REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
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A COMPARATIVE STUDY INTO THE EFFECT OF USING SHORT STORY
IN EFL CLASSES ON VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

MA THESIS

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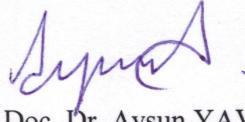
ÇANAKKALE, 2008

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğüne

Mehmet YILDIZ'a ait

'A Comparative Study into the Effect of Using Short Story in EFl
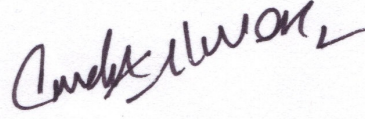
Courses on Vocabulary Instruction.'

Adlı çalışma, jürimiz tarafından

Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programında

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ABSTRACT

Given that short story serves as an effective tool in the EFL classroom, this study aims at investigating the impact of the use of short stories on vocabulary instruction through making a comparison between the two basic vocabulary learning strategies, dictionary use and contextual guessing. For this purpose, a quasi-experimental design was used and the words used in the experiment were selected out of the short story "The Cask of Amontillado" by Edgar Allan Poe. It was the 3rd year class of the ELT department at Çanakkale 18 Mart University to read this short story during the experiment. The class was divided into two groups; contextual guessing group; the other dictionary group. Accordingly, for the purpose of the study, the participants took a test called "Vocabulary Levels Test", first devised by Paul Nation (2000) to measure their vocabulary knowledge, so we could discover if learners with more vocabulary items in their memory do better in contextual guessing and/or dictionary use. Further, the study also attempted to reveal what kind of factors actually hinder or facilitate learning a word in context.

To this end, the results of the experiment provided answers to the three research questions below; 1) Which vocabulary learning technique is more effective in acquiring a vocabulary item? Guessing or dictionary use? 2) What factors make it difficult for the students to learn a word through guessing and dictionary use? 3) Does acquiring a large vocabulary capacity have any effect on the success in guessing from context and learning vocabulary through dictionary use?

KEY WORDS: Contextual Guessing, dictionary use, short story, vocabulary size

ÖZET

İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği sınıflarda kısa hikâyenin etkili bir araç olduğunu göz önünde tutarak bu araştırma iki temel kelime öğrenme stratejisi olan sözlük kullanımı ve tahmin arasında bir kıyaslama yapmak suretiyle kısa hikâyelerin kelime öğretimi üzerindeki etkisini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu yolda yarı deneysel bir desen kullanıldı ve deneyde kullanılan kelimeler Edgar Allan Poe'nun "The Cask of Amontillado" kısa hikâyesinden alındı. Deneyin katılımcıları, Çanakkale 18 Mart Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü 3. sınıf öğrencileriydi. Sınıf iki gruba ayrıldı. İlk grup tahmin ve ikinci grup sözlük grubu olarak belirlendi. Sınıfı iki eşit gruba bölmek için ilk olarak Paul Nation (2000) tarafından tasarlanan "Kelime Dağarcığı Seviyeleri Testi" kullanıldı. Böylece daha çok kelime bilen öğrencilerin daha az kelime bilen öğrencilerden daha başarılı olup olmadıklarını bulunabildi. Ayrıca çalışma metin içersinde ne gibi faktörlerin kelime öğrenimini engellediğini veya kolaylaştırdığını ortaya çıkaramaya çalışmıştır.

Bu bağlamda, deneyin sonuçlarının şu üç araştırma sorusuna cevap vermesi beklenmektedir; 1) Hangi kelime öğrenme tekniği daha etkilidir? Tahminde bulunan mı yoksa sözlük kullanımı mı? Tahmin etme ve sözlük kullanımı esnasında ne gibi faktörler kelimenin öğrenilmesini zorlaştırmaktadır? Geniş bir kelime dağarcığına sahip olmak tahmin ve sözlük kullanımı yoluyla kelime öğrenmede etkili midir?

ANAHTAR KELİMELER: Bağlamsal tahmin, sözlük kullanımı, kısa hikaye, kelime dağarcığının boyutu

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TO MY WIFE,
GAMZE YILDIZ

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ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA : Analysis of Variance

RQ   : Research Question

SPSS   : Statistical Package for Social Sciences

ELT   : English Language Teaching

ELL   : English Language and Literature

EFL   : English as a Foreign Language

SOC   : Social Strategies

MEM   : Memory Strategies

COG   : Cognitive Strategies

MET   : Metacognitive Strategies

DET   : Determination Strategies

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives some information about the background to the study, purpose of the study and research questions, significance, assumptions and limitations of the study. The chapter finally ends up with the organization of the thesis.

1.1   BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Language and literature are two inseparable aspects; despite this fact, the use of literature to teach or learn a foreign language has been a hotly debated issue. Some think that literature should be a part of language teaching because it is an authentic material creating fruitful classroom discussions, allowing the learners to know the target culture, presenting a good basis for vocabulary instruction, while others object to its use because they regard it as a waste of time, the learners may not understand the theme, the language and the alienated culture presented in the text. This part gives some background information about the debates above.

Second language learning has a significant place today as it did in the past. The throughout the history of second language teaching, there were swings from one language to another, and also from one approach to another.

According to Schmitt (2000: 10), second language teaching dates back to the Roman Empire. At that time, classical languages, Greek and Latin, were taught (Larsen-Freeman: 4). Richards and Rogers (1990: 1) state about the first periods of language teaching that "Whereas today English is the most widely studied foreign

language of the world, five hundred years ago it was Latin, for it was the dominant language of education." And from then on, many approaches and methods to teach second languages showed up.

The well-known method, Grammar-Translation Method, dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to 1940s. It favoured the use of literary texts as principle materials in language classes. Moreover, it also involved the first attempts to use literature to teach vocabulary (Richards and Rogers, 1990: 4) and in which "vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary studies, and memorization."(Richards and Rogers, 1990: 4). Yet, the main purpose of this method was "helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature." (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 4)

In fact, the use of literature did not finish with the disappearance of Grammar-Translation method although the purpose of its use changed by the passing of the time. Kramsch and Kramsch (2000: 568) summarize the history of literature's place in foreign language teaching as follows: "throughout the 20th century, literature has been given many purposes in language study. It has been used for the aesthetic education of the few (19l0s), for the literacy of the many (1920s), for moral and vocational uplift (1930s-l940s), for ideational content (1950s), for humanistic inspiration (1960s-1970s), and finally for providing an "authentic" experience of the target culture (1980s-1990s)."

Today, literature is again on the agenda of foreign language teaching and used in language classes for many purposes, such as teaching culture, grammar and vocabulary. But, it should be kept in mind that one intends to use literature as a material must confront such plights as reluctant students, complicated themes, unfamiliar cultural aspects and vocabulary burden. This study compared two strategies to sort out vocabulary burden problem and attempted to contribute to the field. These strategies are 'contextual guessing and dictionary use.'

There are valuable studies carried out on these two subjects. Some of these studies are presented below.

Doğan (1996: 84) claims that "wrong believes about vocabulary learning should be abolished, students, should be much more intensively exposed to contextual studies and memorization technique should be given up"

In the experiment she carried out on 'guessing unknown words from context', Ertarman (2001) has focused on proficiency, vocabulary size, morphological complexity and word class.

Adamış (2002) suggests in her study on the effect of dictionary use considering dictionary types on vocabulary retention and reading that there is a significant difference among groups in terms of vocabulary retention; that is, dictionary use is a facilitating vocabulary learning strategy. She also claims that semi-bilingual dictionary group outperformed the other groups using monolingual and lingual dictionary group.

Bekar (2002) has carried out an investigation into the effect of preparatory classes the students attended after primary school on guessing unknown words in context and found out a positive significant difference in favour of the ones attending preparatory classes.

Manga's (2003) research on word, learner and contextual factors in guessing unknown word from context shows that unknown words presented in a rich context and morphologically complex words are guessed better. Thus, if the teachers aim at teaching new vocabulary items in context, then the words should be presented in a rich context to obtain better guessing.

Having focused on lexical inferencing strategies, Selçuk (2006) found out that successful and unsuccessful guessers employed the same strategies such as guessing by the help of roots and affixes, but successful guessers make better use of

guessing strategies although they used them less frequently than unsuccessful guessers.

Even if there are some studies carried on contextual guessing and dictionary use separately, the examples of which are above, the number of studies (in Turkey) focusing on the comparison of these two strategies[1] is limited. Thus, this study compared these techniques in terms of the research questions mentioned in the following section.

1.2   PURPOSE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The aim of this study was to make a comparison between learning vocabulary making use of dictionary and contextual guessing. A quasi-experimental design was used in the study. To this end, the 3rd year class of the ELT department at Çanakkale 18 Mart University was divided into two groups as experiment and control group. Accordingly, for the purpose of the study, the participants took a test and so we measured their vocabulary knowledge so as to figure out if students with more vocabulary items in their memory do better in guessing and use of dictionary. Before the experiment, the participants took a cloze-test as the pre-test with 50 multiple-choice questions and so that we could find whether they knew the vocabulary items to be taught. Experiment group was asked to guess the meaning of the unknown words from the context and the control group to use dictionary. Then, they were provided with the post-test, again a cloze-test with multiple-choice questions. This post-test was done in order to find out the differences between these two groups having learnt the same vocabulary items through different vocabulary learning strategies. Participants were also asked to take notes on the words in bold while reading the story and by

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[1] Resource; Theses Database of The Turkish Council of Higher Education

doing so, we planned to find out whether the participants had difficulty finding the meanings of the words in bold.

To sum up, we had three aims in the study:

The first aim was to find out which vocabulary learning strategy, contextual guessing or dictionary use, creates a significant effect.

The second aim was to shed light on the effectiveness of the vocabulary size as a determining variable.

The last aim was to find out what kind of factors actually hinder or facilitate learning of a word in context.

The results of the experiment provided answers to the research questions below;

RQ 1: Which vocabulary learning strategy is more effective in acquiring a vocabulary item? Guessing or dictionary use?

RQ 2: Does acquiring a large vocabulary capacity have any effect on the success on guessing from context and learning vocabulary through dictionary use?

RQ 3: What factors make it difficult for learners to learn a word through guessing and dictionary use?

1.3   SIGNIFICA NCE OF THE STUDY

It is known that English is an indispensable part of modern life; thus, people want to learn it and use it to communicate their ideas to the others. It is clear that good communication entails appropriate word choices along with correct grammatical usages and so as to make an appropriate word choice the speaker must know which word fits into which context. Under this title, some information was given about the importance of vocabulary and context.

Doğan (1996) puts the emphasis on the importance of vocabulary instruction claiming that language instructors attaches more importance to grammatical structures than to vocabulary teaching; hence, time spared for vocabulary teaching remains limited and this limited time is not adequate for learners and teachers to benefit from vocabulary learning activities and techniques.

However, even though appropriate time is given to vocabulary instruction, there appears another issue; how to teach it. There are many strategies to teach and learn new words, such as using semantic maps, repetition, word lists, asking an expert for the meaning of a word and, guessing meaning from the context and using dictionary.

Recently, one of the forerunning trends of vocabulary instruction is teaching a vocabulary item in a context. What is the role of context, then? Chastain's (1988: 63) answer to this question is that;

> Knowing the meaning of a word involves much more than just giving a synonym for the word or even a definition. Words are used in context with other words, and speakers must know the relationships of words and how they fit together. Theoretically, one could memorize the entire dictionary and still not be able to generate a sentence that could be structurally well formed and semantically meaningful. Words in context communicate ideas; individual words do not. (Chastain, 1988: 63)

That is, words are not enough to communicate any idea; therefore, they should be interrelated with some other meaningful words and structures to provide a

better communication. This is why language teachers should use reading materials in class.

Accordingly, Dale (1956: 123) expresses that "when we study vocabulary, we do not assume that words are like bricks – each having an independent, unrelated entity, a meaning that can be stored in the dictionary and used on a somewhat mechanical basis. Technical terms, of course, have much more restricted meanings – have less elbowroom. But the essence of language is fluidity, not rigidity."

Barton (2001: 82) states that learning a set of words can improve comprehension. In certain conditions, teacher's efforts to teach vocabulary have a double payoff – students learn new words and gain a better understanding of the literature when the teacher reads the work with them.

Melka (1997, cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2001: 95) points out that "context greatly aids comprehension": comprehension of the idea communicated to the reader/learner, meaning of the words intended to be taught. According to Nagy (1997, cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2001: 64);

> The importance of context in vocabulary learning is evident from two common-sense observations: what a word means on any given occasion is mediated by the many contexts in which it is used, and such contexts provide considerable input from which language users clearly pick up huge amounts of vocabulary knowledge. (Nagy, 1997 - cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2001: 64)

As the researchers above expressed words in context communicate the idea better and context facilitates learning more words. Barton (2001) puts the stress upon how the teacher's contribution can affect the output obtained from reading/context.

Because of these facts, we presented the intended words in a short story. Yet, Huckin and Haynes (1993, cited in Day and Bamford, 1998: 18) state that "vocabulary from context while reading is 'distinctly problematic' for beginning second language readers." As a result, we preferred to study with advanced learners. As Nation and Coady (1988, cited in Day and Bamford, 1998: 18) states, "In general, research leaves

us in a little doubt about the importance of vocabulary knowledge for reading, and the value of reading as a means of increasing vocabulary." Because of that, we resolved to determine the vocabulary size of the participants and attempted to reach some conclusions about the importance of vocabulary size in learning vocabulary while reading.

Further, since there is an ongoing debate over the superiority of two vocabulary learning strategies (contextual guessing and dictionary use) and there is little research on the comparison of the two in Turkey, we also attempted to find out which one of these two vocabulary learning strategies is more effective in vocabulary learning in context.

In the light of the information given above, the study will contribute to the field by finding answer to the question whether contextual guessing or dictionary use results in better vocabulary learning (RQ1), to the question whether possessing larger vocabulary affects the success in learning a vocabulary item through guessing or dictionary use (RQ2) and to the question how context affect the comprehensibility and learnability of the unknown words (RQ3).

1.4 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

Basically, this study assumes that the participants willingly and actively take part in the activities "because students with large literary appetites encounter more words than do their less voracious peers, and see the words used repeatedly in various contexts." (Jenkins; Stein; Wysocki, 1984; 782)

Secondly, the study assumes that the learners have almost the same background and the differences originating from their social and cultural backgrounds do not affect the results of the study. They are not assumed to have the same

vocabulary knowledge as it is one of the variables the effect of which the study intends to test.

Thirdly, the assumption under which the study is carried out is that the students will preserve their integrity and discipline throughout the study, for each group will be asked to use the strategy they have been assigned to; dictionary use or contextual guessing. If they did not, surely it would be impossible for us to obtain the due answers to the research questions.

Fourthly, it is also assumed that each student follows the instructions and read the whole story before the classes.

Fifthly, the study also assumes that the materials and activities that will be used during the study will yield some results because they are supposed to create some kind of change in the students' vocabulary knowledge.

The final assumption is that all the learners are interested in reading the short story.

1.5   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the study is supposed to flow flawlessly, there are some points to keep in mind.

The instruments were applied over 26 3rd year students of the ELT Department in Çanakkale 18 Mart University; 6 boys and 20 girls. The size of the sampling is not comprehensible because volunteer students participated in the research and in an attempt to create two even groups only one class is involved in the study because it is highly probable that inclusion of another class into the study will be an independent variable and it will be impossible for the researcher to sort out such a problem.

As the second limitation, the participants may not know the meanings of the words around the words in bold and those of the ones used as choices in the pre- and post-test. Thus, they will be helped with the unknown words in the choices but not with the ones surrounding the words in bold.

The third limitation may be that not all the possible unknown words in the short story are involved in the study but just 50 of them because the rest is supposed to be the ones which will give clues about the meaning of the words in bold.

The next limitation could be the use of a single class because the 3rd year students of ELT department had no match in terms of language level. Even though there was an evening 3rd year class, putting them and the daytime 3rd year students in the same pot would not be wisely due to the discord between them. Thus, rather than using an extra class, we decided to use that particular class and divided it into two parts.

Fifthly, the participants will not be taught guessing or dictionary techniques because this may become another variable that is not supposed to be involved.

As the final limitation, the application of the short story will be done over the two groups at the same time so that we will be able to avoid differences in teaching the story because this could corrupt the results.

Notwithstanding these limitations, the study will be able to answer three research questions and yield valuable information for the field of learning vocabulary.

1.6   ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

This thesis consists of four chapters. Chapter One covers the introduction part. Detailed information is presented about the background, purpose, significance, assumptions and limitations of the study. Further, the research questions are also available in the chapter.

Chapter Two involves the literature review. It gives information about the use of literature in classroom, character of vocabulary items, guessing and dictionary use, difficulties while learning a word, advantages and disadvantages of literature teaching, types of reading, vocabulary learning and teaching strategies, factors affecting vocabulary learning and teaching, vocabulary teaching techniques and the like.

Chapter Three is a methodology chapter. It presents the methodology in detail. Information is given about the main study. Participants and setting, materials and procedures, the procedures for data analyses and limitations of the study are given in details.

Chapter Four involves the findings of the main study, interpretation of the data that was collected by means of the experimental study. In addition, the paper ends with the headings conclusion and suggestions and implications.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, a wide range of references on the use of literature and short stories in foreign language classes and vocabulary instruction, vocabulary learning strategies, vocabulary burden and factors affecting vocabulary learning are presented. Moreover, some clashing ideas about these issues were provided to display different scopes about the issue.

2.1   USING SHORT STORY IN CLASS

This part of the study presents views of the researchers on the advantages and disadvantages of using literature and finally short stories in class.

For the field of English Language Teaching, literature is any kind of literary and non-literary printed material ranging from tickets to novels. So, literature supplies us with a great variety of writings at any length, about any subject and at any level of difficulty. Because what literature provides for the student is more than they could cope with, it is teachers' job to choose the most appropriate writing to use in the classroom and process it for the in-class use.

Due to the latent capacity of this huge variety, researchers and teachers get intimidated and grow reluctant to use literature. Collie and Slater (1987: 2) express one of the anxieties about the use of literature by stating that "literature was thought of as embodying a static, convoluted kind of language, far removed from the utterances of daily communication. Moreover, in some cases literature was also seen as carrying an undesirable freight of cultural connotations."

Another argument about the use of literature expressed by McKay (1986, cited in Brumfit and Carter, 2000: 191) is that:

> First since one of our main goals as ESL teachers is to teach grammar of the language, literature, due to its structural complexity and its unique use of language, does little to contribute to this goal. Second, the study of literature will contribute nothing to helping our students meet their academic and/or occupational goals. Finally, literature often reflects a particular cultural perspective; thus, on a conceptual level, it may be quite difficult for students. (McKay, 1986 - cited in Brumfit and Carter, 2000: 191)

Long (1986, cited in Brumfit and Carter, 2000: 42) warns teachers about the danger unless due attention is paid and he says that "the teaching of literature is an arid business unless there is a response, and even negative responses can create an interesting classroom situation."

In fact, the voices anxious about the use of literature in class have some rational reasons for their reluctance when considering the difficulties Duff and Maley (2003: 7-8) manifest below.

1.   Linguistic difficulties, which refer to complexity, lexical density, or discoursal organization.

2.   Difficulties arising from text length: for some longer texts appear more difficult, whereas shorter ones do for others.

3.   Cultural difficulties; it is impossible for the outsider, non-native, to share fully thee range of references of an insider, native, which produces difficulties.

4.   Difficulties of range of reference; a texts might have many allusions, which is therefore quite hard to understand.

5.   Conceptual difficulty: it refers to the difficulty of the ideas the text conveys, even when couched in simple, limpid language.

6.   Acceptance difficulties; it is the instinctive negative reaction we experience towards certain types of text or certain authors.

The first thing the teacher should be careful about is the length of the text (item 2). Because length is one of the first visible features of a text, most students get intimidated when they see it. Therefore, the course could be started with a short text and gradually the length could be increased. Moreover, because some of the students could have some negative attitudes towards some particular genres, writers and themes, a needs analysis test could be useful to know about the preferences of the students (item 6).

Items 1, 3, 4 and 5 are the intrinsic properties of the text. The level of the text should not be lower or far higher than the language proficiency of the students. Culture and ideas present in the text should not be unfamiliar to then students. Again, a needs analysis test could help the teacher to avoid such difficulties.

Moreover, Ur (1996: 201) mentions the advantages and disadvantages of using literature in class and provides us with a very comprehensive list as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Literature in Class

Advantages of Literature Teaching	Disadvantages of Literature Teaching
1. Literature can be very enjoyable to read	1. Much literature is written in language that may be difficult for foreign language learners to read.
2. It provides examples of different styles of writing, and representations of various authentic uses of the language.	2. We can use simplified versions, but these are a poor representation of the original.
3. It is a good basis for vocabulary expansion.	3. Many literary texts are long and time-consuming to teach.
4. It fosters reading skills.	4. The target language culture on which the literature is based on is alien to
5. It can supply an excellent jump-off point for discussion or writing.	learners and may be difficult for them to relate to.
6. It involves emotions as well as intellect, which adds to motivation and may contribute to personal development.	5. By using texts as a basis for

7. It is a part of the target culture and has value as part of the learners' general education.	language teaching we may spoil learners' enjoyment and appreciation of them as literature.
8. It encourages empathetic, critical and creative thinking.	6. Students of science and technology may find literature irrelevant to their needs.
9. It contributes to world knowledge.	
10. It raises awareness of different human situations and conflicts.	

On the other side, Duff and Maley (2003: 6) justify the use of literature in language classes from three points of view: linguistic, methodological, and motivational;

a. In terms of the language, literary texts provide genuine styles, registers, and text-types at any level of difficulty. Even just for that, they are worth thinking over as useful materials.

b. Because every student understands a text different from the others, this "ready-made gap", as they term it, leads to genuine interaction.

c. Thanks to connections between the theme and the experiences of the students, the text motivates them to write, to speak and to act.

As a justification of the use of literature, Power (1981) says about why literature should be used in the classroom;

d. it can prompt class discussion better than almost anything else.

Collie and Slater (1987: 4) state the following in addition to the ones above,

e. "Cultural Enrichment; maybe literature is the best complementary material to the other materials used to increase the insight of the second-language learners into the nation whose language is learnt."

Researchers (Collie and Slater, 1987; McKay, 1986; Long, 1986; Duff and Maley, 2003; Ur, 1996) expressed some negative and positive sides of using literature in class. Apparently, it seems that the scale is in the favour of using of literature. Yet, aforementioned difficulties and disadvantages should not be overlooked. In order to avoid these difficulties and disadvantages, in our study we used short stories, justification of which is well listed by Collie and Slater (1987: 196) as follows;

1-   Their practical length means they can be read entirely within one or two class lessons.
2-   They are less daunting for a foreign reader to tackle and to reread on his or her own, and are more suitable when set as home tasks.
3-   They offer greater variety than longer texts. A teacher can choose very short stories, so that there is a greater chance of finding something appealing to each individual's tastes and interest.
4-   Short stories are especially valuable for sessional courses, summer courses or the like; or for teachers with shifting classes.
5-   It adds new tastes to the course and entertains the class. (Collie and Slater, 1987: 196)

Short story is very applicable with its plausible length and the range of varieties can appeal any student and owing to these properties, it is less daunting for students. Furthermore, such characteristics of short stories motivate students to participate actively in-class activities.

While these are the advantages of short stories, Lazar (1993: 75) points out some problems teachers may face during the class; students may not understand,

1.   the theme;

2.   the language of the story,

3.   how the narrator could shape and affect the style of the story.

Lazar (1993) claims that the theme can be complicated for the students, language of the text can be highly above the level of the student and they can not appreciate the style the narrator (or the writer) imposed in the text.

In addition, Collie and Slater (1987: 196) suggest that teachers should be aware of the fact that,

4.   short stories are so brief that if teachers are not careful, they may be less involving for the students,

5.   and they are also extremely compressed and [this] can make it difficult for foreign readers to appreciate the quality of the work, even when they understand its surface meaning.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, Collie and Slater (1987) advocate that short stories can be used in the language classes with good care and preparation thanks to 5 reasons listed above. Because it is fairly easy to find linguistically, methodologically and affectively the most appropriate story in a vast inventory of short stories, such problems can readily be sorted out.

2.2   WHAT IS READING?

Reading is the key skill to the first encounter with a literary text; the reader understands the nature of text by reading and as the reader reads the text, s/he ravels the knots of its makeup and the fact that "reading is the most autonomous and individualized ability in language work" (Brumfit, 1986 – cited in Brumfit and Carter, 2000: 185) makes it suitable for in-class activities and to be assigned as homework as well.

Reading is not just pronouncing the symbols in the text, but as Day and Bamford (1998: 12) define "reading is the construction of meaning from a printed or written message." Ur (1996: 141-142) agrees with Day and Bamford and says, "it is generally preferable to begin reading only after the learners have some basic knowledge of the spoken language, so that reading becomes as quickly as possible a matter of recognizing meanings rather than deciphering symbols." As Ur (1996: 138) claims 'reading' means 'reading and understanding' and a language learner saying 'I can read the words but I do not know what they mean' is not 'reading', but just translating written symbols into corresponding sounds.

Chastain (1988: 216) believes that reading is both a basic and complimentary skill in learning, and "second language students need to learn to read for communication and to read greater and greater quantities of authentic materials. Students can probably learn to read more easily than they can acquire any other skill, and they can use reading materials as a primary source of comprehensible input as they learn the language."

Inferring from Chastain's (1988) utterances, reading is learnt more easily than any other skill; thus, reading could be a suitable initiation point to teach vocabulary. But as a matter of fact not every reading is the same. Chastain (1988: 235) distinguishes "reading literature" from "reading" and points to one of the features of short stories saying;

Literature is no less reading. Students need to learn to scan, skim, and read intensively and extensively while reading literary selections just as they do with other types of reading materials. Scanning and skimming plays and novels help to develop expectations about the plot, and some difficult or important passages may require intensive reading while others should be read extensively. Poetry and essays will undoubtedly require more careful reading and analysis than a magazine article or a short story read for pleasure. (Chastain, 1988: 235)

That is, different genres can be read in different ways and reading literature also involves going beyond the text and developing expectations and getting pleasure.

As Chastain mentions above, there are two types of reading; intensive reading and extensive reading. Table 2 presents the characteristics of these two reading types.

Table 2: Intensive and Extensive Reading (Day and Bamford, 1998: 123)

INTENSIVE READING	**TYPE OF READING**	EXTENSIVE READING
Read accurately	**Class Goal**	Read fluently
Translate Answer questions	**Reading Purpose**	Get information Enjoy
Words and Pronunciation	**Focus**	Meaning
Often difficult Teacher chooses	**Material**	Easy [Learner] chooses
Not much	**Amount**	A lot
Slower	**Speed**	Faster
Must finish Use dictionary	**Method**	Stop if you do not like it No dictionary [Guessing]

Through the interpretation of Table 2, guessing group of the study is expected to read extensively and dictionary group intensively. This table also foreshadows that the students in the guessing group will read the text faster and just focus on understanding the theme, but dictionary group will read slowly and focus on the words in question.

Day and Bamford (1998: 93) suggest that when the reader encounters an unknown word, s/he guesses its meaning from the surrounding text, or ignores it, and

uses dictionary. But if the reader can not tolerate the unknown word and looks every word up in a dictionary, s/he feels intimidated. Apart from unknown words, there might appear some other difficulties during reading, such as ones arising from the length, language, words, subject matter. Brown and Yule (1983, cited in Gilmore, 2007: 109) mention a range of factors affecting text difficulty:

> 1.   Different spoken genres can be represented on a cline of increasing inherent difficulty, depending on whether they represent static, dynamic or abstract concepts;
> 2.   The number of elements in a text and how easily they can be distinguished from one other, so that a short narrative with a single character and a few main events will be easier to comprehend than a long one involving more characters and events;
> 3.   The content (grammar, vocabulary, discourse structure and presumed background knowledge in a text). (Brown and Yule, 1983 - cited in Gilmore, 2007: 109)

Further, the nature of the activities while reading may render reading of a text difficult. Mariani (1997, cited in Gilmore, 2007: 112) expresses that "all pedagogic activities can be described along two dimensions in terms of the level of challenge and support and that different combinations of these two factors have different learning consequences" (see Figure 1).

High Challenge

(Effective learning) | (Learner frustration)

High Support ———————— **Low Support**

(Minimal learning) | (Learner boredom)
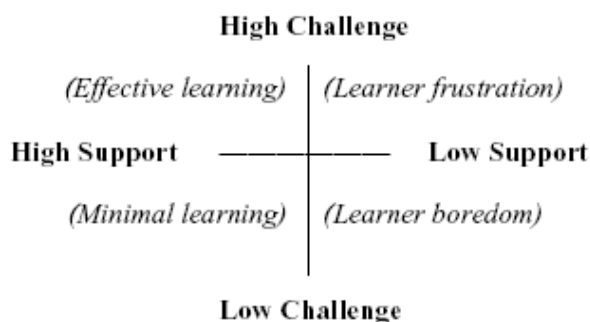
Low Challenge

Figure 1: The learning consequences of variation in challenge and support in the language classroom.

As can be seen from Figure 1, as Mariani (1997) states low support through reading is unproductive. This means teacher's role during reading extremely significant. The best learning, as Mariani (1997) claims, takes place if the challenge of the text and the support of the teacher are high.

According to Chastain (1988: 232), researchers' findings show that linguistic complexity may not be detrimental to comprehension and gives Blau's (1982) study as an example in which she held the vocabulary and the content constant and changed the complexity of the text and found that students reading materials written in complex sentences scored highest in comprehension.

Laufer (1997: 22-28) proposes 3 problems that a learner might come across in second language reading;

1.   Words we do not know, about which he expresses the more words within the range of the learners' vocabulary, the better they understand what they read.

2.   Words we think we know; he claims we suppose that we know the word or the structure we have encountered for some reasons, such as idioms whose word-by-word translation and assigned meaning may be different, or synforms, words having similar lexical forms, such as economic/economical, price/prize and so on.

3.   Words we can not guess; he believes it is impossible to guess some words in a text for several reasons, such as nonexisting contextual clues, unusable contextual clues, misleading and partial clues

To sum up, as Anderson (1984, cited in Chastain, 1988: 221) describes, "reading is an active and inexact process." it is a process in which the reader is involved cognitively and affectively and in which the reader forms out meanings, has a negative or positive stand and expectations from the text and could face difficulties. Because such difficulties are always likely to show up while reading, it is necessary to introduce the reading strategies to the students, which could alleviate their anxiety when they encounter these difficulties.

After dealing with literature and reading, in the next part we give some views about the words composing the literature and as the minimal means read to find out the meaning conveyed to the reader.

2.3   WHAT IS A WORD AND WHAT IS VOCABULARY?

In an upside down pyramid consisting of words, vocabulary, sentences and text, words and vocabulary are two smallest parts at the bottom and form the very foundations of a text. Words build up the smallest part of the pyramid at the bottom while text is the largest part at the top.

Accordingly, for Read (2000: 1), "words are the basic building blocks of language, the units of meaning from which the larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and whole texts are formed."

Richards and Schmidt (2002: 588) defines word as "the smallest of the linguistic units which can occur on its own in speech and writing.

The second part of the pyramid from the bottom is vocabulary. Richards and Schmidt (2002: 580) defines 'vocabulary' as "a set of lexemes, including single words, compound words and idioms."

Brown and Hatch (1995: 1) defines vocabulary as "a list of or set of words for a particular language or a list or a set of words that individual speakers of a language might use."

As Ur (1996: 60) points out that "vocabulary can be defined, roughly as the words we teach in the foreign language."

For Zimmerman (1997: 5), "vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to the typical language learner." Brown (1994: 365) suggests that "today vocabulary is seen in central role in contextualized, meaningful language rather than as a boring word list."

To this end, Brown (1994: 365-66) proposes some guidelines for communicative treatment of vocabulary instructions, such as helping students to learn vocabulary in context, rather than in isolation and/or on dictionary-basis, playing down the role of bilingual dictionary and encouraging students to develop strategies for determining meaning of words.

As a result, because words and, within a wider scope, vocabulary are the minimal parts of the text after letters, no word can be separated from the text, which is the context in which it occurs. This justifies that vocabulary instruction should take place within a contextualized body, which is readily provided by literature.

2.4   IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY

It is a shared belief among the researchers that vocabulary is the principle aspect to convey the meaning in a reading text and because of that, vocabulary and its instruction are vital parts of not only second language, but also first language teaching.

Vocabulary has been neglected for many years but it has retrieved the place that it is supposed to be in. Laufer (1997: 140) puts the emphasis on its return saying;

> Vocabulary is no longer a victim of discrimination in second language learning research, nor in language teaching. After decades of neglect, lexis is now recognized as central to any language acquisition process, native, or non-native. (Laufer, 1997: 140)

Wilkins's (1972, cited in Carter and McCarty, 1988: 42) famous saying highly emphasizes the importance of vocabulary; "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed."

Laufer (1997, cited in Coady and Huckin, 2000: 20) states that "no text comprehension is possible, either in one's native language or in a foreign language, without understanding the text's vocabulary."

Glazer and Nugent (1989, cited in Peitz and Vena, 1996: 1) suggest in their study on vocabulary in context and in isolation "vocabulary is an important part of reading instruction. Understanding words and identifying them in a reading passage will help the reader comprehend what they are reading.

Wilkins (1972), Laufer (1997), and Glazer and Nugent (1989) draw attention to the fact that high proficiency in grammar does not suffice to understand a text, but a large vocabulary enables the reader to understand the text. This also shows that vocabulary instruction should come before that of grammar.

Croll (1971: 378) holds the view that "teaching vocabulary is undoubtedly one of the most difficult tasks of English teachers. Vocabulary lessons are generally uninteresting to students and are to offer ineffectual as well. Yet, a full vocabulary is essential to adequate self-expression."

As Croll (1971) asserts vocabulary is not just required to comprehend a text, but also to express oneself in written and spoken language: that is, knowing a word means being able to use it productively and receptively. Thus, the next title explains what "knowing a word" is.

2.5   WHAT IS "KNOWING A WORD"?

As the minimal meaningful element of a sentence, knowing a word is more than just knowing its mother tongue counterpart; As Ellis (1997, cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2001: 123) expresses, knowing a word is "minimally recognition of a word and registering it into the mental lexicon."

Hatch and Brown (1995: 373-91) present four steps of knowing a vocabulary item; in the step "Encounter New Words", such media as books, TVs and radios, newspapers and magazines, and dictionaries provide the learner with new words. This step is the initial and crucial step of vocabulary learning, especially to incidental learning as Hatch and Brown (1995) suggest, and teachers are supposed to provide the students with the most appropriate medium possible.

Of course it is the learner factors to determine the sort of the medium to be presented. Hatch and Brown (1995) present us with some learner factors, such as interest and motivation, the need to learn a word, circumstances, and the number of the times that a word is encountered and so on.

Second step "Getting the Word From" appears to be the getting of a clear image – visual or auditory or both – of the form of the vocabulary item. This step is shown in comments such as "associating new words with words that sound similar in my native language", "writing the sounds of words using sound symbols from my native language", "associating words that are similar to words in other languages I have studied", "associating a word with a similar sounding English word I know", and "seeing a word that looks like another word I have already know".

As can be inferred from the utterances above, there are morphological and phonological properties of a vocabulary item and analogies between these particular properties. What a teacher should do is to draw the attention of the students to such analogies and thus, lead a better retention in the memory.

Another step to mention is "Getting the Word Meaning", in which ways to obtain the meaning are presented; these could be "asking somebody the meaning of the word or providing somebody with the definition of the word and asking what the word is."

There might be some other media to obtain the meaning, such as glossaries, dictionaries and thesauri. As Brown and Hatch (1995: 383) express, the older the

learner grows and the higher his/her proficiency level gets, the more detailed the meaning the learner is provided with becomes. Depending on the proficiency level and the age, a rough counterpart "car" for the word "truck" could be satisfactory for a child, the definition "any of various wheeled frames, platforms, or carts used for transporting heavy objects" could be inadequate in the higher levels and older age.

Brown and Hatch (1995) state another way to get the meaning could be guessing the meaning from the context and practically this is the only way in incidental learning for learners to get the meaning within the context.

Since the form is nothing without the meaning, teachers should look for strategies to build a link between form and meaning, and to strengthen this link. Hence, there appears another issue –the fourth step- to think over, which is "to consolidate word form and meaning in memory". Such vocabulary learning drills as flashcards, matching exercises, crossword puzzles can be used to do so. Oxford (1990, cited in Brown and Hatch, 1995: 387) groups these strategies into four general categories; 1) getting mental linkages, 2) applying images and sounds, 3) reviewing well and 4) employing actions.

However, the steps up to that one "Using the Word" would be sufficient if the aim is to form out a receptive vocabulary, yet if it is more than using the receptive vocabulary, "using the word productively" is essential and it is most probably a guarantee that words and meanings will not fade away from the memory and this means now the learner knows the word. What is "knowing a word"?

Richards (1976, cited in Read, 2000: 25) explains what knowing a word is in detail:

1- Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering that word in speech or print.
2- Knowing a word implies knowing the limitations in the use of the word according to variations of function and situation.

3-   Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behaviours associated with the word.

4-   Knowing a word entails knowledge of the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it.

5-   Knowing a word entails knowledge of the networks of associations between that word and other words in the language.

6-   Knowing a word means knowing the semantic value of a word.

7-   Knowing a word means knowing many of the different meanings associated with a word.

Shortly, knowing a word is to know which word to use, where, how, with which words and in which context to use it. Knowing a word is being able to pronounce and spell it, and also knowing the forms related with it, the function it could undertake in a grammatical structure, the meanings the words are associated with and knowing with which words it goes along.

2.6   FACTORS THAT AFFECT VOCABULARY LEARNING

Up to here in the previous section, the definitions of a word and vocabulary and knowing a word have been done and their place in language teaching has been discussed. In this section, factors affecting vocabulary learning is explained in detail.

Schmitt and McCarthy (2001: 20) suggest that "The more cognitive energy a person expends when manipulating and thinking about a word, the more likely it is that they will be able to recall and use it later."

Laufer (1997: 142-52) lists six factors affecting word learnability;

a)   Pronounceability could be a problematic issue in learning a second language because of phonological habits gained in the atmosphere of L1; for instance,

for Spanish learners of English the pair ban/van, for Hebrews the pair live/leave could be difficult to pronounce. Therefore, the learner could avoid using it.

b)   Orthography is another factor in which sound-script correspondence makes learning a word difficult or facilitates it. While associating the sound with the script is easy in some languages, such as French, German and Italian, it is difficult due to the lack of sound-script patterns, such as in English.

c)   Length can be considered to be affecting the learnability of a word; the longer the more difficult to learn. But it really is not so; the longevity of a word does not matter when the word contains some familiar morphemes. Laufer (1997: 145) says "it is not the intrinsic quality of the words but the quantity of the input that may contribute to the successful learning of the short words."

d)   Morphology may pose two types of complexity; "Inflexional complexity is caused by features such as irregularity of plural, gender of inanimate nouns, and noun cases and makes learning of a word more difficult than any other word without these features because leaning load caused by the multiplicity of forms is greater." The second is derivational complexity; the familiarity with a number of suffixes and prefixes could be very supportive for a learner in learning a word, but could make learning difficult by posing confusion, for example while the prefix "over-" means "excessively" in overcook, it does not in the verb "overlap".

e)   Synformy is the similarity of lexical forms. Synformic similarities, such as similar roots, affixes and phonemes, identical number of syllables of the confused words, identical stress patterns and part of speech, may result in learning difficulties. For example, pit/bit, advice/advise, date/data, etc.

f)   Grammar – Part of speech is another factor affecting the learnability. It is believed that nouns are learnt easier and adverbs are the most difficult ones to learn. There is not such a definite distinction for verbs and adjectives.

g) Semantic features of the word are abstractness, specificity and register restriction, idiomaticity and multiplicity of meaning. It is often assumed that abstract nouns are more difficult to learn than the concrete ones because the former is intrinsically more complex than the latter. But Laufer claims that it is a sharp assumption because even concrete words can be difficult because of several intra- and inter-lexical factors. As for specificity and registration restriction, Laufer suggests general and neutral words used in a variety of contexts and registers are less problematic because they cover a large area of meaning and fit several context and also requires no extra-linguistic phenomena. Learning load created by idiomaticity is particularly heavy because not only is there more than one word to learn, but also there is little or no clue about the meaning of the idiom from the meaning of each individual word that forms it out. Multiple meaning is the last property of a word semantically causing difficulty. One form representing several meaning could be a polyseme, such as the verb "bear" meaning "to carry", "to tolerate" and "to give birth to", and the noun "bear" standing for an animal). It is hard for language learners and even teachers to distinguish one meaning from the other.

The factors above could pose serious difficulties during reading unless vocabulary learning strategies are practiced properly. In the following part, Oxfords vocabulary learning strategies and the basic strategies to cope with unknown words faced while reading are discussed.

2.7 SCHMITT'S TAXONOMY OF VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES

The most comprehensive taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies was done by Oxford (1990, cited in Schmitt, 1997: 205). Yet, Table 3 is prepared by Schmitt (1997) basing on Oxford's taxonomy. This taxonomy consists of two sections and originally four strategy groups; sections are (1) strategies for discovery of a new word's meaning and (2) strategies to consolidate a word once it has been encountered. The groups are Social Strategies (SOC), Memory Strategies (MEM), Cognitive

Strategies (COG) and Metacognitive Strategies (MET). Due to the necessity to create a new category for strategies to discover a new word's meaning, an extra group was added to the taxonomy, which is Determination Strategies (DET). SOC involves interaction with other people to contribute to language learning. MEM involves association of new items with the existing knowledge. COG consists of strategies to manipulate and transform the target language and MET "involves a conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best ways to study." (Schmitt, 1997, cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2001: 205)

The taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies by Oxford (1990) is as follows:

Table 3. Schmitt's taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies (Schmitt, 1997 - cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2001: 207-8)

STRATEGY GROUP	STRATEGIES
STRATEGIES FOR THE DISCOVERY OF A NEW WORD'S MEANING	
DET	Analyse part of speech
DET	Analyze affixes and suffixes
DET	Check for L1 cognate
DET	Analyze any available pictures and gestures
DET	Guess from textual context
DET	Bilingual dictionary
DET	Monolingual dictionary
DET	Word lists
DET	Flash cards
SOC	Ask teacher for an L1 translation
SOC	Ask teacher for paraphrase of synonym of the new word
SOC	Ask teacher for a sentence including the new word
SOC	Ask classmates for meaning
SOC	Discover new meaning through group work activity
STRATEGIES FOR CONSOLIDATING A WORD ONCE IT HAS BEEN ENCOUNTERED	
SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group
SOC	Teacher checks students' flashcards or word lists for accuracy
SOC	Interact with native-speakers
MEM	Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning
MEM	Image word's meaning
MEM	Connect word to a personal experience
MEM	Associate the words with its coordinates
MEM	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms
MEM	Use semantic maps
MEM	Use 'scales' for gradable adjectives

MEM	Peg method
MEM	Loci method
MEM	Group words together to study them
MEM	Group words spatially on a page
MEM	Use new words in sentences
MEM	Group words together within a story line
MEM	Study the spelling of a word
MEM	Study the sounds of a word
MEM	Say new word aloud when studying
MEM	Image word form
MEM	Underline initial letter of the word
MEM	Configuration
MEM	Use Key Word method
MEM	Affixes and roots (remembering)
MEM	Part of speech (remembering)
MEM	Paraphrase the word's meaning
MEM	Use cognates in study
MEM	Learn the words of an idiom together
MEM	Use physical action when learning a word
MEM	Use semantic feature grids
COG	Verbal repetition
COG	Written repetition
COG	Word lists
COG	Flash cards
COG	Take notes in class
COG	Use vocabulary section in your notebook
COG	Listen to tape of word lists
COG	Put English labels on physical objects
COG	Keep a vocabulary notebook
MET	Use English language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.)
MET	Testing oneself with word tests
MET	Use spaced word practice
MET	Skip or pass new word
MET	Continue to study word over time

Two of these items in the taxonomy require clarification. Peg Method is an approach you can use to memorize a great amount of things at a time. Numbers can be used to associate a word or an item. The learner associates a vocabulary item with a number and when s/he hears the number, s/he remembers the word. The other is Loci Method, which is assigning some words to some familiar points in a familiar place. For instance, imaginatively the learner associates a word with a part of the house and every time s/he passes by this point, s/he remembers the word.

2.8   STRATEGIES TO COPE WITH UNKNOWN WORDS
DURING READING

During reading, problems originating from the text could appear. In fact, a text is difficult or poses unintelligibility and complexity because language proficiency, mood and developmental state of readers are not appropriate for the text. Mostly encountered problems are unknown words and ambiguities in the text. Hence, Readers use strategies to get rid of such plights. Here, we focus on reading strategies to cope with unknown and ambiguous words.

Chastain (1988: 236) points out that "both the teacher and the student should remember that reading is an active process involving strategies that can be learned and that it is perhaps the best means for acquiring large amount of comprehensible input." Read (2000: 35) lists four strategies;

1.   read on without trying to understand it;

2.   look it up in a dictionary or a glossary;

3.   try to guess the meaning using contextual clues.

4.   ask the teacher or some other proficient person what it means.

The first item is ignoring the unknown or ambiguous word and going on reading. Reader using this strategy reads for overall meaning of the sentence, paragraph or the literary text. But a word can be so much crucial that without it, no sentence or paragraph can be understood. At that point, two strategies affecting the reading performance of the reader come forth: looking up in a dictionary and guessing the meaning from the context. It is widely accepted that dictionary is commonly used for two reasons; one is to find the meaning of the unknown or ambiguous word, the other is to clarify the meaning of the guessed words; and it is also a widely-shared idea that if the reader is a 'dictionary addict', frequent dictionary use intervenes the reading and s/he gets irritated and intimidated. The other strategy mostly used and

recommended is contextual guessing. This strategy is recommended because the reader deals with the unknown or ambiguous word in detail and so assimilates it by forming better links between the schema and the word, which results in prolonged retention.

The last one is asking a proficient person, such as a teacher and a native speaker for the meaning of the word, in which the reader is provided with two meaning types; the meaning in mother tongue or meaning through illustration, miming and in target language. Providing the reader/learner with the meaning in mother tongue is not recommended because it involves less cognitive processing.

Paribakht and Wesche (1999: 204-5) concluded as a result of the experiment on 'reading and incidental L2 vocabulary acquisition' that the participants used four strategies; ignoring the words, appeal for assistance, word retrieval and lexical inferencing (contextual guessing). They found out that participants ignored nearly half of the unknown words they identified. Participants asked the interviewer for assistance or verify the meaning of the target word in a dictionary or they tried to guess the meaning from context. They obtained a different strategy from what Read (2000) gives above; it is 'retrieval', which is a type of guessing and "the strategy of repeating the target word out loud or rereading it several times in an attempt to retrieve it from phonetic or graphic cues."

Aspatore (1984, cited in Chastain, 1988: 224) claims that students are dependent too much on dictionaries and therefore recommends that teachers ask students to read and underline unknown words without looking up it meaning in a dictionary; to use contextual clues to infer the meaning from the context; to skip the unknown words; and to focus on cognates, roots, prefixes, and suffixes.

In addition to these suggestions, Krashen and Terrell (1983, cited in Chastain, 1988: 225) list (1) reading for meaning, (2) not looking up every word, (3) predicting meaning and (4) using contexts as communicative reading strategies.

It can be inferred from the aforesaid statements that there are basically five strategies to cope with unknown words: ignoring the word, looking up in a dictionary or glossary, asking a proficient person for meaning, guessing and retrieval (which is a type of guessing). Moreover, extensive reading might be helpful for the learner if s/he reads literature to enjoy it and thus does not drown in a vocabulary cluster. But it is a fact that this way or that way some vocabulary items becomes a nightmare for the reader even if s/he tries to overlook it because it is the key word without which a sentence or a paragraph or even the text can not be understood adequately.

2.9   SUMMMARY

In this chapter, the use of literature and short stories in foreign language classes and vocabulary instruction, vocabulary learning strategies and factors affecting vocabulary learning are discussed. It is clear from the views of the researchers that a short story can provide a suitable medium for vocabulary instruction and so its use can contribute to the field of English language teaching.

CHAPTER THREE
DICTIONARY USE AND CONTEXTUAL GUESSING

3.0   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, contextual guessing and dictionary use as the main concerns of the study are discussed. During the flow of the chapter information on the issues, such as dictionary and vocabulary relation, context and vocabulary relation, contextual guessing and dictionary use will be presented.

3.1   DICTIONARIES AND VOCABULARY RELATION

Dictionary is an inventory of words presented in an alphabetic order, and gives the meanings of words in the same or in another language. The importance of this rich word inventory is being played down because;

> It appears that when the pedagogical focus shifts from medium to message, when students study literary texts instead of language texts, that the pedagogical assumption regarding vocabulary learning also shifts in emphasis from intentional to incidental. Vocabulary is something to be acquired incidentally by the student while reading. (Knight, 1994: 285)

Because the interest of the students shifted from language texts to literary texts, the former of which is more meaning-oriented, incidental vocabulary learning (contextual guessing) gained importance.

Coady (1997: 286) cites some studies (Bensoussan, 1983; Luppescu and Day, 1993; Grabe and Stoller, 1997) carried out in the last two decades of the twentieth century which concluded that ones who used dictionaries in the tasks do better than the ones who did not. Furthermore, Knight (1994: 295) concluded in her

study on dictionary use and guessing that participants "who used the dictionary not only learned more words but also achieved higher reading comprehension scores than those who guessed from context."

Scholfield (1997, cited in Schmitt and MacCarthy, 2001: 280) draws the attention to another fact about dictionaries that "It is the purpose of reference works to store knowledge that is beyond the competence of any single person." The word's meaning may not be guessed from the context or even the proficient person that the learner appeals to may not know the meaning of the word, then s/he has to resort to dictionary, for it exceeds any human memory in terms of content.

Day and Bamford (1998: 93) shares a similar idea that "part of fluent and effective reading involves the reader ignoring unknown words and phrases or, if understanding them is essential, guessing their approximate meaning [because] fluent reading is hindered by a reader stopping to use a dictionary" and constant dictionary use means that the students read less, yet when a word appears several times in a text and seems to hold important meaning, it is sensible to seek its meaning.

Baxter (1980: 325) expresses the importance and necessity of dictionary use through an analogy saying, "A man who uses a great many words to express his meaning is like a bad marksman who instead of aiming a single stone at an object takes up a handful and throws at it in hopes he may hit it" and clarifies this analogy expressing that "students and teachers have great faith in the dictionary as a stock of 'single stones'." That is, rather than wasting time attempting to guess the meaning of the unknown word and concluding with a great amount of probable meanings, the reader can find the meaning of the unknown word in a dictionary with one shot.

It seems that dictionary use is necessary to elicit a precise meaning of a word without wasting time trying to guess the meaning. But there are some shortcomings of dictionaries even though it presents a rich word capacity, which is discussed in 3.3.1.

3.2. CONTEXT AND VOCABULARY RELATION

Context is the medium where vocabulary item relates itself to other semantic and syntactic elements and gains meaning in relation with them.

For Nunan (1989: 304) Context is "the linguistic and experiential situation in which a piece of language occurs."

Read (2000: 162) defines context as "a sentence in which the target word occurs. It can also be a paragraph or a longer text containing a whole series of target words".

As can be inferred, context is where vocabulary comes alive because context surrounds vocabulary item with a meaningful atmosphere and bestows it semantic and syntactic features. Croll (1971: 379) expresses the importance and function of context saying in reference to the program he carried out to teach vocabulary that "rather than simply presenting the words, we placed each word in sentences. These sentences were carefully designed so that the meaning of the vocabulary word was made apparent by the context." He tells about the reflections of the students saying they remembered the sentences more readily than they remembered the isolated vocabulary words. Whenever they encountered the vocabulary word, the sentence in which they first learned its meaning, and consequently the meaning of the word, was called rapidly.

Read (2000: 31) proposes three ways whereby context can affect lexical meaning;
a) Differences across generations and between colloquial and more formal uses of words.
b) Differences in interpretation across language varieties.
c) Differences between everyday usage and specialized terminology in particular fields of study.

Nunan (2000: 121) suggests that if language reflects the contexts where it is used and we assume that language is best encountered and learned in context, then the

focus in class will be on encouraging learners to develop strategies for inferring the meaning of an unknown word from the context in which it occurs, and teaching them to use a range of cues, both verbal and non-verbal to determine meaning.

Richards (1976: 81) asserts that "words do not exist in isolation. Their meanings are defined through their relationship with other words and it is through understanding these relationships that we arrive at our understanding of words."

If words are memorized isolated from any context, they do not survive for a long time in the memory. Such kind of learning is called 'rote learning'. Croll (1971: 378) claims that "although approaches vary with the individual teacher, vocabulary lessons often follow the traditional pattern of mechanical memorization of words and definitions to be reproduced on tests. Unfortunately, such rote learning is often quickly forgotten." Gairns and Redman (1998: 93) say it is because a far deeper level processing is required to commit items to long term memory. In addition, lists of translation equivalents may be counter-productive for learners since this type of memorization is likely to delay the process of establishing new semantic networks.

As Gairns and Redman (1998) emphasize, one of the essential steps of learning a word is to process it and stabilize it with mental links with the existing knowledge, which is called "schema".

Ausubel (1978, cited in Hadley, 1993: 57) states that "rote learning is arbitrary and verbatim; that is, the material to be learnt is not integrated or subsumed into one's cognitive structure, but is learned as an isolated or discrete piece of information [and in that case] cognitive system is not restructured because the new information does not become integrated." Meaningful learning, on the other hand, relatable to what one already knows and thus can be easily integrated into one's existing cognitive structure.

Croll (1971: 379) has found that "students did consistently and significantly better on vocabulary tests after learning by the sentence method." But Schmitt and

McCarthy (2001: 3) draw the attention to the fact that "explicit teaching can be a very good first introduction to a new word; after this, the context encountered when reading can lead to new knowledge of its collocations, additional meanings, and other higher level knowledge. In addition, repeated exposure from reading will help to consolidate the meaning(s) first learned."

They also state in the same page that "explicit teaching is probably essential for the most frequent words of L2, since they are prerequisites for language use. The learning of these basic words cannot be left to chance, but should be taught as quickly as possible, because they open the door to further learning."

It can be concluded from the ideas mentioned above, rote learning can help the student learn a vocabulary item for a short time but s/he is to forget it earlier than the contextualized one. Therefore, context is of utmost significance for vocabulary instruction. In the next section, how dictionary use and contextual guessing contribute to vocabulary learning is discussed.

3.3   DICTIONARY USE AND CONTEXTUAL GUESSING

In this section, dictionary use and contextual guessing are handled separately and such issues as dictionary use and its shortcomings, steps in a dictionary use strategy, contextual guessing and problems associated with it and factors affecting guessing and guessing strategies are discussed.

3.3.1   DICTIONARY USE AND ITS SHORTCOMINGS

Dictionaries are mainly used for two reasons; either it is a habit which has resulted from frequent dictionary use and thus being uneasy if not look up the meaning of a word without applying any other vocabulary learning strategy, or to be sure about the meaning of the word and thus checking the meaning of a guessed word or an ambiguous word.

According to Nation (1990: 136), "in guessing words from context, reference to a dictionary is one of the steps used to check if a guess is correct. Efficient use of a dictionary to find the meanings of words in a passage for comprehension presupposes that the learner has already gathered some information about the word from context."

In the study by Croll (1971: 379), the students were required to look up, write and hand in the dictionary definition of each vocabulary word. The aim was to clarify the meaning of the unknown word, not to teach them its meaning. This signifies that dictionary should have its place in guessing activities to verify the meaning of the word in question.

A comprehensible reasons list to use dictionaries is presented by Alexandri (1995, cited in Scholfield, 1997: 285) who found out that students preferred looking

up in a dictionary to guessing for several reasons and listed them in order of frequency;

- to check a word that seemed familiar

- because the word is important for understanding

- because they could not guess what the word meant

- because the word is in the beginning part of the text

- because the same word is used again later

- because they like the sound of it

- because it is in the title

- because the word is a verb and therefore important

- because it is found in the exercises

For Summers (1988, cited in Nunan, 1994: 127), dictionaries are not only for looking up meanings and checking spellings, "but also for gaining insight into the grammatical aspects of the item in question."

Although Nation (1990: 137) claims through inferences from some research that "allowing learners to use dictionaries while reading does not measurably increase their comprehension", Grabe and Stoller (1997, cited in Coady and Huckin, 2000: 115) concluded from their study which lasted 5 months that the extensive use of dictionary facilitate the transfer of many words from a non-known state to a well-known state in a fairly rapid period of time" and they claim that this increases the subject's reading and listening comprehension.

On the other side, Day and Bamford (1998: 93) state about the usefulness of banning dictionary use that "when students are left to their own devices at home, a ban on dictionary may be the only way for students to feel they can complete the assignment in good conscience. It may also be the only guarantee that the assignment is completed as the teacher intended – in other words, that the reading was indeed extensive in nature." (see Table 2 for extensive reading)

Scholfield (1982) is in the opinion that because people consider dictionary use as a shallow process of vocabulary learning, they develop negative views. On the contrary, Scholfield (1982: 186-193) states that "looking a word up in a dictionary requires that certain skills be applied in a systematic way; it requires a strategy", and lists the steps of a strategy.

1. Locate the word(s) or phrase you don't understand.
2. If the unknown is inflected, remove the inflections to recover the form to look up.
3. Search for the unknown word in the alphabetic list.
4. If you can't find at least one main entry for the unknown, try the following procedures:
    a) If the unknown seems to be a set phrase, idiom, or compound word, try looking up each main element.
    b) If the unknown seems to have a suffix, try the entry for the stem.
    c) If the unknown appears to be an irregularly inflected form or a spelling variant, scan nearby entries.
    d) If there is an addendum, search there.
5. If there are multiple senses or homographic entries, reduce them by elimination.
6. Understand the definition and integrate it into the context where the unknown was met.
7. If none of the senses entered seems to fit, attempt to infer one that does from the senses you have. If more than one fits, seek further contextual clues in the source text to disambiguate. (Scholfield, 1982: 186-193)

Scholfield (1997, cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2001: 283) presents a shortcoming of dictionary use; he says about the chapter in the book that the chapter will be primarily concerned with dictionary use in reading and writing, "because there is normally insufficient time to consult any reference work during the process of speaking and listening." So it can be understood that dictionaries are impractical to use while speaking and listening because the speaker or the listener has to keep up with the course of the conversation or the text listened to. Particularly, during a conversation the chance to use dictionary is too scarce; thus the parts must benefit from some strategies to keep the communication going.

Dickinson (1920: 539) as a researcher in the first periods of the foreign language learning, when Grammar-Translation Method was still effective, claims that "the 'dictionary habit' is certain to occur to some as the only cure for a poor

vocabulary". He expresses that the "dictionary habit" is one of the greatest fetishes in educational practice of that day.

Baxter (1980: 325) makes talk of two problematic issues: one is 'choosing the most appropriate dictionary for students' and the other is 'unguided dictionary use.'

> Without adequate evaluation criteria, many teachers avoid dealing directly with the selection problem, leaving students to choose for themselves, a situation which can have negative consequences. Students commit considerable time to dictionary use, and this use, if unguided, can have an adverse effect on learning. Furthermore, avoidance of the problem generally parallels a failure to integrate the dictionary into the teaching/learning process. (Baxter, 1980: 325)

Day and Bamford (1998: 122) express that "in terms of reading, it is unnatural to be looking up words constantly in the dictionary" because constant look-up irritates and intimidates the learner if the unknown words are abundant and makes the learner addicted to dictionary use; so s/he loses self-confidence to venture off while handling an unknown vocabulary item.

There are two other problems that may be faced during the use of dictionary; abundance of connotations and inability to fit the meaning into the context. Learners have difficulty choosing which meaning is the one they search for and fitting the meaning they obtained from the dictionary into context of the reading passage.

As is seen, dictionary use has its own merits, but owing to the problems, such as the inappropriateness of dictionaries for some skills, interruption of the reading due to incessant look-up, contextual guessing is regarded as a more efficient strategy than dictionary use.

3.3.2 CONTEXTUAL GUESSING

During the use of a language in conversation, reading and writing, naturally there could appear unknown words; the problem is how to deal with them: should the learner use dictionary or guess them from the context.

In the previous section, dictionary is considered as a means to check the correctness of guesses and it is also mentioned that dictionaries are not effective because of some shortcomings and thus contextual inferencing (guessing) is thought superior to it. The concern of this title is 'contextual guessing':

Read (2000: 54) proposes four questions related to making inferencing;

1.   What kind of contextual information is available to readers to assist them in guessing the meaning of unknown words in texts?

2.   Are such clues normally available to the reader in natural, unedited texts?

3.   How well do learners infer the meaning of unknown words without being specifically trained to do so?

4.   Does successful inferencing lead to acquisition of the words?

As an answer to the first question, Read (2000: 55) presents a framework created by Sternberg and Powell (1983) who supply us with a theory of learning from context which distinguishes between external and internal context of the unknown word.

Table 4. Components of a theory of learning words from context (Sternberg and Powell 1983, cited in Read, 2000)

EXTERNAL CONTEXT	INTERNAL CONTEXT
Contextual Cues	**Contextual Cues**
Temporal cues	Prefix cues
Spatial cues	Stem cues
Value cues	Suffix cues
Stative descriptive cues	Interactive cues (where two or three word parts convey information in combination)
Functional descriptive cues	
Causal/Enablement cues	
Class membership cues	
Equivalence cues	
Mediating Variables	**Mediating Variables**
The number of occurrences of the unknown word	The number of occurrences of the unknown word
The variability of the context in which multiple occurrences of the unknown words appear	The density of the unknown words
The density of the unknown words	Density of the decomposable unknown words
The importance of the unknown words to understanding the context in which it is embedded	The importance of the unknown words to understanding the context in which it is embedded
The perceived helpfulness of the surrounding context in understanding the meaning of the unknown word	The usefulness of previously known information in cue utilisation
The concreteness of the unknown word and the surrounding context	
The usefulness of the prior knowledge in cue utilisation	

These clues enable the learner to get involved into an active process of figuring out the meaning of an unknown word. Anderson (1984, cited in Chastain,

1988: 222) states that "students recall significantly more material when their schema has been activated and interest is a much more important factor affecting recall than readability." Therefore, it is crucial to activate the learners' schema so that they could assimilate the words by forming meaningful links to use them back in recalling.

3.3.2.1   PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH CONTEXTUAL GUESSING

Because contextual guessing is a complicated process, learners should be very careful not to skip any clues and to guess the meaning out of these clues. Guessing could be very troublesome due to the reasons Sökmen (1997) mentions below.

Sökmen (1997, cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2001: 237-8) speaks of some problems that the learner may sometimes come to face during reading: first is that learning a word's meaning through guessing from the context may be a very slow process.

Secondly, inferring word meaning is an error-prone process. Especially guessing could be a very frustrating approach for learners with low proficiency and correcting the damage having resulted from wrong guessing is very hard.

Thirdly, even when the students make use of flexible reading strategies to guess from the context, their comprehension may still be low owing to insufficient vocabulary knowledge.

Fourthly, incessant emphasis on inferencing skills means denying the fact that every learner has different but successful vocabulary learning strategies.

Lastly, Sökmen (1997) concludes from a number of studies that guessing from context does not necessarily lead to long-term retention in defiance of the

hypothesis "depth of processing" which suggests the more the learner processes information in different ways, the better it is retained.

3.3.2.2   FACTORS AFFECTING CONTEXTUAL GUESSING

Successful incidental vocabulary learning (contextual guessing) during reading depends on the presence of a number of factors. Learners must encounter new words, and clear cues to their meanings and relationships must be present, too. Other text features, such as redundant presentation of given words and learners' previous knowledge also play a role. (Paribakht and Wesche; 1997: 175-6)

Gates (cited in Russell, 1950: 270-273) suggests that;

> Before we are able to say whether a foreign language textbook is readable or not we will have to discover specifically what it is that makes a book interesting, what effect hard or easy words have on readability, what the vocabulary ought to be, and what phenomena of syntax it might contain. If the book is so heavily burdened with unknown words that it forces the student to have constant recourse to the vocabulary-index, or a dictionary, it is not readable. A book that is meant for the beginning stages of a language must be made up largely of the most common words. The scientific ratio of known to unknown words has been established at one to between fifty and seventy. (Gates - cited in Russell, 1950: 270-273)

Because of that, for an efficient vocabulary teaching and learning either the text should be simplified or the level of the book should be selected very meticulously.

If simplification is not desirable for the teacher, one of the most important ways is guessing, but then the reader should know a great majority of the words. Nation (2001, cited in Gilmore, 2007: 109) "believes that incidental learning of words through guessing from context should be the most important method of vocabulary acquisition for learners. In order to do this effectively, he estimates that learners need to understand 95% to 98% of running words in a text (or one unknown word in every two to five lines). Ensuring this optimal ratio suggests that text modification could have an important role to play."

As a result, the amount of the high- and low-frequency words and the presence of clues and relationships in a text, vocabulary size of the reader and the ratio of unknown words to known ones profoundly affect guessing from context. Hence, selection and properties of a text used as a material should be taken seriously.

3.3.2.3   GUESSING STRATEGIES

If the aim is a successful guessing irrespective of the factors given in the previous section, the reader must wisely make use of some strategies.

Brown (1994: 295) is of the belief that "guessing could contribute to ability of contextual analysis." He also expresses that one of the advantages of guessing is that it drives learner to analyze the unknown word in the light of what they know about it. They can achieve that by a) looking for prefixes that may give clues, b) looking for suffixes that may indicate what part of speech it is, c) looking for roots that are familiar, d) look for grammatical contexts that may signal information and e) looking at the semantic context for clues.

Grellet (1981, cited in Hadley, 1993: 216) lists three general strategies to use for contextual guessing;

    1. Figuring out what part of speech the word must be, using the surrounding context or morphology as cues

    2. Seeing if the word is used elsewhere in the context or if a contrast or analogy is implied that can help derive meaning

    3. Using one's knowledge of the world or of the specific context of the reading to deduce possible meanings for the word.

These strategies surely contribute to a successful guessing. If they do not work out, it indicates that either the text or its content is very difficult or language proficiency of the learner is not high enough.

3.4   SUMMARY

It is discussed in this chapter that both dictionary use and contextual guessing have positive and negative sides. Frequent dictionary use is criticized to interrupt the reading process and to irritate the learner because of heavy vocabulary burden the text poses. On the other hand, contextual guessing can be a very boring strategy, especially for learners with low vocabulary size.

Besides such negative characteristics, they also have positive ones; for example, dictionary can be a good start to form a beginner level of vocabulary, whereas guessing a word enables a faster reading and thus the learner does not drown in the text because s/he focuses on the theme.

In this study, we compared these two vocabulary learning strategies to find out which one is more effective. The following chapter explains how, where, with what and over whom the experiment was carried out.

CHAPTER FOUR
THE METHODOLOGY

4.0   INTRODUCTION

This chapter concentrates on the way the research has been carried out so as to find which vocabulary learning strategy is more effective. Under the first heading, research questions and summary of the methodology are presented. Then, properties of the experiment, such as the setting, materials and instruments, procedures and analysis are provided.

4.1   RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND SUMMARY OF THE METHODOLOGY

The aim of this study was to make a comparison between learning vocabulary through making use of dictionary and contextual guessing. For this study, a quasi-experimental design was used. To this end, the 3rd year class of the ELT department at Çanakkale 18 Mart University was divided into two groups; experiment and control group. Accordingly, for the purpose of the study, the participants took a vocabulary levels test by Paul Nation to measure their vocabulary knowledge; thus we figured out if the participants with more vocabulary items in memory do better in guessing and use of dictionary. Before the experiment, the participants took a cloze test as the pre-test with 50 multiple-choice questions to determine whether they know the vocabulary items. Experiment group was asked to guess the meaning of the unknown word from the context and the control group to use dictionary. Then they were provided with the post-test, again a cloze-test with multiple-choice questions. This post-test was carried out in order to find out the differences between these two groups having learnt the same vocabulary items through different vocabulary learning

techniques. The participants were also asked to take notes on the words about their difficulty.

This study has three aims;

The first aim was to find out which vocabulary learning strategy, contextual guessing or dictionary use, creates a significant effect.

The second aim was to shed light on the effectiveness of the vocabulary size as a determining variable.

The third aim of the study was to find out what kind of factors actually hinder learning of a word in context, make it difficult or facilitate it.

The results of the experiment were expected to provide answers to the research questions below;

RQ 1: Which vocabulary learning strategy is more effective in acquiring a vocabulary item? Guessing or dictionary use?

RQ 2: Does acquiring a large vocabulary capacity have any effect on the success on guessing from context and learning vocabulary through dictionary use?

RQ 3: What factors make it difficult for learners to learn a word through guessing and dictionary use?

4.2   PILOT STUDY

The study consists of one pilot and one main study. In the following sections, the details of these studies were explained. The pilot study was carried out in order to have experience beforehand. It was aimed to become aware of the difficulties that might occur in the main study. It was also done to measure the validity and reliability of the data collection instruments.

4.2.1   PARTICIPANTS AND SETTING

The participants were 24 2nd year students of ELL department at Çanakkale 18 Mart University. They were enrolled in ELL department in the light of the scores they elicited in a placement test conducted by The Turkish Council of Higher Education. Thus, the participants were assumed to have advanced English proficiency.

2nd year students of ELL department were chosen for this pilot study because they are advanced English language learners and studied short stories before the application; thus, they knew how to handle a short story in a systematic way.

Çanakkale 18 Mart University was chosen for this study because the students were supposed to be advanced English learners and the university was a proper setting to carry out the experiment. Choosing the 2nd year students as the participants was an advantage because they had already experienced the study of short stories in literature courses taught in the department.

4.2.2   MATERIALS AND PROCEDURES

A Vocabulary Levels Test, An Authentic Achievement Test as Pre-test, An Authentic Achievement Test as Post-test, A Questionnaire, A Short Story titled "Cask of Amontillado by Edgar Allan Poe" were used as materials.

We based on our questionnaire on Kudo's (2008) questionnaire obtained on the net because it covers most of the strategies given in Table 3. As pre-test and post-test we created an authentic test with 50 multiple-choice questions. Lecturers with high expertise reviewed the questionnaire, pre-test and the post-test. They checked whether the wording and the clarity of the statements are appropriate for the study. Lastly, they were edited in the light of the opinions of the experts in this field.

In the course of piloting, Vocabulary Levels Test was used to determine the vocabulary levels of the participants and grouped the class into four groups; these are students with 3000 words, 5000 words, university level and 10000 words. It also helped us form two groups on equal terms; an even distribution was obtained as guess and dictionary group as Table 7 shows. An Authentic Achievement Test consisting of 50 multiple choice vocabulary questions was used to measure how many of the words the participants knew and this test was applied as the post test with very slight changes. A questionnaire was used to determine the participants' inclination in terms of vocabulary learning strategies. Further, as a medium to present the words, a short story titled "Cask of Amontillado by Edgar Allan Poe" was used. Poe is an outstanding American prose writer, who mainly focused on short stories. Although Poe's narrative style is dark and language is slightly difficult, the web of theme, stunning resolutions and cunning plot design and skilful use of language fascinate the reader. Moreover, Whitley (2000: xii)[2] states in the introduction of the book 'Tales of Mystery and Imagination: Edgar Allan Poe' that "the listener who knows so well the narrator's soul

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[2] WHITLEY, J. S., (2000:xii)   in the introduction to "Tales of Mystery and Imagination: Edgar Allan Poe, Great Britain, Wordsworth Editions Limited

may be a priest or a doctor or a friend, but, principally s/he is the reader, who is made privy to the protagonist's innermost fears and desires." This is the reason why we chose Edgar Allan Poe.

This pilot study was carried out in five phases. Phase 1 was the application of the questionnaire over the participants. It was comprised of 32 questions compiled from books and internet. The aim of using this questionnaire was to see which vocabulary learning strategy they mostly use.

In the second phase, even though we assumed that the participants were advanced language learners, in order to form two groups on equal terms we conducted a Vocabulary Levels Test, first devised by Paul Nation (2000), in the first phase of the experiment. The test yielded us four groups of vocabulary levels; 3000 words, 5000 words, University Level and 10000 words.

In the third phase, we conducted an authentic multiple choice test as the pre-test to find out how many of the words we planned to teach are already present in the participants' memory.

In the fourth phase, two days later, we studied the short story in the class with question and answer drills. (see Appendix F for Study 'Questions')

In the last phase of the experiment, the data obtained as an outcome of the test and questionnaire was processed in the statistics software SPSS 10.

4.2.3   FINDINGS OF THE PILOT STUDY

After carrying out the pilot study, we changed the wordings of some items and found that one part of the pre- and post-test, which were originally planned to consist of two parts, was redundant, so we pulled it out of the pre- and post-test because only one part in each test (Appendix C and D) can serve our aim. The omitted part was prepared to see whether they really know the words they think they know. In this part they were supposed to think the boxes and we were going to compare the answers in the Part 1 with the ones in Part 2, so that we could understand whether they really know them and understand the effect of the context because in Part 2 words were given in context. Here is a little fraction of the part taken out.

PART I: Tick the appropriate box.

KM: Know the meaning
SBdM: Seen but don't know the meaning
DKM: Don't know the meaning

	KM	*SBdM*	DKM
1. **Hasten**			
2. **Proceed**			
3. **Fang**			
4. **Intoxication**			

To find out the reliability of the questionnaire, statistic program SPSS 10 was used. In the pilot study, the questionnaire had an alpha coefficient of 0,89 for the primary version and 0.82 for the tertiary version. The pre-test had an alpha coefficient of 0,71 and the post test an alpha coefficient of 0,70.

In conclusion, the pilot study was useful because it prevented the occurrence of the same mistakes from being repeated. By means of it, the same problems could be avoided.

4.2.4   CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

During the piloting no serious problems were faced. The statistical analysis of the instruments proved that the data collection instruments are reliable and valid to be used in the main study.

4.3   THE MAIN STUDY

The main study consisted of two parts; one was the quasi-experimental study; and the other was the descriptive part of the study in which a questionnaire was carried out over 26 3rd year students of the ELT department at Çanakkale 18 Mart University. The phases of the study were the application of the questionnaire, the vocabulary levels test, the pre-test, the short story and the post-test.

4.3.1   PARTICIPANTS AND SETTING

The participants were 26 3rd year students of ELT department at Çanakkale 18 Mart University. They were enrolled in ELT department in the light of the scores they elicited in a placement test conducted by The Turkish Council of Higher Education. Thus, the participants were assumed to have advanced English proficiency.

3rd year students of ELT department were chosen for this study because they are advanced English language learners and studied short stories in their literature courses before the application; thus, they knew how to handle a short story in a systematic way.

Table 5: Distributions of the participants in terms of gender

Gender of Students	Number
Female	20
Male	6
Total	26

Table 6: Distribution of the participants in terms of groups

	Gender	Number
Experimental(Guessing) Group 1	Male	3
	Female	10
Experimental(Dictionary) Group 2	Male	3
	Female	10

As the tables indicate, we could obtain an even distribution and this shows how the "Vocabulary Levels Test" was effective to form the groups.

Çanakkale 18 Mart University was chosen for this study because the students were supposed to be advanced English learners and the university was a proper setting to carry out the experiment. The choice of the 3rd year students as the subject was an advantage because they had already experienced the study of short stories in literature courses taught in the department.

4.3.2   MATERIALS AND PROCEDURES

A Vocabulary Levels Test, An Authentic Achievement Test as Pre-test, An Authentic Achievement Test as Post-test, A Questionnaire, A Short Story titled "Cask of Amontillado by Edgar Allan Poe" were used as materials.

Vocabulary Levels Test was used to determine the vocabulary levels of the participants and grouped the class into four groups as student with 3000 words, 5000 words, university level and 10000 words. It also helped us form two groups on equal terms; an even distribution was obtained as guess and dictionary group as Table 7 shows. Authentic Achievement Test consisting of 50 multiple choice vocabulary questions was used to measure how many of the words the participants knew and this test was applied as the post test with very slight changes. A questionnaire was used to

figure out the participants' inclination in terms of vocabulary learning strategies. Further, as a medium to present the words, a short story titled "Cask of Amontillado by Edgar Allan Poe" was used. Primarily for three reasons we preferred this short story; (1) its length is applicable in a reasonable amount of time, (2) its vocabulary size is comprehensive in comparison with a poem, but easy-to-handle when compared to a novel and (3) every word has a purpose and used in the most proper way and position in a sentence to communicate the idea better.

This research was carried out in five phases. Phase 1 was the application of the questionnaire over the participants. It was comprised of 32 questions. The aim of using this questionnaire was to find out which vocabulary learning strategy they use most.

The second phase was the application of the vocabulary levels test. Even though we assumed that the participants were advanced language learners in order to form two groups on equal terms we conducted a Vocabulary Levels Test, first devised by Paul Nation (2000), in the first phase of the experiment. The test yielded us four groups of vocabulary levels; 3000 words, 5000 words, University Level and 10000 words as in Table 7. As the mean scores of the participants in Table 6 indicate, we were able to obtain equal groups; one is the guess group and the other dictionary.

Table 7. Distribution of the participants in terms of vocabulary size.

PARTICIPANTS	POINTS	GROUPS
1.	10.000	GUESS
2.	10.000	DICTIONARY
3.	10.000	GUESS
4.	10.000	DICTIONARY
5.	UNIV	DICTIONARY
6.	UNIV	GUESS
7.	UNIV	DICTIONARY
8.	UNIV	GUESS
9.	UNIV	DICTIONARY
10.	UNIV	GUESS
11.	UNIV	DICTIONARY
12.	UNIV	GUESS
13.	UNIV	DICTIONARY
14.	UNIV	GUESS
15.	UNIV	DICTIONARY
16.	UNIV	GUESS
17.	UNIV	DICTIONARY
18.	UNIV	GUESS
19.	UNIV	GUESS
20.	5000	GUESS
21.	5000	DICTIONARY
22.	5000	DICTIONARY
23.	3000	GUESS
24.	3000	DICTIONARY
25.	3000	GUESS
26.	3000	DICTIONARY

In the third phase, we conducted an authentic multiple choice test as the pre-test to find out how many of the words we planned to teach are already present in the participants' memory. There were 50 words in the test. In the next phase, the participants were supplied with the short story titled "Cask of Amontillado" by Edgar Allan Poe. According to the list formed as an outcome of the vocabulary levels test, the participants were informed about their groups and one group was asked to use dictionary and the other to guess the meaning of the words in bold in the short story and to take notes about the process they went through while reading and trying to learn the words.

In the fourth phase, two days later, we studied the short story in the class with question and answer drills. We asked questions about the appearances, psychology, behaviours of the characters and about the flow of the plot that could possibly lead the participants to use the desired vocabulary item (see Appendix F). In such a way we obtained a discussing classroom and we observed that they really use some of the words they learnt. Following the class, the participants were provided with the post-test within the context of essential instructions.

In the last phase of the experiment, the data obtained as an outcome of the test and questionnaire were processed in the statistics software SPSS 10 and the scores showed that the application significantly contributed to the participants' vocabulary knowledge.

4.3.3   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the study is supposed to proceed regularly, there are some points to keep in mind throughout the application of the study.

The instruments were applied over 26 3rd year students of the ELT Department at Çanakkale 18 Mart University involving 6 male and 20 female students. The size of the sampling was not comprehensible because volunteer students participated in the research and in an attempt to create two even groups only one class was involved in the study because it was highly probable that inclusion of another class into the study could be an independent variable and it would be impossible for the researcher to sort out such a problem.

As the second limitation, the participants may not know the meanings of the words around the words in bold and those of the ones used as choices in the pre- and post-test. Thus, they were helped with the unknown words in the choices but not with the ones surrounding the words in bold.

The third limitation may be that not all the possible unknown words in the short story were involved in the study but just 50 of them because the rest was supposed to be the ones which would give clues about the meaning of the words in bold.

The next limitation could be the use of a single class because the 3rd year students of ELT department had no match in terms of language proficiency. Even though there was an evening 3rd year class, putting them and the daytime 3rd year students in the same pot would not be wisely due to the discord between them. Thus, rather than using an extra class, we decided to use that particular class and divided it into two parts.

Fifthly, the participants were not taught guessing or dictionary techniques because this may become another variable that was not planned to be involved in the study beforehand.

As the sixth limitation, the application of the short story was done over the two groups at the same time so that we could avoid the likelihood of encountering differences in teaching the story because this could have a negative impact on the distribution of the results.

Notwithstanding these limitations, the study proved to answer three research questions and create valuable information on the field of learning vocabulary.

4.4   SUMMARY

In this chapter, the methodology of the study was put forth clearly. The research questions, participants and settings of the main study, data collection instruments and procedures, and limitations of the study were described in detail.

CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the summary of the study and the methodology. After presenting these, findings of the statistical analysis of the data that were acquired from the main study will be given in details.

5.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

5.1.1 AIM OF THE STUDY

The primary aim of this study is to make a comparison between learning vocabulary making use of dictionary and contextual guessing.

The second aim is to shed light on the effectiveness of the vocabulary size as a determining variable.

The third aim of the study will be to find out what kind of factors actually hinder learning of a word in context, make it difficult or facilitate it.

The results of the experiment will provide answers to the research questions below;

RQ 1: Which vocabulary learning strategy is more effective in acquiring a vocabulary item? Guessing or dictionary use?

RQ 2: Does acquiring a large vocabulary capacity have any effect on the success on guessing from context and learning vocabulary through dictionary use?

RQ 3: What factors make it difficult for learners to learn a word through guessing and dictionary use?

5.1.2 SUMMARY OF THE METHODOLOGY

The descriptive and empirical methods were used in this study. Because the aim was to find out which vocabulary learning was more effective, the survey methodology was thought to be the most suitable for the research. Therefore, the study was conducted through survey research method.

The data were analyzed through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 10.00) and descriptive statistics.

5.2 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Before setting out to compare contextual guessing and dictionary use, the participants' tendencies to learn new vocabulary items were determined by the help of a questionnaire. In Table 8 which shows the minimum and the maximum percentages, it is clear to see the students' tendencies in terms of dictionary use and contextual guessing. Item 3 shows that % 42,3 (always) of the participants – as the second highest score – display a positive tendency towards contextual guessing, whereas item 21(% 7,7 always; % 26,9 seldom) and item 30 (% 7,7 never, seldom; % 30,8

occasionally) indicate that the participants do not prefer the use of dictionary. That is, % 42,3 (always) of them favour contextual guessing over dictionary use.

Table 8: Frequency percentages of vocabulary learning strategies

ITEMS	FREQUENCY LEVEL	
	MINIMUM PERCENTAGE	**MAXIMUM PERCENTAGE**
1. Paraphrase the new word's meaning by yourself	% 3,8 (always)	% 42,3 (usually)
2. Listen to tape of word lists	% 3,8 (occasionally)	% 57,7 (never)
3. Guess from textual context in reading	**% 3,8 (occasionally)**	**% 42,3 (always)**
4. Use and English-language TV program	% 3,8 (usually, always)	% 42,3 (occasionally)
5. Ask the teacher for paraphrase of synonym	% 3,8 (usually)	% 34,6 (seldom, occasionally)
6. Ask the teacher for Turkish meaning	% 15,4 (often)	% 34,6 (seldom)
7. Learn words written on commercial items	% 3.8 (always)	% 38,5 (occasionally)
8. Put the English label on physical objects	% 3,8 (usually, always)	% 50,0 (never)
9. Use an English language video	% 7,7 (often)	% 34,6 (seldom)
10. Use English-language songs	% 7,7 (never, usually)	% 30,8 (often)
11. Read an English-language newspaper	% 3,8 (often)	% 34,6 (occasionally)
12. Use English-language internet	% 11,5 (seldom, occasionally)	% 38,5 (always)
13. Connect the word to its synonym and antonym	% 3,8 (never, seldom)	% 30,8 (usually)
14. Ask the teachers for a sentence including the new word	% 3,8 (occasionally)	% 46,2 (seldom)
15. Do written repetition	% 15,4 (seldom, occasionally, often, usually)	% 19,2 (never always)
16. Use new word in sentences	% 3,8 (never)	% 30,8 (occasionally)
17. Connect word to already known words	% 11,5 (occasionally)	% 34,6 (usually)
18. Ask someone other than your teacher for Turkish translation	% 7,7 (always)	% 30,8 (occasionally)
19. Learn the words of an idiom together	% 3,8 (never)	% 38,5 (occasionally)
20. Use the vocabulary section in your text book	% 7,7 (never, seldom, always)	% 42,3 (often)
21. Use thesaurus	**% 7,7 (always)**	**% 26,9 (seldom)**
22. Memorize the meaning of affix and roots	% 3,8 (never)	% 50,0 (often)
23. Use semantic maps	% 11,5 (seldom, always)	% 23,1 (usually)

24. Use picture dictionary	% 3,8 (always)	% 30,8 (seldom)
25. Keep a vocabulary notebook	% 3,8 (often)	% 26,9 (always)
26. Connect word to a personal experience	% 7,7 (seldom)	% 26,9 (always)
27. Listen to an English-language radio program	% 7,7 (usually, always)	% 26,9 (seldom, often)
28. Use "scales" for gradable adjectives	% 3,8 (always)	% 34,6 (seldom)
29. Use loanwords in study	% 3,8 (often)	% 42,3 (occasionally)
30. Use mono- or bilingual dictionary	**% 7,7 (never, seldom)**	**% 30,8 (occasionally)**
31. Do verbal repetition	% 11,5 (seldom)	% 34,6 (always)

What is significant about the questionnaire is that the participants displaying an inclination to use guessing was not successful in guessing. This is most probably due to the nature of the short story. As the members of the guessing group stressed in Table 20, they had difficulty in understanding the meaning of unknown words from context because they did not know the meanings of the words other than the ones in bold. Therefore, they could not derive the meanings of some words in bold from the context. It is also because some found the sentences complex. Even if they could get the theme and understand the sentences, they could not understand the unknown words. Moreover, some considered the words challenging and this might have dishearten them and prevent them from handling the words confidently.

Although half of the participants (% 50,0; often) frequently make use of roots and affixes and some participants stated that "I can guess from the affixes and root", it seems that especially members of the guessing group could not have made better use of such morphological elements.

A considerable amount of the participants (% 34,6; always) do verbal repetition, which hinds that they are inclined to do rote learning, whereas again a considerable amount (% 30,8) use new words in sentences but with a low frequency (occasionally), which shows that they are not keenly interested in learning new words in context. But there appears another issue; are they well equipped to do so? Schmitt and McCarthy (2001: 9) provide us with a table cited from Francis and Kucera (1982)

Table 9: Vocabulary size and text coverage in the Brown Corpus

VOCABULARY SIZE	TEXT COVERAGE
1,000	72.0%
2,000	79.7%
3,000	85.0%
4,000	86.8%
5,000	88.7%
6,000	89.9%
15,851	97.8%

Another table by Hirsh and Nation (1992, cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2001: 10) shows that under favourable conditions, a vocabulary size of 2,000 to 3,000 words provides a very good basis for language use.

Table 10: Vocabulary Size and Its Coverage

VOCABULARY SIZE	% COVERAGE	DENSITY OF UNKNOWN WORDS
2,000	90	1 in every 10
2,000+proper nouns	93.7	1 in every 16
2,600 words	96	1 in every 25
5,000 words	98.5	1 in every 67

As Table 9 indicates, the higher the vocabulary size is, the larger the text coverage is. An if language learners know approximately 15,851 words, this means that they know 97,5% of the words used in a text. However, as Hirsh and Nation suggest in Table 10, knowing the meanings of 5000 words is adequately enough for a learner to use language well. Comparison of these two tables shows that a learner can use language well and obtain a coverage of 98,5% if s/he knows around 5000 words,

whereas the same person has to know approximately 10000 words more to obtain a similar percentage while reading. Thus, we determined to find the effect of vocabulary size on the success of readers while learning vocabulary items during reading.

Table 11 displays comparative overall scores of the participants from the pre-test regardless of whether they are in the guess or dictionary group. According to Table 11, there is an increase by 10 to 13 words in the means of the participants when pre-test and post-test compared. But Table 12 indicates that there is not a statistically significant effect of vocabulary level in the pre-test [p(.842)>.05].

Table 11: Overall scores from the pre-test irrespective of the participants' groups: guess or dictionary

PRE-TEST					
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
3000	4	22,2500	6,2915	16,00	31,00
5000	3	23,3333	2,5166	21,00	26,00
UNIV	15	21,2667	4,7429	14,00	30,00
10000	4	20,5000	1,7321	18,00	22,00
Total	26	21,5385	4,3472	14,00	31,00

Table 12: Oneway ANOVA analysis of pre-test results according to vocabulary levels of the participants

PRE-TEST						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-test	Between Groups	17,112	3	5,704	,276	,842
	Within Groups	455,350	22	20,698		
	Total	472,462	25			

On the other hand, it can be seen that mean values of the post-test are very close to each other (see Table 13), which means vocabulary size did not affect the

success of the participants in the study (see Table 14) and not present a statistically significant effect. [p(.674)>.05]. It is explicit in Tables 11 and 13 that the highest means were realized by the participants with 10000 vocabulary items (means as 20,5000 in pre-test and as 33,5000 in post-test out of 50 vocabulary items), but these scores are not statistically meaningful. In fact, the results verify what Table 9 and 10 suggest; all of the participants could use the language at a percentage of 90% and over (see Table 10) because all are above 2000 words; however, in order to obtain the same coverage percentage – 98.5% - the participants with 5000 words must know another 10000 words and this is understandable from Table 14 that the means range from 29,5000 to 33,5000 out of 50 words, which proves that even the participants with 10000 words are not successful enough.

Table 13: Overall scores from the post-test irrespective of the participants' groups: guessing or dictionary

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
3000	4	29,5000	5,0662	22,00	33,00
5000	3	33,3333	5,6862	27,00	38,00
UNIV	15	30,8000	5,2807	20,00	38,00
10000	4	33,5000	7,1414	24,00	39,00
Total	26	31,3077	5,4168	20,00	39,00

POST-TEST

Table 14: Oneway ANOVA analysis of post-test results according to vocabulary levels of the participants

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Post-test	Between Groups	48,472	3	16,157	,519	,674
	Within Groups	685,067	22	31,139		
	Total	733,538	25			

POST-TEST

Ertarman (2001: 12) suggests that "when it is looked at one's vocabulary knowledge in a SL, it could be seen that some word classes have priority on the others in terms of quality and quantity. Thus, it can be concluded that some word classes are difficult to learn, while others are easily learned and produced". She concluded in the study that adjectives have been learnt more easily than nouns, adverbs and verbs. Manga (2003: 81) obtained the same conclusion in the study carried out on contextual guessing, stating "this subcategory [, which is adjectives] was guessed easily by language learners".

Resulting from these studies and seeing that vocabulary levels of the participants were not effective on the achievements in the pre- and post-test, we resolved to go deeper and find out whether there was a relationship between vocabulary levels of the participants and word class. We found that there was not any statistically meaningful significance in the favour of vocabulary levels and word class (p>.05) in the pre- and post-test. (see Table 15)

Table 15: Oneway ANOVA analysis of pre- and post-test results according to vocabulary levels of the participants and word class

		PRE-TEST				POST-TEST			
		Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.	Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
NOUN	Between Groups	2,545	3	,122	,946	35,062	3	1,569	,225
	Within Groups	152,417	22			163,900	22		
	Total	154,962	25			198,962	25		
VERB	Between Groups	6,535	3	,536	,662	13,515	3	,892	,461
	Within Groups	89,350	22			111,100	22		
	Total	95,885	25			124,615	25		
ADJECTIVE	Between Groups	3,728	3	,604	,619	4,863	3	,903	,455
	Within Groups	45,233	22			39,483	22		
	Total	48,962	25			44,346	25		
ADVERD	Between Groups	,171	3	,147	,930	,235	3	,188	,903
	Within Groups	8,483	22			9,150	22		
	Total	8,654	25			9,385	25		

However, in addition to what Ertarman (2001) and Manga (2003) propose, while there was no statistically significant result in the pre-test in terms of word class, we found in the post-test that groups (dictionary and guessing) did better in learning adjectives than they did in adverbs and verbs [p(.009)<.05](see Table 16); moreover, it was clear from the results of the post-test that the participants were also good at learning nouns as seen in Table 17 and this presented use with a statistically significant result [p(.018)<.05]. This shows that students can learn not only adjectives but also nouns more easily than adverb and verbs. Some researchers (Rogers, 1969; Beaton, 1993) are of the opinion that nouns are learnt easier and our findings support this view. The reason why they are learnt more easily could be because they are well supported by the words surrounding it and most of the nouns are concrete rather than abstract; it is easy to conceive concrete items.

Table 16: Analysis of the pre-test results in terms of word class

		Sig.	t-test for Equality of Means				
		Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
NOUN	Equal variances assumed	,008	2,099	24	,046	1,9231	,9161
	Equal variances not assumed		2,099	15,942	,052	1,9231	,9161
VERB	Equal variances assumed	,737	-,295	24	,771	-,2308	,7826
	Equal variances not assumed		-,295	23,785	,771	-,2308	,7826
ADJECTIVE	Equal variances assumed	,192	,137	24	,892	7,692E-02	,5600
	Equal variances not assumed		,137	19,632	,892	7,692E-02	,5600
ADVERB	Equal variances assumed	,052	-,327	24	,746	-7,6923E-02	,2350
	Equal variances not assumed		-,327	17,536	,747	-7,6923E-02	,2350

Table 17: Analysis of the post-test results in terms of word class

		Sig.	t-test for Equality of Means				
		Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
NOUN	Equal variances assumed	,804	-2,530	24	,018	-2,5385	1,0034
	Equal variances not assumed		-2,530	22,570	,019	-2,5385	1,0034
VERB	Equal variances assumed	,200	-1,243	24	,226	-1,0769	,8663
	Equal variances not assumed		-1,243	21,543	,227	-1,0769	,8663
ADJECTIVE	Equal variances assumed	,935	-2,833	24	,009	-1,3077	,4615
	Equal variances not assumed		-2,833	23,546	,009	-1,3077	,4615
ADVERB	Equal variances assumed	,769	-,632	24	,533	-,1538	,2433
	Equal variances not assumed		-,632	23,894	,533	-,1538	,2433

As for the primary variables, contextual guess and dictionary use, Table 18 shows that "dictionary group" displayed an improvement by increasing its mean score 20,6923 in the pre-test to 33,8462 in the post-test, whereas the increase in the mean score of "guess group" was from 22,3846 to 28,7692, which means the dictionary group did better than the guess group. Moreover, the means 22,3846 for the guess group and 20,6923 for the dictionary group mean that grouping was performed successfully and helpfully. Another point to mention is that guess group was better than the dictionary group in the pre-test, but not in the post test.

Table 19 verifies this interpretation; -2,665 of t indicates that there happened a change in the favour of dictionary group and this change is statistically significant $[p(.014)<.05]$

Table 18: Differences between the overall scores of the guessing and dictionary group in the pre- and the post-test

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PRE TEST	Guess	13	22,3846	4,7704	1,3231
	Dictionary	13	20,6923	3,8813	1,0765
POST TEST	Guess	13	28,7692	4,6931	1,3016
	Dictionary	13	33,8462	5,0141	1,3907

Table 19: Differences between the overall scores of the guessing and dictionary group in the pre- and the post-test

			t-test for Equality of Means				
		Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
PRE TEST	Equal variances assumed	,338	,992	24	,331	1,6923	1,7057
	Equal variances not assumed		,992	23,047	,331	1,6923	1,7057
POST TEST	Equal variances assumed	,927	-2,665	24	,014	-5,0769	1,9048
	Equal variances not assumed		-2,665	23,896	,014	-5,0769	1,9048

As the results manifest, because the experiment led to positive change in the participants' vocabulary size and yielded us plausible reasonable results which are in the favour of dictionary use having resulted in a statistically significant change in their vocabulary size, we suggest the study is successful.

In this study we aimed to find answers to three research questions; "Which vocabulary learning strategy is more effective in acquiring a vocabulary item? Guessing or dictionary use?" "Does acquiring a large vocabulary capacity have any effect on the success on guessing from context and learning vocabulary through dictionary use?" and "What factors make it difficult for learners to learn a word through guessing and dictionary use?"

Inferring from Table 19 presenting the results of the experiment, dictionary use created a statistically significant effect (p<.05) and thus we concluded that dictionary is a crucial part of literature use as authentic material. As for contextual guess, the participants in the guess group increased their vocabulary size, but its effect was not statistically significant. One reason might be the authenticity of the short story.

Hulstijn (1997: 215) suggests that "new vocabulary items should be presented in a meaningful context; preferably authentic or quasi-authentic contexts, preferably offering enough clues to allow learners to successfully infer their meaning." There are two points to think over; meaningful context and adequacy of clues. These could cause very serious troubles in the course of studying a literary work since not every authentic work might provide meaningful context due to unknown words, grammatical complexities, and moreover provide enough clues for contextual guessing. Thus, we should use simplified versions or carefully chosen authentic materials not too easy and not too difficult but slightly above the learner's level. Widdowson (2003, cited in Gilmore, 2007: 108) has argued consistently that "learners are unable to authenticate real language since the classroom cannot provide the contextual conditions for them to do so. Instead, he sees simplified texts that gradually approximate authentic ones as more pedagogically appropriate" and for us the main reason why dictionary group did better than the guess one is that guess group could not find adequate clues to infer from. Participants of the guess group stated that there were words easy to guess but most of them were not because they the context (sentence, paragraph and the whole story) did not support the word. Either they are too short or too long or encompassed by unknown words. This is the reason why dictionary group outperformed the guess one.

The second research question is whether vocabulary size affects the success in learning a word in a literary text. In the research we divided the class into 4 groups with the help of a vocabulary levels test and categorized the participants as students with 3000 words, 5000 words, university level and 10000 words as in Table 8. Table 11 showed that all vocabulary groups displayed an increase in their vocabulary size, but Table 12 proved that vocabulary size had no effect in this study ($p > .05$). The reason could be that vocabulary levels test cover high frequency words and thus determines the taker's level in terms of high frequency words. To some extent the words available in the story might be low frequency words and this might have caused difficulty for the participants especially for the guess group.

In order to find answer to the third research question, which is "What factors make it difficult for learners to learn a word through guessing and dictionary use?" participants were asked to write down their comments on whether the vocabulary item in question is easy or difficult and why and they expressed their opinions about the difficulty of the words right near the words in bold. Later we collected the short story sheets back and typed down the comments. Most of the comments are available in Table 20.

Table 20: Comments of the participants about the difficulty level of the words

GUESSING GROUP	DICTIONARY GROUP
1. I really have difficulty in understanding the meaning of unknown words from context. Also there are other words that I do not know other than the ones in bold. Therefore, I could not derive meanings of all the words from the context.	1. Although a great majority of the participants in the dictionary group found the words easy to learn, they also stated there are some words they cannot fit into the sentence.
2. Some words are easy because any other word in the sentence could be helpful, but there are some words really too hard to find the meaning because I do not know the word before and after it.	2. Some expressed that they could not find some of the words in their bilingual dictionary (English to Turkish) but in monolingual ones (English to English) and this caused another problem which is "not to be able to understand the definition in monolingual dictionary clearly and this caused ambiguity in context.
3. I think the sentences are complex. I can get the general theme and understand the sentences, but I cannot understand the unknown words. Maybe I understand but I ca not tell the exact meaning. I can only say I understand generally.	3. Because there were many definitions and counterparts for the words, I could not decide which one is the most suitable.
4. Also structure helped me.	4. Even if I could find the word in a dictionary, I could not totally
5. The words are not clear, challenging	

though some are easy 6. Even if I can not understand the exact meaning of the word, I can understand the sentence. 7. I can guess from the affixes and root. 8. I can not understand the sentence. 9. I made use of the previous or the next sentence to guess the meaning of the word.	grasp it because the sentence it is in is very short and/or does not support the word in bold.

The comments indicate that guessing group really had difficulty in handling the words. They stated the reasons why they had; they did not know the surrounding words, found the sentences complex and the words unclear.

Moreover, most of the participants in the guess group thought they figured out the meaning but found another meaning. Here is an example. Some guessed the word in the sentence "He **accosted** me with excessive warmth" to be "synonym of accept". Or they thought they already know some words such as "succession" in the statement "A **succession** of loud and shrill screams" and "winding" in the statement "I passed down a long and **winding** staircase". They mistook "succession" for "success" and winding" for "a weather phenomenon".

Some of them in the guessing group indicated that they inferred the meaning of the word from the other words in the sentence or from the sentence before and after sentence in which the word exists. This signifies that contextual relations contribute to guessing the meaning. Some of them stated that they used affixes and roots to guess the meaning, which shows morphological elements of a word make guessing easier.

In dictionary group, generally they considered the words easy but while looking up in a dictionary, they were drowned in the abundance of definitions and could not decide which one to use.

Though there was only one definition of the word in the dictionary, sometimes they could not fix the meaning into the sentence and overlap the word and the overall meaning of the sentence. Further, they had difficulty in understanding the definition in monolingual dictionaries, which is indeed another guessing process.

Nevertheless, it is obvious that the students in the dictionary group were at easy with the words' meanings and thus outperformed the guess group.

5.3   CONCLUSION

It was concluded from the data obtained from the experiment that the capacity for employing the guessing strategies effectively could contribute to the students. In this study, learners using dictionary did better than the guess group because the text seems to be complex in makeup and not to support the words in bold, thus makes guessing difficult. Therefore, we recommend simplified versions of the texts to be used in the class or authentic but suitable texts for the learners even though simplified versions do not match the authentic real-time situations. Apart from simplification, some proper additions could be done to clarify the meaning of the unknown word. Day and Bamford (1998) claim that simplification can be used to develop at least two different types of second language reading materials: texts simplified from first language originals and texts written specifically for second language learners.

As for the effect of the word class; although some researchers (Ertarman, 2001; Manga, 2003) in Turkey found that adjectives are learnt easier that nouns, verbs and adverbs, supporting some researchers (Rogers, 1969; Beaton, 1993) we also found in the post-test that nouns are learnt easier and we concluded that this is because nouns are well supported by the words surrounding it and most of the nouns are concrete rather than abstract and it is easy to conceive concrete items.

It was also found out that vocabulary size did not yield a statistically significant effect on the study. This is probably because of the fact that vocabulary levels test covers high frequency words and it does not cover low-frequency words, which compass the words in bold in the story. To sort out this problem, the simplification of the text could be useful again. At least, surrounding words can be replaced with its highly frequent synonym or additions could be done.

It was also observed during the research that there could be some words that can be mistaken for some other words. Thus, before starting reading, these words should be clarified or students must be warned to avoid any mistake.

Moreover, it was concluded as well that students could not be certain about meanings of the some of the words; therefore, dictionary can be a good means to make the meanings clear; even if the aim throughout the reading is to have the students use guessing as a strategy to learn the meaning of the word, they should be allowed to use dictionaries.

On the other hand, if the teacher favours the use of dictionary during reading, as our study showed, the students could have difficulties in deciding which meaning of the word is appropriate as the correct meaning; because of that, teacher had better encourage them to guess, even after they have looked up in a dictionary.

So as to understand whether simplification will be helpful, the procedure could be repeated but with a simplified version of the text. This is the hypothesis that the statistical significance that could not be obtained with the authentic text is likely to be elicited with the simplified one.

5.4   IMPLICATIONS

The results of the study have important implications and these could shed light on the practice of a literary work and contribute to the field. The main implications of this study for language learning are as follows;

- All of the participants use both guessing and dictionary use as effective vocabulary learning strategies. But it seems that they are addicted to the dictionary use.

- It is apparent that the participants liked the theme of the story and got involved in the learning process actively because the subject was interesting for them as they stated. That is, theme should be related to their lives and appealing to them.

- The findings of the study showed that the subjects having learnt the new words by means of dictionary were proved to be more successful than the ones who used guessing as a vocabulary learning strategy.

- Through inference from the findings, while guessing, it is fatal for the guesser to know the words neighbouring the intended words.

- As the findings indicate, even if they used a dictionary, the subjects had difficulty fitting the word's meaning into the sentence; thus, it shows up that the surrounding words are important not only for guessers but also for dictionary users.

- Dictionary type is fundamentally of high importance; during the study it was observed that monolingual dictionary users had problem with understanding the meaning of the word. Aside from the type, the level of the language used in the dictionary should not impose another burden in the course of learning a word.

- Dictionaries should be comprehensible if dictionary use will be encouraged. If not, if the aim is to get the learners to orient towards guessing, a narrow-scoped dictionary could be used.

5.5   IMPLICATIONS FOR FURHER RESEARCH

The study was carried out over 26 students, thus it could be redone over larger groups for better sampling.

Moreover, because some researchers claim that simplification could be detrimental, while others not, an experiment can be carried out to compare the authentic material and the simplified version

Also, after the same experiment or the one to compare the authentic material and the simplified one is done, the post-test could be conducted twice or more to find out which strategy or material provides better retention.

Consequently, these three suggested research issues could be complementary to this study and answer the questions posed.

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APPENDIX A

The Cask of Amontillado by Edgar Allan Poe

The thousand injuries of Fortunato I had borne as I best could, but when he ventured upon insult, I vowed revenge. You, who so well know the nature of my soul, will not suppose, however, that I gave utterance to a threat. **At length** I would be avenged; this was a point definitively settled -- but the very definitiveness with which it was resolved precluded the idea of risk. I must not only punish, but punish with impunity. A wrong is unredressed when **retribution** overtakes its redresser. It is equally unredressed when the avenger fails to make himself felt as such to him who has done the wrong.

It must be understood that neither by word nor deed had I given Fortunato cause to doubt my good will. I continued as was my wont, to smile in his face, and he did not perceive that my smile now was at the thought of his **immolation**.

He had a weak point -- this Fortunato -- although in other regards he was a man to be respected and even feared. He prided himself on his connoisseurship in wine. Few Italians have the true **virtuoso** spirit. For the most part their enthusiasm is adopted to suit the time and opportunity to practise **imposture** upon the British and Austrian millionaires. In painting and gemmary, Fortunato, like his countrymen, was a **quack**, but in the matter of old wines he was sincere. In this respect I did not differ from him materially; I was skilful in the Italian vintages myself, and bought largely whenever I could.

It was about **dusk**, one evening during the supreme madness of the carnival season, that I encountered my friend. He **accosted** me with excessive warmth, for he had been drinking much. The man wore motley. He had on a tight-fitting parti-striped dress and his head was surmounted by the conical cap and bells. I was so pleased to see him, that I thought I should never have done wringing his hand.

I said to him -- "My dear Fortunato, you are luckily met. How remarkably well you are looking to-day! But I have received a pipe of what passes for Amontillado, and I have my doubts."

"How?" said he, "Amontillado? A pipe? Impossible? And in the middle of the carnival?"

"I have my doubts," I replied; "and I was silly enough to pay the full Amontillado price without consulting you in the matter. You were not to be found, and I was fearful of losing a bargain."

"Amontillado!"

"I have my doubts."

"Amontillado!"

"And I must satisfy them."

"Amontillado!"

"As you are engaged, I am on my way to Luchesi. If any one has a critical turn, it is he. He will tell me" --

"Luchesi cannot tell Amontillado from Sherry."

"And yet some fools will have it that his taste is a match for your own."

"Come let us go."

"Whither?"

"To your **vaults**."

"My friend, no; I will not impose upon your good nature. I perceive you have an engagement Luchesi" --

"I have no engagement; come."

"My friend, no. It is not the engagement, but the severe cold with which I perceive you are **afflicted**. The **vaults** are insufferably damp. They are **encrusted** with nitre."

"Let us go, nevertheless. The cold is merely nothing. Amontillado! You have been imposed upon; and as for Luchesi, he cannot distinguish Sherry from Amontillado."

Thus speaking, Fortunato possessed himself of my arm. Putting on a mask of black silk and drawing a roquelaire closely about my person, I suffered him to hurry me to my palazzo.

There were no attendants at home; they had **absconded** to make merry in honour of the time. I had told them that I should not return until the morning and had given them explicit orders not to stir from the house. These orders were sufficient, I well knew, to insure their immediate disappearance, one and all, as soon as my back was turned.

I took from their sconces two flambeaux, and giving one to Fortunato bowed him through several suites of rooms to the archway that led into the vaults. I passed down a long and **winding** staircase, requesting him to be cautious as he followed. We came **at length** to the foot of the descent, and stood together on the damp ground of the **catacombs** of the Montresors.

The **gait** of my friend was unsteady, and the bells upon his cap jingled as he strode.

"The pipe," said he.

"It is farther on," said I; "but observe the white webwork which gleams from these cavern walls."

He turned towards me and looked into my eyes with two filmy orbs that distilled the rheum of **intoxication**.

"Nitre?" he asked, **at length**

"Nitre," I replied. "How long have you had that cough!"

"Ugh! ugh! ugh! -- ugh! ugh! ugh! -- ugh! ugh! ugh! -- ugh! ugh! ugh! -- ugh! ugh! ugh!

My poor friend found it impossible to reply for many minutes.

"It is nothing," he said, at last.

"Come," I said, with decision, we will go back; your health is precious. You are rich, respected, admired, beloved; you are happy as once I was. You are a man to be missed. For me it is no matter. We will go back; you will be ill and I cannot be responsible. Besides, there is Luchesi" --

"Enough," he said; "the cough is a mere nothing; it will not kill me. I shall not die of a cough."

"True -- true," I replied; "and, indeed, I had no intention of alarming you unnecessarily -- but you should use all proper caution. A **draught** of this Medoc will defend us from the damps."

Here I knocked off the neck of a bottle which I drew from a long row of its fellows that lay upon the mould.

"Drink," I said, presenting him the wine.

He raised it to his lips with a **leer**. He paused and **nodded** to me familiarly, while his bells jingled.

"I drink," he said, "to the buried that repose around us."

"And I to your long life."

He again took my arm and we **proceeded**.

"These vaults," he said, are extensive."

"The Montresors," I replied, "were a great numerous family."

"I forget your arms."

"A huge human foot d'or, in a field azure; the foot crushes a serpent rampant whose **fangs** are **imbedded** in the heel."

"And the motto?"

"Nemo me impune lacessit."

"Good!" he said.

The wine sparkled in his eyes and the bells jingled. My own fancy grew warm with the Medoc. We had passed through walls of piled bones, with casks and puncheons **intermingling**, into the inmost **recesses** of the catacombs. I paused again, and this time I made bold to seize Fortunato by an arm above the elbow.

"The nitre!" I said: see it increases. It hangs like moss upon the **vaults**. We are below the river's bed. The drops of moisture trickle among the bones. Come, we will go back **ere** it is too late. Your cough" --

"It is nothing" he said; "let us go on. But first, another **draught** of the Medoc."

I broke and reached him a flagon of De Grave. He emptied it at a breath. His eyes flashed with a fierce light. He laughed and threw the bottle upwards with a gesticulation I did not understand.

I looked at him in surprise. He repeated the movement -- a grotesque one.

"You do not comprehend?" he said.

"Not I," I replied.

"Then you are not of the brotherhood."

"How?"

"You are not of the **masons**."

"Yes, yes," I said "yes! yes."

"You? Impossible! A **mason**?"

"A **mason**," I replied.

"A sign," he said.

"It is this," I answered, producing a trowel from beneath the folds of my roquelaire.

"You jest," he exclaimed, recoiling a few paces. "But let us proceed to the Amontillado."

"Be it so," I said, replacing the tool beneath the cloak, and again offering him my arm. He leaned upon it heavily. We continued our route in search of the Amontillado. We passed through a range of low arches, descended, passed on, and descending again, arrived at a deep **crypt**, in which the foulness of the air caused our flambeaux rather to glow than flame.

At the most remote end of the **crypt** there appeared another less **spacious**. Its walls had been lined with human remains piled to the **vault** overhead, in the fashion of the great **catacombs** of Paris. Three sides of this interior **crypt** were still ornamented in this manner. From the fourth the bones had been thrown down, and lay promiscuously upon the earth, forming at one point a **mound** of some size. Within the wall thus exposed by the displacing of the bones, we perceived a still interior **recess**, in depth about four feet, in width three, in height six or seven. It seemed to have been constructed for no especial use in itself, but formed merely the interval between two of the colossal supports of the roof of the catacombs, and was backed by one of their circumscribing walls of solid granite.

It was in vain that Fortunato, uplifting his dull torch, endeavoured to **pry** into the depths of the **recess**. Its termination the **feeble** light did not enable us to see.

"**Proceed**," I said; "herein is the Amontillado. As for Luchesi" --

"He is an ignoramus," interrupted my friend, as he stepped unsteadily forward, while I followed immediately at his heels. In an instant he had reached the extremity of the niche, and finding his progress arrested by the rock, stood stupidly **bewildered**. A moment more and I had fettered him to the granite. In its surface were two iron staples, distant from each other about two feet, horizontally. From one of these depended a short chain. from the other a padlock. Throwing the links about his waist, it was but the work of a few seconds to secure it. He was too much **astounded** to resist. **Withdrawing** the key I stepped back from the **recess**.

"Pass your hand," I said, "over the wall; you cannot help feeling the nitre. Indeed it is very damp. Once more let me implore you to return. No? Then I must positively leave you. But I must first render you all the little attentions in my power."

"The Amontillado!" ejaculated my friend, not yet recovered from his astonishment.

"True," I replied; "the Amontillado."

As I said these words I busied myself among the pile of bones of which I have before spoken. Throwing them aside, I soon uncovered a quantity of building stone and **mortar**. With these materials and with the aid of my **trowel**, I began **vigorously** to wall up the entrance of the niche.

I had scarcely laid the first **tier** of my **masonry** when I discovered that the **intoxication** of Fortunato had in a great measure worn off. The earliest indication I had of this was a low moaning cry from the depth of the **recess**. It was not the cry of a drunken man. There was then a long and **obstinate** silence. I laid the second **tier**, and the third, and the fourth; and then I heard the furious vibrations of the chain. The noise lasted for several minutes, during which, that I might **hearken** to it with the more satisfaction, I **ceased** my labours and sat down upon the bones. When at last the clanking subsided, I resumed the trowel, and finished without interruption the fifth, the sixth, and the seventh **tier**. The wall was now nearly upon a level with my breast. I again paused, and holding the flambeaux over the mason-work, threw a few **feeble** rays upon the figure within.

A **succession** of loud and **shrill** screams, bursting suddenly from the throat of the chained form, seemed to **thrust** me violently back. For a brief moment I **hesitated** -- I trembled. Unsheathing my **rapier**, I began to grope with it about the **recess**; but the thought of an instant reassured me. I placed my hand upon the solid fabric of the **catacombs**, and felt satisfied. I reapproached the wall. I replied to the yells of him who **clamoured**. I reechoed -- I aided -- I surpassed them in volume and in strength. I did this, and the **clamourer** grew still.

It was now midnight, and my task was drawing to a close. I had completed the eighth, the ninth, and the tenth **tier**. I had finished a portion of the last and the eleventh; there remained but a single stone to be fitted and plastered in. I struggled with its weight; I placed it partially in its destined position. But now there came from out the niche a low laugh that erected the hairs upon my head. It was **succeeded** by a sad voice, which I had difficulty in recognising as that of the noble Fortunato. The voice said --

"Ha! ha! ha! -- he! he! -- a very good joke indeed -- an excellent jest. We will have many a rich laugh about it at the palazzo -- he! he! he! -- over our wine -- he! he! he!"

"The Amontillado!" I said.

"He! he! he! -- he! he! he! -- yes, the Amontillado . But is it not getting late? Will not they be awaiting us at the palazzo, the Lady Fortunato and the rest? Let us be gone."

"Yes," I said "let us be gone."

"For the love of God, Montresor!"

"Yes," I said, "for the love of God!"

But to these words I **hearkened** in vain for a reply. I grew impatient. I called aloud --

"Fortunato!"

No answer. I called again --

"Fortunato!"

No answer still. I thrust a torch through the remaining aperture and let it fall within. There came forth in return only a jingling of the bells. My heart grew sick -- on account of the dampness of the **catacombs**. I **hastened** to make an end of my labour. I forced the last stone into its position; I plastered it up. Against the new **masonry** I reerected the old rampart of bones. For the half of a century no mortal has disturbed them.

In pace requiescat!

APPENDIX B

NAME: YOUR GROUP:
SURNAME:

	Never (0%)	Seldom (20%)	Occasionally (40%)	Often (60%)	Usually (80%)	Always (100%)
1. Paraphrase the new word's meaning by yourself						
2. Listen to tape of word lists						
3. Guess from textual context in reading						
4. Use and English-language TV program						
5. Ask the teacher for paraphrase of synonym						
6. Ask the teacher for Turkish meaning						
7. Learn words written on commercial items						
8. Put the English label on physical objects						
9. Use an English language video						
10. Use English-language songs						
11. Read an English-language newspaper						
12. Use English-language internet						
13. Connect the word to its synonym and antonym						
14. Ask the teachers for a sentence including the new word						
15. Do written repetition						
16. Use new word in sentences						
17. Connect word to already known words						
18. Ask someone other than your teacher for Turkish translation						
19. Learn the words of an idiom together						
20. Use the vocabulary section in your text book						
21. Use thesaurus						
22. Memorize the meaning of affix and roots						
23. Use semantic maps						

24. Use picture dictionary						
25. Keep a vocabulary notebook						
26. Connect word to a personal experience						
27. Listen to an English-language radio program						
28. Use "scales" for gradable adjectives						
29. Use loanwords in study						
30. Use bilingual dictionary						
31. Do verbal repetition						

32. Please write any other strategies you have used that are not written above, if any.

APPENDIX D

Choose the correct synonym or the meaning of the word in bold.	
1. **Hasten**	I **hastened** to make an end of my labour a) wanted b) decided c) hurried d) prepared
2. **Proceed**	we **proceeded** in the vaults. a) got lost b) preceded c) stopped d) advanced
3. **Fang**	The foot crushes a serpent whose **fangs** are in the heel. a) nostrils b) scales c) teeth d) eyes
4. **Intoxication**	I discovered that the **intoxication** of Fortunato had in a great measure worn off. a) excitement b) drunkenness c) poisoning d) dizziness
5. **Afflict**	The severe cold which we were **afflicted with** could end our lives. a) suffering from b) familiar with c) exposed to d) rescued from
6. **Immolation**	He did not perceive that my smile was at the thought of his **immolation.** a) sacrifice b) rescue c) favour d) health
7. **Astound**	He was too much **astounded** to resist. a) ashamed b) assured c) ascertained d) astonished
8. **Bewilder**	In an instant he stood **bewildered**. a) unconscious b) outrageous c) confused d) uneasy
9. **Imposture**	They charged Jack with **imposture** and punished him severely. a) theft b) fraudulence c) murder

	d) rape
10. Accost	He **accosted** me with excessive warmth, for he had been drinking much.
	a) neared
	b) spoke to
	c) hugged
	d) leaned on
11. Vigorously	I began **vigorously** to wall up the entrance of the hole.
	a) ardently
	b) energetically
	c) purposefully
	d) cunningly
12. Grope	I began to **grope** through the passage in the hope of finding the exit.
	a) move carefully
	b) move quickly
	c) move ahead
	d) move blindly
13. Masonry	Everybody in the garden appreciated my **masonry.**
	a) the craft of growing flowers
	b) the craft of making fence
	c) the craft of making wall
	d) the craft of gardening
14. Feeble	I paused and watched the **feeble** light getting closer.
	a) bright
	b) quivering
	c) fickle
	d) weak
15. Mound	The bones fell down and formed at one point a **mound**.
	a) layer
	b) heap
	c) shape
	d) mass
16. Ere	We could finish the wall **ere** they arrive at home.
	a) before
	b) when
	c) after
	d) once
17. Vault	We reached the archway that led into the **vault.**
	a) feast chamber
	b) sacrifice chamber
	c) penalty chamber
	d) burial chamber
18. Dusk	It was **about dusk** that I encountered my friend.
	a) before the sunrise
	b) after the daybreak
	c) before the sunset
	d) partially dark
19. Hearken	But these sentences I **hearkened to** were in vain for a reply
	a) uttered
	b) wrote out
	c) heard

	d) made up
20. Shrill	Some loud and **shrill** screams bursted suddenly from the throat of the chained form. a) scary b) echoing c) hopeless d) sharp
21. Crypt	We passed through a range of low arches, descended, passed on, and descending again, arrived at a **crypt**. a) tomb chamber b) brewing chamber c) storing chamber d) secret chamber
22. Quack	In painting and gemmary, Fortunato, like his countrymen , was a **quack**, but in the matter of old wines he was sincere. a) snob b) fool c) fraudulent d) gifted
23. Catacomb	We came to the foot of the descent, and stood together on the damp ground of the **catacombs.** a) underground chamber b) underground cemetery c) underground passage d) underground hall
24. At length	We came **at length** to the foot of the descent. a) in length b) at the end c) in the long run d) at last
25. Draught	A **draught** of this Medoc (wine) will defend us from the damps. a) cask b) bottle c) glass d) sip
26. Wind	I passed down a long and **winding** staircase, requesting him to be cautious as he followed. a) coiling b) breezing c) descending d) creaking
27. Trowel	With these materials and with the aid of my **trowel**, I began to wall up the entrance of the niche. a) a tool having a small flat blade with a handle b) a tool having a solid head of metal with a handle, c) a tool having a broad blade with a long handle. d) a tool having a blade on a handle used for cleaving.
28. Thrust	I **thrusted** a torch through the hole and let it fall within. a) lighted b) left

	c) poked d) held
29. Rapier	My **rapier** in my hand, I began to grope with it about the recess. a) a kind of masonry tool b) a kind of gardening tool c) a kind of firearm d) a kind of sword
30. Tier	I finished without interruption the fifth, the sixth, and the seventh **tier**. a) book b) layer c) shelf d) drink
31. Withdraw	**Withdrawing** the key I stepped back from the recess. a) removing b) inserting c) turning d) breaking
32. Succession	My life is a(n) **succession** of battles to survive. a) combination b) achievement c) series d) outcome
33. Spacious	At the most remote end of the chamber there appeared another **spacious**. a) light b) cozy c) lofty d) roomy
34. Mortar	Throwing them aside, I soon uncovered a quantity of building stone and **mortar.** a) a mixture of cement, sand and water b) a set of masonry tools c) a kind of stone formation d) a kind of adhesive
35. Retribution	A wrong is unredressed when **retribution** overtakes its redresser. a) guilt b) punishment c) crime d) sentence
36. Abscond	They had **absconded** to make merry in honour of the time. a) paid a lot b) resolved c) come together d) left suddenly
37. Encrust/Incrust	The vaults are insufferably damp. They are **encrusted** with nitre. a) cracked b) worn down c) coated d) corroded
38. Virtuoso	Few Italians have the true **virtuoso** spirit. a) expert

	b) morality
	c) intellectuality
	d) virtuality
39. Gait	The **gait** of my friend was unsteady.
	a) speaking
	b) movement
	c) walk
	d) mood
40. Leer	He raised it to his lips with a(n) **leer** at me.
	a) evil look
	b) chuckle
	c) sneer
	d) glance
41. Nod	He paused and **nodded to** me familiarly.
	a) gazed at
	b) talked to
	c) got closer to
	d) saluted
42. Embed/Imbed	I saw the **embedded** stone and examined to understand its origin.
	a) inserted
	b) smashed
	c) carved
	d) misplaced
43. Intermingle	We had passed through walls of piled bones along the rows of casks and puncheons **intermingling**.
	a) interlocking
	b) intermixing
	c) interlacing
	d) interconnecting
44. Clamour	I replied to the yells of him who was **clamouring**.
	a) boasting
	b) weeping
	c) whining
	d) crying out
45. Recess	We discovered a **recess**, in depth about four feet, in width three, in height six or seven.
	a) large cavity
	b) tomb
	c) ditch
	d) chasm
46. Hesitate	For a brief moment I **hesitated**.
	a) thought
	b) relaxed
	c) halted
	d) retreated
47. Pry	Fortunato endeavoured to **pry into** the depths of the passage.
	a) peer into
	b) further into
	c) run into
	d) turn into

48. Implore	Indeed it is very dangerous. I **implore** you to return. a) want b) beg c) advise d) order
49. Obstinate	There was a long and **obstinate** silence. a) freaking b) unexpected c) maddening d) resolute
50. Cease	I **ceased** my labours while they were sitting upon the bones. a) completed b) started c) completed half of d) arranged

APPENDIX D

Choose the correct synonym or the meaning of the word in bold.	
1. **Hasten**	I **hastened** to make an end of my labour a) wanted b) decided c) hurried d) prepared
2. **Proceed**	we **proceeded** in the vaults. a) got lost b) preceded c) stopped d) advanced
3. **Fang**	The foot crushes a serpent whose **fangs** are in the heel. a) nostrils b) scales c) teeth d) eyes
4. **Intoxication**	I discovered that the **intoxication** of Fortunato had in a great measure worn off. a) excitement b) drunkenness c) poisoning d) dizziness
5. **Afflict**	The severe cold which we were **afflicted with** could end our lives. a) suffering from b) familiar with c) exposed to d) rescued from
6. **Immolation**	He did not perceive that my smile was at the thought of his **immolation.** a) sacrifice b) rescue c) favour d) health
7. **Astound**	He was too much **astounded** to resist. a) ashamed b) assured c) ascertained d) astonished
8. **Bewilder**	In an instant he stood **bewildered**. a) unconscious b) outrageous c) confused d) uneasy
9. **Imposture**	They charged Jack with **imposture** and punished him severely. a) theft b) fraudulence c) murder

	d) rape
10. Accost	He **accosted** me with excessive warmth, for he had been drinking much. a) neared b) spoke to c) hugged d) leaned on
11. Vigorously	I began **vigorously** to wall up the entrance of the hole. a) ardently b) energetically c) purposefully d) cunningly
12. Grope	I began to **grope** through the passage in the hope of finding the exit. a) move carefully b) move quickly c) move ahead d) move blindly
13. Masonry	Everybody in the garden appreciated my **masonry.** a) the craft of growing flowers b) the craft of making fence c) the craft of making wall d) the craft of gardening
14. Feeble	I paused and watched the **feeble** light getting closer. a) bright b) quivering c) fickle d) weak
15. Mound	The bones fell down and formed at one point a **mound**. a) layer b) heap c) shape d) mass
16. Ere	We could finish the wall **ere** they arrive at home. a) before b) when c) after d) once
17. Vault	We reached the archway that led into the **vault.** a) feast chamber b) sacrifice chamber c) penalty chamber d) burial chamber
18. Dusk	It was **about dusk** that I encountered my friend. a) before the sunrise b) after the daybreak c) before the sunset d) partially dark
19. Hearken	But these sentences I **hearkened to** were in vain for a reply a) uttered b) wrote out c) heard

	d) made up
20. Shrill	Some loud and **shrill** screams bursted suddenly from the throat of the chained form. a) scary b) echoing c) hopeless d) sharp
21. Crypt	We passed through a range of low arches, descended, passed on, and descending again, arrived at a **crypt**. a) tomb chamber b) brewing chamber c) storing chamber d) secret chamber
22. Quack	In painting and gemmary, Fortunato, like his countrymen , was a **quack**, but in the matter of old wines he was sincere. a) snob b) fool c) fraudulent d) gifted
23. Catacomb	We came to the foot of the descent, and stood together on the damp ground of the **catacombs.** a) underground chamber b) underground cemetery c) underground passage d) underground hall
24. At length	We came **at length** to the foot of the descent. a) in length b) at the end c) in the long run d) at last
25. Draught	A **draught** of this Medoc (wine) will defend us from the damps. a) cask b) bottle c) glass d) sip
26. Wind	I passed down a long and **winding** staircase, requesting him to be cautious as he followed. a) coiling b) breezing c) descending d) creaking
27. Trowel	With these materials and with the aid of my **trowel**, I began to wall up the entrance of the niche. a) a tool having a small flat blade with a handle b) a tool having a solid head of metal with a handle, c) a tool having a broad blade with a long handle. d) a tool having a blade on a handle used for cleaving.
28. Thrust	I **thrusted** a torch through the hole and let it fall within. a) lighted b) left

	c) poked
	d) held
29. Rapier	My **rapier** in my hand, I began to grope with it about the recess.
	a) a kind of masonry tool
	b) a kind of gardening tool
	c) a kind of firearm
	d) a kind of sword
30. Tier	I finished without interruption the fifth, the sixth, and the seventh **tier**.
	a) book
	b) layer
	c) shelf
	d) drink
31. Withdraw	**Withdrawing** the key I stepped back from the recess.
	a) removing
	b) inserting
	c) turning
	d) breaking
32. Succession	My life is a(n) **succession** of battles to survive.
	a) combination
	b) achievement
	c) series
	d) outcome
33. Spacious	At the most remote end of the chamber there appeared another **spacious**.
	a) light
	b) cozy
	c) lofty
	d) roomy
34. Mortar	Throwing them aside, I soon uncovered a quantity of building stone and **mortar.**
	a) a mixture of cement, sand and water
	b) a set of masonry tools
	c) a kind of stone formation
	d) a kind of adhesive
35. Retribution	A wrong is unredressed when **retribution** overtakes its redresser.
	a) guilt
	b) punishment
	c) crime
	d) sentence
36. Abscond	They had **absconded** to make merry in honour of the time.
	a) paid a lot
	b) resolved
	c) come together
	d) left suddenly
37. Encrust/Incr ust	The vaults are insufferably damp. They are **encrusted** with nitre.
	a) cracked
	b) worn down
	c) coated
	d) corroded
38. Virtuoso	Few Italians have the true **virtuoso** spirit.
	a) expert

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39. Gait	The **gait** of my friend was unsteady.
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APPENDIX E

VOCABULARY LEVELS TEST

The 2,000-word level

1. original
2. private   _____ complete
3. royal   _____ first
4. slow   _____ not public
5. sorry
6. total

1. apply
2. elect   _____ choose by voting
3. jump   _____ become like water
4. manufacture   _____ make
5. melt
6. threaten

1. blame
2. hide   _____ keep away from sight
3. hit   _____ have a bad effect on something
4. invite   _____ ask

5. pour

6. spoil

1. accident

2. choice   _____   having a high opinion of yourself

3. debt   _____   something you must pay

4. fortune   _____   loud, deep sound

5. pride

6. roar

1. basket

2. crop   _____   money paid regularly for doing a job

3. flesh   _____   heat

4. salary   _____   meat

5. temperature

6. thread

1. birth

2. dust   _____   being born

3. operation   _____   game

4. row   _____   winning

5. sport

6. victory

The 3,000-word level

1. administration

2. angel   _____   managing business and affairs

3. front   _____   spirit who serves God

4. herd   _____   group of animals

5. mate

6. pond

1. bench

2. charity   _____   part of a country

3. fort   _____   help to the poor

4. jar   _____   long seat

5. mirror

6. province

1. coach

2. darling   _____   a thin, flat piece cut from something

3. echo   _____   person who is loved very much

4. interior   _____   sound reflected back to you

5. opera

6. slice

1. marble

2. palm   _____   inner surface of your hand

3. ridge   _____   excited feeling

4. scheme   _____   plan

5. statue

6. thrill

1. discharge

2. encounter   _____   use pictures or examples to show the meaning

3. illustrate

4. knit   _____   meet

5. prevail   _____   throw up into air

6. toss

1. annual

2. blank   _____   happening once a year

3. brilliant   _____   certain

4. concealed   _____   wild

5. definite

6. savage

The 5,000-word level

1. alcohol

2. apron   _____   cloth worn in front to protect your
                          clothes
3. lure
                _____   stage of development
4. mess
                _____   state of untidiness or dirtiness
5. phase

6. plank

1. circus

2. jungle   _____   speech given by a priest in a church

3. nomination   _____   seat without a back or arms

4. sermon   _____   musical instrument

5. stool

6. trumpet

1. apparatus

2. compliment   _____   set of instruments or machinery

3. revenue   _____   money received by the government

4. scrap   _____   expression of admiration

5. tile

6. ward

1. bruise

2. exile   _____   agreement using property as security for a debt

3. ledge

4. mortgage   _____   narrow shelf

5. shovel   _____   dark place on your body caused by hitting

6. switch

1. blend

2. devise   _____   hold tightly in your arms

3. embroider   _____   plan or invent

4. hug   _____   mix

5. imply

6. paste

1. desolate

2. fragrant   _____   good for your health

3. gloomy   _____   sweet-smelling

4. profound   _____   dark or sad

5. radical

6. wholesome

The University Word List level

1. affluence

2. axis   _____   introduction of a new thing

3. episode   _____   one event in a series

4. innovation   _____   wealth

5. precision

6. tissue

1. deficiency

2. magnitude   _____   swinging from side to sid

3. oscillation   _____   respect

4. prestige   _____   lack

5. sanction

6. specification

1. configuration

2. discourse   _____   shape

3. hypothesis   _____   speech

4. intersection   _____   theory

5. partisan

6. propensity

1. anonymous

2. indigenous   _____   without the writer's name

3. maternal   _____   least possible amount

4. minimum   _____   native

5. nutrient

6. modification

1. elementary

2. negative   _____   of the beginning stage

3. static   _____   not moving or changing

4. random   _____   final, furthest

5. reluctant

6. ultimate

1. coincide

2. coordinate   ———   prevent people from doing something
                            they want to do
3. expel

4. frustrate   ———   add to

5. supplement   ———   send out by force

6. transfer

The 10,000-word level

1. acquiesce

2. contaminate   ———   work at something without serious
                            intentions
3. crease

4. dabble   ———   accept without protest

5. rape   ———   make a fold on cloth or paper

6. squint

1. blaspheme

2. endorse   ———   give care and food to

3. nurture   ———   speak badly about God

4. overhaul   ———   slip or slide

5. skid

6. straggle

1. auxiliary

2. candid   ———   full of self-importance

3. dubious   ———   helping, adding support

4. morose   ———   bad-tempered

5. pompous

6. temporal

1. anterior

2. concave   _____   small and weak

3. interminable   _____   easily changing

4. puny   _____   endless

5. volatile

6. wicker

1. dregs

2. flurry   _____   worst and most useless parts of anything

3. hostage

4. jumble   _____   natural liquid present in the mouth

5. saliva   _____   confused mixture

6. truce

1. auspices

2. casualty   _____   being away from other people

3. froth   _____   someone killed or injured

4. haunch   _____. noisy and happy celebration

5. revelry

6. seclusion

APPENDIX F

Study Questions

1. What kind of person is the narrator? And Fortunanto? Does the story set the two characters in contrast? How about the former's answering the latter's yells and screams with louder ones?

2. What would you make of the two characters' journey through the tunnel to the crypt? How about the crypt and its interior recess?

3. How is Fortunato dressed? And which part of his outfit gets emphasized throughout the story?

4. Who is the narrator of the story?

5. What kind of narrator is in "The Cask of Amontillado?"

6. Upon whom does the narrator want to exact (get) revenge?

7. What did this person do to the narrator?

8. How does the narrator lure his enemy to his house?

9. What is amontillado?

10. What kind of person does the narrator make his enemy out to be?

11. What is ironic about the narrator calling his victim "my friend" and worrying about his health?

12. How does the narrator kill his victim?

13. What does the narrator's laughter tell you about his mental state?

14. Who is the "you" addressed in paragraph 1?

15. What are Fortunato's crimes against Montresor? Does it matter?

16. What is the quality of the revenge that Montresor seeks?

17. How does Montresor manipulate Fortunato? What does his flattery of Fortunato suggest may be his real motive for killing him?

18. Consider the symbolic implications of the descent into the wine cellar.

19. Can you point to any evidence of *humor* in the story?

20. Has Montresor's crime been entirely successful?

21. Why does Montresor make sure Fortunato has drunk a lot of wine?

22. What is Luchresi's role in the story?

23. What preparations had Montressor made for his revenge?

24. Why does Montresor appear concerned about Fortunato's health?

25. Describe Fortunato's character.

26. Comment on the author's use of the word "mason". Write a sequel describing the discovery of the niche.

27. Discuss how Poe uses setting to enhance the atmosphere of horror in the story.

28. Why do you think Montresor succeeded in leading Fortunato to the niche without raising his suspicions?

29. Why do you think Fortunato became silent at the end? What do you think the effect was on Montresor?

30. Why did Montresor go to such lengths to get his revenge? After all, he could merely have run Fortunato through with his sword.

31. Describe the Montresor's family arms. What significance do they have in the story?

32. Do you think the degree of revenge described in the story is ever justified? What other actions could Montresor have taken?

33. Discuss whether you believe insults or bullying could cause this degree of revenge today. What, in your opinion, could be done to prevent it?

34. To what extent can the narrator be relied upon to give an accurate portrayal of events? How might the reader's view of his actions change if the story were written in the third person?

35. Discuss Poe's use of irony and black humour in the story.