

**İNGİLİZCE'DEN TÜRKÇE'YE VE İNGİLİZCE'DEN İNGİLİZCE'YE SÖZLÜKÇELERİN
OKUMA SÜRECİNDE RASTLANTISAL KELİME ÖĞRENİMİNDEKİ ETKİSİ**



**THE INFLUENCE OF BILINGUAL
(ENGLISH - TURKISH)
AND MONOLINGUAL (ENGLISH – ENGLISH)
GLOSSES ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY
LEARNING THROUGH READING**

**Esen Yücel SPAHİU
Yüksek Lisans Tezi
Haziran 2000**

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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

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Eskişehir

Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

Haziran 2000

**T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ**

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ**İNGİLİZCE'DEN TÜRKÇE'YE VE İNGİLİZCE'DEN İNGİLİZCE'YE
SÖZLÜKÇELERİN OKUMA SÜRECİNDE RASTLANTISAL KELİME
ÖĞRENİMİNDEKİ ETKİSİ****Esen Yücel Spahiu****İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı****Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Haziran 2000****Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Şeyda Ülsever**

Yaygın olarak kullanılan birkaç bin kelimenin dışında imla ve kelime bilgisinin en verimli şekilde, okuma yoluyla rastlantısal olarak geliştiği, hem birinci dilde, hem de yabancı dilde yapılan çalışmalar sonucunda belirlenmiştir. Metin okuma yoluyla kelime öğrenimini olumlu ya da olumsuz yönde etkileyen pek çok faktör vardır. Rastlantısal kelime öğrenimine yardımcı olmanın yollarından birisi, okuma metinlerinin yeniden yapılandırılmasıdır. Metinde geçen bilinmeyen kelimelerin sözlükçe oluşturularak verilmesi ise okuma metinlerini yeniden yapılandırmanın bir yoludur. Bu çalışma; okuma metinlerini yeniden yapılandırmanın, rastlantısal kelime öğrenimine etkisini araştırmak amacı ile yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmada, ana dilde verilen sözlükçenin mi yoksa yabancı dilde verilen sözlükçenin mi rastlantısal kelime öğrenimi için daha faydalı olduğu konusuna odaklanmış ve aynı zamanda öğrencilerin yeniden yapılandırılmamış orijinal metinleri okuyarak rastlantısal olarak kelime öğrenip öğrenemedikleri de araştırılmıştır.

Bu çalışmaya, katılan 90 öğrenci üç gruba ayrılmış ve turizmde reklam ile ilgili bir metin; İngilizce'den İngilizce'ye sözlükçe verilerek, İngilizce'den Türkçe'ye sözlükçe verilerek, ve sözlükçe verilmeden her gruba farklı koşullar altında okutulmuştur. Metin okumanın hemen ardından ve üç hafta sonra üç gruptaki öğrencilerin tümüne de hedef olarak belirlenen 16 kelime ile ilgili hatırlama ve tanıma testleri verilmiştir.

Çalışmanın sonuçları, metinde geçen bilinmeyen kelimelerin sözlükçe oluşturularak verilmesinin, metin okuma yoluyla kelime öğrenimi için büyük ölçüde faydalı olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, İngilizce'den Türkçe'ye hazırlanan sözlükçe'nin, İngilizce'den İngilizce'ye sözlükçeye kıyasla kelime öğrenimi konusunda daha etkili olduğu saptanmıştır. Bununla birlikte, tekrar edilmediği takdirde öğrenilen kelimelerin büyük bir bölümünün, zaman içerisinde unutulduğu gözlemlenmiştir.



ABSTRACT

Research on both first language and foreign language verified that, except for the first few thousand words in common use, competence in spelling and vocabulary is most efficiently attained incidentally through extensive reading. However there are several factors that interact to promote and discourage word learning from written texts. Text modification is one possible way of promoting incidental vocabulary learning and glossing unknown words is a specific way of text modification. The present study was undertaken to extend the effect of text modification on incidental vocabulary learning. The focus of this study was on what type of vocabulary gloss is more beneficial for incidental vocabulary learning; monolingual (English – English) or bilingual (English-Turkish) glosses. It was also intended to provide evidence on whether students can learn vocabulary incidentally through reading unmodified authentic text.

90 intermediate learners of English as a foreign language participated in the study. They read a text about tourist promotion under one of the three conditions: with L1(English- Turkish) glossary, with L2 (English – English) glossary and without glossary. After reading the text, all the students in three groups were tested on recall and recognition of sixteen target vocabulary items both immediately and after three weeks.

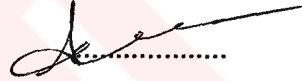
Based on the results of this study, it was suggested that glossing has an extremely positive effect on incidental vocabulary learning through reading. Moreover it was found that bilingual (English- Turkish) glossary was superior to monolingual (English – English) glossary condition in promoting vocabulary learning. However it was proposed that students forget the words over time to a great extend if this learning is not reinforced.

JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

Esen YÜCEL SPAHİU'nun "The Influence Of Bilingual (English-Turkish) And Monolingual (English-English) Glosses on Incidental Vocabulary Learning Through Reading (İngilizce'den Türkçe'ye ve İngilizce'den İngilizce'ye Sözlükçelerin Okuma Sürecinde Rastlantısal Kelime Öğrenimindeki Etkisi" başlıklı tezi 3 Temmuz 2000 tarihinde, aşağıdaki jüri tarafından Lisansüstü Eğitim Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliğinin ilgili maddeleri uyarınca, **İngiliz Dili Eğitimi** Anabilim Dalında, yüksek lisans tezi olarak değerlendirilerek kabul edilmiştir.

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SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

L1 : Native language (It has been used to indicate Turkish in this study.)

L2 : It has been used to refer to English as a foreign language.

L1 Glossary: Bilingual glossary (English- Turkish).

L2 Glossary : Monolingual glossary (English- English).



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1. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Vocabulary has a fundamental role in the comprehension and production of a foreign language. Adequate amount of vocabulary is viewed as necessary for reading comprehension, understanding the grammatical structures of a language, and for writing quality. (Richards, 1976; Alexander, 1984; Crow and Qigley 1985). According to Judd (1978), one major aspect of fluency in a language is the control over the vocabulary. Research on both first language and foreign language verified that, vocabulary is most efficiently learned incidentally through reading, when learners attempt to guess the meaning of unknown words in written contexts. (Nagy et al, 1987; Krashen, 1989; Hulstijn 1992). However it is also evident from research that there are crucial factors which promote or discourage incidental vocabulary learning through reading such as the nature of the text, features of given words, learners' attention. Incidental vocabulary learning by resorting contextual clues is not always efficient due to these factors (Hulstijn et al, 1996; Paribaht and Wesche 1999). Therefore, several researchers investigated ways to promote incidental vocabulary learning (Schatz & Baldwin, 1986; Yano, Long & Rose, 1994). Text modification is one of the ways which promotes incidental vocabulary learning. Use of vocabulary glosses, which is the focus of this study is one possible way of modifying foreign language reading text. This study investigates the effects of L1 and L2 glosses on vocabulary learning. In this chapter firstly, historical background of vocabulary in language teaching continuum will be presented and the terms "input processing", "incidental vocabulary learning" and "input modification" will be explained in detail to have a better understanding of the idea behind this study.

1.1. Vocabulary Learning

It would be impossible to convey messages without words. Wallace (1982: 9) notes that no matter how good a language learner is at grammar, he might still have difficulty in communicating; however, he will be able to communicate to a certain extent provided that he knows the necessary vocabulary. Laufer (1998) supports the idea that vocabulary size is a good predictor of reading comprehension, writing quality and fluency in speech. She argues that learners themselves associate progress in language learning with an increase in the number of words they know.

Richards (1976) reports that native speakers of a language have acquired the rules of syntax at the age of 2 to 12, with only little development in adult life, whereas those same speakers will continue to expand their vocabulary through reading, occupation and other activities during their lifetimes and will never master all the lexical items in their native language. Drawing an implication from this fact, he proposes that “beyond the elementary levels of instruction, a major feature of a second language program should be a component of massive vocabulary expansion ... it is clear that a learner who is constantly adding to his vocabulary knowledge is better prepared both for productive and receptive language skills” (Richards, 1976: 84). Knight (1994) suggests that vocabulary is often considered a priority by the majority of students studying foreign languages and teachers as well.

1.1.1. Historical Background of Vocabulary in Language Teaching Continuum

Vocabulary learning has been the neglected aspect of language learning for many years due to the trends in linguistic theory. Allen (1983) notes that during the period between 1940 and 1970s, some books were advising teachers not to teach many words before their students had mastered the grammar and the sound system of the language and linguists argued that vocabulary was the easiest aspect of a second language to learn and that it hardly required formal attention in the classroom. The statement below describes the attitudes held in 1960s:

“In learning a second language, you will find that vocabulary is comparatively easy, in spite of the fact that it is vocabulary that students fear most. The harder part is mastering new structures in both content and expression”

(Gleason, 1961 cited in Carter, 1987;145)

The leading language teaching methodology was the Grammar Translation Method from the 1840s to the 1940s. This method involved great deal of vocabulary teaching and learning. Vocabulary selection was based on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study , and memorisation. However, the learners of the Grammar Translation method were unable to understand or produce natural conversational speech. Toward the mid- nineteenth century, opposition to the Grammar Translation Method increased in several European countries and the Reform Movement started (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Reformers turned their attention to natural learning principles such as seen in first language acquisition. This led to what have been termed *natural methods* and ultimately led to the development of the Direct Method. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas and vocabulary is emphasised over grammar in the Direct Method (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Larsen-Freeman, 1986). In 1920s Palmer, Hornby and other British linguists developed the basis for a principled approach to methodology in language teaching and one of the first aspects of method design to receive attention was the role of vocabulary. In the 1920s and 1930s EFL lexicography flourished and several vocabulary investigations were undertaken.. The stimulus for that research came from two quarters. First, some of the language specialists advocated that vocabulary was one of the most important aspects of foreign language learning. A second influence was the great emphasis on reading skills in some countries (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Foreign language specialists in the United States concluded that trying to teach conversation skills was impractical in view of the restricted time available for foreign language teaching in schools, the limited skills of teachers, and the perceived irrelevance of conversation skills in a foreign language for the average American college student and started a study in 1923. This study-published as the Coleman report- recommends the emphasis on reading and sees vocabulary as an essential component of reading proficiency (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). In this period, much research was undertaken to determine the most useful words to be taught at

different stages of the learning process. Frequency counts showed that a core of 2000 or so words occurred frequently in written texts would assist in reading in a foreign language. Michael West and other specialists prepared reference works that for many years played an important role in determining the lexical content of teaching materials (Seal, 1991). The Audio Lingual Method was developed in the United States During World War II., and it was dominant teaching methodology until the 1970s. It elevated grammar but suppressed vocabulary. It had an immediate and devastating effect on further development in vocabulary teaching and research, for it was an established tenet of audiolingualism that vocabulary learning should be kept to a minimum. The argument was that the major objective of language teaching should be for students to acquire the structural patterns and students would learn vocabulary afterward (Larsen- Freeman, 1986; Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Seal,1991). Audiolingual textbooks used a concentric circle approach for selecting and limiting vocabulary that still appears in many ESL and EFL textbooks. The lexical items were selected according to frequency criterion and an expanding scope for the learners. The lessons began with vocabulary of the classroom, then school, home, community, and work. Later vocabulary about the state and the nation was included in the list. Finally the scope became communication around the world. Since contrastive analysis was important during this era, vocabulary selection also showed contrasts. Many false cognates were highlighted for extra practice (Hatch & Brown 1995: 405-406)

Twadell (1973, cited in Judd 1978: 72) explains the secondary status of vocabulary as “relegated in favour of syntax “. Learning new words or phrases is often viewed as a hindrance to master basic grammatical patterns because it was thought that such study distracts the learner from observing and using the syntactic patterns of the language. Judd (1978) takes attention to another point that vocabulary knowledge is not taught as a skill in itself, rather it is left to be taught indirectly as a part of reading or listening comprehension.

The reasons for neglecting vocabulary were also summarised by Allen (1983; 1-4). According to Allen, vocabulary was already being given too much time in language classrooms during the years before 1940s and some people had unfortunately believed that they could master the language by learning a large number of words and their meanings in their own language. Because of this reason teacher trainers believed that

there should be more emphasis on grammar than vocabulary. The second reason is that specialists in methodology feared that students would make mistakes if they learned too many words without learning basic grammar. The third reason is that some other specialists in methodology noticed that vocabulary learning is not a simple matter and it is impossible to give the students full and accurate meanings in classroom. So they gave the impression that vocabulary can be learned only through experience and a teacher might better devote most of the class time for teaching grammatical structures with only a few vocabulary.

Meara (1982), contrasted the neglect of L2 vocabulary acquisition by applied linguists with the importance given by students:

“This neglect is all the more striking in that learners themselves readily admit that they experience considerable difficulty with vocabulary, and once they have got over the initial stages of acquiring their second language, most learners identify the acquisition of vocabulary as their greatest source of problems.”

(Meara, 1982 cited in Lawson and Hogben, 1996: 102)

Since the late 1970s increasingly more attention has been paid for vocabulary learning and teaching. This has come about as a result of the development of communicative approaches to language teaching that emphasize the use of language rather than formal study of it (Seal, 1991; Nunan, 1995). Following a period of neglect of lexicon, there is a big increase in the number of books, collections of papers and research, concerning vocabulary learning and teaching recently (see for example, Mc Carthy, 1990; Nation, 1990; Arnaud & Bejoint, 1992; Harley, 1996; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999).

Although there is a growing attention in the literature on second language pedagogy concerning the particular importance of vocabulary learning and teaching today, it is still needed to describe techniques to facilitate vocabulary learning.

1.1.2. Input Processing and Vocabulary Learning

In a review of 144 studies Krashen (1989) argued that competence in spelling and vocabulary is most efficiently attained by comprehensible input in the form of reading. This claim originates in Krashen’s (1985) input hypothesis which assumes that learners

acquire language when they are exposed to comprehensible input that contains linguistic forms slightly in advance of their current interlanguage system. According to input hypothesis while you are acquiring, you don't know you are acquiring; your conscious focus is on the message, not on the form. Thus, the acquisition process is identical to what has been termed "incidental learning". Paribaht and Wesche (1999: 198) suggest that when learners attend to unfamiliar words or word features in context, the process may be understood in terms of "input processing". The terms *input*, *intake* and *output* should be examined for a better understanding of input processing. *Input* is defined as the potentially processible data which are available, by chance or by design, to the language learner (Smith 1993 cited in Cantürk 1998:18). EFL students may internalize English vocabulary through exposure to written and spoken English. Yet mere exposure to English input may not necessarily facilitate vocabulary acquisition. This is because not all input leads to language development. *Intake* is what is processed by the learner; it is not simply what is available for processing. Just presenting a certain linguistic form to a learner does not necessarily qualify it for the status of *intake* (Corder 1967, cited in Scarcella & Oxford, 1992: 36), and the language produced by the learner is defined as *output* by Richards et al (1992: 182).

Gass (cited in Paribaht and Wesche 1999), distinguishes five major stages between the learner's initial encounter with written L2 input and the incorporation of new knowledge based on the input –be it accurate or misguided- into the learner's target language system. These stages are:

- 1) apperceived input, or some level of noticing of novel language data by the learner and its association with prior knowledge;
- 2) comprehended input, or assignment of meaning to the incoming language data;
- 3) intake, or assimilation of new linguistic information, limited by the level of analysis during initial comprehension;
- 4) integration of part or all of the intake into the learner's internalised second language (rule) system; and
- 5) output or active use of the new knowledge by the learner, which may aid conversion of further comprehended input to intake (Gass 1988, cited in Paribaht and Wesche, 1999: 198).

1.1.3. Incidental Vocabulary Learning While Reading

Discussions on vocabulary learning are often divided between *intentional learning* and *incidental learning*. *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* defines the word *incidental* as “occurring as a fortuitous or minor concomitant” (Gass, 1999:320). Hatch and Brown (1995: 368) define *intentional learning* as being designed, planned for, or intended by teacher or student and *incidental learning* as the type of learning that is a by-product of doing or learning something else.

Vocabulary acquisition is a complex process. It involves discovering its frequency and associations between that word and other words, its spoken form, its situational and functional uses, its syntactic and collocational behaviour, its underlying forms and derivations, its semantic features and many of the different meanings associated with it (Richards, 1976; Carter, 1987; Nation, 1990; Taylor, 1990). How do language learners gradually acquire all this information? Hulstijn et al (1996: 327) state that words in large quantities cannot be learned only by means of intentional word-learning activities, that is by committing word forms to memory along with their meanings and they claim that many words must have been “picked up” during listening and reading activities while listener’s or reader’s goal was to comprehend the meaning rather than to learn new words. And this “picking up” is referred to as *incidental learning* because it is a by product, not the target, of the main cognitive activity, reading or listening (Hulstijn et al 1996; Huckin & Coady, 1999).

Wode (1999: 244) states that in general, language is learned as a by- product of a given individual’s socialisation process. That is, children acquire the language(s) of their environment as part of learning to cognize the world around them. The socialisation is an ongoing process because even as adults, people have to adapt continuously to changes in their environment. This adaptation includes language acquisition and development regardless of whether or not the language is an L1, L2 or reacquisition, or whether a language is acquired in a natural context or in a classroom and he argued that the acquisition of a language is *incidental* in this sense because the language is not the primary object of activity or process.

Research on both first language and foreign language verified that, except for the first few thousand words in common use, competence in spelling and vocabulary is most

efficiently attained incidentally through extensive reading, with the learner guessing the meaning of unknown words. It has been found by L1 vocabulary experts that children's vocabulary increase rapidly but only a small portion could be learned by means of intentional word learning activities. Nagy et al (1987), indicated that vocabulary teaching programs in the first language (in their case , English) did not teach more than a few hundred words per year and they claim that university students, in the United States know at least 200.000 words most of which should be learned incidentally through listening and reading. Shu et al.(1995) also verified that both Chinese and American children are able to learn word meanings incidentally during normal reading.

In the literature on foreign or L2 research and instruction, it is also an accepted principle that incidental vocabulary learning is possible through reading (Nation, 1990; Brown, 1994; Knight, 1994; Hulstijn et al, 1996; Watanabe 1997).

The advantages of incidental vocabulary learning over direct instruction are summarised by Huckin and Coady (1999:182) as follows:

- 1- Since it is contextualized, learner can get a richer sense of a word use and meaning than can be provided in traditional paired- associate exercise.
- 2- It is pedagogically efficient in that it enables two activities- vocabulary acquisition and reading to occur at the same time .
- 3- It is more individualised and learner based.

Although vocabulary can be acquired incidentally while reading, and incidental vocabulary learning by resorting contextual clues is widely perceived by the teaching profession as desirable, it is not always efficient (Knith, 1994; Harley, Howard and Roberge, 1996; Duquette and Painchaud, 1996). First of all, there is a relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading ability. A good learner can guess the meanings of unknown words in a text but must also know most of the words in the text to be able to understand it well enough to this. The estimates of vocabulary knowledge needed for reading comprehension, range from a minimal threshold of the 3,000 most frequent words (95 % of the words in an ordinary text) (Nation ,1990 and Lauffer ,1992) to 10,000 word families for advanced academic texts (Hazenbergh & Hulstijn, 1996 cited in Huckin & Coady, 1999).

Hulstijn et al (1996: 327-328) determined the reasons why readers fail to learn the meanings of unknown words encountered in reading texts:

- 1- Sometimes learners fail to notice the presence of new words or they believe that they know a word although they do not.
- 2- Sometimes learners notice the presence of new words but they prefer to ignore them.
- 3- Learners may only pay attention to the meaning and ignore the unfamiliar word form however the connection between the word's form and meaning is important for learning to take place.
- 4- Context seldom provide enough information to make a correct guess possible and readers usually make wrong inferences and hence learn the words incorrectly.
- 5- Even when readers have dictionary available during reading, they do not look up all unknown words especially when they are reading long texts.
- 6- Usually a single encounter with a new word is not enough for learning to take place.

Another reason is stated by Harley et al(1996: 281) that sometimes contextual clues are so obvious that readers do not promote enough attention to a given word.

Paribaht and Wesche (1999) briefly characterise the factors that interact to promote and discourage word learning from written texts. These factors are the nature of texts, features of given words, individual learner differences, and the mental tasks learner's do with the words. They claim that these factors may be understood in terms of input processing, and some bear directly on lexical inferencing. Therefore several researchers have investigated ways to promote incidental vocabulary learning through reading both in L1 (Herman et al, 1987; Schatz and Baldwin 1986) and L2 (Hulstijn, 1992; Knight, 1994; Hulstijn et al 1996). One of the factors that favourably affect incidental vocabulary learning is the use of dictionary. However dictionary use interrupts reading process and causes a decrease in reading speed (Lupescu & Day, 1993). In addition, students usually fail to find the appropriate meaning in the dictionary from the list of all possible definitions (Bensoussan (1983). Readers with high verbal ability and high L2 proficiency appear to pick up more words incidentally than readers with low verbal ability (Knith, 1994). Zuckerhick (1996: 91) suggests that the more exposure an EFL reader has to a word, the greater the probability that it will be learned. It is also possible improving learner's success at word learning through strategy training (Fraser, 1999). Another factor which promotes incidental vocabulary learning is, text modification.

1.1.4. Modification of Textual Input

Almost all theories of L2 acquisition acknowledge the need for “input” (Ellis, 1994:243). However, the proponents of the interactionist view are more concerned with the question of how input is made comprehensible as the necessary mechanism for comprehension to take place (Long, 1985, cited in Lightbown and Spada, 1997:2). Thus “input modification” has been an important subject in second and foreign language research. The motivation behind this has been the assumption that input must be comprehensible to become intake. Long (1985, cited in Pica, 1994: 61) has argued that input is made comprehensible through modified and negotiated interaction in which learners seek clarification, confirmation, and repetition of L2 utterances they do not understand. Research by Long (1985) and others has shown that if such adjustments are made a priori to text or lecture input, they aid the learner’s comprehension. Of particular interest to researchers is the nature of the input modifications that are most effective in promoting comprehension in reading (Davis, 1989; Davis and Hager, 1997; Yano, Long & Ross; 1994; Lomicka, 1998) and listening (Ellis, Tanaka & Yamazaki, 1994).

In the area of vocabulary learning, one of the possible ways of dealing with the problems associated with incidental vocabulary learning is modification of the textual input. For instance, Jacobs (1991:8) states that, reading texts can be modified syntactically, lexically and stylistically or they can be re-written especially for L2 learners.

Ellis (1994:254- 256) puts forward three kinds of input modifications: (1) *simplification*, (2) *regularisation* and (3) *elaboration*. He states that in the case of syntactic and lexical modifications, simplification is achieved both avoiding difficult items in the target language and also by reducing them. Regularisation is the selection of the basic or explicit forms; the avoidance of forms associated with formal style and the avoidance of idiomatic expressions and the use of lexical items with a wide coverage (for example, ‘bird’ instead of ‘sparrow’). Elaboration is lengthening the sentences and offering synonyms to make the meaning clear.

Nation (1990: 182-186), divides simplification into two types: (1) *Simplification of the language* and (2) *simplification of the use*. According to him, regularisation,

explicitness, removal of low frequency words and repetition are included in the simplification of the language. Simplification of the usage (vocabulary and grammar), which creates an alternative version of the original text, is called *adaptation* and simplification of use, which changes the nature of the whole text by aiming it at a different audience, by adding interpretation, explanation, and summary, and providing diagrams and illustrations is called *re-creation* by Mountford (1976, cited in Nation, 1990: 185). However, simplified and elaborated texts have been criticised on some grounds. Chaudron (1983, cited in Ellis 1994:256) suggests that although elaboration aims to make the message more 'cognitively simple' they can result in too much redundant and confusing information. The criticisms for simplified texts are offered by Nation (1990) and Jacobs (1991) as the following: First; the changes in vocabulary and the sentence structure might bring the text within the learner's language but it may make it less readable, second; learners might feel that the activity is irrelevant to their needs, third; the message of the simplified text may become less clear because simplifier's interpretation may be different from the original writer's intention; fourth, main points of information are spread evenly through the simplified text and this can result in the development of faulty reading strategies and expectations and finally some educators fear that simplified texts present an unrealistic view of the target language and thus, prevent learners from developing the proficiency and skills they will need to understand authentic texts. Although there are large numbers of simplified versions of authentic text available, Vincent (1986, cited in Ellis, 1994: 257) points out that the input is often considered 'non authentic' in simplified texts.

The authenticity idea develops from a communicative orientation to language teaching. Widdowson (1996: 67) proposes that if the teachers are going to teach real English as it functions in contextually appropriate ways, rather than a collection of linguistic forms in artificial classroom situations, then they need to refer to the language that how native speakers put it to communicative use. Authentic language is described as the language that is actually used in real communication situations, as opposed to language that is artificially made up for purposes other than communication by Xiaoju (1990: 62). She advises to teachers that if the teachers give their students a chance, they will find a surprising potential in them to cope with authentic language. Swaffar (1985: 17) defines an authentic text as "whose primary intend is to communicate meaning." In

other words, such a text is written by native speakers intended for other native speakers or for a language learner group. Many scholars today argue that authentic materials give students a taste of real language in use and provide them with valid linguistic data for their unconscious acquisition processes to work on and if students are given only nonauthentic materials, they will find it hard to understand genuine discourse when they are exposed to (Swan, 1990:95). On the other hand, others claim that students cannot be left to deal with the texts too far beyond their proficiency level.(Malley, 1990; Nation,1990). Nation (1990), suggests that the arguments against simplified materials are the arguments against their quality indeed and he says that simplification of use, which includes and controls simplification of usage , tries to bring the text within the learner's language ability without losing its authenticity.

Glossing is another way of text modification which allows the use of authentic texts in L2 instruction (see 2.2. for the detailed information about glossing).

1.2. Statement of the Topic and the Problem

Vocabulary is crucial for the students in Anadolu University, The College of Tourism and Hotel Management. These students are trained to work in tourist industry and they have compulsory intensive English classes during four years. For many of these students, tourism specific magazines and books written in English constitutes the bulk of their reading. One of the aims of reading instruction is to develop independent readers and to help the students learn more vocabulary. Using contextual clues, benefiting from the word knowledge and using a dictionary while reading are the instruments for reading comprehension- especially for the comprehension of the new vocabulary. However, learners do not use contextual clues and dictionaries successfully when they meet unknown words in their reading materials. Besides, contextual clues do not work as often as most educators believe. Reliance on context clues may cause the students to ignore the unknown words or to infer the wrong meanings (Hulstijn et al, 1996). On the other hand, using a dictionary might not always be helpful since the task of finding the meaning of a word in a dictionary is a complex process. If a student is not able to find the appropriate meaning in the dictionary from among all the possible

definitions, it may be a misleading or confusing task (Bensoussan, 1983). Despite this, using a dictionary while reading, causes a decrease in reading speed (Luppescu & Day, 1993) and L2 learners, when reading a fictional or nonfictional text of more than one page in order to understand the main idea, seldom use a dictionary (Knight, 1994; Hulstijn, 1996).

Moreover researchers have shown the importance of word knowledge on reading comprehension (Laufer, 1998). Even so much as one unknown word in a passage can cause a sentence or even an entire text to be incomprehensible (Wittrock et al, 1975, cited in Luppescu & Day, 1993).

One possible way of dealing with the problems stated above is text modification. This study in general aims to investigate the effect of text modification on vocabulary learning. The use of vocabulary glosses may also be considered as one of the ways of text modification which will effect the learning of vocabulary incidentally. The focus of this study was on what type of vocabulary gloss is more beneficial for incidental vocabulary learning; monolingual (English – English) glosses or bilingual (English-Turkish) glosses?

1.3. Purpose and Scope

Since vocabulary is an essential part of a language and for most learning purposes, it needs to be taught for comprehension and for production. Besides this fact, vocabulary learning is stressed in Anadolu University, the College of Tourism and Hotel Management because of its importance in the students' future jobs. All of the instructors in this college are required to teach a considerable number of ESP (English For Specific Purposes) vocabulary items which the students should know to work in the tourist industry.

Although there is a growing attention to vocabulary learning and teaching in the literature on second and foreign language acquisition pedagogy, few studies have specifically addressed vocabulary glosses. The purpose of this study is to compare the amount of vocabulary learning that takes place when students are given monolingual (English – English) glosses and when they are given bilingual (English- Turkish)

glosses while reading. The diagnosis of a more effective glossing way would help to improve the process of vocabulary learning and it would be valuable for teachers as well.

This study also aims to provide evidence on whether students can learn vocabulary incidentally through reading unmodified authentic texts. There were three groups involved in the study: 1) L2 (English – English) glossary group, 2) L1 (English-Turkish) glossary group and 3) Contextual guessing group to see how much the students could learn the target vocabulary in the unmodified text. In order to see the differences between these three groups and within the groups the subjects were given immediate and delayed recall and recognition tests concerning the target vocabulary. Multiple choice recognition tests demanded the ability only to recognise the formal features of target vocabulary whereas recall tests were expected to be more sensitive measure of vocabulary learning and demanded to provide the English equivalent or definition or Turkish translation of each target word (see chapter 3).

1.4. Research Questions

Based on the purpose of the study, the following specific research questions will be asked:

1. Is there a difference among monolingual (L2) glossary group, bilingual (L1) glossary group and contextual guessing group in terms of
 - a) immediate recall of vocabulary ?
 - b) delayed recall of vocabulary?
2. Is there a difference among monolingual (L2) glossary group, bilingual (L1) glossary group and contextual guessing group in terms of
 - a) immediate recognition of vocabulary ?
 - b) delayed recognition of vocabulary ?
3. Is there a difference between immediate and delayed recall of vocabulary within L2 glossary group?
4. Is there a difference between immediate and delayed recall of vocabulary within L1 glossary group?

5. Is there a difference between immediate and delayed recall of vocabulary within contextual guessing group?
6. Is there a difference between immediate and delayed recognition of vocabulary within L2 glossary group?
7. Is there a difference between immediate and delayed recognition of vocabulary within L1 glossary group?
8. Is there a difference between immediate and delayed recognition of vocabulary within contextual guessing group?

1.5. Limitations of the Study

1. Vocabulary recall and recognition tests were prepared by the researcher and the validity of the tests was checked by the supervisor and other two English instructors who work at Anadolu University, The College of Tourism and Hotel Management with the researcher.

2. The pilot study had methodological shortcomings. The immediate and delayed vocabulary recall and recognition tests should have been given to a similar group as pilot tests prior to the study but a similar group couldn't be found in The College of Tourism and Hotel Management since nearly all the intermediate proficiency level students were involved in the research. It was impossible to find the opportunity to give a pilot test to another group of intermediate students before the research. Consequently, only six intermediate proficiency level students in The College of Tourism and Hotel Management (who were eliminated from the study since they were not the native speakers of Turkish), were given a pilot test and these same students also checked the readability of the text. In summary, it was not possible to estimate the reliability of the immediate and delayed tests which is necessary to consider the tests "consistent" when administered under similar conditions" before the actual research (Hatch & Farhady, 1981 p.244). However, in the pilot study, similar results were obtained as those in the main study.

3. This study investigated only gloss language; however, there are other issues in the use of glossing which may effect incidental vocabulary learning such as positioning the

gloss and marking the glossed items or there are many different types of glossing (see 2.2.2) which need to be investigated.

4. This study was limited to the students in Anadolu University- The College of Tourism and Hotel Management in 1998- 1999 academic year.

5. The teacher who instructed the subjects of the study (except five of the subjects- see 3.3.), at the same time conducted the research in this study. Consequently, there might be a “teacher/ researcher effect” on the results of the study.



2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter firstly, glossing will be dealt and historical background of glosses will be given. Secondly, the definitions and a taxonomy of vocabulary glosses will be presented. Thirdly, reasons for glossing and the choice of vocabulary items to gloss; positioning the gloss, marking the glossed items and gloss language will be presented under the heading of “Issues in the use of glossing”. What is a word? What are the differences between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge? What does it mean to know a word? These questions should be answered since the amount of vocabulary learning is investigated in this study. To find out the answers to these questions, fourthly, a review of the professional literature will be presented under the headings of “the definition of a word”, “receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge”, and “the definition of knowing a word”. Studies on incidental vocabulary learning and input modification and studies on glossing, which is the main focus of this study, will be summarised in the next parts. Finally the differences between gloss and dictionary use during reading will be explained and although they did not involve glossing two of the dictionary studies related with vocabulary learning will be mentioned.

2.2. Glossing- A Way Of Text Modification

Providing glosses of unusual words is one possible way of modifying textual input. Use of vocabulary glosses is a common practice in both L1 and L2 materials. Nation (1990: 134) defines glosses as short definitions somewhere near the text. Pak (1986, cited in Lomicka, 1998), refers to them as explanations of the meanings of words. Textbook writers maintain that glosses are necessary for fluent reading of a foreign language text

(Davis, 1989). Although the main purpose of glosses is to aid comprehension (Jacobs, 1991; Davis & Lyman- Hager 1997), glosses are also used to promote incidental vocabulary learning (Holley & King, 1971, cited in Nation, 1990; Jacobs et al, 1994; Hulstijn et al, 1996; Chun & Plass, 1996, Watanabe, 1997).

2.2.1. The History of Glossing

The use of glosses dates back the Middle Ages. The earliest word reference books for English- speaking people were bilingual glossaries that provided English equivalents for Latin or French words. In the Middle Ages, as early as the eighth century, difficult words in manuscripts were sometimes glossed, just as current editions of Shakespeare annotate obsolete words for the modern students, with easier Latin words or with the old English (Anglo- Saxon) equivalent (Landau, 1989: 37). Genette (1987, cited in Davis, 1989) notes that during this time, the gloss was occupying much more space than the text itself. The practice continued through the sixteenth century when marginal glosses explaining specific segments of a passage begun to appear.

According to Hüllen (1989, cited in Roby, 1999), glosses were once of three types: synonyms, encyclopaedic comments, and grammatical notes. He states that early glosses, interlinear or marginal scribbles were learner- generated. Medieval students struggling with a foreign text (usually Latin) produced them as they work along. Glosses as teaching aids came later, followed by their eventual codification into word lists (glossaries) and then dictionaries. Landau (1989) states that the word “dictionary” was not applied to anything we would recognise as a dictionary until the sixteenth century although the word was used as early as 1225 for a list of Latin words. As Landau (ibid) reported, schoolmasters sometimes collected the glosses and listed them together; the resulting collection, called a *glossarium*, is today called a glossary. He also reported that most of the early lexicographers were schoolmasters who compiled glossaries or dictionaries as teaching aids for their students, since there was little else available.

Glosses from eleven college French readers published from 1942 until 1988 for use by speakers of English were examined by Davis (1989) and determined that very

little had changed during that period in terms of gloss format. He reported that, notes are positioned at the bottom or side of the page, vocabulary gloss is in one place on the page while other information is glossed in other position. The notes were both L1 and L2 in six of the sampled readers. Four of them use only L1 While one uses only L2. When both L1 and L2 are used, the choice of language appears determined by the accessibility of another French expression thought to be known by the readers at this level. The traditional method for glossing is to provide a definition or explanation of the word either in the L2 or in the native language (L1) of the readers or both languages are used. With the developments in technology, computerised glosses that another possibility for glossing are started to be used in foreign language texts and many researchers investigated the effects of computerised glosses on incidental learning of vocabulary and reading comprehension (Hulstijn, 1993; Chun& Plass, 1996; Davis & Lyman Hager, 1997; Lomicka, 1998).

There are different definitions and usages of glosses in the literature. The ones found in the literature will be listed and described below.

2.2.2. The Definitions and a Taxonomy of Vocabulary Glosses

Genette (1987, cited in Davis, 1989:41) groups glosses including other elements such as the title, preface, and illustrations under the rubric “paratext”. The function of the paratext is to facilitate the reception and consumption of the actual text.

Widdowson (1978, cited in Mc Carthy, 1990:110) makes a distinction between two types of assistance the learner might be given to help with difficult vocabulary, termed: A. *Priming glossaries* and B. *Prompting glossaries*. He proposed that priming glossaries precede a reading passage and serve as advanced organisers while prompting glossaries referred during reading. Widdowson (ibid) makes a further distinction: *signification glosses* give the basic definition of a word whereas *value glosses* give the meaning of a word in its particular context. Prompting glossaries stress value rather than signification since they tend to give assistance with difficult words within the context of longer stretches of the text in question, but priming glossaries can be of either type.

According to their functions, Roby (1999) groups the glosses under two categories: A. *Procedural* B. *Declarative*. He makes this distinction under the light of cognitive psychology between procedural (skill) knowledge and declarative (factual knowledge).

In Steward and Cross's taxonomy (1991, cited in Roby, 1999:95), *elaboration glosses* clarify the texts with statements, questions or both while *bridging glosses* combined a statement and acted as a bridge between prior learning and new information. On the other hand *key point* and *vocabulary glosses* highlights important statements or give brief definitions of words. Roby (1999) proposes that *bridging* and *elaboration* glosses get readers to take an active stance which leads to comprehension monitoring, a metacognitive behaviour and he terms them *metacognitive glosses* since they promote the reader's monitoring of the process. *Key point* glosses are termed *highlighting glosses* by Roby (1999:95).

Blohm (1982, cited in Roby 1999:95) used the term *gloss paraphrase* as a type of reader activated superimposed intratext notation that replaces abstractly –composed text content with concrete referents to promote reader's cognition. Blohm's gloss paraphrases renamed by Roby as *clarifying glosses*. Jacobs (1991: 15) also cites Blohm (1987) who categorises glossing as a look up aid, in the context of research on metacognition. According to him referring to glosses is a fix-up activity conducted by readers when their comprehension monitoring detects a lack of understanding.

Glosses can also be characterised by their focus. Roby (ibid) suggests that some glosses point the reader back to the text, whereas others bring new information to it. Glosses can be written in the reader's first language (L1), the targeted language (L2), in both first and targeted language or in a third language (L3). Although the last possibility is rare, Roby cites an example from his situation. He notes that some German textbooks published in the US. are used at Dokko university in Japan and their glosses are written in English. Finally, glosses can be classified according to their form. Computerised glosses can be in the form of video, pictures (Chun& Plass, 1996) or sound (Davis & Lyman- Hager 1997). Icons, a type of picture have also been used as glosses. Roby (1999:95) cites the Macintosh Bible put images of lit matches in he margins next to its "hot tips".

Table 2.1
Taxonomy of Vocabulary Glosses

I. Gloss Authorship	II. Gloss Presentation	III. Gloss Function	IV. Gloss Focus	V. Gloss Language	VI. Gloss Form
A. Learners B. Professionals 1. Instructors 2. Materials Developers	A. Priming Glossaries B. Prompting Glossaries	A. Procedural 1. Metacognitive 2. Highlighting 3. Clarifying B. Declarative 1. Encyclopaedic 2. Linguistic a) Lexical i. Signification ii. Value b) Syntactical	A. Textual B. Extratextual	A. L1 B. L2 C. L3	A. Verbal B. Visual 1. Image 2. Icon 3. Video a) With Sound b) Without Sound c) Audio Only

Roby (1999: 96)

More examples of a gloss by another name are cited in Roby (1999:95): Reading strategy suggestions and interspersed questions are called glosses by Otto & White (1992) whereas Cross (1991) claim that glosses should not be confused with embedded or inserted questions. Adjunct aids, metanotes, metatext, and paratext are the other names used by different scholars. Oxford (1995, cited in Roby 1999:95) uses many different terms under the rubric of assistance: “error correction... a useful learning strategy... a full explanation... a schematic/ partial explanation... a leading question... a pictorial representation of a verbal expression... a co-operative learning activity... and an encouraging word at just the right moment.

2.2.3. Issues In The Use Of Glosses

Several issues arise in the use of vocabulary glosses. The reasons of glossing, deciding which vocabulary items to gloss, where the glosses should be situated, whether or not marking the glossed items and deciding which language to choose for glossing are the issues will be dealt below.

2.2.3.1. Reasons For Glossing And Choice Of Vocabulary Items To Gloss

Jacobs (1991) states that there are two major reasons of glossing. The most commonly mentioned is the desire to facilitate reading and comprehension processes (Davis, 1989; Jacobs, 1991; Davis & Lyman- Hager 1997), the second main reason for using vocabulary glosses is to promote incidental vocabulary learning (Jacobs et al, 1994; Hulstijn et al, 1996; Chun & Plass, 1996, Watanabe, 1997).(This is the function of glossing addressed in the present study). Of course, these reasons are complementary because, as many scholars believe, comprehensible input is a necessary prerequisite of language acquisition (Krashen, 1985; Ellis, 1994).

A third reason for using glosses is that students want glosses in the passages they are to read. Jacobs et al (1994), used a questionnaire data, and Davis & Lyman- Hager

(1997), recorded an interview on audiotape and they reported that students favour the use of glossing.

Nation (1990) and Jacobs (1991) present four advantages of glossing. First, glossing supplies readers with instant knowledge about the meaning of words which are important in the text but are not important in the language as a whole. Parry (cited in Jacobs 1991:4) suggests that vocabulary teaching requires a good deal of time and it is not economic to devote precious minutes on low frequency words whose chances of reoccurrence are only ten in a million.

A second advantage is that glossing allows the reader to read the text without too much interruption. It helps to limit continual dictionary consultation that may hinder and interrupt the L2 reading comprehension process and students don't need to call anyone to ask for help. Third, glosses give the learner independence from the teacher. Steward and Cross (1991, cited in Roby, 1999: 97) maintained that the purpose of glossing is to produce independent readers. Students are better able to read on their own with the help of glosses, and teachers have time to help students with aspects of reading instead of vocabulary. Fourth, glossing individualises greater attention to vocabulary. Each student will have problems with different vocabulary items and the students look at the definition only if they need to. If they already know the item, there is no need to refer to the glossary. Brutten (1981, cited in Jacobs, 1991: 14) argued that, learners can focus on the overall meaning of the text with the help of glosses, instead of getting stuck on unknown vocabulary items.

The use of glosses to promote vocabulary learning had been investigated by several researchers (Jacobs et al, 1994; Hulstijn et al, 1996; Chun & Plass, 1996; Watanabe, 1997). The difficulty and the problems of contextual guessing to determine the meanings of unknown words had been dealt with above (see 1.1.3). A number of recent L1 and L2 studies have demonstrated that relying upon context alone is sometimes useless or even misleading way to guess the meanings of unknown words. L1 researchers have concluded that contextual information in natural texts is often opaque or unreliable, so that it is difficult to make correct inferences (McKeown, 1985; Schatz & Baldwin, 1986; Herman et al, 1987; Hague, 1987). L2 researchers have also indicated the same problem (Mondria & De Boer, 1991; Prince, 1996; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999). Holley and King (1971, cited in Jacobs, 1991: 5) suggested that by

providing students with the correct meaning of unknown vocabulary, glosses help them avoid incorrect guesses which would result were they left only with context to help them. Thus, glossing promote more accurate understanding of vocabulary. Holley and King (1971, cited in Nation, 1990: 135) also indicated that glosses could help vocabulary learning in two ways: by immediately giving the correct meaning of unknown words so that the learner repeats it, or by giving the learner opportunity to repeat the form while students leave the text to look at the gloss of unknown vocabulary .

According to Twadell (1973, cited in Jacobs, 1991: 6) the majority of words in a language are low frequency and learners can not acquire them for long periods of time. Reading materials for beginning or intermediate level students require the use of glosses to be understood. Otherwise, they would have to be simplified and wouldn't be interesting and worth reading anymore. Thus, the emphasis on the use of authentic texts in L2 instruction (see 1.1.4.) is another reason for the use of glosses.

Deciding which vocabulary items to gloss is another issue to be dealt. Davis & Lyman- Hager (1997: 59) argue that definitions of words presented in glosses that, prepared by materials writers will be unfamiliar to foreign language learners at a designed instructional level. However, in a traditional gloss individual readers may find that, many unfamiliar words and expressions were not glossed, while many familiar words and expressions were .They suggest that using computerised gloss allow to provide much more extensive glossing than would be possible in a print format due to the vast storage capacity of the computer. Roby (1999), call this factor "gloss density" and he stresses the danger of overwhelming learners with the excessive glossing. Robby suggests that in the case of computerised gloss, decisions about what to gloss should be made by pedagogues, not programmers.

Brutten (1981, cited in Nation, 1990: 135) attempted to check whether teacher's choices of words to gloss in a particular text agreed with learner's choices. Although there was no perfect agreement between teachers and learners, she suggested that experienced ESL teachers can read a passage and determine the vocabulary items that likely unknown by second language students.

Jacobs (1991: 10) states that choosing words to gloss partly depends on the reason for glossing. If the main goal of glossing is to promote comprehension, then, at a minimum, the vocabulary the most salient to the general meaning of the text should be

glossed. If the main goal is to promote vocabulary learning, the frequency of a particular vocabulary item in a language might be a guide.

Jacobs (*ibid*) puts three ways of choosing what to gloss: using word frequency lists as a guide; reliance on the intuition of teachers or materials developers; and investigating the preferences of students.

2.2.3.2. Positioning The Gloss, Marking The Glossed Items And Gloss Language

Three of the other issues arise in glossing are: positioning the gloss, whether or not marking the glossed vocabulary items, and which language to choose for glossing. Holley and King (1971, cited in Nation, 1990: 135) hypothesised that by positioning the gloss at the bottom of the page, the learner will have a brief time for repetition of the form while his/her eye moved to the bottom of the page, at the same time the gloss would minimise erroneous guessing. To test this hypothesis, they experimented with three kinds of glosses: a) glosses in the margin b) glosses at the bottom of the page and c) glosses in an attached list. However they found no significant difference in vocabulary learning among the three types of glossing. Jacobs et al (1994), investigated students' preferences concerning the location of glosses. On the questionnaire, nearly all of their subjects reported that they preferred the glosses to be located in the margin.

Nation (1990: 134) advocates that learners should be encouraged to use glosses as a way of confirming guessing from context. For this reason he suggests that glosses should be positioned at the end of the text or in the back of the book.

Positioning the gloss is called "gloss presentation by Roby (1999: 99) In the case of computerised gloss, Roby proposes two possibilities to display the glosses: a) pop-up windows which are positioned; and b) to devote a part of the screen as a gloss space. He claims that in the case of pop-up windows, users can read the gloss and the glossed word's context together and these windows do not cover up the portion of the text in which a glossed word is occurred. If a part of the screen is devoted as a gloss space, all glosses can be positioned in the lower right corner in a box. Roby proposes that gloss

presentation is an important matter in an electronic text because, if the screens are not organised properly, this will impede the readers rather than help them.

Should the glossed items be marked or unmarked? According to Nation (1990), the vocabulary items which are glossed should be unmarked in the text, for the benefits of students. He proposes that learners would be encouraged to look at the definition when they do not need to if the glossed items are highlighted with special type or special superscripts. Consequently the readers lose their confidence in themselves about the vocabulary which would hinder their reading.

However, glossed words are usually highlighted in one of several ways. Pak (1986, cited in Jacobs, 1991: 11) maintains the ways of indicating glossed items as: italics, boldface, underlining, superscripts, numbers, asteriks, or circles. Roby (1999), suggests to use boldface type to indicate that certain words are glossed in an electronic text.

Glosses can be written in the reader's first language (L1), the targeted language (L2), in both first and targeted language or in a third language (L3). (see page 14 for the last possibility). However, in a computerised glossary, it is possible to provide a variety of annotations for vocabulary such as pictures, video and sound (Chun & Plass, 1996).

Jacobs et al (1994) produced evidence to suggest that "L2 educators should seek to maximise the percentage of L2 glosses" (p. 27). The results of the questionnaire in their study showed that more than half of their participants preferred L2 glosses if they could understand them but L1 glosses if they could not. However, Davis & Lyman-Hager's (1997) findings are inconsistent with Jacobs et al's. Davis & Lyman-Hager provided many types of information to their subjects in a computerised gloss: 1) L1 definitions of unknown words, 2) L2 definitions of unknown words, 3) pronunciation of unknown words by a native speaker, 4) brief grammatical explanations, 5) identification of pronoun antecedents or referent of a given word or expression, 6) cultural notes of unfamiliar cultural references and pictures. The analysis of their data indicated that the most frequently consulted information category was L1 definitions. Davis & Lyman-Hager suggested that "subjects felt the key factor in understanding the passage was accessing word meanings in their native language" (p. 62).

2.3. The Definition of a Word

A word is dead
When it is said,
Some say
I say it just
Begins to live
That day

Emily Dickinson, "A Word" (cited in Fromkin & Rodman, 1988:122)

A word is not easy to define. The concept of a 'word' ranges from a single sound as English *a* to an unlikely word such as *antidisestablishmentarianism*. Taylor & Taylor (1990: 146) suggest that the two smallest meaning – bearing linguistic units are the word and word part called morpheme. They linguistically define the word as "the union of particular meaning with a particular complex of sounds, capable of particular grammatical employment" (p.146). According to Crystal (1989) it is not easy to put the words at the boundary between morphology (the branch of grammar studies the structure of words) and syntax (the part of the grammar that concerns the structure of phrases and sentences).

Carter (1987: 69) summarises the main problems encountered while trying to define a word:

1-An orthographic definition of word says that "a word is any sequence of letters bounded on either side by a space or punctuation mark". Orthography refers to a medium of written language and spoken discourse does not generally allow of this kind of perception of a word. Pauses or stresses may occur in speech for purposes of emphasis, seeking the right expression or checking on an interlocutor's understanding rather than to separate words. In spoken discourse pauses can also occur within the words.

Orthographic definition has limitations even in written contexts. For example we write *will not* as two words but *cannot* as one word. Should we write *washing machine* or *washing-machine*?

2- Words can be defined as "the minimum meaningful unit of the language" but compound words such as *bus conductor*, *pocket money* involve more than one word. On

the other hand, the items such as *the*, *of*, *my* are treated as words in writing but they are not semantic units on their own.

3- Words have different forms. But different forms do not necessarily count as different words. For example *long*, *length* and *lengthen* or *good*, *better* or *best* look like the different lexical items but shall we look up these items in the dictionary separately?

4- A word may have several meanings. In this case it is called polysemous word. For example, *chip* can mean a piece of wood, food or electronic circuit. Are these one word or several?

5- The term word is useless for the study of idioms, which are also units of meaning. A much used Example is *kick the bucket* (to die) which involve three orthographic words which can not be reduced without loss of meaning.

Due to the reasons mentioned above, most linguists (Carter, 1987; Crystal, 1989) prefer to talk about the basic units of semantic analysis with fresh terminology, and they use the terms *lexeme* and *lexical item*. Carter, (1987: 7) defines *lexemes* as the basic, contrasting units of vocabulary in a language. Using the term *lexeme* we may avoid the lack of clarity referred to above. We can say that the 'lexeme' *long* occurs in several variant forms- the 'words', *length* and *lengthen* etc. Similarly we can say that the 'lexeme' *kick the bucket* contains three 'words'; and so on. Therefore it is lexemes that are usually looked up and merits a separate *entry* in a dictionary.

Carter (1987: 7), further proposes that when there is no need to be precise, the terms *word* or *vocabulary* can be used for general reference. If we wish to enquire precisely into semantic matters or when theoretical distinctions are necessary, these terms will not do and the term *lexeme* is preferred. On the other hand, he states that: "*lexical item(s)* (or sometimes *vocabulary items* or simply *items*) is a useful and fairly neutral hold-all term which captures and, to some extent, helps to overcome instabilities in the term *word*, especially when it becomes limited by orthography".

2.4 Receptive and Productive Vocabulary Knowledge

Before describing what it means to know a word, *receptive* and *productive* vocabulary knowledge should be distinguished for the sake of the present study.

Productive knowledge of a word is defined by Crow (1986:242) as “what one needs to know in order to understand a word while speaking or writing (productive channels)”, and he defined *receptive* knowledge as what one needs to know in order to understand a word while reading or listening (receptive channels)” This division has often been labelled *active* versus *passive* rather than *receptive* and *productive* vocabulary. However, Crow (ibid) and Belyayev (cited in Hatch & Brown, 1995: 370) criticise passive/ active terms, arguing that reading and listening should not be considered passive skills. Reading for example requires drawing upon a wide variety of background information and processing strategies to understand a passage as shown by the research in schema theory. Crow (1986:242) suggests that “the terms *receptive* and *productive* allow for a more accurate conceptualisation of the cognitive tasks involved.” On the other hand Hatch & Brown (1995) and Crow & Quigley (1985) suggest that there is not really a dichotomy between receptive and productive but rather a continuum of knowledge. According to them, lack of the knowledge about the syntactic restrictions, register appropriateness, or collocations to be able to produce the words on their own, does not disrupt learners to understand what they hear or read; learning core or basic meanings of words is sufficient for these processes. Hatch & Brown (1995: 370) also dealt with the issue of personal choice, while discussing the dichotomy between receptive and productive vocabularies. They argued that we understand a great many of words in our native language although we may never use. For example, we may understand terms used by our parents or grandparents, but never use those terms, although we could. Another example is that, we may understand terms used by speakers of other dialects, but never choose to use them. Likewise, we avoid using nonstandard and slang expressions for social and other reasons although we may recognise them. They suggested that “lack of production may be due to choice and not simply lack of knowledge”. Furthermore, they put forward that “the most important point of the receptive / productive discussion is that it suggests that there are different ways to ‘know’ a word, that what it is considered sufficient knowledge under one circumstance will probably not be sufficient under others”(see 2.5. for the different ways of knowing a word).

It is acknowledged by most researchers that the learning of a word usually progresses from *receptive* to *productive* knowledge. Therefore if the learner can

correctly use a word, he/she is also expected to understand it in the written and spoken discourse. However the opposite is not necessarily true. Mere memorisation of a word form in a given context without understanding its meaning cannot be called productive knowledge. The ability to repeat the memorised word with its context in a test situation without understanding it, is called mechanical reproduction, instead of production. Consequently receptive vocabulary size is considered to be larger than the productive size although there is not quantitative data as to how much larger it is (Laufer, 1998: 257). In their study, Schmitt and Meara (1997) interestingly found that some of their individual subjects actually performed better productively than receptively in the given test. However, a much larger body of knowledge is required for productive control of vocabulary as stated by Crow (1986: 242).

Different levels of word learning are measured in this study, and thus testing materials were designed accordingly. The students were expected to recognise and recall the meanings of the given lexical items.

2.5. The Definition of Knowing a Word

Fromkin & Rodman (1988:183), puts forward that “speakers of any language know thousands of words. They know how to pronounce them in all contexts, they know their meaning and they know how to combine them in phrases and sentences, which means that they know their syntactic category (or ‘word class’, or ‘part of speech’). All of this knowledge is contained in a component of the grammar called the *lexicon*. The lexicon contains all the words and morphemes in our vocabulary and can be thought of as our *mental dictionary*” Likewise, Katamba (1995: 223) puts forward that there are some obvious similarities between the contents of the *mental lexicon* –the representation of words in the mind- and the dictionaries sold in bookstores. Both should be included information about the meaning, grammatical properties, pronunciation (and orthographic representation) of multitudes of words.

What does a learner need to know in order to “know” a word? Richards (1976; pp: 78- 83), proposed 8 assumptions concerning the nature of lexical competence:

1-The native speaker of a language continues to expand his vocabulary in adulthood.

2-Knowing a word means knowing its frequency and other related words associated with it.

3-Knowing a word implies knowing to use it according to variations of function and situation.

4-Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behaviour associated with it.

5-Knowing a word entails knowledge of the underlying form of word.

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

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

8-Knowing a word means knowing many of the different meanings associated with it

Nation (1990, p, 31) developed the similar list that proposes the knowledge that one must possess both receptively and productively in order to have complete command of a word, and his list is organised using four general classification criteria:

1. *Form*: The spoken and written form of a word
2. *Position*: The grammatical and collocational behaviour of a word
3. *Function*: The frequency and appropriateness of a word
4. *Meaning*: The conceptual meaning and the associations between that word and other related words.

Carter (1987, p: 182) has drawn up the similar conclusions when he was giving the description of knowing a word:

1. Knowing a words involves using it productively and it is the ability to recall it for active use.
2. It means knowing its spoken and written form.
3. It means knowing the syntactic frames into which the word can be slotted and its underlying forms and derivations.
4. It means knowing the relation it contracts with other words both in L1 and in the target language.
5. It means perceiving the relative coreness and register of the word

6. It means knowing the different meanings associated with it and the range of its collocational patterns.
7. It means knowing words as part of or wholly as fired expressions ready to repeat and adapt when it is necessary.

Elaborating on Richards' list (1976) Taylor (1990; pp: 1-3) also developed a list of the knowledge of a word exists on various levels, which seem to be language universals. They have been set out as the knowledge of the *frequency*, *register*, *collocation*, *morphology*, *semantics*, *polysemy* and the knowledge of the *equivalent of the mother tongue*. Although the use of L1 used to be discouraged by many scholars, Taylor (ibid) supports the value of discussing and comparing how the same thing can be said in different language. On the other hand, Rivers (1981:463) advocates that to learn another language effectively, the learner should realise that precise equivalencies of native words in a second language are quite limited. She claims that "even with a simple concrete word like a *stone*, each language may have boundaries to the meaning the word expresses (when does a *stone* become a *pebble*, for instance, and when is it a *boulder*?)" She adds that "equivalent words in two languages may mean the same thing but not be used in the same circumstances". While the word is acceptable only in very formal situations in one language, the same word may be used in very informal situations in the other language. Consequently she advises that "students should be encouraged to expand and refine their native language vocabulary as they explore that of another language" (p.364). Rivers, further states that "vocabulary cannot be taught. It can be presented, explained included in all kind of activities, but it must be learned by the individual ... We can help our students by giving them ideas on how to learn vocabulary and some guidance on what to learn." (p.463)

Hatch & Brown (1995: 370-71) suggested that "the specificity of any individual's knowledge about a word depends on the person and his or her motivation, desires, and needs for the word. Acquisition does not appear to be a simple throwing of a switch between knowing and not knowing; rather, there seems to be a continuum of knowledge about any word and learner can be anywhere along the continuum".

2.6. Studies on Incidental Vocabulary Learning and Input Modification

2.6.1. L1 Studies

Although it is a complicated and only partially understood process, a number of studies confirm that both vocabulary and spelling can be acquired incidentally by reading for meaning. A related L1 study which is conducted by Nagy, Herman, and Anderson (1985, cited in Krashen, 1989; Shu, Anderson, and Zhang, 1995) explored incidental acquisition of word meanings using Chinese and American elementary school students as subjects and passages from real grade-level textbooks. The students were asked to read the texts and after fifteen minutes they were tested for the words that had been identified unfamiliar by the teachers. On the multiple-choice test, they found that a subject's chance of learning word meaning was between 15% to 22%. This percentage may seem low however when the factors which may effect learning from context such as the word difficulty, the amount of exposure to the unknown words are concerned, this research suggests that considerable vocabulary learning has been demonstrated.

To investigate the effect of text features on incidental vocabulary learning while reading, Herman, Anderson, Pearson, & Nagy (1987) examined three hundred nine students in eight grades, including able and the less able students. Students' ability was represented by their comprehension percentile scores taken from the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, which was administered earlier in the school year. Two texts each about 1000 words long were chosen from junior high science books: one about the river systems and one about the circulation of blood in humans. The additional versions of each text were created by editing the original version using the three categories of text features: 1- *Macrostructure version* in which the titles, topic sentences and organisation were revised. 2- *Microstructure version* in which all macrostructure revisions were carried over to and additional information was inserted to achieve explicitness. 3- *Elaborated version* which included all previous changes, plus revisions that elaborated key concepts and their relations. Text versions were arranged so that all eight versions (original, macrostructure, microstructure and elaborated versions of both texts) would

be equally represented within classrooms when the texts were randomly distributed. A total of 46 target words each of which appeared twice in the multiple-choice test were chosen. The major finding of the study was that students who read the conceptually elaborated version gained more word knowledge than students who read the original texts or any of the other revised texts. According to the results of the study, not only text features but also the reader's ability are important factors in incidental acquisition of word knowledge. However, less able readers as well as able readers gained more vocabulary knowledge from reading the elaborated text. The researchers suggested that the concepts in the text must be elaborated so that a more complete body of knowledge is presented. The revisions that only clarify the organisation already present do not affect acquisition of vocabulary knowledge significantly when existing information in a text is insufficient.

In a well known L1 study, Saragi, Nation, and Meister (1978; cited in Swaffar, 1988; Krashen, 1989; Lupescu and Day, 1993) asked adults to read Anthony Burgess' novel *A Clockwork Orange*, which includes a large number of words from a Russian-based slang called *nadsat*. There are 241 *nadsat* words in *A Clockwork Orange* and the average *nadsat* word is repeated fifteen times. The readers were native speakers of English and it could be assumed that few readers know these words before reading the book. The book has approximately 60,000 words and has a dictionary in the back, so the readers can look up the meanings of *nadsat* words if they buy the book in bookstores. However subjects were given copies of the book without dictionary and they were not told in advance that they would be tested on *nadsat* words. In a multiple choice test covering ninety *nadsat* words, subjects performed quite effectively. Seventy-seven percent of the results were correct, indicating that, students learn words incidentally through reading. Although Saragi (cited in Krashen, 1989:446) observed some relationship between frequency of occurrence and acquisition, according to Swaffar (1988:131), the novelty of *nadsat* words may have heightened reader attention and, consequently, enhanced recall artificially.

Schatz & Baldwin (1986) conducted three studies to determine the extent to which context helps students infer the meanings of unknown words. In experiment 1, 101 students in the 10th and 11th grades were given two 25-item tests, a words-in-context test and a words-in-isolation test. The words-in-context test consisted of 25

passages selected from ten novels from the school's reading lists for the 10th- and 11th-grade students. The words-in-isolation test was identical to the words-in-context test except that the passages were not included. It was simply a multiple-choice vocabulary test. Experiment 2 was designed to increase the generalizability of the findings in which thirty nine students in the 11th grade read set of words in isolation and also in fifteen passages taken from the same novels that were used in Experiment 1. Additional passages were taken from popular magazines and newspapers, history and science textbooks as well. Experiment 3 was a systematic replication of Experiment 1 in which subjects were asked to write definitions for the low-frequency words instead of choosing the definitions in a multiple-choice format. The researchers couldn't find any statistically significant difference in any of the three experiments due to the context and they concluded that: (1) context clues do not reveal the meanings of low-frequency words in naturally occurring prose, (2) context clues appear to be just as likely to result in confusion as in the correct identification of word meaning, (3) the more information the word contributes to the passage, the less likely it is that context clues will work. They suggest that "dictionary and glossary strategy might be stressed to cope with unknown words in reading materials" (p. 451).

In a Chinese and American cross-cultural study, Shu, Anderson & Zhang (1995) investigated children's natural learning of word meanings while reading. Four hundred forty seven American and Chinese children in third and fifth grades involved in the study. Several factors were examined in this study including characteristic of the children, such as verbal ability, and prior knowledge of the unfamiliar words, the characteristics of the target words and the texts in which they appeared, such as the morphological transparency of the word, the conceptual difficulty of the word, and the strength of contextual support for the unfamiliar word. In the Chinese part of the study, three additional factors were level of school, family background, and out-of-school reading. Four grade level texts were selected from Chinese and American textbooks. The Chinese texts which would require knowledge familiar to Chinese children but unfamiliar to American children were translated into English, and the American texts which would require knowledge familiar to American children but unfamiliar to Chinese children were translated into Chinese. The children read one of the two cross-translated stories and then they were given a multiple-choice test on the easy and

difficult vocabulary items in both the stories they read and the one they did not read. In the easy level, a general category of the word or a synonym was provided as the correct answer. Distracters were definitions of words semantically distant from the target word. The results confirmed that children in both grades in both countries learned significant amount of word meaning incidentally. Four factors were found to effect vocabulary acquisition in this study: (1) The first factor was the conceptual difficulty of the unfamiliar word for both American and Chinese students, (2) the strength of contextual support, (3) morphological transparency of words (This factor was affective for only Chinese students. Morphologically transparent Chinese words were better learned than morphologically opaque words by Chinese students), (4) out of school reading (only Chinese students' out of school reading was measured in this study).

2.6.2. L2 Studies

Yano, Long & Rose (1994), investigated the effects of input modification on reading comprehension. Four hundred eighty three Japanese university students, who are proficient in English as a foreign language, took part in the study. Thirteen passages from different content areas were selected and randomly presented to the students in one of the following three forms: (1) native baseline, (2) simplified, (3) elaborated. Elaborated texts were twice as complex as simplified ones. From one to four comprehension questions were written for each of the passages, for a total of 30 items in the whole test. Items followed a multiple choice format. The questions required three different comprehension processes: replication, synthesis, and inference. Students who read simplified and elaborated texts scored significantly higher on the comprehension test than those who read the unmodified version of the text. However simplification was more effective than elaboration on reading comprehension.

Paribakht & Wesche (1999) conducted a study with ten intermediate –level students in a university ESL class from a variety of L1 backgrounds (French, Chinese, Persian, Spanish, Vietnamese, and Arabic) to examine the strategies used and

knowledge sources and contextual cues appealed by the students when attempting to understand the unknown words in thematically related texts. In this study, introspective and retrospective think-aloud data collection techniques were used to explore how much vocabulary knowledge may be acquired as a by-product of reading for comprehension. The analysis of the data indicated that learners ignored approximately half of the unknown words. For those words, which they actively tried to identify the meanings, inferencing was the main strategy employed. Dictionary use was limited to certain learners. Text characteristics influenced learners in terms of both their motivation and their success in guessing meanings. When attempting to infer the meanings of unfamiliar words, varied kinds of previous knowledge and textual cues were used. The most commonly used knowledge type was sentence-level grammatical knowledge. Other important knowledge sources were word morphology, punctuation, word knowledge, discourse knowledge, homonym and, word associations. In the interviews, many learners mentioned at least a few new words they recalled from the text and comprehension tasks. However most learners did not consider the reading and comprehension tasks as useful for vocabulary acquisition.

Most of the research to date has focused on the effects of modified input on comprehension. However, few studies have investigated the effects of interactionally modified and premodified input on vocabulary acquisition. Ellis, Tanaka & Yamazaki (1994) conducted two classroom studies which investigated the effects of modified interaction on comprehension and vocabulary acquisition among seventy nine and one hundred twenty seven high school students of English in Japan. They compared how (1) baseline input (directions, given by two native speakers), (2) premodified input (the same directions simplified by making them more redundant and less grammatically complex), (3) interactionally modified input (the native speakers modified the initial directions in accordance with students' requests. In other words, input has been modified as a result of meaning negotiation). The results of posttest administered immediately after the treatment showed that interactionally modified input led to more new words being acquired than premodified input and baseline input.

Like the Input Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis (Long 1981, cited in Ellis & He, 1999:286) initially viewed input rather than output as the source of

acquisition. However, unlike the Input Hypothesis, it allowed a constitutive role for learner output. In an experimental study, Ellis & He (1999) investigated the different effects of premodified input, interactionally modified input, and modified output on the comprehension of directions containing new words in a listen and do task and the acquisition of new words embedded in the directions. The subjects were fifty Asian students from six intermediate-level classes of the Intensive English Language Program at Temple University in Philadelphia. The results of this study suggested that the modified output condition worked better than the input conditions. There was no difference between the premodified and interactionally modified input groups. The reason why the modified output group consistently outperformed the two input groups in terms of comprehension and vocabulary learning explained by the researchers as “producing new words helps learners to process them more deeply, whether for comprehension or for acquisition than simply hearing them. Another reason is that, the modified output condition provided the learners a qualitatively different discourse experience.” (p.297)

Wode (1999) conducted a research to determine whether and to what extent incidental vocabulary learning does occur in different foreign language teaching contexts. The issue is taken up with respect to partial English immersion (IM) program in Germany and two non-IM comparison groups (IM denotes the method of teaching and promoting a language by using it as a medium of instruction). In the immersion program where the research was conducted, the only subject taught in English was history. So it was called a partial immersion (IM) program. One of the comparison groups was non-IM class from the same school and the other one non-IM class from another school of the same town that did not offer an IM program. The data were collected by administering an oral test. The following measures were used in the analysis of learners' oral production: (1) number of lexical types, (2) number of lexical items, (3) distribution of the lexical items according to word classes, (4) semantic relations (e.g., synonymy, hyponymy, hypernymy, antonymy), (5) errors, (6) within-group variation, (7) inter group variation, and (8) lexical sources. With respect to incidental vocabulary acquisition, the results suggested that IM provides superior opportunities for incidental learning to occur. The IM students outperformed the two comparison groups on various measures. However, Wode suggests that some of the

lexical items cannot have come from the textbook or from other kinds of teaching materials used. He attributes the acquisition of non-textbook- based items to oral interactions.

2.7. Studies on Glossing

The relevant literature regarding glossary use falls into three major categories: vocabulary learning, look up behaviour, and reading comprehension.

Hulstijn (1992) proposed multiple-choice (MC) glossing in his research as a compromise between inferring meaning of an unknown word, using the information contained in a context and referring the glosses. In other words, more than one synonym, definition or translation is given for each target word one being correct, the others being incorrect and the readers have to choose the best alternative. The study had two objectives. The first objective was to provide empirical support for the prediction, derived from the 'mental effort hypothesis' that the retention of inferred meanings will be higher than the retention of given word meanings. The second one was to investigate whether the potential disadvantages of the inferring method could be reduced by means of a MC procedure directing and channelling the inferring process. Five experiments were conducted. In experiments I and II, Multiple Choice, Concise Context, and No-Cue procedures were compared with Translation/ Synonym procedure. In experiments III, IV and V, only two procedures were compared, Multiple Choice and Synonym. In experiments I, III, and V, the subjects were non- native adult learners of Dutch, in experiments II and IV the subjects were native speakers of Dutch. In all the experiments, subjects were given a Dutch text about the function of advertising for producers and consumers, containing 907 words and they were told to read the text for comprehension. Reading task was followed by one or more unexpected post-tests. The following conclusions were drawn from the results of the study: (1) When the text is read for comprehension, not for vocabulary learning, inferred meaning of an unknown word is more likely to be remembered. However no evidence was found for this proposition in weaker groups (in experiments I and II). (2) If there is no cue as to the meaning of an unknown word has been given, L2 learners are more likely to make

incorrect guesses. (3) In SLA pedagogy, the discussion should focus on the question of which cue procedures are most effective (e.g. translation into L1, synonym in L2, concise sample sentence, multiple choice, separately or combined) instead of on the question of whether it is better to let the learners infer the meaning of an unknown word or not. (3) Although MC procedure, has been shown to have a higher retention effect than the synonym procedure, it was also found to be misleading. From this finding it was concluded that the distracters should be chosen carefully as to be not too plausible or too implausible for the students and MC procedure should only be used when a teacher is present. For reading L2 texts at home, the classical glossing procedures such as giving a synonym or translation are suggested.

Another study by Hulstijn (1993) on the behaviour of EFL readers in looking up unknown words, involved computerised glossary. His first research issue was to investigate the influence of differences in reading goal, provided by giving the subjects variable tasks on FL readers' look up behaviour. The second research issue was to determine the influence of word relevance and inferability on subjects' look up behaviour. The third issue was the relationship between inferring ability and FL vocabulary knowledge on the one hand , and word look-up behaviour on the other. The final research issue was to explore the readers' look up behaviour in detail. To investigate these issues two experiments were conducted. Experiment one in which forty four subjects participated, addressed the reading goal issue. Experiment two in which thirty eight subjects participated, addressed the issue of word relevance and inferability, while both experiments addressed the relationship between the two learner variables and individual readers' look up behaviour in detail. The subjects were selected from the grades ten and eleven, who had had four or five years of instruction in English as a foreign language, and from the two different streams from the Dutch high school system- the lower (HAVO which does not give access to a university) and the higher (VWO which is required certificate for university entry) streams. The text which the subjects read was available both on the paper and on the screen of a personal computer. If readers wanted to know the meaning of an unknown word, they moved the cursor to the desired word and pressed the Enter key. A window opened showing the word's translation in Dutch. The computer registered look-up actions by composing log files. Hulstijn found that: (1) words which were thought relevant in terms of reaching the goal

of reading were looked up more frequently than words thought irrelevant, (2) words whose meanings could easily be inferred from contextual information were looked up less frequently than words whose meanings could not easily be inferred, (3) students with greater vocabulary knowledge generally looked up fewer words than students with smaller vocabulary knowledge, and (4) EFL readers in this study reached their reading goals not by using the same strategy, but by following different routes. Some went through the text once, others twice. Some used a minimal, others a maximal strategy.

Hulstijn, Hollander & Greidanus (1996) investigated the influence of marginal glosses (provision of L1 translations of unknown words), bilingual dictionaries and reoccurrence of unknown words on incidental vocabulary learning. Generally, reappearance of a word will enhance incidental learning of a word form and form-meaning connection. So they put forward the hypothesis that retention of the meaning of unfamiliar target words will be higher in the Marginal Glosses (MG) group than Dictionary (D) group and retention will be lowest in the Control Group (C) in which the students were not given any additional information. It was expected that MG students will most profit from reoccurrence. Dutch advanced learners of French read a French story in one of the three text reading conditions: MG, D or C. After the reading task, students were tested for their recall of 16 words that had appeared either once or three times in the text. Support was found for the hypothesis that frequency of occurrence will foster incidental vocabulary learning when advanced L2 readers are given the meanings of unknown words through marginal glosses or when they look up the meanings in a dictionary than when no external information concerning unknown words' meaning is given. Furthermore support was found for the hypothesis that, generally the effect of marginal glosses will be greater than that of dictionary use because readers often do not make use of the dictionary.

Watanabe (1997) investigated ways of modifying foreign language texts to enhance vocabulary learning. The focus of the study was on how different ways of input modifications and a translation task would affect incidental learning of vocabulary by reading. The three text modification types were: (1) the text with appositional vocabulary explanations (*appositives*), (2) the text with marginal glosses (*gloss*), and (3) the text with multiple choice marginal glosses (*MC gloss*). An interesting aspect of the Watanabe's study is that following Hulstijn (1992), he used

multiple choice marginal gloss which required the students to choose the correct translation from among two possibilities. Two hundred thirty-one undergraduate students in Japanese universities were randomly assigned to 10 condition groups. After a pre-test, a reading task and a close test, they were given an unexpected vocabulary test. A week later two delayed post-tests were also given. The results indicated that (1) both single and multiple-choice marginal gloss conditions performed significantly better than no cue and the appositive conditions, (2) no statistically significant difference existed between the single and the multiple-choice gloss conditions nor between the appositive and the no cue conditions and (3) the translation task had no effect.

Jacobs, Dufon & Fong (1994) tested the effectiveness of both L1 glosses and L2 glosses on reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. They also investigated learners' preferences as to glossing. Their subjects were eighty-five native speakers of English studying Spanish at the university in the U.S. The reading text used in the study was an authentic article about the recent changes in romantic customs in Spain. Students who read the glossed versions of the text, either in the L1 or L2, outperformed their peers who read an unglossed version of the text in an immediate post-test of the 32 glossed vocabulary items. However, that difference disappeared in a delayed post-test readministered four weeks later.

In their article, Chun & Plass (1996) present the results of three studies done with 160 second-year German students in California, using *CyberBuch*, a hypermedia application for reading German texts which offers annotations in the form of pictures, text, and video. They examined the following issues: (1) The effectiveness of incidental vocabulary learning when the goal is reading comprehension, (2) the effectiveness of different types of annotations for vocabulary acquisition, and (3) the relationship between look-up behaviour and the performance on the vocabulary test. To investigate these issues, students were introduced to the *CyberBuch* program in the computer lab then they watched a video that gave an overview of the story. After that they read the story using the multimedia annotations for looking up the meaning of individual words. Following the reading task, they were given a vocabulary test and finally they wrote a recall protocol in their L1. The results of the three studies indicated approximately 25% accuracy on production tests, and 77% on recognition tests. Chun & Plass report that

this was a higher rate than expected. With regard to the effectiveness of different types of annotations, a tendency for better recall was found for words with picture + text when compared to the words annotated with video + text and text annotations alone. The absence of correlation between look up behaviour and vocabulary test regarding the third research issue was consistent with Hulstijn's (1992) findings.

A related study was also conducted by Davis & Lyman-Hager (1997). They examined the effect of computerised glosses upon reading comprehension and they also investigated the influence of different information categories upon comprehension during L2 reading. In this study, subjects were forty two intermediate level undergraduate students of French at Pennsylvania State University. They read a glossed passage on the computer screen selected from *Une vie de boy* by the Camerounian novelist Ferdinand Oyono. The passage contained many linguistic and cultural referents thought to be unknown to U.S. readers of French at that instructional level. The design of the software used in this investigation was inspired by Bernhardt's model of L2 reading which demonstrates the complexity of L2 reading process (1991, cited in Davis & Lyman-Hager 1997: 60). This model suggests that reading comprehension results from the interaction of six factors: *basic word recognition* (understanding individual word meanings), *phonemic/graphemic decoding* (recognising words through their oral or visual characteristics), *syntactic feature recognition* (understanding grammatical relationships among words), *intratextual perception* (connecting statements in a passage with the previous and following statements), *prior knowledge* (information about the subject matter brought to text), and *metacognition* (the reader's awareness of cognitive processes during reading) Davis & Lyman-Hager adapted the Bernhardt model onto the software design in the following ways: (1) students were able to click on unknown words or expressions to obtain definitions in L1 or L2 (*basic word recognition*), (2) students could hear the pronunciation of words or expressions spoken by a native French speaker (*phonemic/graphemic decoding*), (3) brief grammatical explanations were also available (*phonemic/graphemic decoding*), (4) readers were able to click on a "relations" button that gives an identification of pronoun antecedents or referent of a given word or expression (*intratextual perception*), (5) cultural notes of unfamiliar cultural references and pictures were provided through a "cultural reference" control

button (*prior knowledge*), and (6) the program included an invisible query log that allows to obtain information both on the words and expressions looked up and types of information consulted (*metacognition*). After the reading task, students performed a written recall protocol and a multiple choice test and finally they had an exit interview during which they were asked about their reactions to the program. Davis & Lyman-Hager reported that students tended to consult primarily English (L1) definitions, although many types of information were available. There was a negative correlation between English definitions and nondefinitional information on the one hand and course grade on the other. The higher the course grade, the fewer times the English definitions and nondefinitional information were utilised; the lower the course grade, the more times the English definitions and nondefinitional information were utilised. Although the lack of evidence of a relationship between computer use and comprehension, the interview imparted that the subjects' attitudes towards the use of the computerised gloss were extremely positive.

Roby (1999:99) cites his own study which was conducted in 1991, on dictionary and gloss use by American university students of Spanish. The subjects were asked to read a biographical sketch taken from a Spanish language feature magazine. Two types of semantic support were provided: dictionary alone and dictionary + glosses. The subjects were divided into four treatment groups: (1) paper dictionary, (2) paper dictionary and glosses, (3) computer dictionary, and (4) computer dictionary and glosses. The same entries were used in the paper dictionary and computer dictionary. The online group could click the mouse to obtain the semantic support. The dependent measures were reading time, number of consultations and comprehension. The subjects were also given a questionnaire respecting their normal reading and dictionary practices, and they were asked to report their opinions about the presentation ways and comprehension aids they used in this study. The findings of the study suggested that subjects in dictionary + gloss conditions read the passage in significantly less time than those dictionary alone conditions and subjects in the online groups looked up significantly more words than the subjects in the paper groups. With regard to the comprehension, there were no differences between the groups. The qualitative data from the questionnaire revealed that the participants in the computer

treatment were more satisfied with the provision of semantic support than the subjects in the paper conditions.

Although it is not involved in this present study, the impact of glossing on second language comprehension has been investigated in at least eight studies. Six of them are cited in Jacobs (1991: 16) (Jacobs & Dufon, 1990; Johnson, 1982; Lee & Grace, 1989; Pak, 1986; Davis 1989; and Paulson, 1989). Davis (1989), Jacobs' (1991) own study and a pilot study conducted by Lomicka (1999) will be dealt with briefly here.

In an experimental study, Davis (1989) investigated whether or not marginal glosses would improve comprehension of a literary text in a foreign language. Seventy-one undergraduate students of French at Pennsylvania State University involved in the study. All subjects were native readers of English. They were randomly assigned to one of the three text conditions: (1) with no aids, (2) with questions, comments and definitions of some vocabulary items preceding reading task to guide the reader in the resolving of the action and (3) with glosses containing the same questions and definitions to guide during reading. To measure comprehension, students were asked to write recall protocols in English (their native language) immediately after having read the passage. Students who received the vocabulary definitions and guide which includes questions and comments either before or during reading significantly outperformed their peers who read the text receiving no help in the recall protocol. The difference between the second and third conditions was not significant.

Jacobs (1991) studied the effects of vocabulary glossing on L2 reading recall. One hundred sixteen American college students of Spanish as a second language were asked to read a text which was selected from an intermediate – level Spanish textbook written for college level native speakers of English. It was about the birthday of a seven- year- old boy and the problems he encountered with defective electric toys which he received as presents. Half of the subjects read the unglossed version of a text and the other half read the same text accompanied by fifty two glossed vocabulary items in English in the margin. Recall protocols written in the students' L1 were used to determine the extend to which readers have understood the text. Since the findings of the study suggested that glossing significantly increased recall, Jacobs' study was also added to the list of those which suggest that glossing promotes comprehension and

recall. The potential interactive effects of aptitude, proficiency, psychological type, tolerance of ambiguity, time on task, frequency of gloss use, and perceived usefulness of glosses were also investigated by Jacobs but no significant interaction between glossing and any of the mentioned variables was found.

Lomicka (1999) reported the effects of multimedia reading software on reading comprehension in her article. She also investigated the relationship between the type and the number of glosses consulted and the number of inferences generated by the subjects. Twelve students enrolled in a second semester French course at Pennsylvania State University participated in the study. The subjects were the native English speakers. They read an excerpt from the poem *Femme Noire* by Leopold Senghor, on the computer screen under the three different conditions. Subjects in condition A read the text with no access to glosses. Those in condition B read the text with L1 (English) and L2 (French) glosses, and those in condition C were provided six different types of glosses (L1, L2, images, references, questions, and pronunciation). Think aloud procedure was used to measure comprehension. Recorded data from the think aloud protocol were transcribed and divided into clauses which served as the basic unit. A tracker incorporated into the software was also used to determine the number and type of glosses consulted and the length of time that each information type was consulted. The tracker recorded all clicks on the controls, the type of gloss used, and the amount of time subjects spent consulting each gloss. Statistical analysis of think aloud data indicated that there were no significant differences on the comprehension measures among the groups. The tracker data suggested that there was a strong preference for L1 glosses. Although six different types of information were available in condition C, students consulted English glosses exclusively. Their use of glosses aimed translation and paraphrasing in order to achieve a minimal level of comprehension. These findings are consistent with the findings reported by Davis & Lyman-Hager (1997: 61) whose subjects tended to consult chiefly English (L1) definitions.

2.8. The Differences Between Gloss and Dictionary Use During Reading

Hultijn (1993) verified that readers do not look up all unknown words, especially when they are reading texts longer than a few hundred words, although they have a dictionary available. On the other hand, glosses are more likely to be used since they are easy of access. A second advantage of glossing over dictionary use is that glossing allows the reader to read the text without too much interruption. It helps to limit continual dictionary consultation that may hinder and interrupt the L2 reading comprehension process. Lupescu & Day (1993), examined whether the use of dictionaries caused an increase in the time needed to read a text and their findings provided empirical evidence that using a dictionary while reading causes a decrease in reading speed.

The task of finding the meaning of a word in a dictionary is a complex process. This process involves looking for a suitable headword, comprehending the entry, locating the appropriate part of the definition, connecting the right sense to the context, and putting the word within the context of the unknown or difficult word in the text. (Lupescu & Day, 1993). Monolingual dictionaries give the definition of entry- words (i.e. the explanation of their meaning), whereas bilingual dictionary focuses on translation. Its purposes are both comprehension and production. The user of a bilingual dictionary has to select the best translation, from a long list of possible equivalents. The problem starts at this point. If bilingual dictionaries do not offer some means of discrimination, the student will not be able to figure out the item that best conveys the exact meaning and that will also fit into a syntactic and stylistic context (Winter, 1992: 41-42). On the other hand, monolingual dictionaries often force the students to guess the meaning, adding more doubts to the already existing ones as pointed out by Yorio (1971:113) and Baxter (1980). In a questionnaire administered to 342 Japanese university students by Baxter, many students criticised monolingual dictionaries, complaining that definitions were too difficult to understand. McCarthy (1990:134) suggests that "on the question of effectiveness of explanation of meaning, the ideal monolingual learner's dictionary should give a sufficiently clear explanation not only for the learner to *decode* meaning but also *encode* without error. This is an impossible task, and current monolingual learner's dictionaries cannot offer 100 per cent

guarantees against error.” However, glosses are specifically tailored to the specific context, pertaining to the use of the word in a particular context, not a selection of words to choose from. According to Twaddell (1973, cited in Jacobs, 1991: 23), glosses may hinder learners’ comprehension of the polysemy of the L2, by misleading learners into thinking that, glossed vocabulary items have only one definition. Thus, he sees multiple definitions given in a dictionary entry, as an advantage of dictionaries whereas Bensoussan (1983: 345) suggests that: “Students who are good at guessing or negotiating from context are also efficient users of the dictionary. Weak students can do neither well. For this reason, the dictionary will probably not help the weak students; what these students really need is a specific gloss.”

Individual readers may find that many unfamiliar words and expressions were not glossed in glosses, while many familiar words and expressions were. Sometimes it may not be possible to predict accurately, which words the learners do not know in a text. If the students use a dictionary, they decide which words to look up for themselves. This is the advantage of dictionaries over glosses. However using computerised gloss provides much more extensive glossing than would be possible in a print format due to the vast storage capacity of the computer as suggested by Davis & Lyman- Hager (1997)

2.8.1. Studies on Dictionary Use While Reading and Incidental Vocabulary Learning

Two of the dictionary studies related with incidental vocabulary learning merit to be mentioned in the present study.

Luppescu & Day (1993) compared the amount of vocabulary learning that takes place when students use a dictionary while reading, and when they read without using a dictionary. Two hundred ninety three first and second year students studying English as a foreign language at two universities in Japan participated in the study. Participants were given a short story and asked to read it. Each of the students in the dictionary group had a bilingual English- Japanese dictionary and they were free to use the dictionary. The students in the control group were not permitted to refer to dictionaries

while reading. Immediately after reading the passage, all the students were given an unexpected vocabulary recognition test on 17 target words. According to the results of the study, using a dictionary had a significant effect on people's performance on the vocabulary test. The mean measures of the group that used dictionaries was about 50% greater than those of the group that did not use dictionaries. However, no follow up test was given to see if the students retained this learning.

Knight (1994) grouped one hundred and five intermediate level university students in Spanish classes according to their level of verbal ability and investigated their incidental vocabulary learning from context. The effect of dictionary use and the students' verbal ability level were also investigated as the factors thought to influence incidental vocabulary learning. The other factor investigated was the effect of dictionary use on reading comprehension. In Knight's study one group had access to a computerised dictionary while reading two different texts, but the other did not. Both groups were given unexpected vocabulary production and recognition tests. Results of the study indicated that subjects learned a significant amount of vocabulary while reading for meaning. However, high verbal ability students learned more words than low verbal ability students. Subjects who used the dictionary not only learned more words but also achieved higher reading comprehension scores than those who guessed from context.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This present study aims to investigate the effects of vocabulary glossing on incidental vocabulary learning through reading. It also intends to provide evidence on whether students can learn vocabulary incidentally by means of reading unmodified authentic texts. To this aim, two different gloss types, L1(monolingual) and L2 (bilingual) glosses and no gloss conditions were compared. In this experimental study, quantitative data was employed and statistical analysis was offered.

In this chapter, first, setting and subjects have been presented. Second, detailed information about the texts, vocabulary items and testing materials have been given. Third, data collection procedures have been explained and finally, data analyses were presented.

3.2. Research Design

Intermediate learners of English as a foreign language read a text about tourist promotion under one of the three conditions: with L1(Turkish) glossary, with L2 (English) glossary and without glossary. Sixteen unknown words were selected as targets and they were glossed at the end of the text in both of the glossary groups. After reading the text, all the students in three groups were tested on recall and recognition of target vocabulary items both immediately and after three weeks.

3.3. Setting and Subjects

Ninety intermediate level students from Anadolu University, The College of Tourism and Hotel Management were chosen as the subjects of this study. They were taking compulsory English classes during the spring term of the academic year 1998-1999. The students who come to The College of Tourism and Hotel Management have different foreign language educational backgrounds. To create the groups of equal ability, every year, all the first year students are given a placement test which was specifically prepared by three English instructors who work at The College of Tourism and Hotel Management, for the students of The College of Tourism and Hotel Management. The students are divided into classes according to their English levels. There are usually three levels of first year classes: beginners, elementary and intermediate levels. The classes do not change during four years, unless some of the students require to take upper or lower level course. Unfortunately, it is impossible to take all the students to advanced level of English during four years of language education. The syllabus for English classes is designed to give equal emphasis to four basic language skills; speaking, reading, writing and listening. Fourth year students have translation classes four hours a week. Except the first year classes, the researcher was also teaching in second, third and fourth year classes. Weekly distribution of compulsory English classes per year in The College of Tourism and Hotel Management is as the following: 12 hours for the first grade, 10 hours for the second grade and 8 hours for the third and fourth grades.

37 of the subjects were female, 53 were male. The age range of all the subjects was between 17 and 26 and all the subjects were native speakers of Turkish. All of the subjects in this study, studied English in secondary school and high school, for six or seven years. Some of them attended preparatory class during their secondary education. The subjects were randomly assigned to three groups: 1) Monolingual (L2) glossary group, 2) Bilingual (L1) glossary group, and 3) Contextual guessing group. Among 90 students, there were 5 first year students (in L2 glossary group), 38 second year students (25 of them in L2 glossary group and 13 of them in L1 glossary group), 20 third year students (all of them in contextual guessing group), and 27 fourth year students (17 of them in L1 glossary group, 10 of them in contextual guessing group). Randomisation

was achieved by alternately giving the classes one of the three different versions of the text: with monolingual glossary, with bilingual glossary and with no gloss.

There are mainly three reasons choosing only intermediate level students as the subjects. Firstly, it was thought that compared with beginners, intermediate students have learned a large number of English words which they can use for defining new vocabulary. Since one of the experimental groups would be given bilingual glossary during reading as part of the research, beginners were thought not to be skilled enough to use L2 glosses (c.f. Allen, 1983). Second reason is that subjects in L2 glossary group and contextual guessing group were asked to provide English synonyms or definitions of the target words at the vocabulary recall tests. This task requires the subjects to have a reasonable proficiency level in English. It was thought that intermediate level students would perform this task successfully. The last reason is that the number of advanced level students were not enough to secure statistically reliable sample size (i.e., 30) for each of the experimental groups.

3.4. Materials

3.4.1. Text Selection

The text “Tourist Promotion” was selected by three English instructors including the researcher herself on the basis of topic, length, difficulty, and the presence of words that subjects would not know. The text was chosen from Hall (1976), *“The Language of Tourism in English”*. It is a book that belongs to one of a series of texts called *English for Careers*. The series is intended to introduce high intermediate or advanced level students of English as a foreign language to the language of different professional and vocational fields. In *The Language of Tourism in English*, tourism and tourist industry is introduced dealing with the many different components of the field such as transportation, accommodations and catering, or tour operators in nine different units. Since the subjects are studying at the College of Tourism and Hotel Management, all of them would have some background knowledge about “tourist promotion” which was

selected for reading. It was believed that students can read a text more quickly and accurately if they know about a particular topic. Research has provided evidence of the tremendous importance of background knowledge in reading. First of all, background knowledge is very prominent in the readability of a text. Prior familiarity with the topic facilitates reading comprehension and enhances language recognition, concept recall, and inferential reasoning (Swaffar, 1988; Day, 1994).

The original text was shortened on the basis of two criteria: The first reason for shortening the text was to be able to conduct the study during one regular 45-minute class session. The lengths of the texts used in previous glossing studies were also considered. These ranged from 363 words to 1306 words (Johnson, 1982, cited in Jacobs, 1991; Hulstijn, 1993). While shortening the text, a special care was also taken to keep the unity of meaning. The text used in this study, with 410 content words excluding the grammar or function words was presented in two pages (see Appendix A for the original text and Appendix B for the shortened text).

If a text was easy for learners, glossing would be unnecessary, on the other hand if it was too difficult, glossing would be insufficient to make up for students' lack of proficiency (Jacobs, 1991). The writer of the book from which the text was selected notes that these series of books are intended for a student at high intermediate or advanced level. In addition to the ratings given by three English instructors including the researcher herself, the readability level of the text was tested with six intermediate level students who were eliminated from the study since they were not the native speakers of Turkish.. Before the research, these six students were asked to recall everything that they remembered from the text, immediately after having read the text. Recall protocols are the best available measure of overall comprehension (Bernhardt, 1983 and Wells, 1986, cited in Davis 1989: 43). The spoken recall task which was performed in English revealed that six of the students more or less comprehended the text and these students reported that the text was not too difficult for them. The amount of time students needed to read the text as many times as they felt sufficient enough to comprehend it was also observed in order to determine if the text was appropriate for the 45 minutes class period which would be spent for data collection.

3.4.2. Targeted Vocabulary and The Glosses

Sixteen vocabulary items were selected according to following criteria: a.) selected as unknown by the subjects' three English instructors including the researcher herself, b) checked as unknown by the subjects in the checklist vocabulary test (see 3.4.3.2). The 16 words which were found to be known at a rate of higher than 10% were eliminated after the checklist vocabulary test, leaving 16 target words for treatment, c) special care was taken to choose a representative number of items from a range of word classes such as nouns, verbs, adjectives. The sixteen selected unknown vocabulary items included seven nouns, five verbs and four adjectives. Adverbs were not included since they lacked variety in the text. d) The number of target vocabulary items selected in previous glossing studies also served as a guide. For instance, in one study 12 target words were selected and glossed in the margin (Hulstijn, 1992) whereas 32 target words or phrases were selected to gloss and to test in another study (Jacobs et al, 1994). On the other hand, as few as eight to twelve new items were taken as appropriate (eight for elementary, twelve for advanced) per sixty- minute lesson for truly productive learning to take place by some researchers. (Gairns and Redman, 1986, cited in McCarthy, 1990:117) Although this suggestion did not involve incidental vocabulary learning, it was also considered.

All of the target vocabulary items appeared in the text only once and they were not marked in any way in the text. Some form of marking in the text (the use of bold letters or an asterisk) would encourage learners to look at the definition when they did not need to. It would develop a sense of insecurity about vocabulary which would interfere with their reading (Nation, 1990:134). Some of these vocabulary items contained more than one word. Table 3.1. shows the target vocabulary items in the order of appearance in the text.

Table 3.2. The Target Vocabulary Items in the Order of Appearance in the Text.

n = noun, v = verb, a = adjective

1) <i>retain</i> : (v)	5) <i>fringe benefits</i> : (n)	9) <i>wealthy</i> : (a)	13) <i>deficit</i> : (n)
2) <i>resident</i> : (n)	6) <i>distinct</i> : (a)	10) <i>endure</i> : (v)	14) <i>amenity</i> (n)
3) <i>disposable</i> : (a)	7) <i>spread</i> : (v)	11) <i>gloomy</i> : (a)	15) <i>familiarization</i> : (n)
4) <i>labor union</i> : (n)	8) <i>spring up</i> : (v)	12) <i>launch</i> : (v)	16) <i>throwaway</i> : (n)

The text was presented in three versions: 1) unglossed, 2) with bilingual gloss (textual definitions of the target vocabulary items in Turkish), 3) with monolingual gloss (textual definitions of the target vocabulary items in English) (see Appendix C and D). The glosses were attached at the end of the text in both of the glossary groups so that the subjects would be encouraged to use glosses as a way of confirming guessing from context as suggested by Nation (1990:134). Each item was glossed in the order of appearance in the text. The part of speech of each glossed item was indicated in parenthesis (*n* for nouns, *v* for verbs, and *a* for adjectives in English glossary and *i* for nouns, *f* for verbs, and *s* for adjectives in Turkish glossary). Definition and translation of the glossed items were partly paraphrased from dictionary entries by the researcher.

In the book from which the text was selected, each unit begins with a glossary of special terms. Words or expressions used in the tourist industry are discussed and defined in these glossaries. There are ten glossed items in the unit where *Tourist Promotion* appears. However, only three of the glossed items from the book were selected to be re-glossed in the study, the other seven items were avoided because the meanings of the two items could be easily guessed because of borrowing. Their forms and meanings were similar to those of the mother tongue-Turkish words (*brochure*: broşür, and *media*: medya). Two of them were credited as familiar to the subjects. One of the items; *promotion* which is also a borrowing word, included in the Checklist Vocabulary Test and checked as known by 95 % of the subjects. The remained two items were excluded from the text when it was shortened.

3.4.3. Instruments

3.4.3.1. Michigan Placement Test

The students at Anadolu University, The College of Tourism and Hotel Management have different language education backgrounds and they are at different proficiency level. However, the subjects in this study were supposed to be at the same

or similar proficiency level. In order to control 'level' variable, subjects were selected according to their scores in Michigan Placement Test that was administered to total 148 students before the study at the end of the fall term in the academic year 1998- 1999. Although all of the students taking English courses at The College of Tourism and Hotel Management (286 students) were announced to come for the test, only 148 of them were present on the day when the test was administered. The evaluation scale suggested by ELT department at Anadolu University was used for the test. Table 3.2. shows the evaluation scale for the placement test which was used in this study:

Table 3.2. The Evaluation Scale for the Placement Test

76-100	Advanced
61-75	Upper intermediate
46- 60	Intermediate
31- 45	Lower intermediate
16- 30	Elementary
0- 15	Beginner

Out of 148 students who were given the placement test, only the ones whose scores were above 45 included in the study. The distribution of scores (out of 100) for 90 subjects were presented in Table 3.3:

Table 3.3. The Distribution of Placement Test Scores For the Subjects

<u>Score</u>	<u>Number of the Subjects</u>
96 – 100	0
91 – 95	1
86 – 90	2
81 – 85	0
76 – 80	3
71 – 75	3
66 – 70	7
61 – 65	9
56 – 60	24
51 – 55	26
46 – 50	15

The distribution of the scores indicates that the subjects in this study were at the intermediate level (range 46- 60) according to the scale suggested by ELT department at Anadolu University.

3.4.3.2. The Checklist Vocabulary Test

The Checklist Vocabulary Test was a pre-test based on Anderson and Freebody's Yes/No Vocabulary Test (1983, cited in Knight, 1994: 296). It was used to test for prior knowledge of the selected target words. Working from a list of vocabulary items, subjects simply checked whether or not they know the meaning of a word. 32 unfamiliar words were selected from the reading text. Unfamiliarity of these 32 words to the subjects was judged by the subjects' three English instructors including the researcher herself. To increase the reliability of the results, the subjects were informed beforehand that they would not be given any grades. They were then asked to check whether or not they know the meanings of the given words. All the words were presented with their part of speech label in parentheses. Target vocabulary items were selected according to the results of checklist vocabulary test. The 16 words which were found to be known at a rate of higher than 10% were eliminated, leaving 16 target words for treatment as mentioned before as proposed by Ellis and He (1999). The Checklist Vocabulary Test was administered to all of the subjects (see Appendix E for the Checklist Vocabulary Test and for instructions).

3.4.3.3. Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recall Tests

Recall tests were designed to measure the recall of acquired vocabulary knowledge when the target words were presented in their original context. (Hulstijn ,1992; Hulstijn et al, 1996; Watanabe, 1997). These tests were expected to be a more sensitive measure of vocabulary learning in that what might not be recalled from a list of target words might be recalled with the help of context.

In L2 glossary group and Contextual guessing group the target words were underlined in the context of a sentence taken from the text and subjects were asked to write the English equivalent or definition for each word. In L1 glossary group the target words were presented in the same manner and the subjects were asked to write the Turkish translation of each word. The items and sentences in these tests were not presented as in the same order of appearance in the text and in the glosses to prevent order effects such as rote learning. The same tests were given after three weeks as the delayed recall tests to measure long term retention of the target vocabulary items. The recall tests were pilot tested on six intermediate level students who did not participate in the research and who read the text without glossary to see if they could provide the definitions or translations of the target words and to determine the length of time the participants would need to do the test (see Appendices F and G for the recall tests and instructions and see Appendices J and K for the sample student papers).

3.4.3.4. Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Tests

Multiple choice test is a good way to see whether or not the learners recognise the meanings of target words after they saw them in the text or in glosses (c.f. Nation, 1990). The recognition tests were multiple – choice tests and they were prepared by the researcher. In L2 glossary group and contextual guessing group, the subjects were asked to select correct definition among five options: one ‘correct’, three ‘distractors’, and one ‘I don’t know’ option. In L1 glossary group, correct translation of each target word, three distractors Turkish vocabulary items (they were the Turkish equivalents of English distractors), and ‘I don’t know’ option were given to select. “*I don’t know*” option was added to prevent attempts to make guesses and the student were instructed not to guess, but to choose the option *I don’t know* when they did not know the meaning of a word (Lupescu & Day, 1993; Shu et al, 1995). The distractors belonged to the same range of word classes as the target words. However, they were semantically distant from the target words. 13 of the distractors were chosen from among the definitions or translations of other target words. Since the pre-knowledge of the target words was already tested, it should be apparent that it would not be easy for the subjects to select the correct answer

unless they recognised it. The target vocabulary items in these tests were presented in a random order different from that in the text and glosses in order to minimise the effect of rote learning. The same tests were given three weeks later as delayed recognition tests to see retention. The recognition tests were pilot tested on six students who were also given the recall tests to check if the distractors are too plausible or implausible and to see how much time was needed to do the test (see Appendices H and I for the tests and instructions and see Appendices L and M for the sample student papers).

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

The procedure of the experiment had five stages: 1) placement test, 2) the checklist vocabulary test, 3) reading procedure and directions, 4) immediate vocabulary recall and recognition tests, 5) delayed vocabulary recall and recognition tests.

1) Placement test procedure

At the end of the fall term in 1998- 1999 academic year, all of the students taking English courses at The College of Tourism and Hotel Management (286 students) were announced that they would be given a placement test in order to find out their proficiency levels. However, only 148 of them were present on the day when the test was administered. The placement test was administered in three amphies with the help of two assistant teachers during one and a half hour.

2) Checklist Vocabulary Test Procedure

At the beginning of the spring term in 1998- 1999 academic year, all of the students taking English courses at The College of Tourism and Hotel Management were given the checklist vocabulary test in the original classrooms of the students, during their regular class hour by their instructors including the researcher herself. At this stage, the students were informed about the experiment that would be conducted in their classrooms and they were asked to participate in an experiment. However, they were not told anything about the content of the experiment. They were just told that this test was given to them in order to find out which words they know and do not know as a part of the experiment and they would not be given any grades. After collecting all the Checklist Tests, only the ones which belong to intermediate level students were scored.

All of the students were administered the test in order not to break the regular class session.

3) Reading Procedure and Directions

Reading procedure and immediate vocabulary recall and recognition test procedures were conducted during the students' regular 45 minute class hours by the researcher herself. There were three groups of first year students, three groups of second year students, two groups of third year and two groups of fourth year students in the College of Tourism and hotel Management. The students whose placement test scores were above 45 in each group were asked to participate in the experiment and the others were allowed to leave the classroom during the reading procedure. Packs including one of the three different versions of the text: with monolingual glossary, with bilingual glossary and with no gloss were randomly distributed at each class. The study was announced to students as an investigation of English reading comprehension and they were told that they would have to answer comprehension questions after reading. This was done to create conditions conducive to incidental vocabulary learning as suggested by Hulstijn et al (1996). By doing so, students' attention was turned away from particular unknown words and directed towards an understanding of the text. If it was told to the students in advance that they would be given vocabulary tests afterwards, they would have invoked all kinds of rehearsal and memorisation techniques. Students were instructed to read the passage as many times as they could for fifteen minutes. After the reading period the passages and attached glosses were taken from the subjects.

4) Immediate Vocabulary Recall and Recognition Test Procedures

After having read the text and after the reading materials were collected, subjects were given unexpected vocabulary recall test in which they had to recall the meanings of the sixteen target words and in which the target words were underlined in the context of a sentence taken from the text. The students who read the text with L2 (English) glossary and those with no glossary were asked to write the meanings of the target words in English. The students who read the text with L1 (Turkish) glossary were asked to write the meanings of the target words in Turkish. The time limit was fifteen minutes for vocabulary recall test and at the end of the recall test session the tests were collected. Vocabulary recall test was followed by the unexpected vocabulary recognition test in which the students had to choose correct definitions of the target words among five

which the students had to choose correct definitions of the target words among five options: one 'correct', three distractors, and one 'I don't know' option. In L2 glossary group and Contextual guessing group, all options were prepared in L2 (in English). In L1 glossary group, each item including the correct choice, distractors and 'I don't know' option were the Turkish equivalents of their counterparts. All three groups were given ten minutes to complete vocabulary recognition test. Subjects were not informed that they would take the same tests later.

5) Delayed Vocabulary Recall and Recognition Test Procedures

The same vocabulary recall and recognition tests were again given to the three groups after three weeks to measure long term retention. The delayed tests were administered in three classes with the help of three instructors. To increase the reliability of the results, it was explained to participants that their scores on these tasks would in no way affect their grade in the course and then they were given delayed vocabulary recall test followed by delayed vocabulary recognition test. The time limit was set as ten minutes for each section of the delayed tests and it took total twenty minutes.

Treatment Schedule of the study was as follows:

10.12. 1998- The placement test was administered

1. 2. 1999 - The Checklist Vocabulary test was given

5. 4. 1999 - Reading procedure was conducted and immediate vocabulary recall and recognition tests were given.

26. 4. 1999- Delayed vocabulary recall and recognition tests were given.

3.6. Data Analysis

3.6.1. Scoring Procedures

Scoring The Checklist Vocabulary Test:

Items checked *I know it* scored 1 and items checked *I don't know it* were scored 0. The total possible maximum score for the checklist vocabulary test was 32 points. The 16

words which were found to be known at a rate of higher than 10% were eliminated, leaving 16 target words for treatment.

Scoring Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recall Test:

Each answer was judged either correct or incorrect. At the beginning of the study, it was thought to use a 0-2 scale to score vocabulary recall tests: 0 for no response or an incorrect response, 1 for a partially correct response, and 2 for a correct response. After the administration of recall tests, all answers for each vocabulary item were examined and it was seen that there was not any partially correct answer. All answers were either correct (providing their glossary definitions) or incorrect and most of the students did not give any response leaving the space blank. For this reason, the simpler correct / incorrect scoring was ultimately used. Some spelling and syntactic – type errors both in Turkish and English were ignored unless they made a substantial change in the meaning. Therefore, the possible maximum score was 16 (1 points X 16 words).

Scoring Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Test:

To score vocabulary recognition tests, *correct / incorrect* scoring system was used again and an item was scored 1 when the correct answer was selected. Both *incorrect* and *I don't know* options were scored 0. The rationale for giving *I don't know* option was to prevent attempts to make guesses. Consequently, the highest possible score of the tests was 16.

3.6.2. Statistical Analysis

The immediate and delayed vocabulary recall and recognition tests were analysed separately and the means of test scores were compared among the three experimental groups and within each group (L2 glossary group, L1 glossary group, and Contextual guessing group) to see the differences if any among and within the groups. The independent variables of the study were the three experimental groups. Vocabulary recall and recognition scores were dependent variables and there were two different measurement for each dependent variables: immediate and delayed test scores. Therefore, “one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for each of the four tests in order to compare the difference among three groups.

In both immediate and delayed vocabulary tests, the subjects were the same; therefore, the number of correct answers given by the subjects in the first episode was also compared with the same subject's number of correct answers in the second , in order to see the long term retention for each group. Statistical analyses of differences in the means of immediate tests and delayed tests were performed using t- tests. Paired t- tests were used to examine the significance of differences between immediate and delayed vocabulary recall and recognition scores for each group. Totally six paired t- tests were used.



4. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

In this study the amount of vocabulary learning that takes place when students are given monolingual (L2) glosses and when they are given bilingual (L1) glosses while reading was compared. It was also aimed to provide evidence on whether students can learn vocabulary incidentally through reading unmodified authentic texts (i.e. contextual guessing).

The data were analysed in two ways:

- 1) In order to compare the means of test scores among monolingual (L2) glossary group, bilingual (L1) glossary group and contextual guessing group, one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for each of the four tests; for immediate and delayed recall of vocabulary and for immediate and delayed recognition of vocabulary recognition.
- 2) Paired t- tests were used to examine the significance of differences between immediate tests and delayed tests for each group.

4.2. Immediate Vocabulary Recall Test Results

In order to find out the if there is a difference among monolingual (L2) glossary group, bilingual (L1) glossary group and contextual guessing group in terms of immediate recall of vocabulary, one way ANOVA was used. The ANOVA results are reported in table 4.1. The results revealed a statistically significant difference. ($df= 2$, $F= 72,251$, $p= ,000$)

Table 4.1.Results of One- way ANOVA for Immediate Recall of Vocabulary

	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>
Between Groups	809,156	2	404,578	72, 251
Within Groups	487,167	87	5,600	
Total	1296,322	89		

P<00

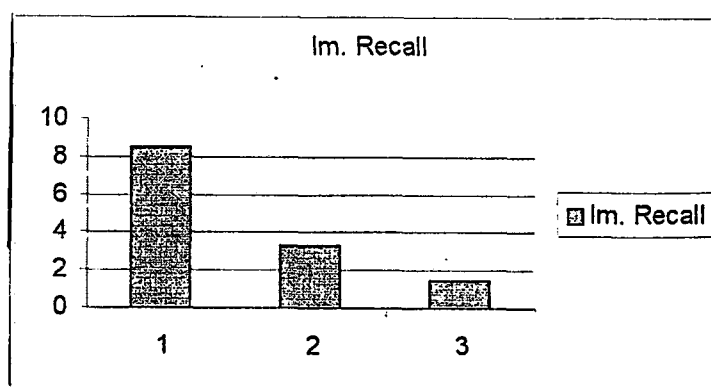
After finding a significant difference among the means for immediate recall of vocabulary, a post hoc Scheffee test was administered to compare the means of three groups. Table 4.2 reveals the results of Scheffee test and these results were also presented as a graph in figure 4.1. According to these results, it is seen that the most significant difference is between bilingual (L1)glossary group and contextual guessing group. It can also be seen that bilingual (L1)glossary group is the most successful group and contextual guessing group is the least successful group in the immediate recall of vocabulary.

Table 4.2. Results of the Scheffee test for Immediate Recall of Vocabulary

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Mean Difference</i>
<i>Immediate recall</i> L1 group vs. L2 group	5,2667*
L1 group vs. CG group	7,0667*
L2 group vs. CG group	1,8000*

* p< .05 (indicates significant difference)

Note: L1= Bilingual (Turkish) Glossary Group; L2= Monolingual (English) Glossary Group; CG= Contextual Guessing Group.

**Figure 4.1.** Immediate Vocabulary Recall Test Results by Means of Groups

4.3. Delayed Vocabulary Recall Test Results

In order to find out the if there is a difference among monolingual (L2) glossary group, bilingual (L1) glossary group and contextual guessing group in terms of delayed recall of vocabulary, one way ANOVA was used. The ANOVA results are reported in table 4.3. The results reveal a statistically significant difference. ($df= 2$, $F= 34,848$, $p= ,000$)

Table 4.3. Results of One- way ANOVA for Delayed Recall of Vocabulary

	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>
Between Groups	249,356	2	124,678	34, 848
Within Groups	311,267	87	3,578	
Total	560,622	89		

$P<00$

A statistically significant difference among the means for delayed recall of vocabulary is observed and a post hoc Scheffee test was administered to compare the means of three groups. Table 4.4 reveals the results of Scheffee test and these results were presented as a graph in figure 4.2. According to these results, it is seen that the most significant difference is between bilingual (L1) glossary group and contextual guessing group again. It can also be seen that bilingual (L1) glossary group is the most successful group and contextual guessing group is the least successful group in the delayed recall of vocabulary as same as the immediate recall.

Table 4.4. Results of the Scheffee test for Delayed Recall of Vocabulary

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Mean Difference</i>
<i>Delayed recall</i> L1 group vs. L2 group	2,5333*
L1 group vs. CG group	4,0333*
L2 group vs. CG group	1,5000*

* $p< .05$ (indicates significant difference)

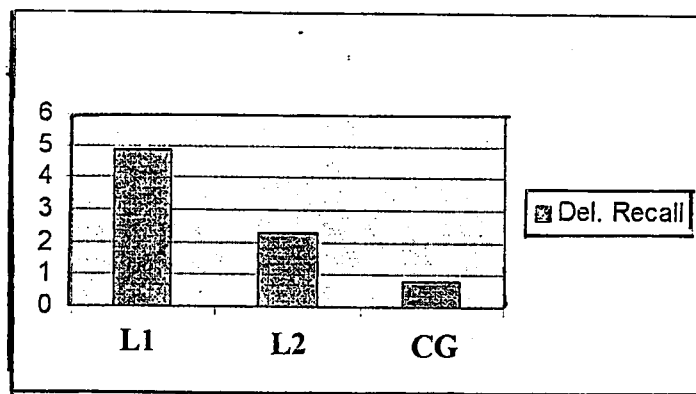


Figure 4.2. Delayed Vocabulary Recall Test Results by Means of Groups

4.4. Immediate Vocabulary Recognition Test Results

The same statistical procedures were applied to Immediate Vocabulary Recognition Test Results. The ANOVA applied to see the differences among the groups for immediate recognition of vocabulary also revealed a statistically significant difference suggesting different levels of vocabulary recognition due to the language of glosses or no gloss condition. These results are seen in table 4.5. ($df= 2$, $F= 68,750$, $p= ,000$)

Table 4.5. Results of One- way ANOVA for Immediate Recognition of Vocabulary

	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>
Between Groups	984,422	2	492,211	68,750
Within Groups	622,867	87	7,159	
Total	1607,289	89		

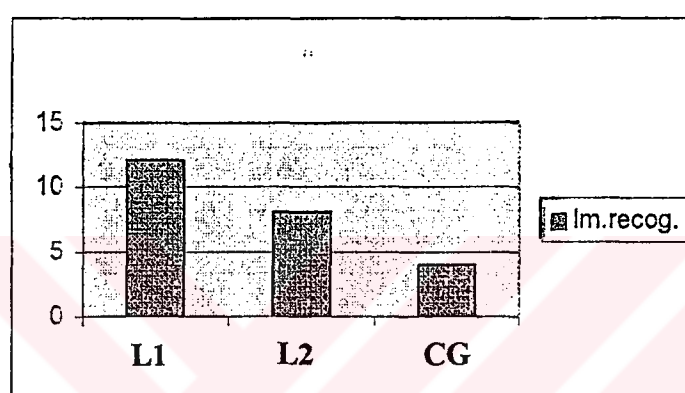
$P<00$

Table 4.6 illustrates the results of the post hoc Scheffee test for Immediate Recognition of Vocabulary and figure 4.3. illustrates the means of three groups as graphs. As in the immediate and delayed vocabulary recall tests, the mean scores of the three groups were significantly different from each other and the mean score of the L1 glossary group was considerably higher than the other groups.

Table 4.6. Results of the Scheffee test for Immediate Recognition of Vocabulary

<i>Dependent Variable</i>		<i>Mean Difference</i>
<i>Immediate recognition</i>	L1 group vs. L2 group	3,9333*
	L1 group vs. CG group	8,1000*
	L2 group vs. CG group	4,1667*

- $p < .05$ (indicates significant difference)

**Figure 4.3.** Immediate Vocabulary Recognition Test Results by Means of Groups

4.5. Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Test Results

The last ANOVA was conducted for the Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Test. Table 4.7. indicates that the main effect for the glossing types on the delayed recognition of vocabulary was also statistically significant ($df = 2$, $F = 58,066$, $p = ,000$).

Table 4.7. Results of One- way ANOVA for Delayed Recognition of Vocabulary

	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>
Between Groups	718,067	2	359,033	58,066
Within Groups	537,933	87	6,183	
Total	1556,000	89		

$P < .00$

Table 4.8 illustrates the results of the post hoc Scheffee test for Delayed Recognition of Vocabulary and figure 4.4. illustrates the means of three groups as graphs. The mean scores of the three groups were significantly different from each other and as it is seen there was a clear separation in the performance of the L1 glossary group again.

Table 4.8. Results of the Scheffee test for Delayed Recognition of Vocabulary

<i>Dependent Variable</i>		<i>Mean Difference</i>
<i>Delayed Recognition</i>	L1 group vs. L2 group	4,6333*
	L1 group vs. CG group	6,7666*
	L2 group vs. CG group	2,1333*

* $p < .05$

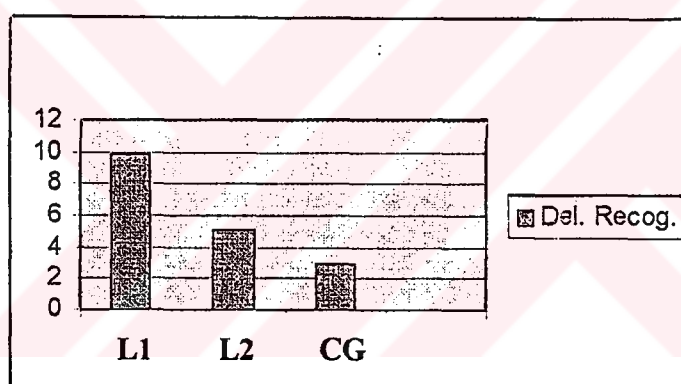


Figure 4.4. Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Test Results by Means of Groups

4.6. Paired t- test Results for L2 Glossary Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recall Scores

In order to compare immediate and delayed vocabulary recall scores within L2 glossary group, paired t- test was used so that it could be possible to find out if there is a decrease in the vocabulary recall scores of L2 glossary group three weeks after the treatment. As it seen in Table 4.9, L2 glossary group subjects decreased their scores by 1,000. This is a significant result at the 0,05 significance level ($t = 3,181$; $p < 0,05$). Therefore, as a result of the immediate and delayed vocabulary recall tests it can be said

that subjects in L2 glossary group showed a considerable decrease in the recall of vocabulary.

Table 4.9. Results of Paired t- test for L2 Glossary Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recall Scores

Tests	n	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Immediate Recall Test	30	3,3000	1,8782	1,000	3,181
Delayed Recall Test	30	2,3000	1,7840		

$P < 0,05$

4.7. Paired t- test Results for L1 Glossary Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recall Scores

Paired t- test results for L1 glossary group for immediate and delayed vocabulary recall scores indicate that subjects in L1 group also decreased their scores three weeks after the treatment. Table 4.10 shows that the mean score of L1 group was calculated as 8,5667 in the immediate vocabulary recall test and 4,8333 in the delayed recall test. This means that the L1 group subjects decreased their scores by 3,7334. This is a significant result at the 0,05 significance level ($t = 5,921$; $p < 0,05$).

Table 4.10. Results of Paired t- test for L1 Glossary Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recall Scores

Tests	n	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Immediate Recall Test	30	8,5667	3,5398	3,7334	5,921
Delayed Recall Test	30	4,8333	2,6272		

$P < 0,05$

4.8. Paired t- test Results for Contextual Guessing Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recall Scores

Paired t-test, which was used to examine the significance of difference between immediate and delayed vocabulary recall scores for contextual guessing group, also revealed a significant difference at the 0, 05 significance level ($t= 3,252$; $p< 0,05$). Subjects in the contextual guessing group decreased their vocabulary recall scores by 0,700 forgetting the vocabulary they recalled immediate after reading. The results of the test can be seen in table 4.11 below.

Table 4.11. Results of Paired t- test for Contextual Guessing Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recall Scores

Tests	n	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Immediate Recall Test	30	1,5000	0,8610	0,700	3,252
Delayed Recall Test	30	0,8000	0,8052		

$P< 0,05$

4.9. Paired t- test Results for L2 Glossary Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Scores

In order to compare immediate and delayed vocabulary recognition scores within L2 glossary group, paired t- test was used so that it could be possible to find out if there is a decrease in the vocabulary recognition scores of L2 glossary group three weeks after the treatment. Table 4.12 indicates that, L2 glossary group subjects decreased their vocabulary recognition scores by 3,000. This is a significant result at the 0,05 significance level ($t= 5,426$; $p< 0,05$). Therefore, it can be said that subjects in L2 glossary group showed a considerable decrease in the recognition of vocabulary.

Table 4.12. Results of Paired t- test for L2 Glossary Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Scores

Tests	n	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Immediate Recognition Test	30	8,1667	2,7926	3,000	5,426
Delayed Recognition Test	30	5,1667	2,7926		

P< 0,05

4.10. Paired t- test Results for L1 Glossary Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Scores

As indicated in Table 4.13, the mean score of L1 group was calculated as 12,1000 in the immediate vocabulary recognition test. This is the highest score of all tests, of all groups. However the L1 group subjects decreased their scores by 2,3000 three weeks after the treatment in the delayed vocabulary recognition test. This is also a significant result at the 0,05 significance level ($t= 5,261$; $p< 0,05$).

Table 4.13. Results of Paired t- test for L1 Glossary Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Scores

Tests	n	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Immediate Recognition Test	30	12,1000	3,1001	2,3000	5,261
Delayed Recognition Test	30	9,8000	2,9525		

P< 0,05

4.11. Paired t- test Results for Contextual Guessing Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Scores

The last paired t- test was conducted for comparing the immediate and delayed vocabulary recognition scores of contextual guessing group. Table 4.14 indicates that immediate and delayed vocabulary recognition scores for contextual guessing group, also revealed a significant difference at the 0,05 significance level ($t= 2,636$; $p< 0,05$).

Subjects in the contextual guessing group decreased their vocabulary recognition scores by 0,9667 forgetting the vocabulary they recognised immediate after reading.

Table 4.14. Results of Paired t- test for Contextual Guessing Group for Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Recognition Scores

Tests	n	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Immediate Recognition Test	30	4,0000	2,0172	0,9667	2,636
Delayed Recognition Test	30	3,0333	1,4259		

$P < 0,05$

As a result, it can be said that subjects in all three groups showed a considerable decrease in both delayed recall and recognition of vocabulary. The results of the tests become more meaningful when converted into percentages. Table 4.15 summarises the percentage results.

Table 4.15. Percentage of Words Learned Incidentally

Groups	Vocabulary Recall Test		Vocabulary Recognition Test	
	Immediate	Delayed	Immediate	Delayed
L2 Group	20,6 %	14,3 %	51 %	32,25 %
L1 Group	53.5 %	30.18 %	75,6 %	61,25 %
CG Group	9.38 %	5 %	25 %	18,75 %

4.12. Discussion of Results

The first research question was: Is there a difference among monolingual (L2) glossary group, bilingual (L1) glossary group and contextual guessing group in terms of immediate and delayed recall of vocabulary? The answer is yes, there is a statistically significant difference among monolingual (L2) glossary group, bilingual (L1) glossary group and contextual guessing group in terms of immediate recall of vocabulary, as well as delayed recall of vocabulary as can be seen in the tables 4.1, and 4.3. The post hoc Scheffe tests in tables 4.2 and 4.4 signify that learners in the two gloss condition groups

outperformed the no gloss condition. In L2 glossary group, the mean score for new words recalled correctly was 3,30 (see figure 4.1) or 20,6 % (see table 4.15) in the immediate vocabulary recall test and 2,30 (see figure 4.2) or 14,3 % (see table 4.15) in the delayed vocabulary recall test. The mean score for correct answers for immediate vocabulary recall test in L1 glossary group was 8.56 (see figure 4.1) or 53,5 % (see table 4.15) and L1 glossary group decreased their scores to 4,83 (see figure 4.2) or 30,18 % (see table 4.15) in the delayed vocabulary recall test. When we look at the mean scores for new words recalled correctly in contextual guessing group, we see that their mean was 1,5 or 9,38 % (see figure 4.1 and table 4.15) in the immediate vocabulary recall test and three weeks later the mean of contextual guessing group was only 0,8 or 5% (see figure 4.2 and table 4.15). A comparison of means indicated that although all subjects recalled more vocabulary when they read the text with glossary than no gloss group, those who had bilingual (L1) glossary recalled the most.

Regarding the differences among groups, the second main question asked if there was a difference among monolingual (L2) glossary group, bilingual (L1) glossary group and contextual guessing group in terms of immediate and delayed recognition of vocabulary. The descriptive statistics are shown in the tables 4.5, and 4.7. Results of ANOVAs demonstrated that there were statistically significant differences among monolingual (L2) glossary group, bilingual (L1) glossary group and contextual guessing group in terms of immediate recognition of vocabulary, as well as delayed recognition of vocabulary. The post hoc Scheffe test comparisons (see tables 4.6 and 4.6) indicated that L1 glossary group was able to recognise significantly more of the target vocabularies than either L2 glossary or contextual guessing group in both immediate and delayed recognition tests. Immediately after reading, those subjects in L2 glossary group achieved a vocabulary recognition mean score of 8,16 or 51% while L1 glossary group obtained a mean score of 12,1 or 75,6% and contextual guessing group mean was 4,0 or 25% (see figure 4.3 and table 4.15 for the means and percentages of immediate vocabulary recognition scores). Three weeks later, L2 glossary group mean was 5,16 or 32,25 % L1 glossary group mean was 9,8 or 61,25 % and contextual guessing group achieved a mean score of 3, 0 or 18,75 % (see figure 4.4 and table 4.15 for the means and percentages of delayed vocabulary recognition scores).

Vocabulary recognition tests reflected the learning of a greater number of words than the recall tests. This difference was not surprising because each test taps a different type or degree of learning. Word recognition only demands the ability to recognise formal features; the learner may or may not reflect on meaning. Moreover, word recognition tests will not distinguish between items of which the learner has ambiguous versus a fairly precise knowledge. Although it is difficult to draw a sharp line between receptive and productive vocabularies (see 2.4.), vocabulary recall tests demand productive knowledge and they aim at learners' producing the word. While recall and production are required for the active use of vocabulary, recognition is needed for its passive use (c.f. Henriksen, 1999).

The third, fourth and fifth research questions were addressed to the comparison of immediate and delayed vocabulary recall scores within the groups. As was to be expected, the scores on the delayed tests were lower than those on the immediate tests and the differences of immediate and delayed vocabulary recall scores within each group reached statistical significance. The paired t- test results which appear in the tables 4.9, 4.10, and 4.11, show that subject performance had changed dramatically in terms of vocabulary recall. In other words, after a three week period there was a significant difference between immediate and delayed vocabulary recall scores within each group. The mean difference between immediate and delayed vocabulary recall scores within L2 glossary group was 1,00; L1 glossary group subjects decreased their scores by 3,73 and subjects in the contextual guessing group decreased their scores by 0,70. The biggest mean difference was observed between immediate and delayed vocabulary recall scores of L1 glossary group.

The sixth, seventh and eighth research questions asked if there was a difference within each group in terms of immediate and delayed vocabulary recognition scores. Significant differences were found between immediate and delayed vocabulary recognition scores within L2 glossary, L1 glossary and contextual guessing groups. The scores on the delayed recognition tests were lower than those on the immediate recognition tests as they were on the recall tests. The paired t- test results (see tables 4.12, 4.13, 4.14) revealed that immediate and delayed vocabulary recognition scores were statistically significant within each group. L2 glossary group subjects decreased their vocabulary recognition scores by 3,00 while L1 group subjects decrease by 2,30

and the mean difference between immediate and delayed vocabulary recognition tests within contextual guessing group was 0, 96.

In summary, the results of the experiment showed that students who read an L2 passage with 16 target words glossed, performed significantly better on four of the vocabulary tests; immediate and delayed vocabulary recall tests- immediate and delayed vocabulary recognition tests- than their peers who read the same passage without the gloss. The language of the gloss also resulted in significant differences on these measures. L1 glossary group scored much higher than L2 glossary group in the immediate and delayed recall and recognition tests.



5. CONCLUSION

5.1. Summary of the Study

Vocabulary is an essential part of a language and for most learning purposes, it needs to be taught for comprehension and for production. Adequate amount of vocabulary is viewed as necessary for reading comprehension, understanding the grammatical structures of a language, and for writing quality (Richards, 1976; Wallace, 1982; Alexander, 1984; Crow and Qigley 1985; Laufer, 1998). Research on both first language and foreign language verified that, except for the first few thousand words in common use, competence in spelling and vocabulary is most efficiently attained incidentally through extensive reading, with the learner guessing the meaning of unknown words (Nagy et al, 1987; Krashen 1989; Hulstijn et al, 1996; Watanabe 1997). However, learners do not use contextual clues successfully when they faced to unknown words in their reading materials. Besides, contextual clues do not work as often as most educators believe (Knith, 1994; Harley et al, 1996; Duquette and Painchaud, 1996). The nature of texts, features of given words, individual learner differences, and the mental tasks learner's do with the words are the main factors that interact to promote and discourage word learning from written texts (Paribaht and Wesche, 1999). Therefore several researchers have investigated ways to promote incidental vocabulary learning through reading both in L1 (Herman et al, 1987; Schatz and Baldwin 1986) and L2 (Hulstijn, 1992; Knight, 1994; Hulstijn et al 1996). One of the factors that favourably affect incidental vocabulary learning is the use of dictionary. However dictionary use might not always be helpful since the task of finding the meaning of a word in a dictionary is a complex process. If a student is not able to find the appropriate meaning in the dictionary from among all the possible definitions, it may be a misleading or confusing task. Despite this, using a dictionary while reading, causes a decrease in reading speed (Bensoussan 1983; Lupescu & Day, 1993). Zuckerkhick (1996: 91) suggests that the more exposure an EFL reader has to a word, the greater the probability that it will be learned.

It is also possible improving learner's success at word learning through strategy training (Fraser, 1999). Another factor which promotes incidental vocabulary learning is, text modification. Jacobs (1991:8) states that, reading texts can be modified syntactically, lexically and stylistically or they can be re-written especially for L2 learners. Glossing unknown words is another way of text modification which allows the use of authentic texts in second and foreign language instruction.

The focus of this study was to find out what type of vocabulary gloss is more beneficial for incidental vocabulary learning; monolingual (English- English) or bilingual (English- Turkish) glosses? It was also intended to provide evidence on whether students can learn vocabulary incidentally through reading an unmodified authentic text.

90 intermediate learners of English as a foreign language enrolled in compulsory English classes in Anadolu University, The College of Tourism and Hotel Management read a text about tourist promotion under one of the three conditions: with L1(English-Turkish) glossary, with L2 (English- English) glossary and without glossary. After reading the text, all the students in three groups were tested on recall and recognition of sixteen target vocabulary items both immediately and after three weeks. The immediate and delayed vocabulary recall and recognition tests were analysed separately and the means of test scores were compared among three experimental groups and within each group (L2 glossary group, L1 glossary group, and Contextual guessing group) to see the differences, if any, among and within the groups. The statistical analyses presented in the previous chapter revealed that, there was a statistically significant difference among monolingual (L2) glossary group, bilingual (L1)glossary group and contextual guessing group in terms of both immediate and delayed recall of vocabulary, as well as immediate and delayed recognition of vocabulary. A significant difference was also observed between the immediate and delayed tests within the groups. The scores on the delayed tests were lower than those on the immediate tests for both recall and recognition of target vocabulary items in all of the groups. Students who read the passage with 16 target words glossed, performed significantly better on four of the vocabulary tests than equivalent students who read the same passage without the gloss. The language of the gloss also resulted in significant differences on these measures. L1glossary group scored much higher than other groups on both measures of recall and recognition.

5.2. Major Findings of the Study

The results of the present study indicated that glossing significantly increased incidental vocabulary learning. In other words, both groups using glossaries outperformed the group not using glossary on both immediate and delayed tests of recall and recognition. This result seems to support previous studies which stated the idea that adding vocabulary glosses to a reading passage will be effective for vocabulary learning through reading (Hulstijn, 1992; Jacobs et al, 1994; Hulstijn et al, 1996; Chun & Plass 1996; Watanabe, 1997). The findings of this study do not support the widespread practice of advising students to guess the word meaning from the context.

Although the passages with L1 and L2 glosses induced significantly more learning of unfamiliar words than the passage without gloss; L1 glossary condition yielded significantly higher scores than L2 glossary condition on both immediate and delayed measures of recall and recognition. That is, the subjects who read the passage with L1 glossary, learned more words than those who read with L2 glossary and without glossary. It seems then, that L1 glossary was superior to L2 glossary condition in promoting vocabulary learning. Most of the educators tend to avoid providing native language equivalents of the unknown words and the use of L1 is discouraged by many scholars (c.f. Nation, 1990). These findings, however, showed that learning of unknown words is made easier if the equivalent of the mother tongue is given. Taylor (1990), supports the value of discussing and comparing how the same thing can be said in different language. Significantly higher scores of L1 glossary group, supports Taylor's assumptions.

The recognition tests reflected the learning of a greater number of words than the recall tests. This difference was not surprising because word recognition only demands the ability to recognise formal features. Recognition tests will not distinguish between items of which the learner has an ambiguous versus accurate knowledge. On the other hand, recall task measures different level of vocabulary knowledge and differs in its sensitivity. When a word is encountered once in a context, normally it is easier for the learner to recognise it than to produce it.

With regard to the comparison of immediate and delayed recall and recognition test scores within the groups, some reduction in both recall and recognition would be

expected. Although there was clear evidence that the subjects who read the passage with glosses were able to remember the words over time, the scores on the delayed tests were lower than those on the immediate tests and the differences of immediate and delayed vocabulary recall scores within each group reached statistical significance. Subjects in L1 glossary group was able to remember significantly more of the target vocabularies than those either in L2 glossary or contextual guessing group in both delayed recall and recognition tests although they performed significantly better on immediate tests.

In a finding similar to the one in this study, Watanabe (1997), discovered that both single and marginal gloss conditions performed significantly better on vocabulary test than no cue condition but no follow-up was done to see if the students retained this learning.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

The results of the present study support the use of glosses in foreign language texts read by intermediate level students. Results demonstrate that glossing has an extremely positive effect on incidental vocabulary learning through reading. To use context clues which is the major word meaning strategy taught to the students by many educators should be re-examined in the light of these findings.

With regard to the effectiveness of the different gloss languages, the significantly higher scores of L1(bilingual) glossary group than L2 (monolingual) glossary group was contrary to the belief that (cf. Baxter, 1980; Nation, 1990) bilingual dictionaries hinders the development of proficiency in the second or foreign language. This study has shown that L1 glossary was superior to L2 glossary condition in promoting vocabulary learning. Similarly, Lupescu & Day (1993), found that the use of a bilingual dictionary can facilitate the learning of vocabulary by EFL students, however their study did not involve the use of monolingual dictionary. Moreover, learners feel that accessing word meanings in their native language is the key factor in understanding the foreign language text (cf. Davis & Lyman-Hager 1997). Therefore it can be said that teachers should be aware of these tendencies and the use of L1 glossaries should be encouraged.

An additional pedagogical implication from this study relates to the significant decrease of vocabulary recall and recognition scores on the delayed tests, three weeks after the treatment. It was observed that L1 glossary has a higher retention effect than the L2 glossary and contextual guessing conditions. However, it was seen that this retention should be reinforced. Hulstijn et al (1996), verified that frequency of occurrence will foster incidental vocabulary learning more when the readers are given the meanings of unknown words through glosses. However, to make the unknown words reappear several times is not possible when the learners read authentic texts. The effort given to the learning of new words will be useless if this is not followed up by a later encounter with the words. Thus learners can be invited to review regularly their reading materials and glosses or vocabulary exercises can be added to the glossed texts.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

This study offers that the use of L1 (bilingual) glosses in foreign language texts fosters incidental vocabulary learning. It seems necessary to carry out another study on using computerised glosses.. Ongoing studies on learning styles and strategies (c.f. Felder & Henriques, 1995; Bickel & Truscillo, 1996; Oxford & Green, 1996) have provided evidence that different types of learners learn better with the type of information best suited to their learning styles. Individual differences can be taken into consideration and the effectiveness of different types of glosses such as pictures, sound or videos on vocabulary learning can also be investigated.

In a traditional gloss, readers may find that many unfamiliar words and expressions were not glossed, while many familiar expressions were. Although experienced teachers can determine the vocabulary items likely unknown by foreign language students, it would be worth to investigate whether teacher's choices of words to gloss in a particular text agreed with learner's choices.

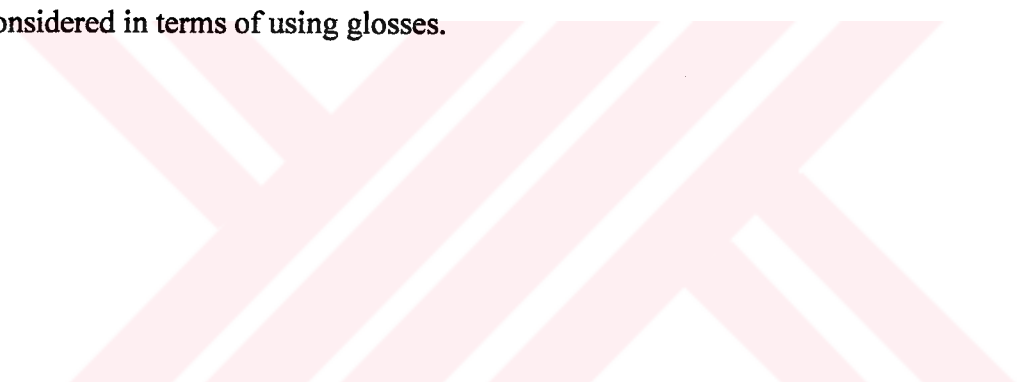
In this study, the glosses were positioned at the end of the text as suggested by Nation (1990) so that the students should be encouraged to use glosses as a way of confirming guessing from the context and glossed items were not marked in any way. However, different locations of the gloss such as in the margin or at the bottom of the

page or marking the glossed items using italics, boldface, numbers, asteriks, circles or underlines may produce different results.

The retention of target words was measured using vocabulary recall and recognition tests in this study. Students can be given a series of reading tasks accompanied by glosses and the reading tasks can be followed by free writing task which requires the use of target words appeared in the glosses.

In this study, the students who read the text without glossary were asked to write the meanings of the target words in English in vocabulary recall test and all the options in vocabulary recognition test were prepared in English (see3.5.) .It would be interesting to see the results if they had been asked to write the meanings of the target words in Turkish in vocabulary recall test and all the options in vocabulary recognition test had been prepared in Turkish.

The relationship between vocabulary learning and reading comprehension can also be considered in terms of using glosses.



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APPENDIX -A-

Tourist Promotion (Original Text).

There have been three aims of most tourist *promotion* in the last few years. The first has been to retain the established market of people for whom travel is a normal form of recreation. It is impossible to characterize them exactly, but generally they are likely to be between thirty and fifty years of age, well educated, residents of urban centers, and prosperous, with incomes of \$25,000 a year or more.

The second purpose of tourist promotion has been to increase the size of the market. In order for tourism to grow, it is necessary to attract people who would not have traveled much until the last few years. These include not only office workers, but also industrial workers with much larger disposable incomes than ever before. It is significant for tourism that labor unions, having achieved high wage levels for workers in the industrialized countries, now fight for *fringe benefits* such as longer paid vacations and shorter work weeks. A three-day weekend, a distinct possibility in the not-too-distant future, would almost certainly cause an increase at least in domestic tourism.

The third goal of tourist promotion has been to overcome what might best be called its seasonal bias. In many countries, summer was the traditional vacation season. In the United States, for example, people went off to a resort in the mountains or at the seashore during the hot months. Businessmen sometimes sent their families off for the entire summer and joined them for weekends at such resorts as Newport or Lake George. In France, the summer vacation has extended even to the shutting down of many stores and small businesses. Hundreds of thousands of Frenchmen leave Paris in August for the south of France or for destinations outside the country.

Winter vacations have been heavily promoted to spread tourism more evenly throughout the year. There has been a big increase in facilities for winter sports. Ski resorts have sprung up which attract not just the wealthy to resorts like St. Moritz in Switzerland, but also the office or factory workers who want to get out on the ski slopes for a winter weekend. The biggest attraction of all, especially to people who must endure a cold and gloomy northern winter, is a vacation in the sun. Some areas have been able to combine both attractions. The winter sunshine of Marrakech in Morocco, for example, has long made it an attractive resort, and now ski facilities have been developed in the nearby Atlas Mountains for winter sports enthusiasts.

Many different organizations are involved in tourist promotion.

They include official and semiofficial tourist bureaus, the transportation companies, tour operators, retail travel agents, and individual hotels or hotel chains. Through their tourist offices, governments do a great deal of travel promotion, both in the form of advertising and publicity. Even the United States government, which has not been notable for encouraging tourism, launched an advertising campaign to attract foreign visitors and thereby help overcome its huge tourist deficit.

There are two major kinds of promotion—publicity and advertising. Publicity might well be termed free advertising. It consists of stories placed in newspapers and magazines about travel, accommodations, restaurants, and other parts of the whole tourist industry. Many newspapers and magazines carry such stories regularly as features. Indeed, professional travel writers journey from resort area to resort area to report on the facilities and amenities that are available. Much of this travel writing is highly specialized. An American magazine called *Gourmet*, for example, appeals to lovers of good food. It carries several travel pieces in each issue, all of them placing special emphasis on the food that a traveler will find in one place or another.

News events that apparently have nothing to do with tourism frequently provide a great deal of indirect publicity for the industry. The Olympic Games are an excellent example. Stories about the Olympics appear on the sports pages, but a desire to see the Games is generated in many people by all the publicity. Some news events, on the other hand, discourage tourism—the bombing of luxury hotels in San Juan, for example.

Another kind of tourist-connected public relations comes under the heading of *familiarization*. People in the industry, especially those involved in sales—notably travel agents—are frequently provided with free trips to tourist destinations. At best, they may be so impressed by what they see that they will push that area or resort. And at least, they will be able to answer questions from their own experience. Familiarization trips are often extended to other people in the tourist industry, especially tour operators and employees of the transportation companies and government bureaus.

Tourist advertising is a large business in itself. Most of the advertising is directed toward the large tourist-generating regions—Canada and the United States, western Europe, and Japan. Within those regions, advertising is concentrated in particular areas. In the United States and Canada, the cities of the northeast and of the Pacific coast

produce more travelers than other areas, so they receive a great deal more advertising. In Europe and Japan, travel and tour advertising is concentrated in urban conglomerations like Paris, London, Tokyo, and Osaka.

Media, the plural of *medium*, is a term that is used for the different means of spreading information in the form of news and advertising. Newspapers and magazines—the print media—and radio and television—the broadcast media—are usually included in the term. Once the market area has been pinpointed, the advertiser tries to select the particular medium that will reach those people who are likely to purchase the services that he is promoting.

Television reaches the largest market, one that generally cuts across different social and income groups. TV time is also very expensive, so it is used principally by transportation companies and government tourist agencies for *institutional advertising*, keeping the name of the company or the region in the public view without giving many specific details about services. Radio serves a more limited audience. For one thing, it cannot transmit the beautiful pictures and colors of television. For another, the area and audience that can be reached by many radio stations is quite small. Radio, however, is unique in that it can reach people driving their automobiles.

Of the print media, newspapers reach the broadest group of people. Many papers in big tourist markets—the *New York Times*, for instance—have a weekly travel section. In addition to feature stories, the travel section carries many ads for particular tours and particular resorts. A person who has been intrigued by a general destination because of the colorful pictures on TV or travel posters could then find in the newspaper specific details about accommodations, tours, and prices.

Most magazines nowadays are directed to special-interest groups. *Gourmet*, which we mentioned previously, is a good example. Some institutional advertising appears in magazines, but for the most part they carry advertising directed to the groups who read the magazines. Advertisements for archeological tours or guided tours to the great museums of Europe appear in art magazines; tours that are built around opera performances are advertised by magazines intended for music lovers. Magazines that are read by higher income families with good education often carry advertising for tours that might attract the traveler who has been everywhere—special tours to the Galapagos

Islands, for instance, or through the Strait of Magellan. Several magazines are also intended specifically for the travel trade. Among them are magazines distributed to holders of credit cards or to passengers on the airlines.

Another form of advertising is the *brochure*. It can be an elaborate pamphlet on glossy paper with beautiful color photographs, or a simple *throwaway* with a page of details for a tour. Tour operators distribute brochures and throwaways in large numbers to travel agents in the market area they are trying to reach. In addition, many of them are sent out by *direct mailing* to selected lists of customers by tour operators and travel agents. The names and addresses are gathered from those who have been on previous tours, from customers of the travel agencies, from people who hold *credit cards*, or from similar sources. Many lists are sold by one organization to another, usually for a few cents a name.

A great deal of tourist advertising, especially of the institutional variety, stresses the destination, and in fact this is known as *destination advertising*. The transportation companies, in particular, once tried to emphasize the services that they offered on the way. Getting there, according to one campaign, was supposed to be half the fun. It is now generally accepted, however, that the public does not really differentiate between one airline and another, no matter how pretty the stewardesses, how elaborate the meal service, or how brightly painted the aircraft. What the public is buying is essentially a destination, and that is what most of the airlines are emphasizing in their current campaigns. Being there is almost all the fun, as most travelers can assure the transportation companies.

Perhaps the most effective kind of tourist promotion is the one that cannot be manipulated by the industry. This is word of mouth, what one person says to another about his vacation. And this is indeed a major topic of conversation among people who travel. Like news stories, the results of word of mouth can be good or bad. A recommendation of a resort or hotel by one family to another can significantly influence the choice people are likely to make. On the other hand, a bad report spread around by disgruntled tourists may sharply cut tourism.

Among other things, word of mouth guarantees that the tourist industry will provide more or less what it promises. One might say that it is a powerful force in keeping the industry honest.

APPENDIX -B-

Tourist Promotion (Shortened Reading Text)

There have been three aims of most tourist promotion in the last few years. The first has been to retain the established market of people for whom travel is a normal form of recreation. It is impossible to characterize them exactly, but generally they are likely to be between thirty and fifty years of age, well educated, residents of urban centers, and prosperous, with incomes of \$ 25,000 a year or more.

The second purpose of tourist promotion has been to increase the size of the market. In order for tourism to grow, it is necessary to attract people who would not have traveled much until the last few years. These include not only office workers, but also industrial workers with much larger disposable incomes than ever before. It is significant for tourism that labor unions, having achieved high wage levels for workers in the industrialized countries, now fight for fringe benefits such as longer paid vacations and shorter work weeks. A three-day weekend, a distinct possibility in the not-too-distant future, would almost certainly cause an increase at least in domestic tourism.

The third goal of tourist promotion has been to overcome what might best be called its seasonal bias. In many countries, summer was the traditional vacation season. In the United States, for example, people went off to a resort in the mountains or at the seashore during the hot months. Businessmen sometimes sent their families off for the entire summer and joined them for weekends at such resorts as Newport or Lake George. In France, the summer vacation has extended even to the shutting down of many stores and small businesses. Hundreds of thousands of Frenchmen leave Paris in August for the south of France or for destinations outside the country.

Winter vacations have been heavily promoted to spread tourism more evenly throughout the year. There has been a big increase in facilities for winter sports. Ski resorts have sprung up which attract not just the wealthy to resorts like St. Moritz in Switzerland, but also the office or factory workers who want to get out on the ski slopes for a winter weekend. The biggest attraction of all, especially to people who must endure a cold and gloomy northern winter, is a vacation in the sun. Some areas have been able to combine both attractions. The winter sunshine of Marrakech in Morocco, for example, has long

made it an attractive resort, and now ski facilities have been developed in the nearby Atlas Mountains for winter sports enthusiasts.

Many different organizations are involved in tourist promotion. They include official and semi-official tourist bureaus, the transportation companies, tour operators, retail travel agents, and individual hotels or hotel chains. Through their tourist offices, governments do a great deal of travel promotion, both in the form of advertising and publicity. Even the United States government, which has not been notable for encouraging tourism, launched an advertising campaign to attract foreign visitors and thereby help overcome its huge tourist deficit.

There are two major kinds of promotion – publicity and advertising. Publicity might well be termed free advertising. It consists of stories placed in newspapers and magazines about travel, accommodations, restaurants, and other parts of the whole tourist industry. Many newspapers and magazines carry such stories regularly as features. Indeed, professional travel writers journey from resort area to resort area to report on the facilities and amenities that are available.

Another kind of tourist-connected public relations comes under the heading of familiarization. People in the industry, especially those involved in sales – notably travel agents – are frequently provided with free trips to tourist destinations. At best, they may be so impressed by what they see that they will push that area or resort. And at least, they will be able to answer questions from their own experience.

Media, the plural of medium, is a term that is used for the different means of distributing information in the form of news and advertising. Newspapers and magazines – the print media – and radio and television – the broadcast media – are usually included in the term. Once the market area has been determined, the advertiser tries to select the particular medium that will reach those people who are likely to purchase the services that he is promoting.

Another form of advertising is the brochure. Tour operators distribute brochures and throwaways in large numbers to travel agents in the market area they are trying to reach. In addition, many of them are sent out by direct mailing to selected lists of customers by tour operators and travel agents.

APPENDIX -C-**Glossary:**

retain: (v) keep, continue to have or hold

resident: (n) inhabitant, person living in a place

disposable: (adj) can be easily used and finished

labor union: (n) organized association of workers

fringe benefits: (n) additional advantages to wages or salary

distinct: (adj) easily understood, clear

spread: (v) to extend or distribute over a period of time

spring up: (v) to rise, grow up quickly

wealthy: (adj) rich

endure: (v) suffer; undergo pain

gloomy: (adj) dark, depressing

launch: (v) to start or set in operation

deficit: (n) a shortage; condition of not having enough

amenity: (n) pleasure; luxury

familiarization: (n) making something known

throwaway: (n) printed handbill

APPENDIX D**Sözlükçe**

retain: (f) muhafaza etmek, elinden kaçırmamak

resident: (i) bir yerde oturan kimse, sakin

disposable: (s) özgürce kullanılabilen

labor union: (i) işçi sendikası

fringe benefits: (i) ek faydalar

distinct: (s) apaçık, belirgin

spread: (f) yaymak, genişletmek

spring up: (f) canlanmak, yükselmek

wealthy: (s) varlıklı, zengin

endure: (f) katlanmak, tahammül etmek

gloomy: (s) kasvetli, iç karartıcı

launch: (f) başlatmak, girişmek

deficit: (i) eksiklik

amenity: (i) hoşluk, tatlılık

familiarization: (i) tanıtmak, bilgilendirme

throwaway: (i) el ilanı

APPENDIX -E-

Checklist Vocabulary Test

Student's Name:

Instructions: For each of the 32 vocabulary items listed below, please put a cross (x) in the right box in the suitable column. The purpose of this task is to ascertain which words you know and do not know. We assume that you do not know all of the words. You will not be given any grades after the evaluation of the results.

Yönerge: Aşağıda verilen 32 kelimenin her birisi için, size uygun olan kolona çarpı (x) işareti koyunuz. Bu değerlendirmenin amacı aşağıdaki kelimelerden hangilerini bilip, hangilerini bilmediğinizi belirlemektir. Kelimelerin hepsini bilmediğinizi varsayıyoruz. Bu değerlendirmenin sonunda size not verilmeyecektir.

	I know it	I don't know it
(n) promotion	☐	☐
(v) retain	☐	☐
(n) recreation	☐	☐
(n) resident	☐	☐
(adj) urban	☐	☐
(adj) prosperous	☐	☐
(n) income	☐	☐
(adj) disposable	☐	☐
(n) labor union	☐	☐
(n) fringe benefit	☐	☐
(adj) distinct	☐	☐

	I know it	I don't know it
(v) overcome	☐	☐
(n) bias	☐	☐
(adj) entire	☐	☐
(n) destination	☐	☐
(v) spread	☐	☐
(adv) evenly	☐	☐
(v) spring up	☐	☐
(adj) wealthy	☐	☐
(n) slope	☐	☐
(v) endure	☐	☐
(adj) gloomy	☐	☐
(n) enthusiast	☐	☐
(v) launch	☐	☐
(adj) huge	☐	☐
(n) term	☐	☐
(adj) deficit	☐	☐
(n) amenity	☐	☐
(n) familiarization	☐	☐
(adj) broadcast	☐	☐
(v) purchase	☐	☐
(n) throwaway	☐	☐

APPENDIX -F-

Vocabulary Recall Test for L2 Glossary and Contextual Guessing Groups

Name:

Read the sentences carefully and write the meanings or definitions of the words in English.

- 1- Labor unions achieved high wage levels for workers.

labor union:-----

- 2- People in the tourist industry, especially travel agents are frequently provided familiarization trips to tourist destinations.

familiarization:-----

- 3- Another form of advertising is distributing throwaways.

throwaway:-----

- 4- Most of the tourists are the residents of urban centres

resident: -----

- 5- Some workers have fringe benefits such as longer paid vacations and shorter work weeks.

fringe benefits:-----

- 6- Winter vacations have been heavily promoted to spread tourism throughout the year.

spread:-----

- 7- Ski resorts have sprung up and attract office and factory workers.

spring up:-----

8- Industrial workers have much larger disposable incomes than ever before.

disposable:-----

9- Ski resorts attract not only wealthy to resorts like St. Moritz in Switzerland but also office and factory workers nowadays.

wealthy:-----

10- The biggest attraction to people who must endure a cold and gloomy northern winter, is a vacation in the sun.

endure:-----

11- gloomy:-----

12- A three-day weekend, a distinct possibility in the not-too-distant future, would almost certainly cause an increase at least in domestic tourism.

distinct:-----

13- Even the United States government, which has not been notable for encouraging tourism, launched an advertising campaign.

launch:-----

14- The first aim of tourist promotion has been to retain the established market.

retain:-----

15- Professional travel writers journey from resort area to resort area to report on the facilities and amenities that are available.

amenity:-----

16- The United States government wants to attract foreign visitors and thereby help overcome its huge tourist deficit.

deficit:-----

APPENDIX -G-

Vocabulary Recall Test for L1 Glossary Group

Name:

Aşağıdaki cümleleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve sözcüklerin Türkçe karşılıklarını yazınız.

- 1- Labor unions achieved high wage levels for workers.

labor union:-----

- 2- People in the tourist industry, especially travel agents are frequently provided familiarization trips to tourist destinations.

familiarization:-----

- 3- Another form of advertising is distributing throwaways.

throwaway:-----

- 4- Most of the tourists are the residents of urban centres

resident: -----

- 5- Some workers have fringe benefits such as longer paid vacations and shorter work weeks.

fringe benefits:-----

- 6- Winter vacations have been heavily promoted to spread tourism throughout the year.

spread:-----

- 7- Ski resorts have sprung up and attract office and factory workers.

spring up:-----

- 8- Industrial workers have much larger disposable incomes than ever before.

disposable:-----

9- Ski resorts attract not only wealthy to resorts like St. Moritz in Switzerland but also office and factory workers nowadays.

wealthy:-----

10- The biggest attraction to people who must endure a cold and gloomy northern winter is a vacation in the sun.

endure:-----

11- gloomy:-----

12- A three-day weekend, a distinct possibility in the not-too-distant future, would almost certainly cause an increase at least in domestic tourism.

distinct:-----

13- Even the United States government, which has not been notable for encouraging tourism, launched an advertising campaign.

launch:-----

14- The first aim of tourist promotion has been to retain the established market.

retain:-----

15- Professional travel writers journey from resort area to resort area to report on the facilities and amenities that are available.

amenity:-----

16- The United States government wants to attract foreign visitors and thereby help overcome its huge tourist deficit.

deficit:-----

APPENDIX -H-

Vocabulary Recognition Test for L2 Glossary and Contextual Guessing Groups

Name:

Circle the correct equivalents or definitions of the given words. If you don't know the answer, circle *I don't know* option. Please do not try to guess the meaning.

1- fringe benefits

- a) additional advantages to wages or salary
- b) financial help
- c) money paid to a people who can not work
- d) bank interests
- e) I don't know

5- distinct

- a) made carefully and in detail
- b) dark, depressing
- c) far away
- d) easily understood, clear
- e) I don't know

2- resident

- a) chairman
- b) person who moves from one place to another
- c) inhabitant, person living in a place
- d) person who has a power
- e) I don't know

6- spread

- a) to divide into parts or shares
- b) to extend or distribute over a period of time
- c) to start or set in operation
- d) to rise, grow up quickly
- e) I don't know

3- retain

- a) to determine or identify
- b) keep; continue to have or hold
- c) leave
- d) to start or set in operation
- e) I don't know

7- spring up

- a) to rise; to grow up quickly
- b) to make useful
- c) to set, arrange or establish
- d) keep; continue to have or hold
- e) I don't know

4- endure

- a) to bring to an end, to complete
- b) to determine or identify
- c) to keep within limits
- d) suffer, undergo pain
- e) I don't know

8- disposable

- a) can be easily used and finished
- b) easily understood, clear
- c) rich
- d) dark, depressing
- e) I don't know

9- labor union

- a) a legal holiday in honor of workers
- b) skilled workers
- c) organized association of workers
- d) employers' association
- e) I don't know

10- throwaway

- a) booklet
- b) billboard
- c) dust- bin
- d) handbill
- e) I don't know

11- amenity

- a) pleasure, luxury
- b) financial help
- c) inhabitant, person living in a place
- d) skilled worker
- e) I don't know

12- wealthy

- a) regular
- b) comfortable
- c) rich
- d) easily understood, clear
- e) I don't know

13- gloomy

- a) sticky
- b) dark, depressing
- c) can be easily used and finished
- d) regular
- e) I don't know

14- familiarization

- a) handbill
- b) additional advantages to wages or salary
- c) making something known
- d) organized association of workers
- e) I don't know

15- launch

- a) to determine or identify
- b) to start or set in operation
- c) to divide into parts or shares
- d) suffer, undergo pain
- e) I don't know

16- deficit

- a) pleasure, luxury
- b) made carefully and in detail
- c) wrong or misleading information
- d) a shortage; condition of not having enough
- e) I don't know

APPENDIX -I-

Vocabulary Recognition Test for L1 Glossary Group

Name:

Aşağıda verilen İngilizce kelimelerin Türkçe karşılıklarını seçerek, doğru cevabı daire içine alınız. Eğer doğru cevabı bilmiyorsanız, lütfen tahminde bulunmadan, *bilmiyorum* seçeneğini işaretleyiniz.

1- fringe benefits

- a) ek faydalar
- b) mali yardım
- c) işsizlik sigortası
- d) banka faizleri
- e) bilmiyorum

5- distinct

- a) kesin
- b) kasvetli, iç karartıcı
- c) uzak
- d) apaçık, belirgin
- e) bilmiyorum

2- resident

- a) başkan
- b) göçmen
- c) bir yerde oturan kimse
- d) sorumlu kişi
- e) bilmiyorum

6- spread

- a) bölmek, paylaşmak
- b) yaymak, genişletmek
- c) başlatmak, girişmek
- d) canlanmak, yükselmek
- e) bilmiyorum

3- retain

- a) belirlemek, tanımlamak
- b) elinden kaçırmamak
- c) ayrılmak, terketmek
- d) başlatmak, girişmek
- e) bilmiyorum

7- spring up

- a) canlanmak, yükselmek
- b) faydalı hale getirmek
- c) saptamak, kararlaştırmak
- d) elinden kaçırmamak
- e) bilmiyorum

4- endure

- a) sonuçlandırmak
- b) belirlemek, tanımlamak
- c) kısıtlamak, sınırlamak,
- d) katlanmak, tahamül etmek
- e) bilmiyorum

8- disposable

- a) özgürce kullanılabilen
- b) apaçık, belirgin
- c) zengin, varlıklı
- d) kasvetli, iç karartıcı
- e) bilmiyorum

9- labor union

- a) işçi bayramı
- b) kalifiye işçi
- c) işçi sendikası
- d) işverenler derneği
- e) bilmiyorum

10- throwaway

- a) kitapçık
- b) poster
- c) çöp kutusu
- d) el ilanı
- e) bilmiyorum

11- amenity

- a) hoşluk, tatlılık
- b) mali yardım
- c) bir yerde oturan kimse
- d) kalifiye işçi
- e) bilmiyorum

12- wealthy

- a) düzenli
- b) rahat konforlu
- c) zengin, varlıklı
- d) apaçık, belirgin
- e) bilmiyorum

13- gloomy

- a) yapışkan
- b) kasvetli, iç karartıcı
- c) özgürce kullanılabilen
- d) düzenli
- e) bilmiyorum

14- familiarization

- a) el ilanı
- b) ek faydalar
- c) tanıtma, bilgilendirme
- d) işçi sendikası
- e) bilmiyorum

15- launch

- a) belirlemek, tanımlamak
- b) başlatmak, girişmek
- c) bölmek, paylaşmak
- d) katlanmak, tahamül etmek
- e) bilmiyorum

16- deficit

- a) hoşluk, tatlılık
- b) özenle ve ayrıntılı yapılmış
- c) yanlış ya da yanıltıcı bilgi
- d) eksiklik
- e) bilmiyorum

Vocabulary Recall Test for L2 Glossary and Contextual Guessing Groups

Read the sentences carefully and write the meanings or definitions of the words in English.

- 1- Labor unions achieved high wage levels for workers.
labor union: worker's union, association ✓
- 2- People in the tourist industry, especially travel agents are frequently provided familiarization trips to tourist destinations.
familiarization: another father and children
- 3- Another form of advertising is distributing throwaways.
throwaway: hand bill ✓
- 4- Most of the tourists are the residents of urban centres
resident: resident like Bill Clinton
- 5- Some workers have fringe benefits such as longer paid vacations and shorter work weeks.
fringe benefits: additional advantages to wages or salary ✓
- 6- Winter vacations have been heavily promoted to spread tourism throughout the year.
spread: _____
- 7- Ski resorts have sprung up and attract office and factory workers.
spring up: after winter, a season
- 8- Industrial workers have much larger disposable incomes than ever before.
disposable: _____

APPENDIX -J -

Sample Test Paper

- 9- Ski resorts attract not only wealthy to resorts like St. Moritz in Switzerland but also office and factory workers nowadays.
wealthy: rich ✓

- 10- The biggest attraction to people who must endure a cold and gloomy northern winter, is a vacation in the sun.
endure: _____

- 11- gloomy: dark, depressing ✓

- 12- A three-day weekend, a distinct possibility in the not-too-distant future, would almost certainly cause an increase at least in domestic tourism.
distinct: clear ✓

- 13- Even the United States government, which has not been notable for encouraging tourism, launched an advertising campaign.
launch: to start an operation ✓

- 14- The first aim of tourist promotion has been to retain the established market.
retain: _____

- 15- Professional travel writers journey from resort area to resort area to report on the facilities and amenities that are available.
amenity: pleasure luxury ✓

- 16- The United States government wants to attract foreign visitors and thereby help overcome its huge tourist deficit.
deficit: _____

Sample Test Paper

Aşağıdaki cümleleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve sözcüklerin Türkçe karşılıklarını yazınız.

- 1- Labor unions achieved high wage levels for workers.
labor union: İşçi sendikası ✓
- 2- People in the tourist industry, especially travel agents are frequently provided familiarization trips to tourist destinations.
familiarization: alıştırma ✓
- 3- Another form of advertising is distributing throwaways.
throwaway: Tutukluk atması ✓
- 4- Most of the tourists are the residents of urban centres
resident: Bir yerde oturmuş, sakin ✓
- 5- Some workers have fringe benefits such as longer paid vacations and shorter work weeks.
fringe benefits: Ekl faydalar, yarımlar ✓
- 6- Winter vacations have been heavily promoted to spread tourism throughout the year.
spread: Yaymak genişletmek ✓
- 7- Ski resorts have sprung up and attract office and factory workers.
spring up: _____
- 8- Industrial workers have much larger disposable incomes than ever before.
disposable: Kullanılabilir ✓

9- Ski resorts attract not only wealthy to resorts like St. Moritz in Switzerland but also office and factory workers nowadays.
wealthy: zengin, varlıklı ✓

10- The biggest attraction to people who must endure a cold and gloomy northern winter is a vacation in the sun.
endure: Katlanmak, tahammül etmek ✓

11- gloomy: Kesutelli, karamsar ✓

12- A three-day weekend, a distinct possibility in the not-too-distant future, would almost certainly cause an increase at least in domestic tourism.
distinct: _____

13- Even the United States government, which has not been notable for encouraging tourism, launched an advertising campaign.
launch: Baslatmak, girişmek ✓

14- The first aim of tourist promotion has been to retain the established market.
retain: _____

15- Professional travel writers journey from resort area to resort area to report on the facilities and amenities that are available.
amenity: _____

16- The United States government wants to attract foreign visitors and thereby help overcome its huge tourist deficit.
deficit: defis ✓

APPENDIX -L-
Sample Test Paper

Circle the correct equivalents or definitions of the given words. If you don't know the answer, circle *I don't know* option. Please do not try to guess the meaning.

1- fringe benefits

- a) additional advantages to wages or salary
b) financial help
c) money paid to a people who can not work
d) bank interests
e) I don't know

2- resident

- a) chairman
b) person who moves from one place to another
c) inhabitant, person living in a place
d) person who has a power
e) I don't know

3- retain

- a) to determine or identify
b) keep, continue to have or hold
c) leave
d) to start or set in operation
e) I don't know

4- endure

- a) to bring to an end, to complete
b) to determine or identify
c) to keep within limits
d) suffer, undergo pain
e) I don't know

6- spread

- a) to divide into parts or shares
b) to extend or distribute over a period of time
c) to start or set in operation
d) to rise, grow up quickly
e) I don't know

7- spring up

- a) to rise; to grow up quickly
b) to make useful
c) to set, arrange or establish
d) keep, continue to have or hold
e) I don't know

8- disposable

- a) can be easily used and finished
b) easily understood, clear
c) rich
d) dark, depressing
e) I don't know

9- labor union

- a) a legal holiday in honor of workers
b) skilled workers
c) organized association of workers
d) employers' association
e) I don't know

10- throwaway

- a) booklet
b) billboard
c) dust- bin
d) handbill
e) I don't know

11- amenity

- a) pleasure, luxury
b) financial help
c) inhabitant, person living in a place
d) skilled worker
e) I don't know

12- wealthy

- a) regular
b) comfortable
c) rich
d) easily understood, clear
e) I don't know

13- gloomy

- a) sticky
b) dark, depressing
c) can be easily used and finished
d) regular
e) I don't know

14- familiarization

- a) handbill
b) additional advantages to wages or salary
c) making something known
d) organized association of workers
e) I don't know

15- launch

- a) to determine or identify
b) to start or set in operation
c) to divide into parts or shares
d) suffer, undergo pain
e) I don't know

16- deficit

- a) pleasure, luxury
b) made carefully and in detail
c) wrong or misleading information
d) a shortage; condition of not having enough
e) I don't know

APPENDIX -M- Sample Test Paper

Aşağıda verilen İngilizce kelimelerin Türkçe karşılıklarını seçerek, doğru cevabı daire içine alınız.
Eğer doğru cevabı bilmiyorsanız, lütfen tahminde bulunmadan, *bilmiyorum* seçeneğini işaretleyiniz.

- 2- fringe benefits
a) ek faydalar
b) mali yardım
c) işsizlik sigortası
d) banka faizleri
e) bilmiyorum
- 3- resident
a) başkan
b) göçmen
c) bir yerde oturan kimse
d) sorumlu kişi
e) bilmiyorum
- 4- retain
a) belirlemek, tanımlamak
b) elinden kaçırmamak
c) ayırmak, terk etmek
d) başlatmak, girişmek
e) bilmiyorum
- 5- endure
a) sonuçlandırmak
b) belirlemek, tanımlamak
c) kısıtlamak, sınırlamak,
d) katlanmak, tahammül etmek
e) bilmiyorum
- 6- spread
a) bölmek, paylaşmak
b) yaymak, genişletmek
c) başlatmak, girişmek
d) canlanmak, yükselmek
e) bilmiyorum
- 7- spring up
a) canlanmak, yükselmek
b) faydalı hale getirmek
c) saptamak, kararlaştırmak
d) elinden kaçırmamak
e) bilmiyorum
- 8- disposable
a) özgürce kullanılabilen
b) açık, belirgin
c) zengin, varlıklı
d) kasvetli, iç karartıcı
e) bilmiyorum
- 9- labor union
a) işçi bayramı
b) kalifiye işçi
c) işçi sendikası
d) işverenler derneği
e) bilmiyorum
- 10- throwaway
a) kitapçık
b) poster
c) çöp kutusu
d) el ilanı
e) bilmiyorum
- 11- amenity
a) hoşluk, tatlılık
b) mali yardım
c) bir yerde oturan kimse
d) kalifiye işçi
e) bilmiyorum
- 12- wealthy
a) düzenli
b) rahat konforlu
c) zengin, varlıklı
d) apaçık, belirgin
e) bilmiyorum
- 13- gloomy
a) yapışkan
b) kasvetli, iç karartıcı
c) özgürce kullanılabilen
d) düzenli
e) bilmiyorum
- 14- familiarization
a) el ilanı
b) ek faydalar
c) tanıtma, bilgilendirme
d) işçi sendikası
e) bilmiyorum
- 15- launch
a) belirlemek, tanımlamak
b) başlatmak, girişmek
c) bölmek, paylaşmak
d) katlanmak, tahammül etmek
e) bilmiyorum
- 16- deficit
a) hoşluk, tatlılık
b) özenle ve ayrıntılı yapılmış
c) yanlış ya da yanıltıcı bilgi
d) eksiklik
e) bilmiyorum

APPENDIX -N-
Vocabulary Test Results of L2 Glossary Group

Student	Immediate Recall Scores	Immediate Recognition Scores	Delayed Recall Scores	Delayed Recognition Scores
1	1	5	2	3
2	3	6	3	5
3	1	4	2	2
4	1	12	1	6
5	3	7	1	6
6	2	8	2	4
7	3	12	3	9
8	2	5	1	4
9	3	9	1	5
10	4	8	3	5
11	3	8	1	3
12	3	6	1	2
13	2	7	1	5
14	2	8	1	2
15	8	12	2	5
16	6	9	3	3
17	6	10	3	8
18	3	9	1	10
19	3	6	1	5
20	1	3	2	2
21	3	5	2	4
22	6	10	8	11
23	6	9	7	9
24	1	3	3	4
25	5	8	2	6
26	5	12	4	5
27	6	11	5	12
28	2	11	1	1
29	2	13	2	3
30	3	9	0	6

Mean Score: 3,3

Mean Score: 8,16

Mean Score: 2,3

Mean Score: 5,16

APPENDIX -O-
Vocabulary Test Results of L1 Glossary Group

Student	Immediate Recall Scores	Immediate Recognition Scores	Delayed Recall Scores	Delayed Recognition Scores
1	12	16	5	12
2	3	10	6	9
3	8	13	6	12
4	6	10	7	11
5	3	9	5	5
6	9	10	6	9
7	7	7	4	6
8	7	10	7	10
9	4	10	4	8
10	6	8	6	11
11	11	12	3	6
12	12	16	2	9
13	14	16	7	10
14	8	8	2	6
15	10	10	5	9
16	11	11	7	12
17	15	16	2	8
18	4	12	2	7
19	8	15	3	13
20	7	11	2	8
21	9	14	6	14
22	12	15	6	12
23	10	15	5	12
24	6	6	2	5
25	6	11	2	8
26	16	16	14	15
27	5	13	3	11
28	5	9	3	7
29	13	16	9	16
30	10	14	4	13

Mean Score: 8,56

Mean Score:128,1

Mean Score: 4,83

Mean Score: 9,8

APPENDIX -P-
Vocabulary Test Results of Contextual Guessing Group

Student	Immediate Recall Scores	Immediate Recognition Scores	Delayed Recall Scores	Delayed Recognition Scores
1	1	5	0	2
2	2	5	0	4
3	2	9	3	5
4	1	2	1	2
5	1	2	0	1
6	2	5	1	2
7	3	6	1	1
8	2	4	0	3
9	0	2	1	2
10	1	4	0	3
11	1	4	0	3
12	3	4	0	6
13	1	2	2	4
14	1	1	1	1
15	3	3	0	3
16	1	2	0	3
17	0	2	0	1
18	1	5	2	4
19	1	2	0	2
20	1	3	1	3
21	1	9	2	4
22	2	4	1	1
23	1	6	1	5
24	3	3	1	4
25	1	7	2	4
26	2	3	1	3
27	1	3	0	3
28	3	6	1	2
29	2	3	1	6
30	1	4	1	4

Mean Score: 1,5

Mean Score: 4,06

Mean Score: 0,8

Mean Score: 3

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