majority"*
T 4	*"most of them"*
T 5	*"**if we speak about first year students maybe not** but the others should or are supposed to know how to use correctly the dictionary"*
T 6	*"**yes,** since they are students of English"*
T7	*"In reality they need to **improve** their skills you know, because sometimes they **don't know** how to look for the words in a dictionary. They don't have the needed necessary skills"*
T8	*"We are **teaching them to do** so. now **it depends then** on the capacities of the different students, **some do, and some don't**"*
T9	*"**it depends on the level**, I think good students can do it, the **level of the students**, I don't mean the grade"*

Table 20: Teachers arguments' regarding students' dictionary skills

From the various arguments in Table 21above, we can conclude that those who consider their students as skilled in using the dictionary are not 100% sure of this but they admit that their students are not fully skilled as some of them linked the level of skills with the level of the students, some others linked it with the students' capacities. Moreover, of them consider that their students need to improve their skills and some think that the majority are skilled but not all of the students. For some of them even the fact that they are students of English is a reason for them to be skilled in using the dictionary!

Question 4: Do you teach dictionary skills as part of Reading comprehension courses?

Yes   No

Teachers	YES	NO	NEUTRAL
T1	+		
T2		+	
T3		+	
T4		+	
T5	+		
T6	+		
T7		+	
T8	+		
T9		+	
%	44.44%	55.55	0%

Table 21: Teaching Dictionary Skills

The above results show that 4 of the interviewees (44.44%) do teach dictionary skills as part of Reading comprehension courses against 5 teachers (55.55%) who don't. Thus, more than half of the teachers do not teach dictionary skills as part of Reading comprehension courses.8 of the teachers stated the reason(s) why they do or do not teach dictionary skills as part of Reading comprehension courses. Only 1 teacher didn't give any reason. The different reasons given by the teachers are shown in the table below.

Teacher	Comment
Teacher 1	*"**We don't** have time to do that with the learner since it requires explaining to them how to follow the alphabetical order or how to use the thesaurus, because the way of order is not the same but generally implicitly, we try. While asking to search for words we teach them or we show them how to search for them but with and via an explicit way we don't have time to do that"*
Teacher 2	*"What we teach is reading techniques rather than reading comprehension, so we don't at all let them use the dictionary in class and we don't even give them the different strategies they have to use. So, we don't really give importance to the use of the dictionary. Why? because it will help them and it will disturb them"*
Teacher3	*"I should do it normally"*
Teacher 4	*"**Not** with students of the university level but when I used to teach English at the primary school and the private schools I used to teach this study skill"*
Teacher 5	*"I think it's among the first lessons or instructions we teach students in reading techniques"*
Teacher6	*"It depends on the text. If the texts are for ESP courses sometimes, and the vocabulary is not familiar. so, I recommend using the dictionary"*
Teacher7	*"we don't base on that so it is much more the text not the use of the dictionary"*
Teacher8	*"**we do tell them about some prerequisites for using** a dictionary properly"*
Teacher9	*No comment*

Table 22-Teachers' Arguments regarding teaching dictionary Skills

From the above Table, we can see that among the reasons why teachers do not teach vocabulary skills as part of the reading comprehension courses the lack of time, teachers d not have time for such an issue; one of the teachers stated that he recommends using the dictionary only when it comes to dealing with ESP texts. Another teacher stated that he /she teaches other strategies but not the dictionary as the dictionary can help but also disturb learning. Another teacher simply said that he normally should do it but he doesn't.

One of those who said they do teach dictionary skills during reading comprehension courses stated that this was among the first lessons or instructions they teach students in reading techniques.

Therefore, from the results above we can understand that opinions on teaching dictionary skills differ among the interviewees for different reasons and some of them do and some don't.

Question 5- What vocabulary learning strategies do you use to teach vocabulary?

The vocabulary learning strategies used by the teachers to teach vocabulary listed by the nine teachers are grouped in the following table:

Teacher	Vocabulary learning strategies
T1	*semantic mapping- THE DICTIONARY- brainstorming- USE OF CONTEXT*
T2	*guessing from the context- multiple choice- checking the dictionary as a last step*
T3	*guessing from context*
T4	*word ladder- making a list- extending words from general to detailed- examples*
T5	*Synonym- examples*
T6	*list of vocabulary- use of context-*
T7	*No strategies*
T8	*Developing new words from the roots and adding suffixes , prefixes- games - filling boxes-*
T9	*Opposites - filling the gaps- match words with definitions-*

Table 23: Vocabulary learning strategies used by Teachers

As we can see from the results in Table 24, all of the interviewees answered this question. The VLS that the interviewees use to teach vocabulary can be summed up as follows:

- Semantic mapping
- The dictionary
- Brainstorming
- Guessing from context
- Word ladder
- Making a list
- Examples andSynonyms
- Developing words from roots, affixes
- Filling boxes and Games
- Opposites
- Filling the gaps
- Matching words with definitions

From the above list we noticed that 4 teachers listed guessing from context as an important strategy. Only two teachers listed the dictionary as a strategy they use to teach vocabulary. Two teachers also cited examples as a strategy they use. The remaining strategies such as Synonyms, opposites, developing words from roots, using affixes, filling boxes, games, filling the gaps, making a list, word ladder, brainstorming and semantic mapping were cited one time by different teachers.

Therefore, we notice that teachers use different strategies and no teacher cited the same strategies except for guessing from context that was listed by 4 teachers. Each teacher uses the strategies he considers as useful for his students to lea00000rn better.

Questions 6- Do you prefer monolingual or bilingual dictionaries, please explain why?

Teachers	Mono	Bil	Both	None
T1				+
T2	+			
T3	+			
T4			+	
T5	+			
T6	+			
T7	+			
T8	+			
T9			+	
%	66.66%	0%	22.22%	11.11%
Frequency	6	0	2	1

Table 24: Types of dictionary preferred by teachers

As shown by the results in Table 25 above, 66.66% of the interviewees prefer monolingual dictionaries against 22.22% who prefer both mono and bilingual dictionaries, 0% who prefer Bilingual dictionaries only and 0% who do not have any preference for any one of the two types of dictionaries.Seven (7) interviewees provided the reasons to support their choice as shown in the following Table whereas 2 interviewees didn't provide any reason for their choice:

Teacher	Argument
1	*No Argument*
2	*"The main objective is the learning of **English-** it will help students **to develop the English Language**"*
3	*"**They are not supposed to be translators - will enrich our vocabulary**"*
4	*"Some people find it **easy to pick** the meaning of the word when using the **bilingualothers** who feel very good at English can use a **monolingual** but I always **encourage them to use themonolingual** dictionary"*
5	*"If the students haven't got it, we may **use other languages** like the **mother tongue** or French here in Algeria"*
6	*"To **improve the language skills** and this is a way to **introduce some cultural aspect**s of the language- I recommend using the **monolingual** dictionary"*
7	*No Argument*
8	*"Because **bilingual** could be **helpful** for those using the two languages and able to make the **differences that exist sometimes between** the languages – I prefer **personally monolingual**"*
9	*"sometimes we need **translation** to understand some words and it helps students to get in fact the **correct translation** of the word and then a better **meaning** of the word"*

Table 25- Teacher's reasons of dictionary type preference

Those who selected the monolingual dictionary justified their choice by stating that the main objective is the learning of English thus the monolingual

dictionary will help students to develop the English Language, it is useful to improve the language skills and it is a way to introduce some cultural aspects of the English language. Moreover, as shown in table above, one teacher considers that students are not supposed to be translators and therefore, the monolingual dictionary will enrich their vocabulary.

For those who selected the bilingual dictionary, sometimes students need to translate the word into their mother tongue or into French t ensure a better understanding. Also, for them, if the students do not have the necessary fluency in English, the bilingual dictionary might be useful to help them better understand. But still both stress the preference of the monolingual first.

From the above, we can say that the bilingual dictionary has not been chosen by any interviewee and even the two interviewees who selected their preference for both have put a special emphasis on the monolingual dictionary as the best means to enrich language and build vocabulary.

7.2 Field Test Results

7.2.1 Field Test Results- 1st Year students

This section introduces the results of the reading for vocabulary comprehension test carried out with the students of the first year.

Out of a total number of 55 first year students who participated in the first stage of the field test, only 34 students attended the test session, 18 students of the dictionary group and 16 of the teacher's group.

Students	With the Dictionary	With Teacher
Students who attended the course	30	28
Students who did the test	18	16
% of participation in the test	60%	57.14%

Table 26: Students' participation in Course and test

In the following section we will introduce the results of the 1st year dictionary group. The results will be presented in terms of percentages.

Score out of 10	Frequency	%
8	2	80%
7	2	70 %
6	2	60%
5	3	50%
4	4	40%
3	1	30%
2	2	20%
1	1	10%
0	1	0%

Table 27: Dictionary Group Overall Results

Table 28 above shows the overall results of the dictionary group. Based on the results we understand that 9 students (50% of the participants) scored more than 50%. 8 students scored between 10% and 40% and only one student scored 0%. No students scored 100%. The detailed scores per student are presented in the following table:

Students	Iitem1	Item2	Item3	Item4	Item5	Item6	Item7	Item8	Item9	Item10	%
S1	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	80%
S2	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	80%
S3	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	70%
S4	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	70%
S5	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	60%
S6	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	60%
S7	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	50%
S8	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	50%
S9	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	50%
S10	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	40%
S11	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	40%
S12	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	40%
S13	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	40%
S14	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30%
S15	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20%
S16	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20%
S17	x	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10%
S18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%

Table 28: Detailed Dictionary Group Results

Table 29 shows that no student got a score of 100% and only one student scored 0%. The results show that 10 students (52.94%) of the participants scored more than 50% and 9 students (47.05%) got a score below 50 %.

Out of the 9 students who scored above 50%, 2 students have scored 80%, 2 students scored 70%, 2 students scored 60% and 3 students scored 50%.

As far as the students who scored less than 50% are concerned, table 0 shows that 4 students got a score of 40%, one (1) student scored 30%, two (2) students scored 20%, one (1) student scored 10% and 1 student scored 0%.

In the following section we will introduce the results of teacher group 1st year. The results will be presented in terms of percentages

Scores	Frequency	%
8	1	80%
7	1	70%
5	2	50%
4	5	40
3	3	30
1	2	10
0	2	0%

Table 29: Teacher's Group Overall Results

From the results shown in Table 30 above, it's clear that only 4 students out of 16 (25%) scored more than 50% in the test. The maximum of words found is 8 out of 10 and only 1 student was able to find 8 words. No students scored 10/10, i.e. 100%. The majority of the group 12 students, 75% of the students scored less than 50%. One (1) student scored 10% with 1 item found and two (2) students scored 0%, no word found. Therefore, from the results of both groups, we can see clearly that the dictionary group scored better than the teacher's group.

Detailed results of the students' scores are presented as follows:

Students	Item1	Item2	Item3	Item4	Item5	Item6	Item7	Item8	Item9	Item10	%
S 1	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	80%
S 2	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	70%
S 3	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	50%
S 4	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	50%
S 5	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	40%
S 6	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	40%
S 7	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	40%
S 8	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	40%
S 9	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	40%
S 10	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30%
S 11	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30%
S 12	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30%
S 13	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10%
S 14	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10%
S 15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
S 16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%

Table 30: Detailed Results of the Teacher's Group

Table 31 shows the detailed results of the 16 students. From the results we noticed that only 1 student succeeded to find 8 items out of 10 and two (2) others found 7 out of 10 and no student succeeded to find 6 items in this group. Only 2 students found 4 items. The remaining 12 students (75% of the group) found less than 5 items. This resultis weak compared to the result of the Dictionary group where 2 students found 8 items, two(2) students found 7 items, two(2) students found 6 and three (3) students found 5 items.

In the dictionary group, 50% of the students succeeded to score between 50% and 80% however in the teacher's group, only 25% of the participants scored between 50% and 80%.

We noticed also that in both groups no student was able to score 10/ or 9/10. In the Dictionary Group, only 1 student scored 0%, whereas in the teacher's group, 2 students scored 0%. Therefore, the results show that the dictionary group performed better than the teacher's group.

7.2.2 First Year results in terms of Central Tendency

To interpret the Students' test scores, the researcher calculated the means and the Standard deviations for both groups, the dictionary group and the teacher's group.

The formula of the Mean is: $\overline{X} = \dfrac{\Sigma X}{N}$

Where:

$\overline{X}$ (X-bar) is the symbol for the mean.

Σ (the Greek letter sigma) is the symbol for summation.

X is the symbol for the scores.

N is the symbol for the number of scores.

The symbol for Standard Deviation is σ (the Greek letter sigma)

The symbol for the Standard Deviation (SD) is σ (the Greek letter sigma)

and the formula is: $\sigma = \sqrt{\dfrac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(x_i - \mu)^2}$

In order to categorize the results under 'Very High', 'High', 'Low' and 'Very Low' Mean scores, the researcher used the following interpretation key:

1.00– 1.99 = Very Low [Very Poor]

2.00– 2.99 = Low [below Average]

3.00– 3.99 = High [Good]

4.00 +   = Very High [Excellent].

Groups	Mean	Standard Deviation
Dictionary group	μ= 4.56	σ = 2.20
Teacher's Group	μ= 3.50	σ =2.25

Table 31: Data analysis in terms of central tendency- 1st year results

As shown in the results of table 32 above, we can say that the scores of the dictionary group are situated above 4.00. This means that the results of the dictionary group in the test are very high with a mean of 4.56. As far as the scores of the teacher's group are concerned, according to the results of Table 0 above, we can say that they are high with a mean of 3.50, as they are situated between 3.00 and 3.99.

Therefore, from the above results, we can say that both groups had good results, but the dictionary group performed better as it realized the highest mean measure, μ = 4.56. The mean of the teacher's group is μ =3.50. Thus, the difference between the two groups is 1.06.

To measure the variability of both groups, the dictionary group and the teacher's group, the researcher calculated the standard deviation for both groups (Table). From the results of Table above, we can see that there is no big difference (0.05) between the SD of the dictionary group and the SD of the teacher's group. Therefore, we can conclude that both groups have the same variability.

7.2.3 Results of the field test - 3rd Year students

This section introduces the results of the reading for vocabulary comprehension test carried out with the students of the third year.

Out of a total number of 67 third year students who participated in the first stage of the field test, only 65 students attended the test session. 30 students

	With Dictionary	With Teacher
Students who attended the course	28	25
Students who did the test	27	24
% of participation in the test	91.42%	96%

Table 32: Students' participation in Course and test

In the following section we will introduce the results of the dictionary group in the quiz. The overall results are summed up in the following table 34:

Scores/10	Frequency	%
10	0	0%
9	3	11.11%
8	8	29.62%
7	3	11.11%
6	5	18.51%
5	2	7.40%
4	2	7.40%
3	3	11.11%
2	0	0%
1	1	3.70%
0	0	0%

Table 33: Dictionary Group Overall Score

From Table 34 above we can see that no student scored 10/10, 100%, and no students scored 0/10, 0%. More than 50 % of the participants (77.77%) got a score that is superior to 50%. The overall results in this group are good. 70.35% of the participants got a score that is over 60%, i.e. they succeeded to find more than 6 items out of 10. From the above we can say that the Dictionary group did well in the test.

	Item1	Item2	Item3	Item4	Item5	Item6	Item7	Item8	Item9	Item10	Total	%
1	+	0	+	+	0	+	+	+	+	+	8	80%
S2	0	+	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	+	8	80%
S3	+	+	+	0	0	+	+	+	+	+	8	80%
S4	+	+	0	+	+	0	+	+	+	+	8	80%
S5	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	9	90%
S6	+	+	+	0	+	+	+	0	0	0	6	60%
S7	0	+	+	0	0	+	+	+	+	+	7	70%
S8	+	+	+	+	0	+	0	0	+	+	7	70%
S9	0	0	+	0	+	+	0	0	0	0	3	30%
S10	0	+	0	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	4	40%
S11	+	0	+	+	0	0	+	0	0	0	4	40%
S12	0	+	0	+	0	+	0	+	+	0	5	50%
S13	0	0	+	+	0	+	+	+	0	0	5	50%
S14	+	+	+	+	0	0	+	0	+	0	6	60%
S15	+	0	+	+	0	+	0	+	0	+	6	60%
S16	+	+	+	+	0	0	+	+	+	+	8	80%
S17	+	+	+	+	0	+	0	+	+	+	8	80%
S18	0	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	10%
S19	0	+	0	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	6	60%
S20	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	+	9	90%
S21	0	+	+	+	0	0	+	+	+	+	7	70%
S22	0	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	8	80%
S23	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	+	9	90%
S24	+	+	0	+	0	O	+	0	0	0	4	40%
S25	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	0	+	+	8	80%
S26	0	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	30%
S27	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	0	0	0	6	60%

Table 34- Detailed scores –Dictionary Group

Table 35 above shows the detailed results of the individual score of the dictionary group. The results reveal that three (3) participants out of 27 found 9 items (90%) out of 10, eight (8) participants found 8 items out of ten (80%), three (3) participants (30%) succeeded to find the meaning of 7 items, five (5) participants were able to find 6 items (60%) and only two (2) participants found the meaning of 5 items (50%).

The remaining 6 participants got less than the average score, (50%). Two (2) of them scored 40%; they found the meaning of 4 items. Three (3) participants found 3 items (30%), two (2) participants could not find the meaning of any item and only one (1) student found the meaning of just one item. It's worth noticing that no participant scored 0 in the test.

Score	Frequency	%
10	0	0%
9	3	12.5%
8	2	8.33%
7	2	8.33%
6	6	25%
5	7	29.16%
4	3	12.5%
3	1	4.16
2	0	0%
1	0	0%
0	0	0%

Table 35: Teacher's Group - Overall Score

The results of teacher's group as shown in table 36 above reveal that no student scored 10/10 (100%) and there was no student who got 0 or 1 item out of 10. Also, out of 24 participants, 20 (83.33%) scored more than 50%, they succeeded to find more than 5 out of 10 words. Seven (7) out of 24 participants succeeded to find the meaning of more than 7 words (70%). Seven (7) participants got a score of 50%, they found exactly the meaning of five (5) words out of 10.

The detailed scores of the teacher's group are presented in Table 37 below:

S	Item1	Item2	Item3	Item4	Item5	Item6	Item7	Item8	Item9	Item10	total	%
1	0	0	+	+	0	+	0	+	0	0	4	40%
S2	0	0	0	0	0	+	+	0	+	0	3	30%
S3	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	+	0	+	6	60%
S4	0	+	+	0	0	+	+	+	0	0	5	50%
S5	0	+	+	0	+	+	+	+	+	+	8	80%
S6	0	+	0	0	0	+	+	+	+	0	5	50%
S7	+	+	0	0	0	+	+	+	0	0	5	50%
S8	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	40%
S9	+	+	0	0	+	0	+	+	+	0	6	60%
S10	+	+	+	0	+	+	+	+	+	+	9	90%
S11	0	+	0	0	+	0	+	0	+	+	5	50%
S12	0	+	+	0	0	0	+	0	+	+	5	50%
S13	+	+	0	+	0	+	0	+	+	0	6	60%
S14	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	9	90%
S15	0	+	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	0	7	70%
S16	+	0	+	+	+	+	0	0	+	+		70%
S17	+	0	0	0	+	+	+	0	+	+	6	60%
S18	0	0	+	+	0	+	+	+	+	0	6	60%
S19	+	+	+	0	+	+	+	0	0	0	6	60%
S20	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	5	50%
S21	+	+	+	0	+	+	+	+	+	0	8	80%
S22	0	+	+	+	0	0	I	0	+	0	5	50%
S23	0	+	0	+	0	+	0	+	0	0	4	40%
S24	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	9	90%

Table 36- Teacher's Group- Detailed Scores

From table 37 above, we can say that only three (3) students out of 24 found the meaning of 9 words, two (2) students found 8 words, two (2) found 7 words, six (6) students succeeded to find the meaning of 6 words and seven (7) students found 5 words.

Regarding the number of students who scored less than the average, 50%, the results show that three (3) students scored 40%, they found the meaning of 4 words and one (1) students found the meaning of 3 words. Therefore, in this group, no students scored less than 30% and no students scored 0%.

7.2.4 Third Year results in terms of Central Tendency

To interpret the third-year students' test scores and to provide information on the performance of both groups and gain more insight, the researcher calculated the means and the Standard deviations for both groups, the dictionary group and the teacher's group.

The formula of the Mean is: $$\bar{X} = \frac{\Sigma X}{N}$$

Where:

$\bar{X}$ (X-bar) is the symbol for the mean.

Σ (the Greek letter sigma) is the symbol for summation.

X is the symbol for the scores.

N is the symbol for the number of scores.

The symbol for Standard Deviation (SD) is σ (the Greek letter sigma) and the

formula is: $$\sigma - \sqrt{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(x_i - \mu)^2}$$

In order to categorize the results under 'Very High', 'High', 'Low' and 'Very Low' Mean scores, the researcher used the following interpretation key:

1.00– 1.99 = Very Low [Very Poor]

2.00– 2.99 = Low [below Average]

3.00– 3.99 = High [Good]

4.00 +   = Very High [Excellent].

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation
Dictionary group	μ = 6.30	σ = 2.16
Teacher's Group	μ= 5.96	σ = 1.68

Table 37: Data analysis in terms of central tendency -3rd year test

Based on the results shown in Table 38 above, we can say that the dictionary group has a m0ean score of μ =6.30, whereas the teacher's group has a mean of μ =5.96. Therefore, it is clear that both groups have very high scores. However, it's worth noting that the dictionary group surpassed the teacher's

group as it has a higher mean (μ =6.30), the difference between the two groups is 0.34.

To measure the variability of both groups, the dictionary and the teacher's group, the researcher calculated the standard deviation for both groups (Table 0). From the results of Table above, we can conclude that the SD of the dictionary group is higher than the SD of the teacher's group. Therefore, it's clear that the dictionary group with an SD of 2.16 is more heterogeneous than the teacher's group and thus has a greater variability. The teacher's group is more homogeneous than the dictionary group as its SD is 1.68.

Conclusion

The results of the Interview and the field test introduced in this chapter provided important information on the situation of dictionary use in the ENSB department of English. The data gathered from the teachers' answers in the interview provided a clear image of the dictionary use in the department. It's clear that the majority o the teachers have a positive attitude regarding dictionary use and find it important and useful. A few of them are not against its use but they insist that it should be used according to the task, the student's needs and level. The results also revealed that the monolingual dictionary is the preferred one for teachers and most of the students use it. Teachers think that the monolingual dictionary helps students to enrich their vocabulary, improve their language skills and initiates them to cultural aspects of English.

Results revealed that most of the teachers consider that their students have the required skills to use the dictionary effectively; however, most of the teachers. Moreover, more than half of the interviewees do not teach their students how to use the dictionary and the number of VLS they use is very limited.

The results of the field test revealed that the dictionary groups of both levels, 1st and 3rd years, scored better than the teachers' groups. This means that the impact of the dictionary is positive. Most of the students in the dictionary

group succeeded to understand and find the right meaning of the words in the quiz.

Chapter 8

Discussion and analysis of the results

Introduction

The main objective of the present study is to investigate the impact of dictionary use on vocabulary learning and understanding by English department students of ENSB. The researcher compared the use of the dictionary and the teacher's help and the impact of both on vocabulary learning and comprehension. The study was carried out on students of two levels: 1st and 3rd year, with the objective to see if students keep the same vocabulary learning techniques or change them through time.

The study also aimed at reviewing other aspects of the vocabulary learning process through the use of different research instruments such as questionnaires, interview and a reading for vocabulary field test in order to find out the teachers' as well as the students' opinions and attitudes with regard to the research questions listed at the beginning of this dissertation. Other aspects such as teachers' use of other vocabulary learning strategies and students' use of reading strategies were reviewed with the aim of drawing a clear picture of the situation on how English vocabulary is learnt and taught in the department of English. Moreover, the researcher shed light on the relationship between dictionary use and student's vocabulary learning autonomy. The dissertation investigated the students' dictionary skills and the main reasons of dictionary consultations.

This chapter provides an in-depth discussion of the results of the study in relation to the research questions. It attempts to give sound interpretations of the data gathered from the different instruments of the study, namely the student's questionnaires (1st and 3rd year), the teacher's questionnaire, the teacher's interview results as well as the field test results (1st and 3rd year). The results are then matched and compared to reach general conclusions on the aspects dealt with in this study, namely the use of the dictionary by the students of the department of English of the Ecole Normale Supérieure of Bouzareah. Further,

the results are compared with the findings of other studies carried out by various scholars in the same research area. The main purpose of this is too shed more light on the impact of the use of the dictionary on students' learning and understanding of vocabulary.

8.1 Results of the study related to Research *questionone* (*Do students use the dictionary during class? Do teachers allow dictionary use in class and if yes what types of dictionariesdo they favor, monolingual, bilingual or both*?

- Dictionary use during reading comprehension class and teacher's attitudes.

The results of the student questionnaires (1ˢᵗ and 3ʳᵈ year), the teacher's questionnaire and the teacher's interview show clearly that students use the dictionary during reading classes and that teachers allow dictionary use. This is confirmed by the students' results where 80 % of first year students and 73% of third yes students confirm that their teacher allows them to use the dictionary during reading classes. Further, teachers' responses also confirm this, 70% of the teachers in the questionnaire and 55.55% in the interview confirm this idea as teachers express a 0positive attitude towards dictionary use during reading class.

For teachers who encourage dictionary use, it is considered as very essential, necessary and important tool that helps learners to advance in their vocabulary learning. Some of the teachers even say that recommend its use in class to learn vocabulary. Further, all of the teachers (100%) agree that the dictionary promotes students' autonomy in learning vocabulary.

However, as we have seen earlier, the results show that 30% of the teachers who answered the questionnaire and 22.22% of those who answered the interview questions do not share this view and; thus, discourage the use of dictionary during reading classes. Even if the percentages are small compared to the ones of those encouraging dictionary use, the researcher considers important and worth to understand why they are against. In fact, for the teachers who are against, students need to use other strategies such as guessing from context. For some of them, the dictionary disturbs comprehension and causes a loss of time

and concentration. This view agrees with the results of other studies carried out by researchers such as Knight, (1994) who states that the **time** it takes to look up words in the dictionary interferes with readers' short-term memory and thus prevents them from focusing on the text as a whole.

For students, both 1st and third year students, dictionary use requires time and the use of other strategies such as guessing, teacher's help, asking a classmate, is better. Moreover, third year students point out that the teacher is against its use and that it should be used as the last resort. For some students, the dictionary should be used at home and for some others there are no challenging texts that require its use.

- **Monolingual versus Bilingual Dictionaries**

Concerning the type of dictionaries used by the students and favored or allowed by teachers in class during reading, the results show clearly the preference for the monolingual dictionary over the bilingual one. In fact, 30% of first year students and 35.33% of third year students express their preference for monolingual dictionary against 10% and 11.27% respectively for the bilingual dictionary. Teachers also expressed strong preference for the monolingual dictionary, 50% of them encourage the monolingual dictionary against 0% for the bilingual one! Moreover, 30% (questionnaire) and 66.66% (interview) say they favor both types with a special emphasis on the monolingual one. This agrees with the findings of Atkins &Varantola, 1997) who found that the monolingual dictionary was said to be effective in helping learners find relevant information.

Teachers prefer the monolingual dictionary because they consider it as a tool to enhance the students' capacity to think in English, define words in English and of course expose the students to the target language. Moreover, teachers postulate that their students use the monolingual dictionary to learn in the target language and gather more English vocabulary. Some of them even

think that their students are not supposed to be translators; thus, there is no need for the bilingual dictionary.

However, this view doesn't agree with the findings of Tomaszczyk, (1979) whose study revealed that the respondents showed a' *preference for bilingual dictionaries over monolingual ones'* (Tomaszczyk, 1979; cited in Cowie, 1999:188). The results of the respondents of the present study who selected their preference for both types of dictionaries show that according to them, the bilingual dictionary helps students with specific needs such as 1st year students whose proficiency in English is not good enough to use only the monolingual dictionary. As mentioned earlier, the 30% of the teachers who say they encourage their students to use both types stress that they prefer the monolingual dictionary first and then the bilingual one.

Finally, from the above, we can conclude that although the number of those who encourage the dictionary is greater still the number of those who are against is worth to be considered. It is worth pointing out that the first-year students gave approximately the same reason as those given by the third year students, and to some extent with those given by the teachers.

- **The teacher versus the dictionary**

Teacher's help or dictionary use, which one is best for students? This is one of the main questions examined by the present research. As shown by the results, the majority of students (more than 90% of first and third years) agrees and considers that they understand words better when they get their meaning from the dictionary. However, the researcher noticed a contradiction in the answers of the students as in a similar question; more than 50% of both first and third-year students say they understand better when they get the meaning from the teacher! Moreover, 6 out of 9 teachers (interview) say their students do not understand better from the dictionary and 40% of them also do not believe that their students understand better when they get the meaning from the teacher.

The contradiction or vagueness in the answers of this question can be attributed to the fact that dictionary use is not an easy task for the students. For teachers, students have difficulties in selecting the relevant meaning; the success in word look up depends on the word itself, the situation, the context and the student's skills and proficiency. This agrees with the finding of the study of Bensoussan, Sim and Weiss 1984 which concluded that *"less proficient students lack the language skills to benefit from a dictionary, whereas more proficient students know enough to do without it'* (Bensoussan, Sim and Weiss 1984 p. 271).

Further, the results show that most of the teachers point out the fact that students always need the teachers' guidance (giving examples) to use the dictionary in an effective way. This suggests the high significance of the teacher's guidance to help the user to make full use of the word information contained in a dictionary.

If we consider the results of the field test, we can say that the results of the first year as well as the third year confirm that students understand better when they get the meaning from the dictionary. Both dictionary groups, first and third year, scored in the reading for vocabulary test better than the teacher's groups. Especially in the first-8year results in which the mean of the dictionary group was 4.56 whereas the teacher's group was 3.50. Same thing applies for third year groups where the dictionary group got a mean of 6.30 and teacher's group 5.95. Thus, the reading test shows clearly that students understand better from the dictionary.

The field test results tally with the teachers' opinion where 100% of the teachers interviewed by the researcher agree that the dictionary promotes students' autonomy to learn vocabulary. Dictionary group students scored well in the test because they were able to understand better from the dictionary. They were able to find the meaning of the words without the help of the teacher.

The field work results give a clear portrait of the situation of dictionary use in the department of English as it proves that students use the dictionary, all

students who participated used the monolingual dictionary. The scores were high for both 1st and 3rd year dictionary groups. Moreover, it's worth to note that the third-year teacher's group also scored well in the test. This can be explained by the fact that 3rd year students might have various reading techniques to help them find the meaning of the words such as guessing from context.

8.2 Results of the study related to Research *questiontwo*(*Do students have the necessary skills to use the dictionary and do they read the user's guide before they use the dictionary?*

- Dictionary skills

Regarding dictionary skills, the researcher noticed that according to the students' opinion, both first and third years, the great majority of them consider that they have the required dictionary skills; they know how to use the dictionary. However, teachers' opinions are divided on this point as only half of the teachers who answered the questionnaire say their students have the necessary skills while 40% of them do not agree with this view and 10% of them didn't express their opinion on this point. The interview results were consistent with the questionnaire's results as 55% of the interviewees (teachers) consider that their students have the necessary skills against only 11.11% who say they don't and 33.33% of them have a neutral view. The results; thus, show that there is no agreement among the teachers with regard to their students' dictionary skills.

- **The user's guide**

As far as the dictionary user's guide is concerned, the results show that more than half of the students, first and third years, have never read it. This is a critical and a very significant point for the researcher as this may explain why students have difficulties in using the dictionary in an effective way. This matches with the study of (Tomaszczyk, 1979cited in Cowie 1999:188) which revealed that students with very limited understanding of dictionaries used them badly.

As a matter of fact, many first and third- year students say they don't know how to locate words in the dictionary and do not have enough time to look for words. This results in abandoning the dictionary and resorting to other ways to understand vocabulary such as the teacher's help or the peers. Students do not understand that reading the instructions at the beginning of the dictionary will fix many of the aforementioned problems. They need to understand that reading the user's guide saves time to find the meaning of words and makes a dictionary consultation an enjoyable activity. A student who reads the meaning of the abbreviations in the user's guide will not waste time to read the various definitions of a *noun* if he is interested in the meaning of a *verb*.

8.3 Results of the study related to Research *question three* (*What type of information do students mostly look up in the dictionary and what difficulties do they face while consulting? Do their teachers give them vocabulary activities where they can use the dictionary under their supervision?***

- Type of information students look up in the dictionary

Another facet of dictionary use examined in this study is the type of information that students look up for in the dictionary. The results of this study show that the great majority of first and third- year students consult the dictionary primarily for definitions, pronunciation and examples. This agrees with (Tomaszczyk (1979; cited in Cowie, 1999: 179) results that indicated that meaning and spelling were of greater importance as motives for a dictionary search. (Quirk's, 1974 cited in Hartmann, 1987) revealed that meaning and spelling were the most important elements the students lookup for in a dictionary.

The researcher noticed that that the grammatical and cultural aspects of English do not attract students like definitions, pronunciation and examples. The students' answers agree with the teacher's answers as the latter say that all their students consult for definitions and examples. Thus, we can understand that looking up words in the dictionary is a dilemma and a challenge or even a hard

and sometimes a boring task for students as we have seen that they struggle with hard definitions and hard examples.

- **Students' difficulties in a dictionary consultation**

The results of the present study reveal that students struggle most with finding the right or relevant meaning in the dictionary. The majority of the students, first and third year, say they don't know which meaning to pick up from the dictionary; they find definitions difficult and stuffed with difficult words. For most of them, the examples also contain difficult words that make them incomprehensible.

Moreover, abbreviations represent a big challenge for the students; a large number of students say they do not know how to read abbreviations in the dictionary. Further, more than half of the students say that it takes them too much time to consult the dictionary. This matches with the study of Luppescu and Day (1993) which revealed that L2 learners using dictionaries took twice as long to complete the reading task compared to control groups who were not allowed to use dictionaries. The results also agree with Knight (1994) whose study revealed that the dictionary group was found to require roughly 42% more time to read than the no-dictionary group.

The researcher attributes these difficulties to the fact that students do not read the user's guide. They use the dictionary just like someone who tries to operate a machine without having the necessary training on how it works. We have seen that 50% of 1st year students and 52.63% of third year students have never read the user's guide. Thus, it's logical and evident that students waste time in looking for words in the dictionary because they don't know how to use it. They don't even know the fundamental keys to use it such as abbreviations and symbols.

Moreover, the results show that 80% of the teachers have never taught their students how to use the dictionary and half of them do not give their students any vocabulary activities where they use the dictionary. This means that

students use the dictionary based on their knowledge or their personal efforts. This agrees with the study of Nesi and Haill (2002) which revealed that the teacher's guidance to help the user to make full use of the word information contained in a dictionary was of high significance.

From the above, the researcher thinks that students' difficulties can be solved by the involvement of both the student and the teacher. The first should be aware that to maximize and optimize the dictionary use, he should always read the user's guide in order to make it more friendly and enjoyable and the second, the teacher, should understand that his role is critical in guiding the student in using the dictionary by teaching him the best strategies to use the dictionary as we have seen in chapter IV.

8.4 Results of the study related to Research *questionfour* (What Reading strategies do students use to learn vocabulary?)

- Reading strategies used by students

The type of reading strategies used by the students of the ENSB Department of English is one of the major aspects that the researcher focused on as part of this study. In fact, the researcher wanted to know to what extent the students of ENSB Department of English are aware of reading strategies on one hand and to see what reading strategies they use in their vocabulary learning process. The aim of the researcher is to see if the students use a variety of strategies or they simply use just a few of them.

Based on the answers provided by the teachers, the researcher concluded that students use only a very limited number of reading strategies. They use guessing from context, the dictionary, exemplification, asking the teachers and peers, inference, translation and gestures. Some teachers even said that their students do not use any strategy!

Just as a reminder, we have seen previously that a dictionary consultation is not an easy task for the students as the majority of them say they have problems

in understanding the dictionary definition, examples and say that dictionary use takes too much time for them. This unfortunately means that the students who use the dictionary as a strategy do struggle to find the meaning of the words. Thus, dictionary use strategy is not used in an efficient way and needs improvement.

The answers to this question also revealed that guessing from context is one of the most important strategies used by the students. This agrees with the wish of most of the teachers who answered the questionnaire or the interview as they prefer that their students use guessing as the main strategy. Most of the teachers push their students to guess the meaning from context before resorting to any other strategy.

With reference to the main purpose of the present study, another strategy used by the students, according to the teachers, is asking the teacher. This strategy, along with the strategy of reference to L2 French, comes in the third place after Guessing from context and the dictionary (see Table 0). This means that the dictionary is used more than referring to the teacher's help by the students.

Moreover, it's worth noting here that the number of strategies that students use is very limited with regard to the large number of strategies that we have seen in chapter III above such as previewing, predicting, skimming, scanning, paraphrasing, activating prior knowledge, questioning information in the text etc. This fact reduces the student's opportunities to learn vocabulary when they face situations where the strategies that they employ do not help them to find the meaning of a word and progress in their reading.

8.5 Results of the study related to Research *questionfive (What vocabulary learning strategies do teachers use other than the dictionary?*

- Vocabulary learning strategies

The results show that teachers do not use a wide range of VLS while teaching vocabulary as part of reading comprehension courses. The VLS used by the teachers are semantic mapping, the dictionary, brainstorming, guessing from

context, word ladder, making a list, examples, opposites, synonyms, developing words from roots, affixes, filling boxes, games, Filling the gaps and matching words with definitions.

The researcher noticed that the number of VLS used by the teachers is limited with regard to the wide variety of VLS that can be used by teachers to ensure an efficient instruction of English vocabulary. Also, the results revealed a big difference in the use of VLSs by the participant teachers, i.e. the teachers' answers are not similar, and each teacher cited different VLSs (s)he uses which are different from the other teachers. This shows that different groups learn vocabulary differently as they are not taught by the same teacher. In other words, different teachers imply different vocabulary teaching strategies. Thus, students of the same level but different groups do not benefit from the same learning conditions.

As we have seen in chapter II, there are hundreds of VLS that teachers can use to help their students learn, understand vocabulary and acquire proficiency in English. Teachers should use more VLS such as *note-taking, memorization; learning and practice new words with a study group, written repetition, keeping a vocabulary notebook, continuing to study words over time,* discovering new meaning through group work activity and many other VLS to ensure every student find and uses the most suitable strategy to learn vocabulary.

8.6 Results of the study related to Research *questionsix* (*What strategies do both teachers and students suggest for a better learning of vocabulary?*)

- Students' and teacher's suggestions for a better Vocabulary learning

Both teachers and students were asked to provide the best strategies to teach vocabulary. The results show that teachers suggested a small number of strategies in comparison with the students. Teachers suggested:

- the use of context,
- examples,

- pictures,
- translation and inference.

However, students were more generous and suggested the following list:

- Use examples
- Encourage reading in different fields
- Use simple and comprehensible definitions
- Use words in sentences
- Encourage guessing from context
- Create interesting activities to learn vocabulary
- Encourage students to vary strategies
- Encourage group work, translation
- Encourage dictionary use
- Write words on the black board and encourage students to memorize them
- Use words in conversations
- Use songs, videos, images and games
- Use synonyms and opposites
- Explain with fun
- Do not blame or offend students
- Motivate students to learn vocabulary

The researcher noticed that the list of the students is more thorough in terms of what students need than the one of the teachers. The suggestions list of the students is longer than the one of the teachers. Moreover, students suggest very interesting strategies such as encouraging group work, the use of songs, videos, images and games, memorizing words and using words in sentences. A large number of students also suggest that teachers should explain with fun, motivate the students to learn vocabulary and refrain from blaming and offending students with vocabulary difficulties.

Students' suggestions portray the situation of vocabulary learning and highlight the real needs in terms of strategies that teachers should use to make vocabulary learning efficient and enjoyable. Most of the students, both 1st and 3rd years, suggest that their teachers use interesting and motivating material t teach vocabulary such as videos, images, songs and simplify examples to meet the needs of students by taking into account their different levels of proficiency. Many students suggested to their teachers to motivate them and teach them with fun instead of offending them. This raises the necessity of reviewing the relationship between the student and the teacher. Teacher should be aware that the way they deal with their students influences to a great extent their learning. They should be aware of their students' learning styles and strategies, their needs, interests and motivations.

The researcher noticed that teachers are limited in their use of VLS. Each teacher uses a very limited number of strategies and teachers do not use the same strategies. This leads to the necessity for teachers to pay more attention to VLS, get more training on them and understand that the more they use a large number of VLSs, the more they guaranty a better teaching of vocabulary. Teachers should enlarge their scope of VLS and share with each other for a better teaching. Sharing strategies among teachers makes it possible to give the same learning opportunities to students in different groups.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the results of the various instruments used to collect data in this study. The researcher provided the interpretations of the different results and compared them to correlate the results and draw a picture of the real situation of dictionary use, VLS and reading strategies use by the students of the department of English in ENSB. Further, in an attempt to bring more insights into this topic of this study, the results were compared with other related studies whenever possible.

Chapter 9

Implications and Recommendations

Introduction

In the light of the results and the discussion of the present research presented in the previous chapters (chapters VI, VII and VIII), the aim of this section is to offer some recommendations and suggestions that would open the way for more research in the area of dictionary use in the department of English to ensure a more efficient vocabulary teaching and learning of English vocabulary in the department of English of ENSB.

9.1 More Research on the dictionary

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher recommends more and varied research in the field of dictionary usage covering different aspects such as dictionary use, design. Dictionary research can be focused on:

- Dictionary structure. Such research will shed more light on the different constituents of dictionaries and thus familiarize both students and teachers with the different parts of a the dictionary.
- Types of dictionaries, to allow students get more insights on dictionaries and make it easier for them to use appropriate dictionaries – general or technical.
- Dictionary use strategies. There is a need for research on the techniques used to look up for words in dictionaries
- More research on the dictionary entries in order to familiarize students with different entries and their components, abbreviations etc.,
- More research on students' use of the dictionary.

- More research on the possibilities and opportunities of the use of the dictionary along with other strategies. Teachers should make their students aware of the importance of using the dictionary with other strategies in order to avoid for them to rely totally on the dictionary and give up using other strategies. They should realize that the dictionary should be used as the last resort.

9.2 Vocabulary learning strategies

Vocabulary learning strategies constitute a pillar of the whole process of learning a language. Without these, the learner is lost in his learning journey. Therefore, the researcher recommends to teachers of the department of English in ENSB to give more importance to the VLS, document themselves on the various VLS and use as many VLS as possible in order to ensure efficient vocabulary learning to their students. Teachers should be aware that varying VLS means guarantying more results as it's been demonstrated and proved that VLS efficiency varies from a student to another, thus if teachers vary VLS, they can get better results.

The researcher is convinced that organizing seminars and workshops for the benefit of the teachers of ENSB department of English on vocabulary learning strategies is more than important. Teachers are in a great need to enlarge the scope of their understanding and use of VLS and to know more about reading strategies to understand better the ways their students learn and adapt to their needs.

9.3 Consciousness -raising in English vocabulary learning

Vocabulary is the building block of any language. Its importance in language learning is like the importance of bricks in house building. Learning the lexical items constitute the basis for the development of knowledge and proficiency in the target language. To build strong vocabulary knowledge of vocabulary, students need to be aware and conscious of its importance for the

mastery of English language. Without this consciousness students will keep struggling with words and therefore with meaning in the different stages of learning. According to Meara (1980), language learners admit that they encounter considerable difficulty with vocabulary even when they upgrade from an initial stage of acquiring a second language to a much more advanced level. This means that vocabulary learning should be a continuous task in order to attain a certain level of proficiency in English.

Nowadays, there is a great shift in the ways vocabulary is taught. Over the past few decades, it has been noticed that a number of researchers have shifted their interest from language teaching methods to language learning strategy use. For Oxford (1990), strategies are important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Dóczi (2011) insisted on the significance of VLSs given that the vocabulary learning is a never-ending process. VLSs provide the best solutions to language learners' difficulties and help learners maximize the effectiveness of their English language learning.

9.4 More training on strategy use consciousness

Nowadays, learning to learn has become very important. Students should be aware of the importance of consciously using language learning strategies to make their vocabulary learning easier, more enjoyable and more effective. Training should take into account many aspects such as the learner's age, cultural background, motivations, learning style and level of proficiency to ensure an efficient learning.

Teacher should be aware also that explicit strategy training allows students discover the best ways to learn and use a wider range of strategies. Moreover, it helps students decide which strategies to keep and develop and which strategies they stop using.

Strategy training aims to provide learners with the tools to do the following:

- Self-diagnose their strengths and weaknesses in language learning
- Become aware of what helps them to learn the target language most efficiently
- Develop a broad range of problem-solving skills
- Experiment with familiar and unfamiliar learning strategies
- Make decisions about how to approach a language task
- Monitor and self-evaluate their performance ·
- Transfer successful strategies to new learning contexts

9.5 Promoting wide reading and reading strategies

There is a strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. As stated in chapter II above, a large number of vocabulary experts agree that a person should know between 90 and 95 percent of the running words of a text to ensure an adequate reading comprehension. This percentage or amount of words helps the reader to understand what the text is about and guess the meaning of the remaining percentage of unfamiliar words. Without this, reading would be a boring and exhausting task.

Reading is a significant way to learn vocabulary and vocabulary is an important factor to read easily. Thus, students should be encouraged to read more and in all fields. They should read varied types of texts, literary and technical. They should be aware that reading is a task that they can perform at any time and in any place and not only in the classroom or in the presence of a teacher. They should make use of all instructional means available for them such as books in libraries, English newspapers and especially Internet or websites material. In short, they should understand that vocabulary can only be learnt and enriched by reading. Further, students should be aware that their reading will never develop without their active engagement in the reading process. If they do not d their part, their vocabulary will remain poor and their reading a struggle.

Teachers, on the other hand, should play their role in providing the maximum of opportunities for wide reading by guiding and raising the students' consciousness with regard to reading as a key element for learning English vocabulary. Teachers should encourage students to devote more time to reading especially that students have many modules, literature, linguistics, grammar, writing etc. in which the knowledge of vocabulary is highly significant for understanding. Teachers have the responsibility to expose the students to the maximum of reading strategies to allow them find the best ones for their learning. They have the responsibility to make every student know that there is a large number of reading strategies (e.g. finding surface and deeper meaning, identifying the topic sentence, using prior knowledge, using clues to guess meanings, general comprehension check tasks, dictionary use, scanning and skimming, previewing, predicting, etc.) and that he or she has to try as many strategies as possible to the best and most efficient for his specific learning style and level.

9.6 Teacher Training and Role

No one can deny the role of the teacher in learning a foreign language and more specifically in learning its vocabulary. All of us have been impressed in our life at least by one or two of the many teachers who taught us English. Therefore, the role of the teacher is a key element if the process of learning. In this context, the researcher recommends to teachers to help their students with best hints and clues t improve their reading. Teachers should help their students use the dictionary in the most effective way by teaching them how to use it along with cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies reading strategies. They should make the students read, enjoy reading and. Teachers should understand their role in monitoring and guiding their students in reading with the dictionary.

Nuttall (1996: 32-33) sums up the teachers' responsibilities to ensure a successful reading journey. For him, teachers should:

a-Help students enjoy and value reading, including making sure there is an attractive extensive reading program;

b- Find out what the students can and cannot do, and work out a program to develop the skills they lack;

c- Choose suitable texts to work on; d- Choose or devise effective tasks and activities; e- Prepare the students to undertake the tasks; f- Make sure that everyone works productively and to their full potential by encouraging students, promoting text-focused discussion and providing 'scaffolding' to enable them to interpret the text themselves, rather than having to rely on the teacher; g-   Monitor progress to make sure that everyone in the class improves steadily according to their own capabilities.

Moreover, teachers should enrich their knowledge with a variety of reading strategies and vocabulary strategies to ensure a better vocabulary teaching and improve the vocabulary proficiency of their students.

9.7 Student's role and involvement

It is commonly believed and agreed that the learner is the linchpin or the center of the learning process. His role is fundamental for the success of learning. Therefore, within the context of our study, learners need to be engaged in the reading and vocabulary learning process. They should understand that to learn and achieve proficiency in English, they should devote a lot of time to reading and gathering English vocabulary. They need to be aware that reading can be done individually, in pairs or in groups to find out meanings of words, sentences and texts.

ENSB English department students have to realize that to build new English vocabulary and understand its meaning; they should not rely only on the teacher and the official programs. They should explore other ways of learning vocabulary, such as using a variety of reading strategies, read in different fields

and learn how to use dictionaries to make their use friendlier. In other word, students should be active not passive recipients.

Further, students in ENSB Department of English should invest in learning the various reading strategies to find the best ways to progress in vocabulary learning. They should be aware that the more they vary their reading strategies, the more they increase their chances to find the best strategies to use to succeed in their learning. They should be aware that the module of reading techniques that is taught in the first, second and third year is of paramount importance. It constitutes a key to understanding and progressing in other modules such as literature, civilization, writing etc.

As part of the themes dealt with in this dissertation, students should familiarize themselves with the world of dictionaries, types of dictionaries, structures, entries, abbreviations as well as the strategies that have been elaborated by the different scholars and researchers to facilitate dictionary look-up. There is no doubt that a student who reads the dictionary user's guide would save a lot of time when looking for the meaning of a word.

9.8 Suggestions formulated by Teachers and students

The researcher considers that the suggestions formulated by the teachers and the students are highly significant and convey a real message of the need to give more consideration to the ways vocabulary should be taught in the department of English in ENSB. Within this context, it is of paramount importance to examine all the suggestions, enrich them and find the best opportunities to translate them into real field actions by all parties to make vocabulary learning an easier and enjoyable task for all of the students.

9.9 Recommendations to the department management

The researcher recommends to the department of English to:

Establish training sessions for teachers on VLS

- Establish training on dictionary use strategies for all teachers in order to enable them to transmit them to their students and guide them to use them.

- Establish a syllabus of reading techniques that should be followed by all teachers for all groups.
- Create interesting activities to promote reading such as library reading activities, movies in English, magazines in English to encourage students to read and write
- Motivate students to share reading experiences and material.

Conclusion

This chapter introduced the main recommendations and pedagogical implications based on the results of the study that the researcher deems important to find the best way to use vocabulary learning and reading strategies especially the best ways to use the dictionary as a tool to learn vocabulary in an autonomous and effective way. The researcher considers that the present work opens the way for more research in the area of dictionary use from different perspectives, namely dictionary use strategies.

General Conclusion

This study investigated the use of the dictionary versus the teacher's help and the effect of both on EFL students' vocabulary understanding during reading comprehension. It provided a portrait of the prevailing situation at the ENSB Department of English and focused specifically on 1ˢᵗ and 3ʳᵈ year EFL students because the researcher wanted to find out whether or not the students' attitudes towards the dictionary use and teacher's help change through time as the students gain more proficiency in English after three years study.

The researcher also investigated the teachers' opinions with regard to the use of the dictionary by their students to understand vocabulary. The aim was to find out if teachers allow their students to use the dictionary during reading comprehension classes to understand vocabulary or they prefer to assist them themselves.

Moreover, one of the main points of this research was to see if according to both, the teachers and the students, using the dictionary was more beneficial for the students than the teachers' help to understand vocabulary or vice versa.

Furthermore, the study covered another important aspect having a great importance in relation to dictionary use, that is to say students' skills and techniques indictionary use, i.e. to see if according to teachers and students, the latter know how to use the dictionary in an efficient way to help them understand vocabulary.

The types of dictionaries used by students are also examined as part of this study.The researcher investigated the reasons motivating the choice of the type of dictionary to use and the types of dictionaries favored by teachers as well as the reasons that teachers give to justify their choice.

The study also shed light on the difficulties the students face when using the dictionary as well as the main reasons for a dictionary consultation, i.e. what

kind of information do students look for in the dictionary. Such aspects were investigated from the perspectives of the teachers and the students.

The results revealed that most of the teachers allow dictionary use during reading comprehension classes to enable their students understand vocabulary. Moreover, most students prefer and use the monolingual dictionary for many reasons such as cultural aspects, no need for translation and the necessity to learn English without the interference of any other language such as Arabic or French.

Teachers also prefer the use of the monolingual dictionary for several reasons including developing English proficiency and familiarizing students with cultural aspects of English. For them the monolingual dictionary is a valuable source of authentic examples. It is another source for students to learn English within the context of the English-speaking countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States of America.

Moreover, with reference to dictionary skills, the findings show that students do not have the necessary skills to use the dictionary efficiently. As a simple example, most of them do not even read the user's guide before using any dictionary. This explains why most of them have difficulties to pick upthere levant meaning from the dictionaryand why most of them struggle with examples provided in the dictionary entries as well as with definitions. Furthermore, the researcher found that the fact that students take too much time to find meaning in the dictionary might be attributable to the lack of skills. What we mean by the dictionary skills include the dictionary user's guide, the ability to differentiate between the different entry constituents such as names, verbs, etymology etc. Once a student is familiar with such key information regarding the dictionary, he/she is using, the difficulties will be overcome.

Based on the findings of the study, as it has already been mentioned in chapter 3 of this study, most of the teachers prefer that their students do not use the dictionary because they do not know how to use itbecause according to them, dictionary use leads students to choose the wrong information most of the time

and it is time-consuming. Teachers suggest that students better use other strategies instead of relying on the dictionary.

A major finding of the study is that students use a very limited number of reading strategies which makes their reading slower and vocabulary understanding more difficult. This is due to the fact thatmost of the students are not aware that reading strategies constitute a major tool to make their reading more enjoyable and easier. The researcher stresses the necessity to teach students the maximum of strategies to give them more opportunities to select those suiting their learning. It is also recommended to include in the curriculum some courses regarding the different reading strategies to familiarize students with them and make them choose the best ones for them.

Teachers equally do not use a wide range of vocabulary strategies. A major remark that came out of the results is that each teacher uses the few strategies he/she knows which are in most cases as shown by the results different from the strategies used by the other teachers. As a matter of fact, students in different groups, being taught by different teachers, do not receive the same vocabulary instruction. Each teacher uses VLSs different from the other teachers. As a result, students do not get the same chances to understand vocabulary and do not progress in the same way.

Moreover,there is a necessity for the teachers of the Department of English at ENSB to readjust their tasks and reading comprehension syllabi in accordance with the students' needs as well as the new developments in the field and include topics such as VLS, dictionary use and reading techniques in order to meet the students' needs. Furthermore, teachers have to work together to build common reading comprehension syllabi to ensure that students with different teachers receive the same training.

A highly noticeable finding of this study is the result of the reading for vocabulary field test. In fact, according to the results of both reading for vocabulary field tests – 1st and 3rd year, the dictionary-groups scored better than

the teacher-groups. The results show that the dictionary is more helpful for students to understand vocabulary than the teachers.

In order to meet the requirements of triangulation,the researcher relied on many research instruments to collect the required data for the study through combiningthe two types of procedures to analyze such data namely qualitative and quantitative methods. Through this, the researcher wanted to gain an in-depth and insightful understanding of dictionary use by ENSB English Department students to understand English vocabulary.

The researcher used research tools such as questionnaires, interviews and a vocabulary field test. The field test was administered to first-year and third-year EFL studentsalong with a questionnaire. The interview was administered to teachers of reading comprehension. Teachers also have been invited to complete a questionnaire. The questions of both questionnaires and the interview were in most cases the same or slightly different in an effort to correlate the answers.

Therefore, in order to make reading for vocabulary understanding easier and more effective and interesting for all groups, and based on the research findings, the researcher formulated a number of recommendations to all concerned parties - students, teachers and the management of ENSBEnglish department- that might be useful and help to improve the ways vocabulary is taught and learnt in the department of English.

Purposefully the researcher sought both students' and teachers' suggestions in an effort toknow, analyze and understand the needs of students in terms of vocabulary teaching techniques, namely dictionary use as an important VLS that can be used at home, in class, in the bus, in a library etc. The suggestions served for the researcher to make a list of recommendations deemed necessary for a better teaching and learning of vocabulary in the Department of English at ENSB.

The results of the present studywill also open new fields of research on different aspects ofreading strategies and vocabulary learning strategies in

general and on the use of the dictionary, especially that electronic dictionaries are being more and more accessible for EFL students and teachers thanks to the spread of smartphones and the Internet.

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Appendix 1

Student QUESTIONNAIRE

DearStudent,

This questionnaire is part of a research work to gather information to investigate the use of the dictionary by the students of the Department of English at ENS Bouzareah to learn vocabulary. It is anonymous and the information will be used exclusively for the purpose of the study of vocabulary comprehension.

You are kindly requested to answer the questions by putting a circle around the appropriate answer or by providing full statements whenever required.

Thank you in advance for your collaboration

Part I- Dictionary

Question 1- Do you use the dictionary in the classroom during reading comprehension courses?

a- Yes   b- No

Question 2- If yes , which type of dictionary do you use?

a) the Monolingual dictionary
b) the Bilingual dictionary
c) Both

Question 3- If no, please explain why?

Question 4- I understand words when I get their meaning from the dictionary

c) Strongly agree,   *b) Agree,*   *c) Disagree,*   *d)   Strongly disagree*

Question 5- Do you know how to use a dictionary?

     c- Yes   b- No

Question 6- Have you ever read the instructions on dictionary use (user's guide) included in the dictionary?

     c- Yes   **b- No**

Question 7- What do you generally look up in a dictionary?

     a- Definitions

     b- Grammar.

     c- Usage of the English words.

     d- Examples.

     e- Cultural information related to the word.

     f- Pronunciation

     g- other , specify:

Question 8- What do you find difficult when using the dictionary?

Part II- Teacher

Question   9- My teacher favors dictionary use to learn vocabulary in the classroom.

a) *Strongly agree,*   **b)** *Agree,*   **c)** *Disagree,*   **d)** *Strongly disagree*

Question 10- I understand better the meaning of unfamiliar words when I get their explanation from

c- the teacher
d- The dictionary

Question 11- My teacher favors the use of:

e- The monolingual dictionary
f- The bilingual dictionary
g- Both
h- None

Question 12- My teacher encourages me to use techniques other than the dictionary to learn vocabulary.

a) *Strongly agree,*   **b)** *Agree,*   **c)** *Disagree,*   **d)** *Strongly disagree*

Question 13- My teacher uses a variety of vocabulary learning strategies in the classroom.

c) *Always*   **b)** *Sometimes*   **c)** *Rarely*   **d)**   *Never*
e) *No answer*

Question 14- According to you, what should your teacher do to help you understand new vocabulary?

Appendix 2

Teachers Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

This questionnaire is part of a research work to gather information to investigate the use of the dictionary by the students of the Department of English at ENS Bouzareah to learn vocabulary. It is anonymous, and the information will be used exclusively for the purpose of the study to investigate vocabulary comprehension.

You are kindly requested to answer the questions by putting a circle around the appropriate answer or by providing full statements whenever required.

Thank you in advance for your collaboration

Part I- The dictionary

Question 1- Do you allow your students to look up words in the dictionary during reading courses?

a- Yes   b- No

Question 2- If yes, what dictionary do you encourage them to use and why?

a) Monolingual
b) Bilingual
c) Both

Question 3- If no, please explain why:

Question 4- Dictionary consultation promotes students' autonomy in learning vocabulary.

a) *Strongly agree,*   b) *Agree,*   c) *Disagree,*   d) *Strongly disagree*

Question 5- Dictionary skills are very important for students to learn vocabulary.

a) *Strongly agree,*   b) *Agree,*   c) *Disagree,*   d) *Strongly disagree*

Question 6- My students have the necessary skills to use the dictionary in an effective way:

a) *Strongly agree,*   b)*Agree,*   c)*Disagree,*   d)*Strongly disagree*

Question 7- My students consult the dictionary for:

      a- Definitions
      b- Etymology
      c- Grammar
      d- Examples
      e- Other. Please specify

Question 8- According to you, what do your students find difficult when using a dictionary?

Part II- Teacher

Question 9- Do you think your students learn better when you explain vocabulary items yourself?

       a- Yes   b- No

Question 10– Do you give your students vocabulary activities where they practice using the dictionary?

       a- Yes   b- No

Question 11- Have you ever taught your students how to use the dictionary?

    a- Yes   b- No

Question 12- What vocabulary learning strategies do you use in the classroom?

Question 13- According to you, what strategies do your students use to learn vocabulary?

Question 14- Based on your experience, what are the best vocabulary learning strategies teachers should use to teach vocabulary in an effective way?
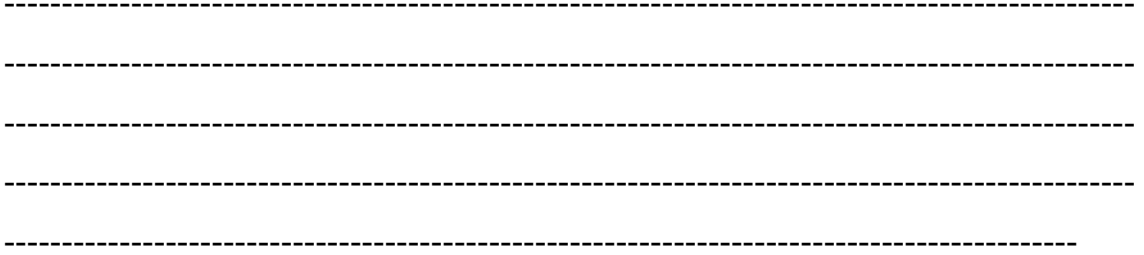
Teachers' Interview

Dear teacher,

This interview is part of a research work to collect information to investigate the use of the dictionary by the students of the Department of English at ENS Bouzareah to learn vocabulary. It is anonymous and the information will be used exclusively for the purpose of the study to investigate vocabulary comprehension.

Thank you in advance for your collaboration

Question 1 – What do you think of dictionary use in class during reading classes?

……………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………….

Question 2: Do your students understand better the meaning of new vocabulary when they use the dictionary?

       Yes   No

……………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………….

Question 3: Do your students have the necessary skills to use the dictionary?

       Yes   No

……………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………….

Question 4 : Do you teach dictionary skills as part of Reading comprehension courses?

Yes   No

……………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………….

Question 5 : What vocabulary learning strategies do you use to teach vocabulary?

……………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………….

Question 6: Do you prefer monolingual or bilingual dictionaries, please explain why?

……………………………………………………………………………………

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Appendix 4

Reading for vocabulary Field Test

1st year text

Aaron Ralston's Story

Aaron Ralston, a 27-year-old mountain sports fanatic from Colorado in the United States, found himself in **dire** straits* alone in a **canyon*** in the desert when a 500kg rock came crashing down the canyon to smash his right hand and trap it against the canyon wall. A terrible accident, but the situation was made all the more serious because on this occasion Aaron had failed to tell anyone where he was going. At the last minute the plans for a trip with his climbing partners had fallen through, and on **the spur of the moment** he decided to head out on his own to **cycle up** a long mountain trail, leave his bike and then walk down the Blue John canyon. No one had the slightest idea where he was.

After three days of not seeing or hearing any sign of life Aaron realised he would die there if he didn't do something drastic. The course of action was horrific, but there was no other way. He would have to **amputate** his right hand. Fortunately he had a small multitool knife with him and he had some straps that he could use to make a tourniquet to stop himself **bleeding** to death when he cut the arteries. The knife had two blades. When he tried with the larger blade he found that it was too **blunt** to cut the skin.

The following day he found the courage to try the shorter blade, and with that he managed to cut through the skin. Only when he had made a large hole in his arm did he realise that it was going to be impossible to use any of the little tools on his knife to cut through the bones. After another 24 hours of pain and despair the idea and the strength came to him in a flash on the sixth day. With a final burst of energy he broke both bones in his arm and freed himself.

The ordeal was not over, though. He was still a long way from help. He had to carefully strap up his right arm and then find a way of lowering himself down a 20m drop in the canyon with a rope and only his left arm, and then walk the 10 km back to his car. Despite his **ingenuity*** and all his efforts he would have bled to death if it hadn't been for a very happy coincidence: the moment he got out of the canyon into the open desert the rescue helicopter just happened to be flying overhead.

One of the doctors at the hospital recalls being impressed to see Ralston walk into the hospital on his own, in spite of his injuries and the **gruelling** experience of being in the desert for six days with almost nothing to eat and only a couple of litres of water. He describes the amputation as remarkable. "It's a perfect example of someone improvising in a dire situation*," he said. "He took a small knife and was able to amputate his arm in such a way that he did not bleed to death."

Slim and pale with short reddish-brown hair, Ralston believes that his story was not simply about an isolated individual who rose to a formidable challenge. For him there was a **spiritual*** dimension to the experience. In his news conference he said, "I may never fully understand the spiritual aspects of what I experienced, but I will try. The source of the power I felt was the thoughts and prayers of many people, most of whom I will never know."

Appendix 5

Test 1ˢᵗ Year

Give **synonyms** or **definitions** of the following:

- **Dire**

- **Canyon**

- **The spur of the moment**

- To **cycle up**

- **Amputate**

- **Bleeding**

- **Blunt**

- **Ingenuity**

- **Grueling**

- **Spiritual**

Test 3rd Year

Give **synonyms** or **definitions** of the following:

- Mold

- --

- Corrosive

- --

- Pervasive

- --

- Linchpin

- --

- Fungus

- --

- Chrysanthemum

- --

- Fluffy

- --

- Cretaceous

- --

    Lobster

- --

- Crustaceans

- --

Abstract in Arabic

ملخص:

يهدف هذا البحث إلى دراسة استعمال القاموس وأثره على تعلم وفهم المفردات الجديدة لدى طلبة معهد اللغة الانجليزية للمدرسة العليا للأساتذة ببوزريعة. تتناول الدراسة المقارنة بين الاستعانة بالأساتذة وأثرهما على فهم المفردات. أخذت الدراسة بعين الاعتبار عدة جوانب مرتبطة باستعمال القاموس كمهارات الاستعمال والبحث عن المفردات، أنواع القواميس موقف الأساتذة من استعمال القاموس خلال دروس القراءة، أثر القاموس في تطوير الاعتماد على النفس لدى الطالب تناولت الدراسة كذلك استراتيجيات القراءة التي يستعملها طلبة السنوات الأولى و استراتيجيات تعليم المفردات المستعملة من طرف الأساتذة خاصة استعمال القاموس. أجريت الدراسة على طلبة السنة الأولى والسنة الثالثة في معهد اللغة من مقارنة استعمال القاموس واستراتيجيات أخرى للتعلم، كما استعمل الباحث عدة أدوات لجمع المعطيات الميدانية كالاستبيان الموجه للأساتذة وللطلبة والمقابلة مع الأساتذة كما قام الباحث بتجربة ميدانية مع طلبة السنة الأولى والسنة الثالثة لدراسة استعمال استراتيجيات استعمال القاموس والاستعانة بالأستاذ لفهم المفردات. بناءا على النتائج المتحصل عليها تبين أن جل الأساتذة يسمحون لطلبتهم استعمال القاموس مع تفضيل القاموس انجليزي/إنجليزي، تبين النتائج لذلك أن الأساتذة يستعملون عدد محدود من استراتيجيات تعلم المفردات كما هو شان الطلبة الذين يستعملون كذلك عدد قليل جدا من الاستراتيجيات. يظهر جليا من نتائج الدراسة أن الطلبة ليس لهم أي تحكم في مهارات استعمال القاموس خاصة انه جل الأساتذة يحرصون على أهمية هذه المهارات. كما يواجه الطلبة، حسب نتائج الدراسة، عدة مشاكل في استعمال القاموس خاصة عندما تكون الكلمة تحمل عدة مفاهيم ومعاني أو عندما تكون التعريفات معقدة أو الأمثلة غير مفهومة أو غير مبسطة.